## University of California, Berkeley Department of Psychology

## Psychology W1 Summer 2018

## Midterm Examination 2

Choose the *best* answer to each of the following 50 questions. Questions are drawn from the text and lectures in roughly equal proportions, with the understanding that there is considerable overlap between the two sources. Usually, only one question is drawn from each major section of each chapter of the required readings; again, sometimes this question also draws on material discussed in class. Read the entire exam through before answering any questions: sometimes one question will help you answer another one.

Most questions can be correctly answered in one of two ways: (1) by fact-retrieval, meaning that you remember the answer from your reading of the text or listening to the lecture; or (2) inference, meaning that you can infer the answer from some general principle discussed in the text or lecture. If you cannot determine the correct answer by either of these methods, try to eliminate at least one option as clearly wrong: this maximizes the likelihood that you will get the correct answer by chance. Also, go with your intuitions: if you have actually done the assigned readings and attended the lectures, your "informed guesses" will likely be right more often than they are wrong.

A provisional answer key will be posted to the course website tomorrow, after the window for the exam has closed. The exam will be provisionally scored to identify and eliminate bad items. The exam will then be rescored with bad items keyed correct for all responses. Grades on the *rescored* exam will be posted to the course website. A final, revised, answer key, and analyses of the exam items, will be posted on the course website after grades are posted.

## This is a closed-book, closed-notes exam.

- 1. Which of these is a feature of implicit memory?
  - a. Implicit memory occurs only in conditions of intense concentration.
  - b. Implicit memory gains strength as time passes.
  - c. Implicit memory can influence you without your awareness. \*\*
  - d. Implicit memory occurs only in humans, and mainly in adults.

Chapter 7. Implicit memory is unconscious memory. For example, neurological patients with the amnesic syndrome show priming effects from words they have studied, even though they don't remember studying the words. And normal subjects can show savings in relearning a list of words they can't remember learning. Some forms of implicit memory, such as repetition priming effects, occur even subjects have not engaged in the "deep" elaborative and organizational processing normally required for good recall.

- 2. Several experiments showed that short-term memory fades rapidly unless it is rehearsed. What aspect of the original experiment increased the probability of forgetting?
  - a. People were memorizing meaningless material. \*\*
  - b. The experiment was conducted before 8 A.M.
  - c. The subjects were inmates at a mental hospital.
  - d. The laboratory room was full of distracting stimuli.

Chapter 7. Any condition that precludes elaborative and organizational processing at the time of encoding will result in poor memory. Meaningless material, by its very nature, is less subject to that kind of "deep" processing.

- 3. Suppose you have one hour to study an assignment. What will happen if you repeatedly interrupt your reading to try to answer questions about it, compared to someone who spent the whole time reading?
  - a. You will remember it more poorly at the end of the hour.
  - b. You will remember it equally well at the end of the hour, but less well later.
  - c. Your long-term retention will be better than that of the other person. \*\*
  - d. You will remember the questions but not the answers.

Chapter 7. This is known as the testing effect, and it's a powerful study aid. Answering questions about material you have read, as opposed to simply reading it over and over, entails the elaborative and organizational activity that promotes deep processing, and thus good long-term memory.

- 4. Retroactive interference (or the lack of it) is a possible explanation for which of the following?
  - a. The primacy effect in memory
  - b. The recency effect in memory \*\*
  - c. The availability heuristic
  - d. The representativeness heuristic

Chapter 7. The recency portion of the serial-position curve reflects good memory for the items presented toward the end of a list. And because these items are at the end of the list, there are no later items to cause retroactive interference. In fact, its retroactive interference from the items at the end of the list that is primarily responsible for poor memory for items from the middle of the list.

- 5. "Early selection" theories of attention:
- a. cannot explain preattentive perceptual processing.
- b. cannot explain preattentive semantic processing. \*\*
- c. explain how subjects perform dichotic listening.
- d. explain how subjects increase attentional capacity.

Lecture 17. Early selection theories hold that attentional selection is based on the physical properties of stimuli, such as their location in space; and, further, that attention is necessary for semantic processing to occur. Therefore, early selection theories of attention can't explain pre-attentive semantic processing, because semantic processing is not supposed to occur pre-attentively.

- 6. In contrast to the organization principle, the elaboration principle applies to the:
- a. encoding of individual items. \*\*
- b. encoding of the relations among items.
- c. short-term consolidation.
- d. long-term consolidation.

Lecture 18. Elaboration involves linking individual items to the subject's pre-existing knowledge, beliefs, and expectations (otherwise known as activated schemata). It is "single-item" processing. Organization links individual items to each other: it is "inter-item" processing.

- 7. Displacement can account for time-dependency in \_\_\_\_\_:
- a. sensory registers and short-term \*\*
- b. sensory registers and long-term
- c. short-term and long-term
- d. episodic and semantic

Lecture 19. The mechanisms of forgetting differ, depending on which storage system we're concerned with. Forgetting from the sensory registers occurs because of decay (rapid fading) and displacement by newly arriving information. Rehearsal doesn't prevent decay from the sensory registers, but it does prevent decay from short-term memory; but the capacity of short-term memory is limited to "7, plus or minus 2" items, so displacement is a major mechanism of forgetting in this case. Long-term memory, whether episodic or semantic, really isn't subject to either decay or displacement: once encoded, storage lasts forever, and forgetting from long-term memory is mostly a function of interference with retrieval (proactive or retroactive).

- 8. In the case of "shallow" encoding, retrieval is most likely to be successful:
- a. with free-recall tests.
- b. with cued-recall tests.
- c. with recognition tests. \*\*
- d. with transfer-appropriate tests.

Lecture 19. To some extent, conditions at retrieval can compensate for conditions at encoding. Retrieval of poorly encoded material is enhanced when the environment is full of rich, informative retrieval cues, such as those present in recognition tests, as opposed to free- or cued-recall tests.

9.	Memory is	best for		information.
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- a. schema-irrelevant
- b. schema- relevant
- c. schema-incongruent \*\*
- d. schema-congruent

Lecture 20. This is about the schematic-processing principle: memory is best for items that are relevant to the subject's currently activated knowledge, beliefs, and expectations. Within the category of schema-relevant information, memory is best for information that is incongruent with prevailing schemata: the extra cognitive activity devoted to explaining surprising events apparently causes more elaborative processing at the time of encoding. Memory is also good for schema-congruent events, however, apparently because the schema itself provides additional cue information at the time of retrieval.

- 10. If you find something by a preattentive process, which of the following is true?
  - a. It gains your attention slowly and gradually.
  - b. It is similar to many other objects in the display.
  - c. You find it as fast among many other objects as among a few. \*\*
  - d. You find it by a top-down process.

Chapter 8. Pre-attentive processing as not constrained by the capacity limitations that affect attentional processing. With pre-attentive processing, you don't have to search each individual item in an array, one by one, to find the target; you can search all of the items at once, in parallel as opposed to serial processing.

- 11. System 1 thinking and System 2 thinking differ in which regard?
  - a. Whether you think in words or imagine something in pictures
  - b. Whether you decide by yourself or consult with others
  - c. Whether you rely on your left hemisphere or your right hemisphere
  - d. Whether you respond quickly or after careful thought \*\*

Chapter 8. In Kahneman's system, System 1 thinking entails automatic processing, and employs vairoius heuristics, or short-cuts, such as representativeness, availability, simulation, and anchoring and adjustment. System 2 thinking entails careful, deliberative thought, based on the principles of normative rationality.

- 12. Which of the following is an example of the framing effect?
  - a. People assume that an old person will walk slower than a young person.
  - b. People take more risk to prevent a loss than to gain something. \*\*
  - c. People overlook the possibility of using a matchbox to hold a candle.
  - d. People put too much confidence in their first impulse on how to answer a question.

Chapter 8. In the framing effect, judgments are influenced by the way the problem is worded. For example in the Disease Problem, judgments differ depending on whether the problem is framed in terms of lives saved or lives lost. As a general rule, people are risk-averse to begin with, and when evaluating risk, "losses loom larger than gains".

- 13. Why do people reading Chinese read fewer characters per fixation than people reading English?
  - a. A Chinese character has to be printed in a larger font, so it occupies more of the retina.
  - b. On average, English-speaking people have more experience at reading.
  - c. Most Chinese characters have ambiguous meanings.
  - d. A Chinese character conveys more information than an English letter. \*\*

Chapter 8. Chinese characters are much more complex than individual letters, or even individual words, in English. Because there is so much more information to extract, people reading Chinese must spend more time on each individual character.

- 14. The concept of the *g* factor in intelligence was based on what evidence?
  - a. Scores on an IQ test correlate positively with activity in certain brain areas.
  - b. Most people who do well on one mental test also do well on many others. \*\*
  - c. Children usually get IQ scores similar to those of their parents, brothers, and sisters.
  - d. People who take the same IQ test repeatedly usually get about the same score.

Chapter 9. Spearman used an early form of factor analysis. From the observation that all of his individual tests were positively intercorrelated, he inferred that there was a strong general factor (*g*) running through them. Of course, the correlations weren't perfect, so he attributed the differences from perfect 1.0 to the particular demands of the specific tests (*s*). Other investigators, however, drew a different conclusion: that while there might be a weak factor of general intelligence, the correlations among the tests were low enough to conclude that there were different kinds of intelligence, not necessarily related to each other. Thus, Thurstone's "primary mental abilities" and Guilford's "structure of intellect".

- 15. Of the following, which is the strongest evidence that heredity is an important contributor to differences in intelligence?
  - a. Adopted children's IQ scores correlate positively with those of the adopting parents.
  - b. On average, IQ scores have been increasing from one generation to the next.
  - c. Monozygotic twins reared in separate families have similar IQ scores. \*\*
  - d. IQ scores tend to be consistent from childhood through adulthood.

Chapter 9. The fact that identical twins have similar IQ scores, despite being raised in separate families, is strong presumptive evidence that there is a genetic contribution to IQ. It's not completely convincing, however, because the adoption process itself may not be random. For example, children from upper-class parents may be adopted by upper-class families, and the apparent similarity between biological parents and children may be mediated, to at least some degree, by the similarity between biological and adoptive parents.

- 16. If a test is "standardized," which of the following must be true?
  - a. The test measures people's innate abilities.
  - b. Someone has established rules for giving the test and interpreting results. \*\*
  - c. The test has a suitable mixture of easy, middle, and difficult items.
  - d. The reliability of the test is equal to its validity.

Chapter 9. Standardized tests must be administered and scored the same way for each individual who takes them; there should be clear procedures for scoring the tests, as well as norms to aid in the interpretation of scores.

- 17. Which of the following should be true for a reliable test of mathematical reasoning?
  - a. Certain people do well on some questions, and others do well on other questions.
  - b. The test should measure innate ability, independent of years of practice.
  - c. Excellent mathematicians can answer correctly without reading the questions.
  - d. The people who do well on one group of questions also do well on the others. \*\*

Chapter 9. Reliability is measured in a number of ways. Perhaps the most familiar is test-retest reliability, meaning that there should be a high correlation between scores when the same people take the test (or an alternative form of the test) on two different occasions. Another kind of reliability is internal consistency, which meaning that scores on individual test items should "hang together", performance on each item correlating with performance on the test as a whole. Internal consistency is often measured by the item-to-total correlation for each item.

- 18. In a three-level classification hierarchy,
- a. subjects will be faster to classify atypical instances of a category.
- b. subjects will be faster to classify typical instances of a category. \*\*
- c. subjects will make fewer mistakes classifying atypical instances.
- d. subjects will make fewer mistakes classifying typical instances.

Lecture 21. Subjects will find it harder to classify atypical instances, taking more time to do so, and they'll also make more mistakes, because atypical instances are, well, *atypical*.

- 19. In a holiday sale, a price of \$6.99 is advertised as "marked down from the manufacturer's suggested retail price (MSRP) of \$9.99". This illustrates the use of the \_\_\_\_\_ heuristic:
- a. representativeness
- b. availability
- c. simulation
- d. anchoring and adjustment \*\*

Lecture 22. The MSRP represents a kind of anchor on the judgment – a reference point against which the sale price is to be compared. Never mind that, in many sales, the store *already* doesn't chare the MSRP, meaning that the sale price is not nearly as good as it appears to be.

- 20. Framing effects violate the principles of normative rationality because:
- a. judgments are based on value, not probability.
- b. gains loom larger than losses in the context of risky decision-making.
- c. judgments should not depend on how a problem is worded. \*\*
- d. judgments are based on maximizing, not satisficing.

Lecture 23. According to the principles of normative rationality, judgments should be based on abstract, almost mathematical descriptions of the problem: the value of an outcome multiplied by its probability. But in framing effects, judgments are affected how a concrete problem is worded – for example, whether it focuses on gains or losses.

- 21. According to expected value theory, people should prefer:
- a. a 1/3 chance of winning \$75 to a 1/2 chance of winning \$40. \*\*
- b. a 1/2 chance of winning \$40 to a 1/3 chance of winning \$75.
- c. a 1/3 chance that none of 400 people will die of a certain disease.
- d. a 2/3 chance that all 400 people will die of the disease.

Lecture 23. Multiply the value of the outcome by its probability, and you'll get the "rational" choice. In Option A, the expected values are \$25 and \$20, respectively, so people should prefer the former. But, in fact, people tend to prefer the latter, because there is a higher probability of winning *something*.

<ul> <li>22. A 25-year-old woman with a "mental age" of 10 would have an IQ of approximately:</li> <li>a. 40.</li> <li>b. 56. **</li> <li>c. 71.</li> <li>d. 85.</li> </ul>
Lecture 24. In the earliest work on intelligence, IQ was calculated as the ratio of mental age to chronological age. $10/25 = .40$ . But the assumption is that mental development essentially stops at adolescence, or at roughly 18 year of age, and $10/18 = .56$ .
<ul> <li>23. The phrase "John was seen by Sally"</li> <li>a. has the same surface structure as "Sally saw John".</li> <li>b. has the same deep structure as "Sally saw John". **</li> <li>c. has a different kernel of meaning than "Sally saw John".</li> <li>d. has a different gist than "Sally saw John".</li> </ul>
Lecture 25. The two phrases have different surface structures, with one in active and the other in the passive voice. But they both mean the same thing, so they have the same deep structure – and the same kernel of meaning, and identical gist.
<ul> <li>24. The sentence "They are visiting firemen" is illustrates the importance of in language.</li> <li>a. morphology</li> <li>b. syntax</li> <li>c. semantics</li> <li>d. pragmatics **</li> </ul>
Lecture 25. Morphological rules have to do with how words are formed from roots, prefixes, etc. Syntax has to do with grammar. Semantics has to do with meanings – of words, phrases, and sentences. But sometimes morphology, semantics, and syntax aren't enough, leaving sentences like these ambiguous. Such sentences can only be decoded by reference to the context for example, whether it's the firemen who are doing the visiting, or the firemen who are being visited.

- 25. What makes microexpressions useful for research on emotion?
  - a. Microexpressions occur almost constantly throughout the day.
  - b. Microexpressions vary greatly among human cultures.
  - c. Microexpressions are easy to detect and record.
  - d. People have little voluntary control over microexpressions. \*\*

Chapter 12. According to theory, anyway, emotional microexpressions – like that little grimace you get around your eyes when you force yourself to smile – occur automatically and unconsciously, can be controlled only with great difficulty, and thus provide a window into the person's true feelings.

- 26. What is a reasonable alternative to the idea of a few basic emotions?
  - a. Emotions vary along continuous dimensions, such as pleasure and arousal. \*\*
  - b. Each culture has a different set of emotions.
  - c. People have just one emotion, which varies in degree.
  - d. Each neurotransmitter is responsible for a different type of emotion.

Chapter 12. The earliest, and in some ways still the most popular view, precisely because it is so reasonable, is that all emotions can be plotted in a two-dimensional space – namely, pleasant-unpleasant and strong-weak. This is essentially the idea behind the various two-dimensional theories, as well as the emotion circumplex – discussed in the lecture as well as the text.

- 27. Which emotion strongly motivates people to prefer a small reward now over a bigger one later?
  - a. Happiness
  - b. Surprise
  - c. Anger
  - d. Sadness \*\*

Chapter 12. The traditional idea about emotion and cognition was that happy people would look on the bright side of things (the glass if half full), while sad people would look on the dark side (it's half empty). But it turns out that there's more to emotion than happiness and sadness, and the various positive and negative emotions have more nuanced effects on perception, memory, and thinking.

- 28. Which of the following tends to make a stressful experience worse?
  - a. Physical exercise while waiting for it
  - b. Unpredictability of the stress \*\*
  - c. Distraction from thinking about the stress
  - d. Attempts to relax

Chapter 12. Actually, unpredictability pretty much defines stress. But even predictable events – a wedding, for example, or a final exam – can be stressful. But add any element of unpredictability, and that only exacerbates the stress. Unpredictability lies at the root of anxiety, just as uncontrollability is linked to depression. The combination is dynamite!

- 29. How does "incentive motivation" differ from "drive"?
  - a. An incentive, unlike a drive, is stronger at some times than at others.
  - b. Incentive motivation is based on weak or uncertain rewards.
  - c. An incentive can motivate action when need is low or absent. \*\*
  - d. An incentive motivates action that continues until the person gains the goal.

Chapter 11. In some respects, the "push" of drive has its complement in the "pull" of incentive. Think of Joey Chestnut, the perpetual (or so it seems) winner of the annual Coney Island Hot-Dog Eating Contest. He's not hungry when he stuffs 72 hot dogs and buns down his gullet in 10 minutes (as he did in 2017). But he certainly has an incentive to win.

- 30. What is the main assumption behind the human-relations approach or Theory Y?
  - a. Employees like variety in their job, responsibility, and a sense of accomplishment. \*\*
  - b. The employer should find the best way to do a job and train workers to do it that way.
  - c. Job satisfaction is highly correlated with excellence of job performance.
  - d. The best way to improve job performance is to increase salaries.

Chapter 11. The human-relations approach basically assumes that there's more to job satisfaction than income.

- 31. With regard to hunger, what does "set point" mean?
  - a. The weight that your body acts to maintain \*\*
  - b. The time when you begin to feel hunger
  - c. The time when you end a meal
  - d. The location where insulin enters the blood stream

Chapter 11. Set-point theory is a variant on homeostatic drive theory. Instead of eating to restore some optimal level of blood sugar, which is the general idea behind homeostasis, set point theory holds that eating is directed toward maintaining a particular level of body mass – a level which differs for each individual (unlike, say, body temperature, which has a much narrower range) and which may not be "optimal" in any abstract sense. Thus some "fat" people simply have a higher setpoint for weight than others (just as some skinny people have a lower setpoint), and they eat, or don't eat, to maintain that setpoint. Homeostatic regulation regulates hunger and eating over short intervals of time (like, meal to meal), and operates on a principle of negative feedback. Setpoints regulate hunger and eating over longer intervals of time (like, months and years), and involve both forward feedback (eating more when you're below the setpoint) and negative feedback (eating less when you're above it).

- 32. How do men with somewhat lower testosterone levels differ from men with high levels?
  - a. Men with lower levels are more likely to have a bisexual orientation.
  - b. On average, men with lower levels have sexual activity more frequently.
  - c. Men with lower levels have trouble establishing a long-lasting relationship.
  - d. Men with lower levels are more likely to have a monogamous relationship. \*\*

Chapter 11. We're talking about the normal range here, but even so testosterone is correlated with activity levels, including aggression and "sex drive" (check out those TV ads for supplements to enhance performance in men with Low-T"). That combination increases the likelihood that a man will have multiple sexual partners.

- 33. What makes a "basic emotion" basic?
- a. It lies close to the major axes of the affect circumplex.
- b. It is closely related to the reflexes of "flight, fight, or freeze".
- c. It is associated with a particular pattern of autonomic nervous system activity.
- d. It is recognized in many different cultures. \*\*

Lecture 26. In Ekman's view, the basic emotions are basic because they're prewired by evolution. And because, by virtue of evolution, we're all alike under the skin, there are few or no cultural differences either in the expression of these basic emotions, or the ability to recognize them in others.

- 34. The neural substrates of basic emotions are likely to be found in the:
- a. brain stem and cerebellum.
- b. limbic system. \*\*
- c. corpus callosum.
- d. cerebral cortex.

Lecture 26. The subcortical limbic system, which includes the amygdala, is generally considered to be the emotion center of the brain.

- 35. "Curiosity" in rhesus monkeys:
- a. is an artifact of prior reinforcement learning.
- b. is similar to Tolman's "latent learning". \*\*
- c. is most likely to be undermined by intrinsic motivation.
- d. depends on how the animal has learned to perceive the contingencies of reinforcement.

Lecture 27. Latent learning occurs even in the absence of reinforcement, and so does curiosity. Harry Harlow found that rhesus monkeys would learn how to manipulate latches to open cabinets, even though there was no food or other reward inside. They were intrinsically motivated to explore their environment.

- 36. Which instruction would decrease someone's tendency toward social loafing?
  - a. "You are unusually good at this task." \*\*
  - b. "Many other people are working on this task right now."
  - c. "We promise to keep your performance anonymous."
  - d. "This is an easy task."

Chapter 13. Social loafing tends to occur when people are anonymous, or there are other opportunities for diffusion of responsibility for group efforts. But when people are identified as skilled at the task, or see themselves as being in a position to make a special contribution to group outcomes, then they tend not to engage in social loafing.

- 37. According to the actor-observer effect, whose behavior do you think is most likely to depend on the situation (as opposed to being a consistent personality trait)?
  - a. You \*\*
  - b. Your close friend
  - c. Someone you just met
  - d. Someone you have seen on television

Chapter 13. People tend to attribute their own behavior to the situation, and the behavior of other people to their traits and other internal characteristics. That's the essence of the actor-observer effect.

- 38. Which of the following is an example of the peripheral route to persuasion?
  - a. This brand of cereal contains more vitamins and fiber than most brands.
  - b. This brand of cereal is endorsed by three movie stars. \*\*
  - c. This brand of cereal is harvested with less harm to the environment.
  - d. This brand of cereal has fewer impurities than other brands.

Chapter 13. The central route to persuasion relies mostly on empirical evidence, logical reasoning, and other "controlled" processes. The peripheral route, by contrast, relies mostly on emotion and other "automatic" processes.

- 39. A computer generates a face with average features. How will most people regard that face?
  - a. Oddly familiar
  - b. Uninteresting
  - c. Attractive \*\*
  - d. Untrustworthy

Chapter 13. As counterintuitive as it may be, people generally find average faces to be more attractive than distinctive ones. This is because of the mere exposure effect on preferences. Almost by definition, we are exposed more often to average faces – or average *anything* than to distinctive ones. And, by virtue of the halo effect, we tend to associate other positive qualities to attractiveness.

- 40. A neighborhood committee is debating whether to spend money on a fireworks celebration. At first, every member favors moderate spending for fireworks. What will probably happen after a discussion?
  - a. The committee will split into opposing factions and fail to make a decision.
  - b. The committee will spend less than what most members originally favored.
  - c. The committee will spend more than what most members originally favored. \*\*
  - d. The committee will spend about the average of what most members originally favored.

Chapter 13. This is about the group polarization effect (there's a similar effect in group decision-making known as the "risky shift"). In group deliberation, people will tend to take more extreme positions than the group average, as a way of making themselves stand out from the group. If the group is already leaning one way or the other, the result will be to move each individual, and thus the group as a whole, even more in that direction. But if the members of the group are seriously divided, the two groups will move even further in their initial direction, resulting in a group that is even more divided than it was before?

- 41. According to Freud, transforming aggressive tendencies into becoming a surgeon is an example of what?
  - a. Projection
  - b. Regression
  - c. Reaction formation
  - d. Sublimation \*\*

Chapter 14. Surgeons cut things up. According to Freud, this would be an example of sublimation, transforming primitive aggressive impulses into something with positive social value. In projection, the (unconsciously aggressive) person would see *others*, but not him- or herself, as aggressive. In regression, he or she would revert to infantile modes of aggression – like engaging in "biting" humor. In reaction formation, the (unconsciously) aggressive individual would be outwardly polite and cooperative.

- 42. Which of the Big Five personality traits correlates most strongly with happiness?
  - a. Openness to experience
  - b. Conscientiousness
  - c. Agreeableness
  - d. Extraversion \*\*

Chapter 14. It's interesting, isn't it, that the most agreeable people aren't also the happiest? Probably because they find themselves so often agreeing with people who themselves aren't very agreeable. But extraverted people seek social contact, and so they have a wider circle of friends and acquaintances than other people do: and that's what makes them so happy.

- 43. Which of the following poses a difficulty in evaluating personality tests?
  - a. Most people are unwilling to allow psychologists to evaluate their personality.
  - b. Personality fluctuates substantially from one time to another, for most individuals.
  - c. The personality tests with the highest validity tend to have the lowest reliability.
  - d. Most people accept almost any assessment of themselves as valid. \*\*

Chapter 14. This is known as the "Barnum Effect", after the entertainment impresario who famously said that "There's a sucker born every minute". One way of evaluating the validity of a personality test is to see whether people accept the outcomes of testing. But, as Barnum knew, and as the popularity of horoscopes attests, people are likely to accept whatever is said about them. It's a variant on the peripheral route to persuasion, where people are persuaded about themselves. For this reason, the better evidence about validity is provided by correlations between test scores and objective evidence of relevant behavior – for example, the correlation between Conscientiousness and tardiness in turning in homework assignments.

- 44. According to the Doctrine of Interactionism:
- a. people shape the situations to which they respond. \*\*
- b. emotion shapes cognition in the absence of reward-based motivation.
- c. interpersonal behavior is primarily determined by the "Big Five" personality traits.
- d. self-actualization can only occur when more basic needs of achievement, affiliation, and power have been satisfied.

Lecture 28. There was (and still is) a heated debate in personality and social psychology about which is the more powerful predictor of behavior: personality characteristics such as the Big Five personality traits, or features of the situational context such as the presence of people and what they are doing. The whole debate was misguided, from the point of view of Lewin, Bowers, and other interactionists, who understood that the person and the situation can't really be disentangled, because people create the situations to which they respond, through evocation, selection, behavioral manipulation, and cognitive transformation. The situation is complicated even further by Bandura's concept of reciprocal determinism – in which, to take an example, the situation shapes the person just as the person shapes the situation.

45.	As a general	rule	are more	consistent	across	specific	situat	ions
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- a. tertiary traits \*\*
- b. secondary traits
- c. primary traits
- d. habitual actions

Lecture 29. Traits are supposed to render behavior coherent, stable across time, consistent across situations, and predictable. But observed at low levels of abstraction, behavior is none of these things. The best evidence for stability and consistency is at higher levels, with tertiary traits such as "intellectual good-bad" (intelligent, open) and "social good-bad" (extraverted, agreeable, conscientious, and emotionally stable). These tertiary traits are so abstract that there are lots of different ways that people can display them. But as you move down the hierarchy, through secondary traits like extraversion and primary traits like assertiveness, behavior becomes increasingly variable, both across time (hence, low stability) and across situations (hence, low consistency). Precisely because there are so many ways to display intellectually or socially desirable behavior, a person who engages in socially desirable behavior in one situation is likely to engage in socially desirable behavior in another situation.

- 46. Mischel's "personality coefficient" represents:
- a. the average correlations among the Big Five personality traits.
- b. the extent to which we can predict behavior from knowledge of a person's traits. \*\*
- c. the ratio of ego control to ego resiliency.
- d. the ratio of utility to validity.

Lecture 30. Walter Mischel has been a vigorous critic of the Doctrine of Traits, and especially the idea that knowing people's abstract personality traits will allow us to predict what they will do in particular situations. In a 1968 book and elsewhere, he amassed evidence suggesting that the typical correlation between a personality trait (like agreeableness) and some trait-relevant behavior (like smiling at strangers) rarely exceeded r = .30; in other words, that individual differences in personality accounted for less than  $10\% (.30^2)$  of the population variance in behavior. Mischel somewhat sarcastically dubbed this value the "Personality Coefficient", and suggested that it represented the upper limit of predictability. What's the alternative? Some social psychologists argued that better prediction could be obtained by looking at the situation rather than the person (thereby invoking the Doctrine of Situationism), but Mischel himself argued that the best prediction would be obtained by knowing how the person *perceived* the situation – consistent with the Doctrine of Interactionism.

- 47. The James-Lange theory of emotion illustrates the:
- a. effect of the person on behavior.
- b. effect of behavior on the person. \*\*
- c. effect of the situation on behavior.
- d. effect of behavior on the situation.

Lecture 30. According to Bandura's Doctrine of Reciprocal Determinism, people engage in behavior, but behavior also feeds back to shape the person. The traditional view of emotion is that people's emotional states cause them to behave the way they do: we see the bear, which makes us feel afraid, and this fear makes us run. But James and Lange, each in their own way, reversed the direction of causality: we see the bear, which makes us run, and this running makes us feel afraid.

- 48. In the conformity experiments similar to those conducted by Asch:
- a. the mere presence of other people facilitates conformity when the task is simple.
- b. the mere presence of other people facilitates conformity when the task is complex.
- c. conformity is highly correlated with the relative strength of the majority.
- d. just one or two dissenters is enough to reduce conformity to the majority opinion. \*\*

Lecture 31. There is a mere presence effect, but it's an effect on task performance, not conformity. In the Asch paradigm, conformity increases as the number in the majority increases, but it quickly reaches a plateau, after which increasing the size of the majority has no effect on conformity. But if there are just a couple of dissenters, no matter how large the majority (within the limits tested in the experimental situation), their presence tends to diminish conformist tendencies.

- 49. Repeated exposure:
- a. increases preference judgments. \*\*
- b. increases cognitive dissonance.
- c. decreases downward social comparison.
- d. decreases the sleeper effect.

Lecture 32. This is about the mere exposure effect, in which repeated exposure to an object, even if incidental and non-substantive, tends to increase subjects' preference for that object.

- 50. In the multi-trial Prisoner's Dilemma:
- a. cooperative actors lead initially cooperative partners to become more competitive.
- b. cooperative actors lead initially competitive partners to become even more competitive.
- c. competitive actors lead initially cooperative partners to become more competitive. \*\*
- d. competitive actors lead initially competitive partners to become more cooperative

Lecture 32. This is about the assimilation of cooperators to competitors, an excellent example of how people affect their environments through behavioral manipulation. In single-trial versions of the Prisoner's Dilemma game, subjects are either cooperative or competitive, there's just a single trial, and the game is over. But in the multitrial version, the two players keep making choices over a number of trials. In this case, subjects who behave in a competitive manner will, eventually, induce competitive behavior in their partners, even if the partners were initially inclined to be cooperative. So, the competitors shaped the environment into a competitive one, and that environment in turn led the cooperators to become more competitive.