

University of California, Berkeley
Department of Psychology

Psychology W1
Summer 2016

Midterm Examination 2

KEY

Correct answers marked
with a double asterisk (**)

Preliminary Feedback

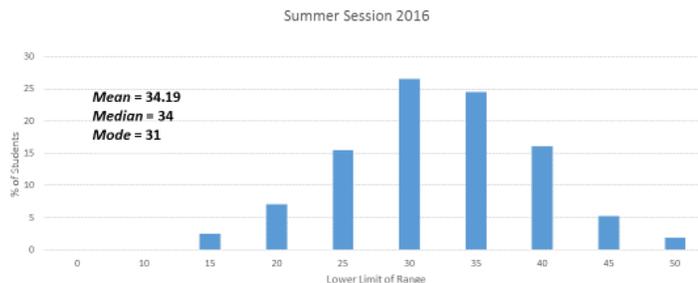
What follows is the final feedback on Midterm Examination 2 – the correct answers and brief explanations of them, as well as the results of the item analysis.

On initial scoring, the mean score on the exam was 33.12, $SD = 7.27$ (66%). The reliability of the exam, measured by Cronbach's "coefficient alpha", was .84, which is excellent. Statistical analysis, following the procedures described in the Exam Information page of the Lecture Supplements revealed only one (1) "bad" item: #44, which was, admittedly, pretty tricky (but it made a good point!).

This item was rescored correct for all responses. The average score on the rescored exam rose to 34.19, $SD = 7.22$, or 68% -- right in the middle of the usual range (65-70%) for my exams.

Exam scores posted to the bCourses gradebook reflect the rescoring. Many students saw their scores go up by a point.

Distribution of Midterm 2 Scores



The figure shows the distribution of scores on Midterm 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. If you spent the next year or two practicing your ability to memorize numbers and recite them immediately, how would your short-term memory probably change?
 - A. You might be able to memorize as many as 10 digits at a time, but no more than that.
 - B. The capacity of your short-term memory would increase for numbers, letters, and other types of information.
 - C. You would eventually grow so confused that you could not memorize any more numbers.
 - D. You would learn to use chunking to store larger numbers in short-term memory. **

80% of the class got this item correct; item-to-total $r_{pb} = .36$. Chapter 7. Short term memory—which is a temporary storage of recent events—is thought to have a capacity of seven, plus or minus two. You can store more information in short-term memory by chunking—that is, by grouping items into meaningful sequences or clusters. In a lengthy experiment, one college student went from only being able to recall 7 digits at a time to 80 digits at a time. He accomplished this over a year and a half, working 3 to 5 hours per week, by using elaborate strategies for chunking. With practice he was able to recognize larger and larger chunks of numbers. This suggests that if you spent the next year or two practicing your ability to memorize numbers and recite them immediately, you too would learn to use chunking to store larger numbers in short-term memory.

2. Bahrick's studies on people's ability to remember a foreign language showed that
 - A. memory tended to improve over time.
 - B. memory for verbs was greater than for nouns.
 - C. memory initially declined for the first few years but then became stable. **
 - D. memory for words with a Latin origin were better than those with a Greek origin.

74% correct; $r_{pb} = .33$. Chapter 7. Bahrick found that people who had studied Spanish 1 or 2 years ago remembered more than those who had studied it 3 to 6 years ago. However, beyond 6 years, the retention rate appeared to be stable. This suggests that people experience a steep decline in foreign language memory from year 1 to year 6, but whatever is remembered at year 6 will likely be remembered for many years to come. In other words, memory initially declines for the first few years but then becomes stable.

3. Many students who get the best grades read the text more slowly. Why?
- A. Good students often get bored and do something else before finishing the reading.
 - B. A larger percentage of good students than poor students have impaired vision.
 - C. Good students tend to have slower action potentials in their brains.
 - D. Good students increase depth of processing by thinking about the material. **

99%, .09. Chapter 7. According to the depth-of-processing principle, how easily you retrieve a memory depends on the number and types of associations you form. Simply reading a chapter without much thought is shallow processing, which produces only weak fleeting memories. A student that stops and considers various points that she reads, relates them to her experiences, and thinks about her own examples to illustrate each principle might get through the chapter more slowly. However, her processing would be deeper and her recall of the material easily—making it more likely for her to get the best grade.

4. Which type of memory was most impaired in patient H. M.?
- A. short-term memory for words
 - B. memory for facts learned long before his operation
 - C. forming new declarative and episodic memories **
 - D. forming new procedural memories

81%, .33. Chapter 7 and Lecture 17. Patient H.M.'s hippocampus and related structures were destroyed in an attempt to control epileptic seizures. After the surgery, H.M. displayed a retrograde amnesia for events occurring during the previous years prior to the surgery—which improved later (eliminating choice B). But more important, he displayed persistent anterograde amnesia for all new experiences. He could not remember current events and he could not learn new facts—that is, he could not form new declarative and episodic memories (choice C). His implicit memories remained intact (eliminating choice D; since procedural memory is a special kind of implicit memory). He also had normal digit-span performance, but impaired free recall. Suggesting that he had normal short-term memory, but impaired long-term memory (eliminating choice A).

5. In an experiment, subjects are read a list of 15 words, out loud, at a rate of 3 words per second. Group A attempts recalls the list immediately after presentation, while Group B recalls the list after a distraction of 30 seconds of mental arithmetic.
- A. The primacy effect will be greater for Group A than for Group B.
 - B. The primacy effect will be greater for Group B than for Group A.
 - C. The recency effect will be greater for Group A than for Group B. **
 - D. The recency effect will be greater for Group B than for Group A.

64%, .49. Lecture 17. The enhanced memorability of items appearing early in the list is called the primacy effect. The enhanced memorability of items appearing late in the list is called the recency effect. The primacy and recency effects are affected by different sorts of variables. Primacy is affected by increasing the interval between adjacent items. Since the words are read at the same rate for both groups, there will be no difference in the primacy effects (eliminating choices A and B). Engaging the subject in a distracting task immediately after presentation of the list, and then increasing the length of the retention interval, reduces recency—virtually abolishing that serial position effect—but has no effect on primacy. Thus, the recency effect will be greater for Group A than for Group B, since the distraction task reduce the recency effect for Group B.

6. According to “early selection” models of attention:

- A. pre-attentive processing is limited to the physical features of a stimulus. **
- B. pre-attentive processing is limited to the semantic features of a stimulus.
- C. pre-attentive processing occurs after conscious awareness.
- D. conscious attention is not necessary for meaning analysis.

64%, .37. Lecture 17. According to an early selection model of attention by Broadbent, attentional selection occurs early in the information processing sequence—before meaning analysis. Thus, attention is the pathway to awareness (eliminating choice C). Preattentive processing is unconscious processing and is limited to a very narrow range of physical properties, such as the spatial location and physical features of the stimulus (choice A). Semantic analysis occurs post-attentively. This is in contrast to the late selection model where both physical and semantic analysis occur early in information processing before attention is directed to them.

7. Rote rehearsal would be expected to:

- A. improve retention in long-term memory.
- B. focus on physical features of the studied material. **
- C. diminish orthographic and acoustic analyses of list items.
- D. improve memory for long wordlists.

28%, .45. Lecture 18. Rote maintenance rehearsal, in which we mentally repeat an event over and over without adding anything to it, maintains an item in “immediate” memory (short-term, primary, or working memory), but does not create a particularly long-lasting trace. Thus, it does not improve retention in long-memory (eliminating choice A) or improve memory for long wordlists (since our “immediate” memory is only able to store seven plus or minus two words; eliminating choice D). Rote rehearsal does not involve an elaboration of the item; thus the depth of processing is shallow and would focus on shallow features of an item such as the orthographic (that is, the physical features) and acoustic features (consistent with choice B, not choice C).

8. Anterograde amnesia is caused by a disruption in _____ consolidation.

- A. short-term **
- B. long-term
- C. temporary
- d. permanent

58%, .23. Lecture 19. Short-term consolidation is a byproduct of encoding. It occurs within seconds of the event, and its disruption causes anterograde amnesia. Long-term consolidation, by contrast, is mediated by a process that transpires over a more substantial period of time -- at least hours, perhaps days, after encoding. Its disruption is responsible for retrograde amnesia. There is now considerable evidence that long-term consolidation is facilitated by a period of sleep after learning.

9. Memory is poorest for events that are _____ with respect to the subject's current expectations and beliefs.

- A. congruent
- B. incongruent
- C. irrelevant **
- D. abstractions

58%, .34. Lecture 20. According to the Schematic Processing Principle, memory for an event is a function of the relationship between that event and pre-existing schemata (representing prior knowledge, expectations, and beliefs). Schema-congruent events fit right into the subject's prevailing schemata (that is their expectations and beliefs), and this schema provides extra cues at the time of retrieval, which is more likely to succeed. Schema-incongruent events, however, do not fit their expectations and beliefs. They are surprising, not predicted by what we know, and therefore must be explained. This explanatory activity, in turn, results in more elaborate processing at the time of encoding, and better recall at retrieval. Schema-irrelevant events are not unexpected, and so do not receive much elaboration at the time of encoding; nor does the schema provide effective cues to their retrieval. Because of this double disadvantage, schema-irrelevant events are poorly recalled.

10. You look at a series of gauges. Most have their indicators pointing to the right, but one is pointing down. You notice the odd one immediately, regardless of how many other gauges are present. What directed your attention?

- A. an aversive process
- B. a top-down process
- C. an attentive process
- D. a pre-attentive process **

69%, .39. Chapter 8. Preattentive process draws our attention to an unusual object. The usual visual information stands out immediately, enabling us to spot the gauge pointing down. In contrast, relying on attentive processing, would require you to search each gauge one by one until reaching the odd one.

11. What basic conclusion follows from the research on change blindness?

- A. Our attention is automatically drawn to anything that changes.
- B. We are evolutionarily prepared to detect sameness, not change.
- C. We notice only the gist of a scene and a few details we attended to. **
- D. Attention wanders randomly and unpredictably from one item to another.

84%, .32. Chapter 8. Change blindness refers to the failure to detect changes in parts of a scene. Changes that occur slowly or between one view or another are seldom noticed. This is due to your eyes darting around from one fixation to another when you are looking at a complex scene. During each fixation, you are only able to attend to a few details. Since you cannot attend to every detail at once, you can easily overlook something that changes. This suggests that we notice only the gist of a scene and a few details we attend to.

12. When is it better to use heuristics than an algorithm to solve a problem?

- A. when there are too many possible hypotheses to test them all **
- B. when it is necessary to get an answer that is precisely accurate
- C. when it is possible to calculate the correct answer quickly and simply
- D. when the question concerns physics or chemistry.

79%, .36. Chapter 8. An algorithm refers to an explicit procedure for calculating an answer or testing every hypothesis. For example, you might test all the hypotheses in a problem and then choose the best one. However, this would not be feasible in a situation where there are too many possible hypotheses to test them all. A better way to solve such a problem would be to use a heuristic—which is a strategy for simplifying a problem and generating a satisfactory guess.

13. In one study experts made predictions of U.S. and world politics over the next several years. Which type of expert made the LEAST accurate predictions?

- A. Those who considered the greatest amount of information.
- B. Those who were political moderates.
- C. Those who admitted low confidence in their predictions.
- D. Those who were highly confident of their predictions. **

55%, .37. Chapter 8. In a 1992 study of people who made their living by analyzing and predicting events, Philip Tetlock asked them to predict world events in the next 10 years and found very low accuracy especially among those with the most confidence. This suggests that there are some disadvantages to overconfidence.

14. What evidence supports Spearman's concept of the *g* factor in intelligence?

- A. People who do well on one kind of test usually do well on another. **
- B. People's scores on a given test are usually stable over many years.
- C. Scores correlate more highly for monozygotic twins than for dizygotic twins.
- D. Certain tests are fairer than others for immigrants who do not yet speak English.

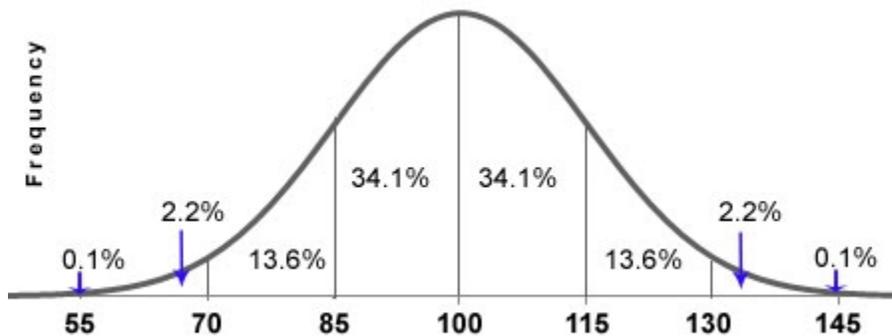
90%, .36. Chapter 9. Spearman's *g* factor refers to a general ability in a person. Thus, according to this concept people who do well on one kind of test would usually do well on another. The simplest interpretation of this is that all the test measure a single underlying ability (e.g. working memory).

15. If you solve a problem of a type you never saw before, what type of intelligence do you show?
- A. multiple intelligence
 - B. triarchic intelligence
 - C. fluid intelligence **
 - D. crystallized intelligence

82%, .29. Chapter 9. Fluid intelligence refers to the ability to perceive relationships, solve unfamiliar problems and gain new knowledge. Thus, you would use this knowledge to solve a type of problem that you have never seen before. In contrast, crystallized intelligence consist of acquired skills and knowledge and is used to apply that knowledge in specific situations.

16. Someone who scores 115 on the WAIS-III has scored
- A. better than 25% of people the same age.
 - B. better than 50% of people the same age.
 - C. better than 84% of people the same age. **
 - D. worse than 84% of people the same age.

78%, .33. Chapter 9. Like the Stanford Binet, the WAIS-III scores are computed from tables set up to ensure that a given IQ score means the same at different ages. The mean IQ score from the WAIS-III is 100 with a standard deviation of 15 and scores are normally distributed (i.e they fall on a bell curve). So, someone with a score of 115 is 1 standard deviation above the average—meaning that they would not only do better than the average (50% of people), they would do better than a substantial majority of people (84%). See illustration below to a more detailed understanding on how the 84% is actually calculated:



Each percentage represents that percentage of people expected to get a score within each range of scores—in a normal distribution with an average of 100 and standard deviation of 15. A person with a score of 115 would score better than the 0.1% expected to get a score below 55, the 2.2% expected to get between 55 and 70, etc. In total, a person with a score of 115 would score better than about 84% of people. That is, $0.1\% + 2.2\% + 13.6\% + 34.1\% + 34.1\% \sim 84\%$.

17. Suppose a new test determines people's intelligence scores by this formula: Length of head divided by width of head X 100. What can we predict about this test?

- A. It will have high reliability but low validity. **
- B. It will have high reliability and high validity.
- C. It will have low reliability and low validity.
- D. It will have low reliability and high validity.

66%, .45. Chapter 9. If a test has high reliability, it produces the same result every time. In this case, the criteria used to determine the score (i.e the length and width of someone's head) is unlikely to change very much with repeated measurements. Thus, this test is highly reliability. Validity refers to the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of the scores for the intended purpose—i.e. does the test measure what it claims to measure. There is no evidence that increased head length and width are related to increase intelligence. Thus, the scores of this test, which are based on measurements of the head, are not valid indicators of intelligence. This test has low validity.

18. Subjects judge that a sparrow is bird more quickly than they judge it as an animal. But they also judge that a dog is a better example of an animal than it is of a mammal. This is an example of:

- A. disjunctive categories..
- B. unclear category membership.
- C. imperfect nesting. **
- D. variations in typicality.

35%, .45. Lecture 21. In a perfect nesting hierarchical arrangement of categories, the members of subordinate categories should be judged as more similar to members of immediately superordinate categories than to more distant ones, for the simple reason that the two categories share more features in common. Thus, a sparrow should be judged more similar to a bird than to an animal and a dog should be judged more similar to a mammal than an animal. However, the case above demonstrates that this principle is often violated, since the subjects they judge that a dog is a better example of an animal than it is of a mammal. This suggests that an imperfect nesting hierarchical arrangement is being utilized.

19. The knowledge-based view holds that categorization:

- A. is based on similarity.
- B. involves matching a target to an "average" instance.
- C. involves matching a target to any instance of a category.
- D. is based on explanatory theories. **

29%, .30. Lecture 21. According to the knowledge-based (or theory-based) view, categorization is based on knowledge, not similarity. Categories are not represented by either features (defining or characteristic) or exemplars (each with their own individual sets of features). Rather, categories are represented by a theory that explains why category members have the features they have.

20. When the US Supreme Court determined that a tomato is a vegetable, rather than a fruit, it appeared to rely on the _____ heuristic.

- A. representativeness **
- B. availability
- C. simulation
- D. anchoring and adjustment

79%, .22. Lecture 22. The representativeness heuristic may be defined as a strategy whereby judgments are based on the extent to which an event is similar in essential features to its parent population. The categorization of a tomato as a vegetable rather than as a fruit illustrates the representativeness heuristic in categorization. Tomatoes don't resemble fruits, at least so far as their functions in foods are concerned. Rather, they resemble vegetables (i.e. they are served on salads). The Supreme Court judgment was based on family resemblance: tomatoes have features resembling those of other vegetables, but they don't have features resembling those of other fruits. The tomato is not a typical fruit; rather, it more closely resembles the prototypical vegetable.

21. In Gamble A, there is a 1/3 chance of winning \$75. In Gamble B, there is a 1/2 chance of winning \$40. According to expected utility theory:

- A. subjects will generally prefer A over B.
- B. subjects will generally prefer B over A. **
- C. subjects with risky prospects will prefer B over A.
- D. subjects who are risk-averse will prefer A over B.

46%, .20. Lecture 23. According to expected utility theory, decisions are based on a choice among utilities, not values. Utilities, in turn, are described in terms of personal value, which may be different from monetary value. In general, expected utility theory assumes that people are averse to risk-- they prefer a sure thing, and in this case 1/2 odds are closer to a sure thing than 1/3 odds are. The bet with the larger value (Gamble A) has surplus value, but people are likely to judge it has having no greater utility than gamble B. Thus, it is deemed not worth the risk.

22. In contrast to the "Memory Span" subscale, the "Vocabulary" subscale of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) is a test of:

- A. Spearman's *g*.
- B. Spearman's *s_n*.
- C. Cattell's *G_f*.
- D. Cattell's *G_c*. **

41%, .46. Lecture 24. According to Cattell, crystallized intelligence, abbreviated as *G_c*, was a product of the environment, especially educational experience. Since vocabulary is largely influenced by one's education, it is a test of *G_c*. This is in contrast to memory span, which is influenced by a general ability to perceive relationships (regardless of educational experience) and is a test of fluid intelligence or Cattell's *G_f*.

23. Why would someone say that "Human language is an embarrassment for evolutionary theory"?

- A. Many nonhuman animal species have communication modes that have all the hallmarks of human language.
- B. Our closest primate relatives may have semantics, but they don't have syntax. **
- C. Birds and bees have human-like linguistic communication, but primates and other animals do not.
- D. Nonhuman animals have no means of communicating their internal states to each other.

57%, .32. Lecture 25. The general consensus is that chimpanzees—our closest primate relatives-- can acquire some aspects of language semantics, learning the meanings of symbolic "words", but have little or no capacity for linguistic syntax, or the ability to string words together into meaningful utterances. This suggests that human language is indeed a unique ability in nature.

24. A certain tribe's language has only words for *dark* and *light* colors. When tested on their memory for color chips, they were (assume that the color chips were matched for brightness and saturation):

- A. able to distinguish yellow from green, but not blue from red.
- B. able to distinguish blue from red, but not yellow from green.
- C. able to distinguish blue, red, yellow, and green from each other. **
- D. unable to distinguish blue, red, yellow, and green from each other.

51%, .42. Lecture 25. Eleanor Rosch and David Olivier worked with the Dani, a tribe in New Guinea whose language has only two color terms – mili for "dark" and "cold" colors and mola for "light" and "warm" colors. When asked to name color patches, the Dani obviously performed differently from English-speaking college students. But when asked match color patches from memory, the Dani performed the same way the English speakers did, yielding highly similar "color spaces". In other words, the Dani perceived and remembered colors the same way that English speakers did. That is, they were able to distinguish blue, red, yellow, and green from each other from memory despite the limitations of their language.

25. Which part of your nervous system increases digestion and other non-emergency functions?

- A. parasympathetic nervous system **
- B. sympathetic nervous system
- C. corpus callosum
- D. peripheral nervous system

90%, .26. Chapter 12. The parasympathetic nervous system decreases the heart rate and increases digestion and other non-emergency functions. This is contrast to the sympathetic nervous system, which arouses the body for "fight or flight" by increasing your heart rate, breathing rate, sweating, and flow of epinephrine.

26. According to Schachter and Singer's theory of emotions, each emotion reflects
- A. a unique and recognizable physiological condition.
 - B. a special pattern of neuronal activity in the cerebellum.
 - C. a mental experience unrelated to arousal of the autonomic nervous system.
 - D. an interpretation of autonomic arousal based on appraisal of the situation. **

83%, .33. Chapter 12. According to Schachter and Singer, the intensity of someone's physiological state determines the intensity of the emotion, but a person uses cognitive appraisal of the situation to identify the type of emotion he or she is feeling. Thus, the emotion reflects an interpretation of autonomic arousal based on appraisal of the situation.

27. The guilty-knowledge test is similar to a polygraph test except that the guilty-knowledge test
- A. measures a wider variety of physiological processes, including brain scans.
 - B. uses questions that should make guilty people nervous, but not other people. **
 - C. asks people to write everything they know, instead of answering true-false questions.
 - D. can be administered to a large number of suspects at the same time.

71, .17. Chapter 12. The guilt-knowledge test is a modified version of the polygraph test that produces more accurate results by asking questions that should be threatening to only someone who knows the facts of the crime (i.e. makes a guilty person feel nervous, but not others). Someone who shows arousal to the correct details are presumed to have knowledge that only a guilty person would have.

28. In what way, if any, is brief and mild stress helpful?

- A. It decreases cortisol levels and helps people lose weight.
- B. It activates the parasympathetic nervous system and improves sleep.
- C. It improves memory and activates the immune system. **
- D. It produces no benefits.

79%, .32. Chapter 11. Stress activates your adrenal glands to release the hormone cortisol, which increases memory and attention. Stress also activates a part of your immune system, preparing your body to fight infections that might result (theoretically) from an injury from the threatening stimulus.

29. Drive theories disagree with incentive theories of motivation with regard to how they answer the following question:

- A. Are all motivations equally strong or do some take priority over others?
- B. Are the motivations of humans fundamentally similar to or different from the motivations of other species?
- C. Does motivation depend on factors within the individual or on stimuli from the environment? **
- D. Are some people more motivated than others because of differences in heredity or differences in environment?

77%, .17. Chapter 11. According to drive theories, motivation is driven by internal needs that drive certain behaviors (i.e. we eat because we are hungry). Once these needs are satisfied, the person is no longer motivated. In contrast, incentive theories posit that motivation is driven by external stimuli that pull us towards an action (i.e. we eat because we see appealing food). Thus, in response to the question "Does motivation depend on factors within the individual or on stimuli from the environment," drive theories would argue that it depends on factors within the individual, while incentive theories would argue that it depends on stimuli from the environment. In reality, most motivated behaviors are driven by a combination of both.

30. Which of the following demonstrates a set point in body weight?

- A. After certain kinds of brain damage, individuals gain weight.
- B. Most people maintain a nearly steady body weight over a long time. **
- C. Most people are hungrier during the day than they are at night.
- D. People eat more when food tastes good and less when it tastes bad.

86%, .34. Chapter 11. A set point is the level that a body works to maintain. Thus, the fact that most people maintain a nearly steady body weight over a long time demonstrates that there is a set point of body weight.

31. Do childhood “gender-nonconforming” behaviors predict adult sexual orientation?

- A. Yes, equally well for males and females.
- B. Fairly well for males, much less well for females. **
- C. Fairly well for females, much less well for males.
- D. Hardly at all for either males or females.

45%, .39. Chapter 11. Most (not all) gay men have a history of childhood “gender-nonconforming” behavior. In contrast, a fair number of women with a lesbian orientation in young adulthood do not have any previous indicators. This suggests that girls’ early gender-nonconforming behaviors are poor predictors of sexual orientation in adulthood.

32. According to Ekman’s theory of emotion:

- A. rapid autonomic responses mediate emotional reactions.
- B. certain facial expressions of emotion are universal. **
- C. emotional responses are mediated by the amygdala.
- D. positive and negative emotions lie at opposite ends of a single continuum of emotional arousal.

88%, .40. Lecture 26. Paul Ekman proposed that there are certain basic emotions that are part of our evolutionary heritage and, thus, are shared with other primates, mammals, and even some non-mammalian species. Because of this, Ekman argued that these basic emotions are universal across cultures -- everybody has them, whether they’re Germans or Japanese, Canadian or Zulu, and everybody expresses them the same way on the face, and everybody recognizes these facial expressions.

33. According to the opponent-process theory of acquired motivation:

- A. the “A State” ,such as a drug-induced “high”, is analogous to parasympathetic arousal.
- B. the “A State” weakens with repetition.
- C. the “B state” has a slow onset. **
- D. the “B state” is a secondary motive, acquired through learning and reinforcement.

39%, .32. Lecture 27. The basic idea of the opponent-process theory is that each emotional state (call it the A State) automatically generates its opposite (call it the B State). The “B” state is a slave to the “A” state. A person’s emotional experience at any particular moment in time reflects the joint effects of the A and B processes. **The B state recruits and dissipates more slowly than the A state.** Thus, when the stimulus is removed that “A” state dissipates quickly, while the person still feels the effects of the “B” state. In addition, the “B” state is strengthened with repetition. This, in drug addiction, the person theoretically is not trying to induce the “A” state-- a “high”-- but trying to avoid the B state—the withdrawal.

34. Extrinsic rewards undermine intrinsic motivation:

- A. when they satisfy physiological and safety needs.
- B. when people are low in epistemic curiosity or need for closure.
- C. when rewards are perceived as controlling behavior. **
- D. when rewards provide new information about performance.

55%, .35. Lecture 27. Intrinsic motivation can be undermined by a number of situational factors. In particular, the type of reward can influence a person's intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic rewards that are perceived as controlling (i.e. they are incentives intended to get a person to engage in the task at all or to perform at a particular standard, regardless of what they really want) tend to undermine intrinsic motivation...while rewards perceived as informative (i.e. they communicate to the person (and others) how well he or she has done) tend not to.

35. One important reason why people sometimes fail to help a person in distress is

- A. group polarization.
- B. self-monitoring.
- C. cognitive dissonance.
- D. diffusion of responsibility. **

88%, .42. Chapter 13. In 1969, Latane and Darley proposed that being in a crowd decreases our probability of helping a person in distress because of diffusion of responsibility—that i.e. we feel less responsibility to act when other people are equally able to act.

36. Two groups of boys at a summer camp at Robbers' Cave, Oklahoma, each developed prejudice, and hostility toward members of the other group. The hostility turned to friendship when

- A. the groups were allowed to compete with each other for prizes.
- B. the groups were required to work cooperatively toward a common goal. **
- C. the counselors told the boys they could no longer visit the nearby girls' camp.
- D. one group attacked and subdued the other.

94%, .28. Chapter 13. In the Robber's Cave experiment, the groups competed for prizes in sports, treasure hunts and other activities. With each competition, the antagonism between the two groups grew more intense (eliminating choice A). The boys made more threatening posters, shouted insults, and engaged in food fights. The counselors tried to reverse this by having the group work together to repair a water leak and then by having them pool their resources to buy a desired movie. Gradually the hostility turned to friendship—suggesting that competition breeds hostility while cooperation leads to friendship (choice B).

37. Which of the following is a way to produce cognitive dissonance?

- A. Use coercive techniques to force someone to confess to a crime.
- B. Entice someone to tell a lie by offering a small bribe. **
- C. Ask someone to read a long poem and write comments about it.
- D. Ask people to describe the earliest memories from their childhood.

52%, .40. Chapter 13. Cognitive dissonance is a unpleasant state that people experience when they hold contradictory attitudes or when their behavior contradicts their stated attitudes—especially if the inconsistency distresses them. People tend to react in three ways to this tension: change what they are saying to match their attitude, change their attitude to match what they are saying, or find an explanation that justifies the behavior under the circumstances. According to this theory, if you entice people to do somethings (i.e. lie) by a minimum reward (i.e. a small bribe)—so that it seems that they are almost acting voluntarily—they change their attitude to support what they are doing. Thus, choice B is likely to result in cognitive dissonance because of the insignificant reward for a moral violation.

38. Couples are most likely to have a successful marriage if the two people

- A. are similar to each other in as many ways as possible. **
- B. watched their parents divorce, and learned from their mistakes.
- C. express their emotions openly, including anger.
- D. both tended to be unhappy people before they met each other.

45%, .61. Chapter 13. Most romantic partners (and close friends) resemble each other in age, physical attractiveness, political and religious beliefs, intelligence, education, and attitudes. Couples with much in common enjoy the relationship more because they share many activities and agree more often than disagree.

39. According to Asch's studies of conformity

- A. the tendency to conform to a group of three is as large as it is with larger groups. **
- B. it is just as easy to resist conforming when you are a minority of one as when you have an ally.
- C. people who conformed always claimed that their perceptions had been distorted.
- D. people do not conform on questions where there is an objective right and wrong.

73%, .42. Chapter 13. When Asch varied the number of confederates who gave incorrect answers in his studies, he found that people conformed to a group of three or four just as readily as to a large group (choice A). Participants were less likely to conform when with an ally giving the correct answers—suggesting the it is harder to resist conformity when you are a minority (which is the opposite of choice B).

40. According to Freud's original theory, the reason for psychological disturbances was _____. Later he changed his theory and said that the reason was _____.

- A. fixation at an early stage of psychosexual development...inadequate methods of striving for superiority
- B. inadequate methods of striving for superiority...fixation at an early stage of psychosexual development
- C. childhood sexual abuse...sexual fantasies during childhood **
- D. childhood sexual fantasies...childhood sexual abuse

48%, .36. Chapter 14. According to Freud's original theory, the reason for psychological disturbances was childhood sexual abuse. His patients denied any such memories, Freud insisted that patients' dreams pointed towards sexual abuse and tried to persuade his patients of these interpretations. Later he changed his theory and said that the reason was sexual fantasies during the childhood. He insisted that his earlier patients had "misled" him into believing that they were sexually abused. It is not known why he abandoned his earlier theory. Some argue it was because that he lost the courage to defend his theory, while others argue that there just was not any evidence to support it.

41. What did Maslow mean when he said that people have a drive toward self-actualization?

- A. People repeat the same behaviors over and over.
- B. People act out parts, as if life were a stage drama.
- C. People seek a dependent relationship with a parent or parent-substitute.
- D. People strive to fulfill their potential. **

97%, .21. Chapter 14. Maslow's concept of self-actualization refers to the achievement of one's full potential. People who are self-actualized have an accurate perception of reality, are independent, are problem-centered (not self-centered), enjoy life, and have a good sense of humor.

42. The big five personality dimensions

- A. each apply to a few very specific situations.
- B. are all highly related to each other.
- C. are the first five traits to develop in a child, although many more important traits develop later in life.
- D. can describe most of the usual variation in human personality. **

92%, .24. Chapter 14. The big five personality dimensions are a set of five traits (neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to new experiences) that are not highly correlated with one another (eliminating choice B). Each correlates with many personality dimensions for which our language has a word for and several studies have found results consistent with the Big Five model for people in other cultures using other languages. This suggests that the Big Five can describe most of the usual variation in human personality (Choice D).

43. Which of these is a common criticism today of the Rorschach Inkblots?
- A. The current method of evaluating answers to the Inkblots has near-zero reliability.
 - B. The technique so rarely identifies anyone as abnormal that it is not worth the time.
 - C. The Inkblots are strongly biased against less intelligent or less talkative people.
 - D. The Inkblots seldom provide valid information we could not get in other ways. **

50%, .39. Chapter 14. The Rorschach inkblot test is a projective technique based on people's interpretations of 10 ambiguous inkblots. Even when interpretations of the Rorschach responses are standardized using the Exner system (which is highly reliable; eliminating choice A), there are serious flaws to this test: (1) The test identifies most as psychologically disturbed (eliminating choice B). 2) The evaluation of responses depends on your total number of pathological response (not the percentage). So highly talkative people are more likely to say something that seems disturb just because they say more (i.e. it is biased against less talkative people; eliminating choice C). 3) The test rarely gets information that could not be obtained other ways, such as the MMPI and biographical information (Choice D).

44. North American subjects are classified as high or low in "openness to experience" and rate their level of comfortableness exposed to two novel situations: dinner at a restaurant serving unfamiliar foreign food and a tour through a museum dedicated to modern art. In each situation, their "comfort level" is measured by means of a 10-point self-report questionnaire. High Openness subjects score an average of 5 in the restaurant and 8 in the museum. Low Openness subjects score an average of 3 in the restaurant and 6 in the museum. Based on these findings alone, this pattern of results indicates a:
- A. main effects of both Openness and the situation.
 - B. person-situation interaction
 - C. reciprocal effects between personal and situational factors.
 - D. no conclusions can be drawn without knowing the standard deviations around the means. **

13%, .16. A bad item. Statistically speaking, anyway; content-wise, it was perfectly fine, albeit a little tricky because its form departed from other versions of this question which I've used previously.

Lecture 28. Though the pattern suggests that the two effects would be characterized as the main effect of personality (Openness) and the situation, mean and mean differences cannot be interpreted unless we know the variability of the scores (e.g. the standard deviations).

45. Social attitudes tend to differ along a dimension of:
- A. liberal vs. conservative. **
 - B. political vs. religious
 - C. social vs. esthetic.
 - D. moral vs. economic

84%, .29. Lecture 28. Social attitudes can be boiled down to a single dimension: liberal vs. conservative. However, it is important to note that the single dimension of liberalism-conservatism is too abstract. Thus, people can be relatively liberal or relatively conservative on multiple domains such as political, economic, religious, social, and esthetic domains.

46. In general, social behavior shows:

- A. lower stability over short periods of time.
- B. higher consistency across very similar situations **
- C. less predictability from primary traits than from secondary or tertiary traits.
- D. is poorly represented by the "Big Five" personality traits.

86%, .23. Lecture 29. When it comes to social behavior there is evidence that stability is greatest over relatively short intervals of time (eliminating choice A). Consistency is greatest across situations that are highly similar (choice B). Predictability is greatest **between** adjacent levels (eliminating Choice C). Studies in a wide variety of populations seem to converge on The Big Five as a coherent hierarchical structure of personality, suggesting it is a good representation of social behavior (eliminating choice D).

47. Getting someone to do you a small favor:

- A. depends largely on their degree of agreeableness.
- B. depends largely on their sociometric distance from you.
- C. makes it more likely that they will do a larger favor later. **
- D. increases their perceived self-efficacy. .

51%, .51. Lecture 30. According to the "foot-in-the-door effect" granting a small favor makes it more likely that the person will later grant a large favor. This effect is explained by Bem's self-perception theory that we infer what our attitudes are from observing our own behavior -- in exactly the same way that we infer what other people's attitudes are from observations of their behavior.

48. The extent of group influence on an individual:

- A. increases proportionally to the number of people in the group.
- B. increases more slowly than the number of people in the group. **
- C. increases more rapidly than the number of people in the group.
- D. depends on whether the behavior is prosocial or antisocial in nature.

29%, .39. Lecture 31. According to Latane's psychosocial law of social impact, social pressure on the individual increases as the number of sources of social pressure increases, but social influence grows more slowly than social sources. The first few people make a real difference in whether the subject conforms; after that, additional people don't make that much of a difference.

49. In the mere exposure effect:

- A. the presence of other people facilitates performance.
- B. the presence of other people inhibits performance.
- C. repetition increases preference judgments. **
- D. repetition decreases preference judgments. .

75%, .30. Lecture 32. In classic studies performed by Zajonc, items were rated more favorably if they were presented many times—as opposed to just a few times or not presented at all. This suggested that repeated exposure increases judgments of attractiveness, likability, or any other favorable evaluation, even in the absence of any substantive contact with the objects being rated. People prefer whatever they encounter frequently in their environment.

50. In the delay-of-gratification ("marshmallow" experiments:

- 86%, .44.** A. boys were more likely to delay gratification than girls.
- B. delay times were longest when the reward was present in the environment.
- C. high-delay children were able to distract themselves from the promised reward. **
- D. thinking about consuming the reward increased waiting time.

Chapter 11 and Lecture 32. In an experiment by Mischel, Ebbesen, and Zeiss (1972, Exp. 1), children were given the choice of marshmallows or pretzels, and then asked to wait for the experimenter to return before he could receive the preferred reward. The child could also signal for the experimenter to return, in which case he would get the non-preferred reward. Children who were given no distraction could not wait very long. But children who were told to play with a "Slinky" toy were able to wait much longer. This suggests that the high-delay children were able to distract themselves from the promised reward.