Year 11
Paper 1
Topic A: How do we see our world?
Topic B: Is dreaming meaningful?
How do we see our world?
1. What is perception?

A. The way the brain makes sense of the information that comes through our eyes.
B. The way our eyes take in light
C. The shape of our brain
D. Seeing things
2. Which term best describes the retina?

A. The area in our eyes that takes the information to our brain.
B. The light sensitive cells at the back of the eye. It is made up of rods and cones.
C. The part of the brain that interprets the information from our eyes.
D. The part of the eye that focuses the light.
3. What are rods?

A. Cells that are able to work only in bright light.
B. Cells that are able to detect different colours.
C. Cells that are able to work in dim light.
D. Cells that are able to work in dim light and detect light.
4. What are cones?

A. Cells that are able to work only in bright light and can detect different colours.
B. Cells that are able to detect different colours.
C. Cells that are able to work in dim light.
D. Cells that are able to work in dim light and detect light.
5. What is the optic nerve?

A. The way the brain makes sense of the information that comes through our eyes.
B. The way our eyes take in light
C. The shape of our brain
D. The bundle of nerve cells that leads from the retina to the brain.
6. What is the blind spot?

A. The way the brain makes sense of the information that comes through our eyes.
B. The part of the retina that contains no rods or cones.
C. The part of the retina where the optic nerve leaves the eye. It has no rods or cones to detect light.
D. The shape of our brain
E. Where the optic nerve crosses over.
7. Which best describes the term ‘depth cue’?

A. A way of seeing.
B. The visual clues that allow us to work out how far away something is.
C. Seeing through one eye.
D. A way of judging how deep a swimming pool is.
8. What does monocular depth cue mean?

A. Information about distance that comes from one eye.
B. Information about distance that comes from both eyes at the same time.
C. When you have to wear a monocle.
D. Stereopsis
9. Which of the following is not a monocular depth cue?

A. Superimposition  
B. Linear perspective  
C. Height in the plane  
D. Size constancy  
E. Relative size  
F. Texture gradient
10. What is meant by binocular depth cue?

A. Information about distance that comes from one eye.
B. Information about distance that comes from both eyes at the same time.
C. When you have to wear a monocle.
D. Looking at an object with both eyes.
11. What is meant by size constancy?

A. When an object changes size the further we are away from it.
B. How close we are to an object.
C. When we perceive an object as the same size even when our distance from it changes.
D. Seeing things larger than they are in real life.
12. What affect do nearby things have on our retina?

A. Nearby objects make a smaller impression on our retina than objects far away.
B. Nearby objects make the same impression on our retina as objects far away.
C. Nearby objects make no impression on our retina.
D. Nearby objects make a larger impression on our retina than objects far away.
13. What affect do distant things have on our retina?

A. Far away objects make a smaller impression on our retina than objects nearby.
B. Far away objects make the same impression on our retina as objects nearby.
C. Far away objects make no impression on our retina.
D. Far away objects make a larger impression on our retina than objects nearby.
14. What is meant by scaling up?

A. When familiar objects far away are perceived as being their normal size and not very small.
B. When familiar objects nearby are perceived as being smaller than their normal size.
C. When familiar objects far away are perceived as being really big.
D. When familiar objects are seen as being really small because they are far away.
A. When familiar objects nearby are perceived as being their normal size and not really big.
B. When familiar objects far away are perceived as being bigger than their normal size.
C. When familiar objects nearby are perceived as being really big.
D. When familiar objects are seen as being really small because they are far away.
16. Which depth cues are there in this picture?

A. superimposition, height in the plane and relative size.
B. Superimposition and linear perspective.
C. Relative size and texture gradient.
D. Texture gradient, linear perspective and height in the plane.
17. Which depth cue best is best explained by the following definition?

Smaller objects are perceived as further away than larger ones.

A. Height in the plane  
B. Relative size  
C. Texture gradient  
D. Superimposition  
E. Linear perspective
18. Which depth cue best is best explained by the following definition?

An area with a detailed pattern is perceived to be nearer than one with less detail.

A. Height in the plane
B. Relative size
C. Texture gradient
D. Superimposition
E. Linear perspective
19. Which depth cue best is best explained by the following definition?

Objects closer to the horizon are perceived to be more distant than ones below or above the horizon.

A. Height in the plane
B. Relative size
C. Texture gradient
D. Superimposition
E. Linear perspective
20. Which depth cue best is best explained by the following definition?

A partly hidden object must be further away than the object covering it.

A. Height in the plane
B. Relative size
C. Texture gradient
D. Superimposition
E. Linear perspective
21. Which depth cue best is best explained by the following definition?

Parallel lines appear to converge (meet) in the distance.

A. Height in the plane
B. Relative size
C. Texture gradient
D. Superimposition
E. Linear perspective
22. Which best describes the term stereopsis?

A. A binocular cue to depth.
B. Looking at something through two eyes.
C. A binocular cue to depth. The greater the distance between what the left and right eyes see, then the closer the viewer is looking.
D. A binocular cue to depth. The closer the distance between what the eyes see, the closer the viewer is looking.
23. How do you find your dominant eye?

A. Stare at an object for five minutes or until it goes blurry.
B. Make a circle with your finger and thumb, look through it at an object and close your left eye. If the object disappears then you have a dominant right eye. Repeat but this time close your right eye. If the object stays in view you are left eye dominant.
C. Neither of the above.
D. Ask someone
24. How does stereopsis help us see depth? Two are correct.

A. If there is a lot of overlap between what our left and right eyes focus on then objects are perceived as far away.
B. If there is a lot of blurriness when we focus on an object, we need glasses.
C. If there is a lot of distance between what our eyes focus on then objects are perceived as close to.
D. If we focus on an object for too long with both eyes we can guess the exact distance an object is away from us.
25. Which definition best defines Gestalt laws?

A. How we make sense of a picture or photograph.
B. What we see when we open our eyes.
C. A set of rules that help us to explain how we organise a visual stimuli such as a picture.
D. A set of rules that require us to concentrate on what we are looking at and try and work out what is happening in the scene.
26. Which one of the following is not a Gestalt law?

A. Figure and Ground
B. Similarity
C. Size constancy
D. Continuity
E. Proximity
F. Closure
27. Which Gestalt law is being described?

Straight lines, curves and shapes are perceived to carry on being the same.

A. Figure and Ground
B. Similarity
C. Continuity
D. Proximity
E. Closure
28. Which Gestalt law is being described?

Objects which are close together are perceived to be related.

A. Figure and Ground
B. Similarity
C. Continuity
D. Proximity
E. Closure
29. Which Gestalt law is being described?

A small, complex, symmetrical object is seen as separate from a background.

A. Figure and Ground
B. Similarity
C. Continuity
D. Proximity
E. Closure
30. Which Gestalt law is being described?

Figures sharing size, shape or colour are grouped together with other things that look the same.

A. Figure and Ground
B. Similarity
C. Continuity
D. Proximity
E. Closure
31. Which Gestalt law is being described?

Lines or shapes are perceived as complete figures even if parts are missing.

A. Figure and Ground  
B. Similarity  
C. Continuity  
D. Proximity  
E. Closure
32. What is meant by the ‘stimulus’?

A. The image we are looking at which our visual cortex interprets.
B. Something that gives us a shock.
C. An image that we cannot stop looking at.
D. A very complicated image that takes a lot of thought to work out what is going on.
33. What is the best description of a visual illusion?

A. Something that confuses us when we look at it.
B. Something that causes a conflict between reality and what we perceive.
C. Something that does not cause a conflict between reality and what we perceive.
D. How our brain interprets a stimulus.
34. Which **one** of the following is not a type of visual illusion?

A. Motion-after effects  
B. Illusory contour  
C. Colour after effects  
D. A fiction  
E. Ambiguous figures  
F. Superimposition  
G. Distortions
35. Which visual illusion is being described?

An illusion caused when a figure is perceived even though it is not present in the stimulus.

A. Motion-after effects
B. Illusory contour
C. Colour after effects
D. A fiction
E. Ambiguous figures
F. Superimposition
G. Distortions
36. Which visual illusion is being described?

An illusion caused by focusing on a coloured stimulus and perceiving opposite colours immediately afterwards.

A. Motion-after effects  
B. Illusory contour  
C. Colour after effects  
D. A fiction  
E. Ambiguous figures  
F. Superimposition  
G. Distortions
37. Which visual illusion is being described?

A stimulus with two possible interpretations, in which it is possible to perceive only one of the alternatives at any one time.

A. Motion-after effects
B. Illusory contour
C. Colour after effects
D. A fiction
E. Ambiguous figures
F. Superimposition
G. Distortions
38. Which visual illusion is being described?

Where our perception is deceived (tricked) by some aspect of the stimulus. This can affect the shape or size of an object.

A. Motion-after effects
B. Illusory contour
C. Colour after effects
D. A fiction
E. Ambiguous figures
F. Superimposition
G. Distortions
39. Which visual illusion is being described?

A boundary (edge) that is perceived in a figure but is not present in the stimulus.

A. Motion-after effects
B. Illusory contour
C. Colour after effects
D. A fiction
E. Ambiguous figures
F. Superimposition
G. Distortions
40. Which visual illusion is being described?

An illusion caused by paying attention to movement in one direction and perceiving movement in the opposite direction immediately afterwards.

A. Motion-after effects
B. Illusory contour
C. Colour after effects
D. A fiction
E. Ambiguous figures
F. Superimposition
G. Distortions
41. What type of illusion is this?

A. Ambiguous figure
B. Distortion
C. Fiction
D. Motion-after effects
E. Colour-after effects
42. Name this illusion

A. Ponzo illusion
B. Muller-Lyer illusion
C. Hering illusion
D. Ebbinghaus illusion
E. Kaniza triangle illusion
F. Necker cube illusion
G. Ruben’s vase illusion
43. Name this illusion

A. Ponzo illusion
B. Muller-Lyer illusion
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E. Kaniza triangle illusion
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B. Muller-Lyer illusion
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B. Muller-Lyer illusion
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47. Name this illusion

A. Ponzo illusion
B. Muller-Lyer illusion
C. Hering illusion
D. Ebbinghaus illusion
E. Kaniza triangle illusion
F. Necker cube illusion
G. Ruben’s vase illusion
48. Which explanation using Gestalt laws best explains the illusion in the Kaniza triangle?

A. Closure
B. Figure-ground
C. Continuity and figure-ground
D. Closure and figure-ground
49. Which explanation using Gestalt laws best explains the Ruben’s vase illusion?

A. Figure-ground and closure
B. Figure-ground and continuity
C. Similarity and closure
D. Figure-ground
50. Which best describes Gregory’s perspective theory?

A. This theory is to do with scaling up and scaling down.
B. This theory is to do with scaling up, scaling down and binocular depth cues.
C. This theory is to do with scaling up, scaling down, monocular depth cues and linear perspective.
D. This theory is to do with scaling up, scaling down, monocular depth cues, linear perspective and proximity.
51. Which explanation using Gregory’s perspective theory best explains the Herring Illusion?

A. The radiating lines create linear perspective. We think the lines further apart are close to so we scale the black lines down and the close together liner further away, so we scale the black line up. This gives us the impression that the black lines are curved.

B. The black lines are actually slightly curved and so that is exactly what we see.

C. We see the black lines as the figure and the rest of the image as the ground.
52. Which explanation using Gregory’s perspective theory best explains the Muller-Lyer illusion?

A. We see the bottom line as further away so we scale it down and the top line as closer to so we scale it up.
B. We see both lines as exactly the same length.
C. We see the top line as being further away so we scale it up and the bottom line as nearby so we scale it down.
D. We see the straight lines as the ‘figure’ and the white background as the ‘ground’.
53. Which explanation using Gregory’s perspective theory best explains the Ponzo illusion?

A. We see the bottom line as further away so we scale it down and the top line as closer to so we scale it up.
B. We see both lines as exactly the same length.
C. We see the top line as being further away so we scale it up and the bottom line as nearby so we scale it down.
D. We see the straight lines as the ‘figure’ and the white background as the ‘ground’.
54. Which is the best definition of schema?

A. A way our brain organises and stores information about an object, event, group or person.
B. How our brain can remember important information.
C. What happens when we forget something and need a cue to remember it.
D. How information is stored in the brain when it has been interpreted by the visual cortex.
55. What is meant by the term perceptual set?

A. When we forget something because we haven’t rehearsed it.
B. When we notice one thing in a scene more than other things.
C. When we notice some things in a scene more than others because of previous experience, expectation or context.
D. When we know the word for something but are having a ‘on the tip of the tongue’ moment and can’t retrieve it.
56. What was the aim of Palmer’s study (1975)?

A. To investigate how information changes with each reproduction of a story and to find out why.
B. To find out whether words shown with pictures would affect the way pictures are remembered.
C. To find out the cause of a boy’s phobia and to try and treat it.
D. To find out whether context would affect perception.
57. Which best describes the participants in Palmer’s study?

A. It was a case study done on one person.
B. It used 95 participants split into three groups.
C. It used 64 students.
D. It used 20 participants, 13 men and 7 women.
58. Which best describes the method used by Palmer?

A. Laboratory experiment.
B. Case study.
C. Questionnaire.
D. Observation.
59. Which best describes the independent variable used in Palmer’s study?

A. There were four conditions: *appropriate context, inappropriate context with similar object, inappropriate context with different object and no context.*

B. There were three conditions: *appropriate context, inappropriate context with similar object, inappropriate context with different object.*

C. There was just one condition: *the context.*

D. The number of correctly identified objects.
60. Which best describes the dependent variable in Palmer’s study?

A. There were four conditions: *appropriate context, inappropriate context with similar object, inappropriate context with different object and no context.*

B. There were three conditions: *appropriate context, inappropriate context with similar object, inappropriate context with different object.*

C. There was just one condition: *the context.*

D. The number of correctly identified objects.
61. Which best describes the procedure used by Palmer?

A. Students were taken to a room and shown a picture and they had to guess what it was.

B. Students showed visual scenes such as a kitchen for two seconds (to provide the context) and then briefly shown an object that they had to identify.

C. Students were shown a scene for 5 mins and then shown a picture. They had to say what the picture was as quickly as possible.

D. Students shown a picture of a kitchen and then shown an object and they had to say what the object was.
62. Which two best describe Palmer’s results?

A. Participants correctly identified objects after seeing an inappropriate context.
B. Participants correctly identified an object after seeing an appropriate context.
C. Participants identified the least number of objects after seeing an inappropriate context.
D. Participants identified the least number of objects after seeing an appropriate context.
63. What did Palmer conclude?
A. That it does not matter about what we see.
B. Our minds remember information very easily.
C. Our expectations affect our perception. We expect to see something based on the context.
D. What we expect to see is based on what we see.
64. Which two are weakness of Palmer’s study?

A. Participants were studied in a laboratory setting so that all variables could be controlled.
B. Only students were used so it is difficult to generalise the findings to other age groups.
C. Participants were told what they would be doing. This might have led to them showing demand characteristics.
D. All participants were given clear instructions as to what to do.
65. Which two are strengths of Palmer’s study?

A. Participants were studied in a laboratory setting so that all variables could be controlled.
B. Only students were used so it is difficult to generalise the findings to other age groups.
C. Participants were told what they would be doing. This might have led to them showing demand characteristics.
D. All participants were given clear instructions as to what to do.
66. What is meant by the term serial reproduction?

A. When a participant in Bartlett’s study read something on their own and then passed the information on to someone else who then passed it on to another person etc… what changed was measured by the psychologists.

B. When participants in Bartlett’s study all read the same thing and then talked about it. The

C. When a participant in Bartlett’s study read out loud a passage and the other participants had to copy what they had heard. How accurately they copied it down was measured.
67. What is meant by repeated reproduction?

A. When a participant read a story and then had to tell that story to another person who then passed it on to another person etc…

B. When a participant in Bartlett’s study was given a picture or story to remember and then asked about it at different times to see what they could remember.

C. When a participant read a story in Bartlett’s study and then had to write it out twenty minutes later.
68. What was the aim of Bartlett’s study?

A. To find out if people have good memories for stories.
B. To find out if people can pass on the right information.
C. To find out how and why information changes with each new re-telling.
D. To find out if people can remember things over time.
69. Which folk tale did Bartlett use for his study?

A. The War of the Worlds.
B. The War of the Genies.
C. The War to end all wars.
D. The War of the Ghosts.
70. Which best explains the serial reproduction task?

A. Participant 1 read the War of the Ghosts on their own – twice. They waited 15-20 minutes and told the story to a second participant. Each participant in a group of 10 told the story to the next person.

B. Participant 1 read the War of the Ghosts and then read and told the story to the rest of the group who all had to repeat it.

C. Participant 1 read the War of the Ghosts on their own – twice. They waited 15-20 minutes and told the story to a second participant. Each participant in a group of 10 had to write the story down.
71. Which best explains the repeated reproduction task?

A. Each participant read the story ten times and then after 40 minutes they had to tell the story to another person. They could not look at the original story. They then had to tell the story again at different intervals such as 20 hours, 8 days, 6 months, 10 years).

B. Each participant read the story twice and then after 15 minutes they had to tell the story to the experimenter. They could not look at the original story. They then had to tell the story again at different intervals such as 20 hours, 8 days, 6 months, 10 years).

C. Each participant read the story twice and then after 15 minutes they had to tell the story to the experimenter. They could look at the original story. They then had to tell the story again at different intervals such as 20 hours, 8 days, 6 months, 10 years).
72. Which three best describe the findings of Bartlett’s study?

A. Nearly all participants recalled the story accurately.
B. Very few participants recalled the story accurately.
C. The serial reproduction group showed the same changes to the story as the repeated reproduction group.
D. With serial reproduction one individual's interpretation of the story affected the rest of the groups’ interpretation.
E. Memories work like a video and accurately store the information so it can be recalled perfectly at a later date.
73. Which of the following best describe the errors people made when recalling the story?

A. Form, details, simplification and addition
B. Form and simplification
C. Simplification, forgetting, boredom and addition
D. Demand characteristics, ethics, details and form.
74. Which two best describe Bartlett’s conclusion?

A. Unfamiliar material changes when it is recalled.
B. Unfamiliar material is simply forgotten as it is not important.
C. Unfamiliar material that is remembered becomes longer and more complex when it is re-told.
D. Unfamiliar material becomes shorter, simpler and more stereotyped when it is re-told.
75. Which two of the following are strengths of Bartlett’s study?

A. Both the serial and repeated reproduction tasks were done many times. This provided lots of data to analyse.

B. Other stories were used as well. This showed that changes were not special to the War of the Ghosts story.

C. The stories used were unfamiliar and so Bartlett was not sure similar changes would be made to familiar stories.

D. Bartlett did not test the repeated reproduction participants after the same intervals. This makes comparing the data more difficult.
76. Which two of the following are weaknesses of Bartlett’s study?

A. Both the serial and repeated reproduction tasks were done many times. This provided lots of data to analyse.

B. Other stories were used as well. This showed that changes were not special to the War of the Ghosts story.

C. Bartlett did not test the repeated reproduction participants after the same intervals. This makes comparing the data more difficult.

D. The stories used were unfamiliar and so Bartlett was not sure similar changes would be made to familiar stories.
77. What was the aim of Carmichael’s study?

A. To find out if people could draw a picture based on a word description.

B. To find out whether words shown with pictures would affect the way the picture is remembered.

C. To find out if context affects perception.

D. To find out if information changes over time.
78. Which experimental design was used in Carmichael’s study?

A. Repeated measures (participants took part in both conditions).

B. Independent groups design (participants were split into groups and each group did one of the conditions).

C. Case study – only a very small group were studied.
79. What type of research method did Carmichael use?

A. Case study - only a small group was studied.

B. Laboratory experiment – controlled conditions

C. Questionnaire – participants were given a questionnaire to complete.

D. Interview – participants were interviewed.
80. How many pictures were shown in Carmichael’s study?

A. 38
B. 67
C. 12
D. 9
81. How many participants took part in Carmichael’s study?
A. 190
B. 95
C. 100
D. 97
82. What was the independent variable in Carmichael’s study?

A. Whether the group saw the stimulus (the picture) and word set 1, 2 or no word set.

B. Whether the group saw the stimulus only.

C. Whether the group were given the word set only.

A. Whether the group saw no stimulus or word set.
83. Which best describes the procedure in Carmichael’s study?

A. Groups 1 and 2 were shown a set of pictures and read out a description of each picture – which was different for each group. Group three saw the pictures but no word description.

B. Groups 1 and 2 shown a set of 12 pictures and for each they are given a verbal description of the picture – different for each group. The third group shown the pictures but no word description. Participants later, then had to draw what they had seen for each picture.

C. All the groups were shown a set of 12 pictures and each one was accompanied by a word description. Later, participants had to draw the pictures they had seen.
84. How many reproductions were done in Carmichael’s study?

A. Over 5000
B. Over 3000
C. Over 1000
D. Over 10000
85. How many reproductions were put in the category ‘almost completely changed’?

A. 3000
B. 905
C. 56
D. 804
86. Which best describes the findings from Carmichael’s study?

A. Group 1 = 20% of the drawings resembled the word given, Group 2 = 28% and Group 3 only 89% of one of the words.

B. Group 1 = 73% of the drawings resembled the word given, Group 2 = 74% and Group 3 only 45% of one of the words.

C. Group 1 = 94% of the drawings resembled the word given, Group 2 = 74% and Group 3 only 45% of one of the words.
87. Which best describes the conclusion from Carmichael’s study?

A. Memory for pictures is like a camera – we see the image and keep a memory for what we see.
B. Memory is reconstructed. The verbal context in which the pictures are learned affects recall because the memory of the word affects the way the picture is reconstructed.
C. Memory is reconstructed from our life experiences.
D. Words are more powerful than pictures when it comes to our memories.
88. Which is a strength of Carmichael’s study?

A. It was not like a real life experience so the results are difficult to generalise the findings to real life.

B. There were very few participants so it was difficult to generalise to everyone.

C. By using two different word list and a control group they could show clearly the effects of words on memory recall of the pictures.

D. It was unethical as participants might have felt embarrassed that they were not good at drawing.
89. Which is the main weakness of Carmichael’s study?

A. It was not like a real life experience so the results are difficult to generalise the findings to real life.
B. There were very few participants so it was difficult to generalise to everyone.
C. By using two different word list and a control group they could show clearly the effects of words on memory recall of the pictures.
D. It was unethical as participants might have felt embarrassed that they were not good at drawing.
90. Which best describes the term ‘experiment’?

A. A research method that measures participants’ performance in two or more conditions and done in a very controlled way.
B. A research method that measures participants’ performance in two or more conditions.
C. A research method that looks at one person or a small group in lots of detail.
D. A research method that investigates how people behave in their natural environments.
91. Which best describes the term independent variable?

A. The variable that is measured in an experiment.
B. The variable that is manipulated into two conditions in an experiment.
C. Both the variable that is measured and the variable that is manipulated.
D. When you control all the variables in an experiment.
92. Which best describes the term dependent variable?

A. The variable that is measured in an experiment.
B. The variable that is manipulated into two conditions in an experiment.
C. Both the variable that is measured and the variable that is manipulated.
D. When you control all the variables in an experiment.
93. What is meant by the term experimental design?

A. They type of experiment you carry out.
B. The way you lay out the laboratory.
C. The way you use your participants in your research.
D. The type of people you use in your research.
94. Which of the following best describes using the same participants for both conditions of an experiment?

A. Experimental design.
B. Laboratory experiment.
C. Repeated measures design.
D. Independent groups design.
95. Which of the following best describes using different participants for both conditions of an experiment?

A. Experimental design.
B. Laboratory experiment.
C. Repeated measures design.
D. Independent groups design.
96. Which best describes what a hypothesis is?

A. A statement that predicts what effect manipulating the IV will have on the DV.
B. What the experimenter thinks will happen in the experiment.
C. A statement that predicts what effect manipulating the IV will have on the DV in a testable way.
D. How the researcher thinks the experiment will go.
97. Which best describes what a good hypothesis should contain?

A. The independent variable and the sample
B. The independent variable and the two conditions of the IV, the dependent variable and the sample.
C. Just the dependent variable
D. The independent hypothesis and the two conditions of the IV, the dependent variable and the sample.
E. A prediction of what you think will happen plus the independent hypothesis and the two conditions of the IV, the dependent variable and the sample.
98. What is meant by the term ‘controls’ in an experiment?

A. What you change in an experiment to make it interesting.
B. What you try to keep the same so that they don’t affect your experiment such as how you treat the participants.
C. When you treat the participants differently
D. When you try to change the way the participants think.
99. How do you calculate the mean?

A. Add up the total scores and divide by 10.
B. Add up the total number of scores and divide by the number of participants.
C. By finding the middle value by writing the results in order.
D. By taking the largest number away from the lowest number.
100. How do you calculate the mode?

A. Add up the total scores and divide by 10.
B. Add up the total number of scores and divide by the number of participants.
C. By finding the middle value by writing the results in order.
D. By taking the largest number away from the lowest number.
E. By finding the most common value.
101. How do you calculate the median?

A. Add up the total scores and divide by 10.
B. Add up the total number of scores and divide by the number of participants.
C. By finding the middle value by writing the results in order.
D. By taking the largest number away from the lowest number.
E. By finding the most common value.
102. How do you calculate the range?

A. Add up the total scores and divide by 10.
B. Add up the total number of scores and divide by the number of participants.
C. By finding the middle value by writing the results in order.
D. By taking the largest number away from the lowest number.
103. When should you use the mean?

A. When the results data collected is qualitative (in words).
B. When the data gathered is in measurements like seconds, centimetres, litres etc… (gathered using a mathematical scale).
C. When the data gathered is from a rating scale or a Likert scale.
D. Because the results are in named categories.
104. When should you use the mode?

A. When the results data collected is qualitative (in words).
B. When the data gathered is in measurements like seconds, centimetres, litres etc… (gathered using a mathematical scale).
C. When the data gathered is from a rating scale or a Likert scale.
D. Because the results are in named categories.
105. When should you use the median?

A. When the results data collected is qualitative (in words).
B. When the data gathered is in measurements like seconds, centimetres, litres etc… (gathered using a mathematical scale).
C. When the data gathered is from a rating scale or a Likert scale.
D. Because the results are in named categories.
106. Which best describes how you should draw a bar chart?

A. The bars should be drawn touching each other and each axis should have an appropriate scale and there should be a title.

B. The bars should not be drawn touching each other and each axis should have an appropriate scale and there should be a title.

C. Plot each value separately on a graph and each axis should have an appropriate scale and there should be a title.

D. Draw a pie chart and label each segment.
107. What is meant by the term ethical issues?

A. Being able to treat your participants in any way you want when they take part in your research.
B. To do with how you are allowed to treat your participants when they take part in your research.
C. Informed consent.
D. To do with harming your participants when they take part in your research.
108. Which ethical issue is being described?

- Participants need to know exactly what they are getting involved in before they take part.

A. Privacy
B. Confidentiality
C. Informed consent
D. Protection of participants from physical and psychological harm.
E. Anonymity
109. Which ethical issue is being described?

Not hurting the participant in any way either physically or psychologically.

A. Privacy
B. Confidentiality
C. Informed consent
D. Protection of participants from physical and psychological harm.
E. Anonymity
110. Which ethical issue is being described?

Not sharing the information about a person gained from research without getting that person’s permission beforehand.

A. Privacy
B. Confidentiality
C. Informed consent
D. Protection of participants from physical and psychological harm.
E. Anonymity
F. The right to withdraw.
111. Which ethical issue is being described?

A person’s name should not be recorded in the research and they must not be identifiable when the research is published.

A. Privacy  
B. Confidentiality  
C. Informed consent  
D. Protection of participants from physical and psychological harm.  
E. Anonymity  
F. The right to withdraw
112. Which ethical issue is being described?

A participant should be told that they can leave the research at any time and don’t have to do all the activities if they don’t want to.

A. Privacy
B. Confidentiality
C. Informed consent
D. Protection of participants from physical and psychological harm.
E. Anonymity
F. The right to withdraw
113. Which ethical issue are being broken?

Andrew has asked his friends (aged 14) to take part in a piece of research. He hasn’t told them what it is about but they have agreed to take part. He gets them to watch an 18 rated horror film and observes their behaviour.

A. Privacy and confidentiality
B. Confidentiality and informed consent
C. Informed consent and protection of participants from any harm
D. Privacy and protection of participants from any harm.
114. Which ethical issues are being considered?

Abi carried out a piece of research using some year 10 students. She told them exactly what the research was about and what they would experience. She told them that she would not use any of the information gathered without their permission and when she published her research she would not publish their real names.

A. Privacy and confidentiality
B. Confidentiality and informed consent
C. Informed consent and protection of participants from any harm
D. Privacy and protection of participants from any harm.
E. Confidentiality, informed consent and privacy.
F. The right to withdraw
115. Which two are weaknesses of experiments?

A. They are often not like real life and so the results are difficult to generalise to real life situations.
B. Because they are controlled it is easier to show cause and effect.
C. They can lead to experimenter bias.
D. They can provide a lot of data.
116. Which two are strengths of experiments?

A. They are often not like real life and so the results are difficult to generalise to real life situations.
B. Because they are controlled it is easier to show cause and effect – how the IV affects the DV.
C. Often, psychologists hide the real aims of the research from the participants and so this leads to ethical issues such as lack of informed consent.
D. In experiments it is easier to tell your participants that what the experiment is about and that they have the right to withdraw.
117. Which one of the following is the best definition of the term eyewitness?

A. Somebody who sees a crime and helps the police to find out what has happened so they can catch the criminal.
B. Someone who sees something happen.
C. A person who commits a crime.
D. Somebody who talks about what they have seen to somebody else.
118. Which is the best definition of the term eyewitness testimony?

A. Talking to someone in authority such as the police.
B. When you have witnessed a crime and the police interview you to find out what you saw. The police then get you to sign the statement you have made.
C. When you have witnessed an event and you might have to say what you saw in court.
D. When you have witnessed a crime and the police interview you to find out what you saw. The police then get you to sign the statement you have made and you might have to recall what you saw in court.
119. Which best explains why eyewitness testimony might not be accurate?

A. Because our memories don’t record exactly what happened but are reconstructive.
B. Because our memories don’t record exactly what happened but are reconstructive. This means our memory of an event might be affected by time, leading questions and our schemas.
C. Because our memories don’t record exactly what happened but are reconstructive. This means that we might forget important details over time.
D. Because our memories don’t record exactly what happened but are reconstructive. This means that our schemas (things we are used to seeing and expect to see) might interfere with our memory of an event.
120. Which two pieces of research show that schemas can affect eyewitness testimony?

A. Bartlett and Freud
B. Freud and Hobson and McCarley
C. Charlton and Palmer
D. Williams et al and Freud
E. Bartlett and Palmer