Evolutionary explanations for partner preferences (pages 8–10)

1. D

2. 
   - One weakness of the evolutionary explanation comes from research that examines female preference for high-status men.
   - Buller claims that the majority of studies attempting to determine female mate preferences have been carried out on female undergraduates.
   - It could be argued that these women expect to achieve high educational status, and so have an expectation of higher income levels for both themselves and their partners.
   - This suggests that we may be unable to generalise these findings to non-undergraduate populations.

3. 
   a. Primary data is information that is collected directly from first-hand experience. The data is primary data because the researcher designed the research and collected the data herself.
   b. One strength of using content analysis is that it has high ecological validity. This is because it is based on observations of real-world communications that are current and relevant. However, one limitation of using content analysis is that observer bias may occur. This is because different observers may interpret the meaning of the behavioural categories differently.
   c. Chi squared.
      One reason is that the researcher is looking for a difference between men and women and whether they offer or seek resources.
      A second reason is that the data are at the nominal level, because the researcher has established categories and counted the number of observations in those categories.

4. Possible AO1 content:
   - Sexual selection is a key part of Darwin's theory, explaining how evolution is driven by competition for mates and the development of characteristics that ensure reproductive success.
   - This occurs in two main ways. Intersexual selection in mate choice is where individuals of one sex, usually males, must outcompete other members of their sex in order to gain access to members of the other sex. Successful individuals are able to mate and pass on their genes.
Intrasexual selection in mate choice is where members of one sex evolve preferences for desirable qualities in potential mates. Members of the opposite sex who possess these characteristics will then gain a mating advantage over those who do not.

When it comes to long-term mate preference, it pays to be choosy, as the genetic quality of a mate will determine half the genetic quality of any offspring. By joining forces with an attractive, high-quality mate, offspring are higher quality and an individual’s genes are more likely to be passed on.

Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of the evolutionary explanation is that there is research support for it. For example, Penton-Voak et al. found that mate choice varies across the menstrual cycle, with women choosing a slightly feminised face for a long-term relationship, but a more masculine face for short-term relationships.
- Another strength is that there is research support for the view that some human traits evolved purely as a result of sexual selection. For example, Nettle and Clegg found creative males had more sexual partners than non-creative males. This suggests that certain characteristics evolved for sexual selection reasons and provide no survival advantage.
- However, one problem with the evolutionary explanation is that gender differences in mate preference may stem from cultural traditions rather than evolved characteristics. For example, Kasser and Sharma found that women value resources far more in cultures where their status and educational opportunities are limited.
- Another problem with the evolutionary explanation comes from research that examines female preferences for high-status men. For example, Buller argues that the majority of studies in this area are carried out on female undergraduates, so we may be unable to generalise the findings of these studies to non-undergraduate populations.
- A final problem is that the research examining evolutionary explanations may not provide a valid measure of mate choice in real life. For example, research surveys, such as Buss’s, can only give us an indication of expressed preferences rather than being a reflection of what actually happens in real life.

Physical attractiveness (pages 11–13)

1. C

2. Walster et al. selected participants by advertising a ‘computer dance’ for new students, and then randomly selected 177 males and 170 females to take part.
   - Participants were asked to complete a lengthy questionnaire, and told that the data gathered from these would be used to allocate their ideal partner for the dance. Halfway through the dance, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire about their dates, with a follow-up questionnaire six months later.
   - Walster et al. found that once participants had met their dates, they responded more positively to physically attractive dates and were more likely to try to arrange further dates with them.

3. The matching hypothesis says that when choosing a partner, people are more likely to pair up with someone who is similar to them in terms of physical attractiveness.
   - However, the item says that something in us is drawn to people who are very different from us rather than similar to us.
   - This contradicts the matching hypothesis of relationship formation.
   - This suggests that the matching hypothesis might not be a useful way of explaining the formation of relationships with others.

4. Possible AO1 content:
   - The matching hypothesis suggests that individuals seek out partners whose social desirability approximately equals their own.
   - To do this, partners must first assess their own ‘value’ and then select the best candidate who would most likely be attracted to them.
   - Walster et al. refer to these mating choices as ‘realistic’ choices, because each individual is influenced by the chances of having their affection reciprocated.
Possible AO3 content:
• One issue with the matching hypothesis is that matching may be more complex than physical attractiveness alone. For example, people come into relationships offering many desirable characteristics, such as kindness or a charming personality. This suggests that the matching hypothesis is not based on attractiveness alone, as people are able to attract more attractive partners by offering compensatory assets.
• Another issue with the matching hypothesis comes from research that examines online dating. For example, Taylor et al. found no evidence that daters’ decisions were driven by similarity between their own and potential partners’ physical attractiveness. This suggests people aim for someone more desirable than themselves, which is not what the matching hypothesis claims.

Self-disclosure (pages 14–16)

1. C

2. One strength of the role of self-disclosure in attraction is that there is research support For example, Collins and Miller found that people who disclose at a higher level tend to be liked more than people who disclose at lower levels.

3. a. For example: On a scale of 1–7, how likely are you to tell someone you have only just met about a private event in your life?
This is a suitable question because it is a closed question that asks about whether someone would share intimate personal information with someone else.

b. One limitation of using questionnaires to collect information about relationships is that people may respond in socially desirable ways. This may be because they don’t want to be seen as being ‘needy’ or ‘clingy’. This means that the data collected may not be valid.

c. This means that there is a greater than 5 per cent probability that the results were due to chance factors operating. This means that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

4. Possible AO1 content:
• Self-disclosure is the extent to which a person reveals personal information about themselves, such as their intimate thoughts and feelings.
• There are different types of self-disclosure. Their role in attraction is that self-disclosure received is a better predictor of liking and loving than the level of self-disclosure that is given.
• There are norms about self-disclosure, depending on the stage of the relationship. These affect attraction, as the norm is to engage in only a moderate level of self-disclosure in the early stages of a relationship. Also, self-disclosure should be reciprocated, leading to greater feelings of intimacy.

Possible AO3 content:
• There is research support for the role of self-disclosure. For example, Collin and Miller found that people who engage in intimate disclosure tend to be liked more than people who disclose at lower levels. This suggests that self-disclosure has an important role in the development of romantic relationships.
• Further support for the role of self-disclosure comes from the fact that self-disclosure applies beyond relationships. For example, Tal-Or and Hershman-Shitrit discovered that although viewers liked TV characters on reality shows who made early intimate disclosures, they still preferred this disclosure to evolve gradually.
One issue with the role of self-disclosure comes from research examining internet relationships. Relationships formed over the internet often involve higher levels of self-disclosure compared with face-to-face relationships. This causes the relationship to become very intense; however, because the underlying trust is not there to support the relationship, it becomes difficult to maintain.

However, not all studies have found that self-disclosure is greater in online relationships. For example, Knop et al. revealed that members of a social group disclose more information in face-to-face relationships, compared with online interactions. This suggests that self-disclosure is an important component of face-to-face relationships, and we should be cautious when drawing conclusions from internet research.

A final issue for the role of self-disclosure comes from cross-cultural research. For example, Chen et al. found that people from the West typically engage in more intimate self-disclosure than non-Westerners. This suggests that the importance of self-disclosure is moderated by the influence of culture, and that the principles are not universal.

**Attraction: Filter theory (pages 17–19)**

1. B

2. • Filter theory suggests we choose romantic partners by using a series of filters that narrow down the ‘field of availables’ from which we might eventually make our choice.
   • Different filters are important at different stages of partner selection, as things that are less important at the beginning become more important later on.
   • The first filter is the social demography filter, which refers to variables such as geographical location. This restricts the range of people who are realistically available.
   • The second filter is the similarity in attitudes filter. This involves psychological characteristics, such as whether people agree on basic values. This similarity in attitudes determines whether a relationship will become stable.
   • The final filter is the complementarity of needs filter. This refers to how well two people fit together as a couple and meet each other’s needs.

3. a. The dependent variable is whether or not the couples are still in the same relationship a year later.
   b. \( \frac{210}{350} = 0.6 = 60\% \)
   c. On the basis of the claims made by the filter theory of attraction, the student has good reason to expect that the difference will occur in one direction only. This enables her to make a specific prediction rather than a general one.

4. **Possible AO1 content:**
   • Filter theory suggests we choose romantic partners by using a series of filters that narrow down the ‘field of availables’ from which we might eventually make our choice.
   • Different filters are important at different stages of partner selection, as things that are less important at the beginning become more important later on.
   • The first filter is the social demography filter, which refers to variables such as geographical location. This restricts the range of people who are realistically available.
   • The second filter is the similarity in attitudes filter. This involves psychological characteristics, such as whether people agree on basic values. This similarity in attitudes determines whether a relationship will become stable.
   • The final filter is the complementarity of needs filter. This refers to how well two people fit together as a couple and meet each other’s needs.

**Possible AO3 content:**
• One strength of filter theory is its application to everyday relationships. For example, according to Duck, the filtering process allows people to make predictions about their future interactions, to avoiding investing in a relationship that won’t work.
Another strength of filter theory comes from research examining perceived similarity in speed dating. For example, Tidwell et al. found that perceived, not actual, similarity predicted romantic liking in couples. This suggests that the similarity of attitudes is an important filter in the development of romantic relationships.

However, one issue with filter theory is the lack of research support. For example, Levinger et al. asked 330 couples to complete a questionnaire to assess their relationship, including the similarity of attitudes and complementarity of needs. They found no evidence that either similarity of attitudes or complementarity of needs influenced progress towards permanence in relationships.

Another issue with filter theory is the lack of research support for complementarity of needs. For example, Dijkstra and Barelds examined 760 singles on a dating website and found a strong correlation between the individual’s own personality and their ideal partner’s personality. This supported a ‘similarity-attraction’ hypothesis, and not a complementarity of needs one, which suggests this final filter may not be valid.

A final issue with filter theory is that it assumes that values and needs are stable over time. However, Thornton and Young-DeMarco found evidence of changed attitudes towards relationships in young American adults over a period of a few decades. This poses a problem for filter theory, which fails to take into account the role of constantly changing values, needs, and preferences.

Social exchange theory (pages 20–22)

1. C

2. Social exchange theory explains the maintenance of relationships by focusing on the rewards that partners obtain from being in a relationship weighed against the costs that they incur.
   - Individuals attempt to maximise their rewards, such as companionship, being cared for, and sex, while minimising their costs, such as effort or financial investment.
   - The comparison level is a standard against which our relationships are judged. This is a product of our experiences in other relationships together with our general views of what we might expect from this particular relationship.
   - The comparison level for alternatives is where a person weighs up a potential increase in rewards from a different partner minus any costs associated with ending the current relationship. A new relationship can take the place of the current one if its anticipated profit level is significantly higher.

3. Alex and Sophie’s previous relationships were not particularly satisfying to either of them.
   - In social exchange theory, the comparison level is a standard against which our relationships are judged. This is a product of our experiences in other relationships together with our general views of what we might expect from this particular relationship.
   - Alex and Sophie’s current relationship is likely to be better than their previous ones as they ‘both seem to be perfectly happy’.
   - This means that their relationship is likely to continue.

4. Possible AO1 content:
   - Social exchange theory explains the maintenance of relationships by focusing on the rewards that partners obtain from being in a relationship weighed against the costs that they incur.
   - Individuals attempt to maximise their rewards, such as companionship, being cared for, and sex, while minimising their costs, such as effort or financial investment.
   - The comparison level is a standard against which our relationships are judged. This is a product of our experiences in other relationships, together with our general views of what we might expect from this particular relationship.
   - The comparison level for alternatives is where a person weighs up a potential increase in rewards from a different partner minus any costs associated with ending the current relationship. A new relationship can take the place of the current one if its anticipated profit level is significantly higher.
Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of social exchange theory is that there is research support for it. For example, Sprecher examined 101 dating couples and found the presence of alternatives was negatively correlated with both commitment and relationship satisfaction. This supports social exchange theory’s idea of a comparison level for alternatives, suggesting that individuals continually weigh up the costs and benefits of maintaining a relationship.
- Another strength of social exchange theory is its application to relationship therapy. For example, Integrated Behavioural Couples Therapy aims to increase the proportion of positive exchanges in a relationship and decrease the proportion of negative exchanges. This highlights the positive application of social exchange theory.
- However, one issue with social exchange theory is that it is hard to define ‘benefit’ and ‘cost’ when it comes to relationships. For example, what might be considered rewarding to one person may be punishing to another. Also, what might be a benefit at the beginning of a relationship may turn out to be a cost later in the relationship. This suggests it is difficult to understand romantic relationships in terms of costs and benefits.
- Another issue with social exchange theory is the problem of assessing value. For example, Nakonezny and Denton argue that individuals would need some way of quantifying the value of costs and benefits to assess whether the benefits outweigh the costs. However, this is difficult to do in practice, suggesting that the vagueness and relative value of costs and benefits do not apply to romantic relationships.
- A final issue with social exchange theory is that it ignores individual differences and other factors. An individual’s own beliefs may make them more tolerant of the relatively low ratio of benefits to costs they receive. For example, they may believe that if you have committed to a relationship, then you live with what it brings you.

Equity theory (pages 23–25)

1. D

2. One issue with the equity theory of relationships is the issue of causality. Clark argues that in most relationships couples do not think in terms of rewards and that if they do then this is a sign of trouble.
   - According to this view, dissatisfaction is the cause of inequity and not the consequence of it.
   - Therefore, although inequity and dissatisfaction are linked, the nature of the cause is unclear.

3. As Amy drives to see Steve, he may feel over-benefited, and so may experience guilt.
   - Equity theory says that people are most comfortable when what they get out of a relationship is roughly equal to what they put in.
   - Therefore, to make the relationship more equitable, he takes her out to dinner to stop Amy feeling under-benefited.

4. Possible AO1 content:
   - Equity theory says people are most comfortable when what they get out of a relationship is roughly equal to what they put in. People feel most comfortable when they perceive they are getting roughly what they deserve from any given relationship.
   - An inequitable relationship is associated with distinct types of dissatisfaction. For example, if people feel over-benefited, then they may experience guilt and shame, while people who feel under-benefited may experience anger, sadness, and resentment.
   - If people feel their relationship is inequitable then they are likely to feel dissatisfaction and stress, and they are more motivated to do something about it.
   - This is different to social exchange theory because it focuses on the balance of satisfaction between partners in the current relationship, rather than comparing it to other relationships.

Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of the equity theory of relationships comes from research on other primates. For example, Waal studied female capuchin monkeys and found they became very angry if they...
were denied a reward. If another monkey unfairly received a reward instead, the capuchins grew very angry and threw food at the experimenter. This suggests that the perception of inequity has ancient origins, which supports the findings of research in human studies.

- However, one issue with the equity theory of relationships is the idea of equity sensitivity. For example, Huseman et al. put forward this idea, which determines the extent to which an individual will tolerate inequity. Some people prefer to be over-rewarded, and as a result are dissatisfied when they are in an equitable situation.

- Another issue with equity theory is the idea of gender differences. For example, DeMaris et al. point out that women tend to perceive themselves as more under-benefited compared with men. Sprecher found that women also feel more guilt in response to being over-benefited. As a result, equity theory fails to take into account these gender differences and so is limited in its application to both genders.

- A third issue with this theory is the idea of cultural differences. For example, Aumer-Ryan et al. found that in all the cultures they studied, people considered it important that a relationship should be equitable. However, they found that people in different cultures reported differences in how fair they considered their relationship to be. This means that equity theory fails to take into account cultural differences and norms.

- A final issue with equity theory is the idea of causality. For example, Clark argues that in most relationships people do not think in terms of rewards, and if they do, it is a sign of trouble. According to this view, dissatisfaction is the cause of inequity, and not the consequence of it. Therefore, although inequity and dissatisfaction are linked, the nature of the cause is unclear.

The investment model of relationships (pages 26–28)

1. B

2. According to the investment model, relationships continue as a result of three key factors: satisfaction, investment size, and the quality of alternatives.

   - Satisfaction is the extent to which the other person fulfils an individual’s most important needs.
   - Investment size is a measure of all the resources that are attached to the relationship and whether these would diminish in value or be lost if the relationship were to end.
   - Quality of alternative is the extent to which an individual’s most important needs would be better fulfilled outside the current relationship.
   - Commitment is usually high when partners are happy with their relationship, and anticipate little gain and high levels of loss if they were to leave the relationship.

3. One feature of the investment model is satisfaction level.

   - For example, Tony says, ‘I really don’t think anybody else could take care of me more than Julia does,’ which suggests that Tony is highly satisfied.
   - Another feature of the investment model is investment size.

   - For example, when Tony says, ‘We’ve put so much into making our house feel like a home,’ this indicates that both Tony and Julia are highly satisfied.

4. Possible AO1 content:

   - According to the investment model, relationships continue as a result of three key factors: satisfaction, investment size, and the quality of alternatives.
   - Satisfaction is the extent to which the other person fulfils an individual’s most important needs.
   - Investment size is a measure of all the resources that are attached to the relationship and whether these would diminish in value or be lost if the relationship were to end.
   - Quality of alternative is the extent to which an individual’s most important needs would be better fulfilled outside the current relationship.
   - Commitment is usually high when partners are happy with their relationship, and anticipate little gain and high levels of loss if they were to leave the relationship.
Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of the investment model comes from research support. For example, Le et al. found that commitment, or lack of it, was a particularly strong predictor of whether a relationship would end. Other relational variables that make up the model, such as satisfaction and investments, were modest predictors of the likelihood of a relationship ending.

- Another strength of the investment model is its application to abusive relationships. For example, victims of domestic violence experience low satisfaction, but many stay in the abusive relationship. This may be due to a lack of alternatives, or because they have too much invested in the relationship, making dissolution too costly. This helps psychologists to understand the reasons many people remain in abusive relationships, and develop support for those people.

- A third strength of the investment model is its application to different cultures and populations. The idea that commitment is positively associated with satisfaction levels has been found in many cultures, and research supports the relevance of the model in different cultures, and with different types of relationships. This highlights the diverse application of the model in explaining the persistence of relationships in many different populations.

- However, one issue with the investment model is that it is difficult to measure variables such as ‘satisfaction level’. Rusbult et al. developed the investment model scale to overcome this problem, but this scale relies on self-report methods, which often have issues with social desirability. This means that it is difficult to measure the key terms of the investment model accurately.

- Another issue with the investment model is that it fails to consider future investments. For example, Goodfriend and Agnew suggest that ‘investment’ should also include future plans partners have made regarding their relationship, as some relationships may persist because of the motivation to see a cherished future plan come to fruition. This suggests that the original investment model is limited.

Relationship breakdown (pages 29–31)

1. B

2. • Duck proposed that relationship breakdown occurs when one of the partners becomes distressed with the way the relationship is going.
   • The intrapsychic phase is characterised by negativity and the thought that we might be better off out of the relationship.
   • In the dyadic phase, the individuals confront their partners and begin to discuss their feelings about the discontentment.
   • The social phase involves telling friends and families about the dissatisfaction that the couple are experiencing in their relationship.
   • In the grave dressing phase, partners will attempt to justify their actions, and strive to construct a representation of the failed relationship that does not paint their contribution to it in unfavourable terms.

3. a. One disadvantage is that volunteers may not be representative of all people. For example, they may be more interested in relationship breakdown research than the rest of the population. This means that the results these volunteers produce may not be generalisable to the wider population.
   b. One issue is confidentiality. The researcher could have addressed this issue by making sure that the questionnaires were kept anonymous, so that participants’ names, or other identifying features, were not made public.
   c. The researcher could have asked another research assistant to be involved in analysing the data. The assistant’s results could then be correlated. If there was a significant correlation between their results, this would indicate that the ratings were reliable.
   d. Spearman’s rho.
One reason is that the researcher is expecting to find a correlation between ‘narrative completeness’ and how well the relationship break-up was adjusted to, and Spearman’s is a test for a correlation. A second reason is that the ratings and scores are, at the least, at the ordinal level of measurement, which is a requirement of Spearman’s rho test.

4. **Possible AO1 content:**
   - Duck proposed that relationship breakdown occurs when one of the partners becomes distressed with the way the relationship is going.
   - The intrapsychic phase is characterised by negativity and the thought that we might be better off out of the relationship.
   - In the dyadic phase, the individuals confront their partners and begin to discuss their feelings about the discontentment.
   - The social phase involves telling friends and families about the dissatisfaction the couple are experiencing in their relationship.
   - In the grave dressing phase, partners will attempt to justify their actions, and strive to construct a representation of the failed relationship that does not paint their contribution to it in unfavourable terms.

**Possible AO3 content:**
   - One strength of Duck’s model is there is research support for the grave dressing phase. For example, Monroe et al. found that students who experienced the end of a romantic relationship for the first time had a greater risk of developing depression. However, Tashiro and Frazier found that individuals feel better about the end of a relationship when they focus on the situation, rather than their own flaws, highlighting the importance of the grave dressing phase for psychological well-being.
   - Another strength of Duck’s model is its application to relationship theory and intervention. For example, if the relationship is in the intrapsychic phase, repair may involve re-establishing liking for the partner, but during the social phase, people outside of the relationship may be able to help partners work out their differences. This highlights the positive application of Duck’s model to help resolve relationship issues.
   - However, one issue with Duck’s original model is that it fails to acknowledge personal growth. Duck revised his model to include the ‘resurrection process’; for many people, this is an opportunity to move beyond the distress associated with ending a relationship and engage in a process of personal growth. This suggests that the original model provided a limited account of relationship breakdown.
   - Another issue with Duck’s model is that the nature of the social phase is dependent on the type of relationship. For example, for teenagers and young adults, individuals may receive no real reconciliation during the social phase, as their romantic relationships are seen as more unstable. However, older people in a long-term relationship may have more obvious attempts by others to rescue the current relationship.
   - A final issue with research examining relationship breakdown is the ethical issues involved. For example, carrying out research in this area raises issues of privacy and protection from harm. This is particularly difficult when dealing with vulnerable individuals who are attempting to cope with the stress of a relationship breaking down.

**Virtual relationships in social media (pages 32–34)**

1. D

2. • In online relationships, there is an absence of barriers that usually limits the opportunities for less attractive, shy, or less socially skilled people to form relationships.
   • Online social networks can empower ‘gated’ individuals to present the identities they hope to establish but struggle to in face-to-face situations.

3. *Sample answer provided in workbook.*
Possible AO1 content:

- The nature of virtual relationships is different from face-to-face relationships in two key ways. One of these is higher levels of self-disclosure, and the other is the removal of gates, such as physical appearance and mannerisms.
- Self-disclosure in the virtual world allows individuals to present an ‘edited’ version of themselves to others. People feel more secure with disclosing intimate and sensitive information in private online, as the anonymity of internet interactions greatly decreases the risk of self-disclosures, as people can share their inner thoughts and feelings with much less fear of disapproval and social sanctions.
- In online relationships, there is an absence of gating, which means that less attractive, shy, or less socially skilled people can feel empowered to present the identities that they hope to establish, but struggle to in face-to-face situations.

Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of virtual relationships and social media research is the growing importance of the internet for romantic relationships. For example, Rosenfeld and Thomas examined 4,000 adults and found 71.8 per cent of those with internet access at home had a spouse or a partner, compared with 35.9 per cent of those who didn’t have internet access. This suggests that the internet may be displacing, rather than simply complementing, the traditional ways of meeting a romantic partner.
- Another strength of virtual relationships is that online relationships can be just as strong as offline relationships. For example, Rosenfeld and Thomas found no evidence to support the claim that internet communication can only lead to superficial relationships. This supports the role that the internet plays in the formation of romantic relationships, which are no different to face-to-face relationships.
- A third strength of virtual relationships is that they improve the quality of relationships for shy people. For example, Baker and Oswald surveyed 207 students about their shyness, Facebook usage, and the quality of their friendships. They found that for students who scored high for shyness, greater use of Facebook was associated with higher perceptions of friendship quality.
- Further support for virtual relationships comes from research examining the biological basis of self-disclosure. For example, Tamir and Mitchell found increased MRI activity in the nucleus accumbens and ventral tegmental area, both of which are associated with rewards. These areas were strongly activated when people were talking about themselves, and less so when they were talking about someone else, suggesting that we share our personal experiences because self-disclosure is rewarding.
- A final strength of virtual relationships is that they have positive consequences for offline relationships, too. For example, Zhao et al. claim that relationships formed online have positive consequences for people’s lives offline. The development of virtual relationships allows some individuals to bypass gating obstacles, and create the sort of identity they are unable to establish offline. This then enhances their overall self-image, and so may increase their chances to connect to others in their offline world.

Parasocial relationships (pages 35–37)

1. C

2. The entertainment-social level is where fans are attracted to their favourite celebrity and will watch them, keep up-to-date with them, and learn about their celebrity for entertainment purposes.
   - The intense-personal level is where fans feel intensive and compulsive feelings about the celebrity, and involves a deeper level of involvement with them.
   - The borderline-pathological level is characterised by an over-identification with the celebrity and uncontrollable behaviours and fantasies about their lives.

3. a. One disadvantage is that it can easily be distorted by extreme values, and end up being misrepresentative of the data as a whole.
   b. The range OR standard deviation.
c. The researcher could have used a bar chart. This would be appropriate because a bar chart is suitable when the data are not continuous, as with 'entertainment-social' and 'intense-personal'.

d. One reason is that the study has used an independent groups design. Another reason is that the data collected (mean score on the reasoning test) are at least at the ordinal level of measurement.

e. Unrelated t-test.

4. Possible AO1 content:

- Parasocial relationships are where individuals are attracted to another person, usually a celebrity, who is usually unaware of the existence of the person who has created the relationship.
- One explanation of parasocial relationship comes from attachment theory. This says that there are three key attachment behaviours involved in parasocial relationships. These are: proximity seeking, a secure base, and protest at disruption. Proximity seeking is where the individual will attempt to reduce the distance between themselves and their attachment figure. Fans exhibit many proximity-seeking behaviours as part of their parasocial relationship, such as contacting their favourite celebrity through fan mail. A secure base is where the mere presence of the attachment figure provides a sense of security. In a parasocial relationship there is little, or no, chance of rejection. Protest at disruption is where the individual experiences distress following separation from the attachment figure or celebrity.
- Another explanation of parasocial relationships is the absorption addiction model. According to this model, individuals can become psychologically absorbed with a celebrity, which might then take on an addictive component. There are three levels in this process. Entertainment-social, where fans are attracted to their favourite celebrity and will watch them, keep up-to-date with them, and learn about their celebrity for entertainment purposes. The intense-personal level is where fans feel intensive and compulsive feelings about the celebrity, and involves a deeper level of involvement with them. The borderline-pathological level is characterised by an over-identification with the celebrity and uncontrollable behaviours and fantasies about their lives.

Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of the absorption addiction model comes from research examining personality characteristics. For example, Maltby et al. used the Eysenck personality questionnaire to assess the relationship between parasocial relationships and personality. They found the intense-personal level was associated with neuroticism, supporting the absorption addiction model, and also highlights a way to identify people at risk of developing parasocial relationships.
- One strength of the attachment theory of parasocial relationships comes from research investigating the loss of a parasocial relationship and attachment styles. For example, Cohen studied 381 adults’ attachment type and their relationship with their favourite TV character. Viewers expecting to lose their favourite characters anticipated negative reactions similar to those experienced after the loss of close personal relationships. Anxious, ambivalently attached individuals reacted the most negatively, providing some support for the idea that parasocial relationships can be explained through attachment theory.
- A third strength of theories explaining parasocial relationships comes from research support. For example, Schiappa et al. carried out a meta-analysis that explored factors that were key in the formation of parasocial relationships and found a significant positive relationship between the degree to which a person perceived TV characters as real and the tendency to form parasocial relationships. This supports the idea that people in parasocial relationships engage in proximity-seeking behaviours.
- A fourth strength of these theories comes from research that suggests parasocial relationships are linked to isolation and loneliness. For example, Greenwood and Long found that individuals may develop parasocial relationships as a way to deal with feelings of loneliness or loss.
- A final strength of theories examining parasocial relationships is that there are cultural similarities. For example, Schmid and Klimmt investigated whether there would be differences in the parasocial relationships formed with Harry Potter in Mexico and Germany. They found that both countries showed similar patterns of parasocial relationships, suggesting that these relationships are similar in different cultures, demonstrating the universal influence of mainstream media.
Answers

Chapter 2 – Issues and debates

Gender in psychology: Gender bias (pages 38–40)

1. B

2. a. Androcentrism refers to research that is centred, or focused, on men, often to the neglect or exclusion of women. For example, the researchers developed a ‘life structure’ theory of adulthood, but they only conducted the research for it on men.

   b. • The sample in this research is made up exclusively of male participants.
   • However, the researchers developed a ‘life structure’ theory of adulthood, which they applied to both genders.
   • This is an example of beta bias, because it assumes that how men experience adulthood is also true for women, and so minimises any differences between males and females.

3. a. Quasi experiment.
   b. Nominal.
   c. They used an independent groups design, and they were looking for a difference between men and women’s ability to draw where the water line would be in a bottle tipped to the right.

4. Possible AO1 content:
   • A gender bias occurs when men and women are treated or represented differently, based on stereotypes rather than real differences.
   • Psychology has tended to have an androcentric gender bias. This is when research is centred or focused on men, often to the neglect or exclusion of women.
   • Alpha bias occurs when a theory assumes there is a real and enduring difference between males and females. There is a tendency to exaggerate the differences between men and women, and therefore devalue one gender.
   • Beta bias occurs when a theory ignores or minimises the differences between males and females. There is a tendency to assume that insights derived from studies of men will apply equally well to women.

Possible AO3 content:
   • A criticism of psychology research is that its methods are gender biased because they disadvantage women. For example, laboratory experiments sometimes find differences between men and women, but being tested in controlled environments might disadvantage women, so the differences may not be real ones.
   • One way to reduce gender bias is to take a feminist approach. This agrees that there are real biologically based sex differences, but socially determined stereotypes make a far greater contribution to perceived differences. A prerequisite for any social change with regard to gender roles must be a revision of our ‘facts’ about gender.
   • Another way to reduce gender bias is to develop theories that emphasise the value of women. For example, Cornwell et al. found that women are better at learning because they are more attentive, which challenges the stereotype that in any gender differences the male position must be better, and helps to change people’s misconceptions.
   • One issue with beta bias is that it ignores important differences between genders. For example, by minimising the differences between men and women, it ignores the biological demands of pregnancy and childbirth.
A final issue with psychology research is that examples of gender bias remain unchallenged. For example, Darwin’s theory of sexual selection portrays women as choosy when it comes to mate selection. However, recent DNA evidence suggests that women are equally competitive when the need arises.

**Culture in psychology: Cultural bias (pages 41–43)**

1. B

2. Universality is when something applies to all people irrespective of their gender and culture. For example, without an underlying set of universal psychological mechanisms, it is unclear how the adaptation of Asian children to a new culture would be able to take place.

3. a. Ethnocentrism refers to using our own ethnic or cultural group as a basis for judgements about other groups. Asch’s American participants are seen as the ‘standard’ against which other groups are compared.

   b. One strength of conducting research in a laboratory is that it is high in internal validity. This is because variables are tightly controlled, so we can be more certain that any change in the dependent variable is due to the independent variable. One limitation of conducting research in a laboratory is that it may be lower in ecological validity. This is because the independent or dependent variables may be operationalised in ways that don’t represent everyday life.

4. **Possible AO1 content:**
   - A cultural bias is the tendency to judge all people in terms of your own cultural assumptions, which distorts or biases your judgement.
   - There are different types of cultural bias, including alpha bias and beta bias. An alpha bias refers to theories that assume there are real and enduring differences between cultural groups. Beta bias refers to theories that ignore, or minimise, cultural differences by assuming that all people are the same.
   - Ethnocentrism is when things are seen from the point of view of ourselves and our culture, and evaluating other groups of people using the standards and customs of our own cultural group.
   - Cultural relativism is the view that behaviour cannot be judged properly unless it is viewed in the context of the culture in which it originates.

**Possible AO3 content:**
- One strength of cultural research is the development of indigenous psychologies. This is the development of different groups of theories in different countries. For example, Afrocentrism, which disputes the view that European values are universally appropriate descriptions of human behaviour that apply equally to Europeans and non-Europeans alike.
- However, one issue with cultural research is the development of culturally specific theories. For example, Afrocentric research findings are only significant to understanding behaviour in one culture. An etic approach, however, uses indigenous researchers in different cultural settings to look for universal theories of behaviour, while avoiding cultural bias.
- Cultural bias can be dealt with by using better, more representative sampling methods. For example, Smith and Bond surveyed a European textbook on social psychology and found that 66% of studies were American, suggesting that non-American psychological research is severely unrepresentative, and can be improved by simply selecting different cultural groups.
• One issue that can arise from culturally biased research is the formation of stereotypes. For example, before the Second World War, the US Army used a culturally biased IQ test which showed that African-Americans were at the bottom of the scale, with the lowest mental age. This has had a profound effect on the attitudes held by Americans towards other groups of people.
• One strength of psychological research today is that researchers are more culturally aware. For example, academics often hold international conferences where researchers from different countries and cultures exchange ideas. This has helped to reduce ethnocentrism and enabled a greater understanding of cultural relativism.

Free will and determinism (pages 44–47)

1. B

2. • Determinism is the view that a person’s behaviour is controlled by internal or external forces.
   • For example, when Stuart shows the symptoms associated with Tourette’s disorder, his behaviour is controlled by internal forces.
   • However, free will is the view that everyone has the power to make choices about their behaviour. Stuart does not appear to have free will over his behaviour.

3. • Biological determinism is the view that behaviour is governed by our genes.
   • For example, phobias are acquired as a result of genetic factors.
   • However, environmental determinism is the view that behaviour is caused by previous learned experience.
   • For example, phobias are acquired through classical conditioning.

4. • Scientific research is based on the assumption that all events have a cause.
   • In experiments, an IV is manipulated in order to observe the causal effect on a DV.
   • For example, the researchers wanted to see if the drug causes a change in behaviour, or not.

5. • Hard determinism is the view that all behaviour can be predicted and there is no free will.
   • Whereas, soft determinism is the view that while behaviour may be predictable, individuals are free to choose their behaviour, but this is usually from within a fairly limited repertoire.

6. a. Statistical tests work out the probability of certain results occurring. They enable researchers to make a decision about whether to accept or reject a null hypothesis.
   b. $s = 1$. This is because one student who previously judged the man to be guilty changed his mind, so is the least frequently occurring sign.

7. Possible AO1 content:
• Determinism is the view that a person’s behaviour is controlled by internal or external forces.
• There are different types of determinism. Biological determinism is the view that behaviour is governed by our genes. For example, research on intelligence has identified particular genes found in people with high intelligence.
• Environmental determinism is the view that behaviour is caused by previous learned experience. For example, phobias are acquired through classical conditioning.
• Psychic determinism is the view that our behaviour is caused by innate drives and early experiences. For example, Freud’s psychoanalytic theory of personality says that behaviour is driven by the libido, which is innate, but if it is frustrated or overindulged at a particular stage of development then this will dominate the adult personality.
• Free will is the view that everyone has the power to make choices about their behaviour.
Possible AO3 content:

- One issue with determinism is that no behaviour is completely environmentally determined. For example, concordance rates for intelligence or depression suggest that genetic factors also play a role in these behaviours. This suggests that environmental determinism is unable to fully explain any behaviour.
- Another issue with determinism is that no behaviour is completely biologically determined. For example, twin studies have found a concordance rate of 40% for depression. However, identical twins share 100% of their genes, and even though there is a 40% similarity, the results suggest that 60% is caused by other factors.
- A third issue with the idea of determinism is that it provides an excuse for unacceptable behaviours. For example, Stephen Mobley killed a pizza shop manager and claimed that he was ‘born to kill’ due to a history of violence in his family. While this was rejected, it does show the wider legal issues with taking a deterministic position.
- One issue with the idea of free will is the lack of support from cognitive neuroscience. For example, Libet et al. recorded activity in motor regions of the brain before a person had conscious awareness of the decision to move their finger. This shows that behavioural responses are biologically determined and humans do not always have free will.
- Another issue with the idea of free will is that it may just be an illusion. For example, Skinner claimed that just because we can decide between different actions does not mean that we have free will. Any choices we make are determined by previous reinforcement experiences, suggesting our behaviour is environmentally determined, and free will is just an illusion.

The nature–nurture debate (pages 48–50)

1. D

2. Sample answer provided in workbook.

3. The interactionist approach in the nature–nurture debate refers to the view that the processes of nature and nurture work together rather than in opposition.
   - For example, when it comes to choosing a partner, evolutionary theory proposes that members of the same sex have inherited a preference for certain desirable qualities, such as physical attraction or intelligence.
   - However, it has also been proposed that relationships form as a result of nurture. For example, filter theory states that, when choosing a partner, demographic similarities such as location, social class, or religion are important.
   - The interactionist approach would say that both nature and nurture work together to influence people’s choice of partner. For example, we may only look for a partner within our social class, but we will choose the most intelligent or physically attractive person from within that demographic.

4. a. The outcome seems to suggest that nurture plays the most important role in learning the violin. The findings indicate that the more the violinists practice, the more able they become. Also, no ‘naturally gifted’ performers were found, which also supports the role played by nurture in learning the violin.
   - For example, the ability to play a piece of music without making any mistakes.
   - The violinists might have reported practising the violin more (or less) because they wanted to impress the psychologists, or for some other reason.
   - Spearman's rho OR Pearson's r.
Possible AO1 content:

- The nature–nurture debate is the argument as to whether a person’s development is mainly due to their genes or to environmental influences.
- Nature refers to innate influences. This does not refer just to characteristics determined by genes. For example, our choice of romantic partner is the result of an inherited preference for certain desirable qualities, such as physical attraction or intelligence, when looking for a partner.
- Nurture refers to environmental influences that are acquired through interactions with the environment. This includes both the physical and social world. For example, our choice of partner is the result of social demography, such as social background, and location.
- One consideration in the nature–nurture debate is the idea that nature affects nurture. For example, a child who is genetically more aggressive might provoke an aggressive response in others. This response becomes part of the child’s environment and affects the child’s development.
- A second consideration in the nature–nurture debate is the idea that nurture affects nature. For example, Maguire et al. found that the hippocampi of London taxi drivers was larger in comparison to non-taxi drivers, suggesting that driving a taxi (nurture) can affect nature (the size of the hippocampus).
- One strength of the nature–nurture debate is the development of the diathesis-stress model. This suggests that you can be born with a biological vulnerability for a disorder; however, the disorder will only develop if it is triggered from a stressor in the environment. This highlights the importance of taking an interactionist approach in psychology.
- Another consideration in the nature–nurture debate is the role of epigenetics. This is the material in each cell of the body, which acts as a ‘switch’ to turn genes on or off. Life experiences, such as nutrition or stress, control these switches. This provides further support to the idea that genes and the environment are much less separate than previously thought.

Possible AO3 content:

- One issue with the nature–nurture debate is that the debate has become meaningless. This is because most psychologists believe that an interactionist approach, which considers both nature and nurture, is more suitable. The interdependence of nature and nurture makes adaptive sense, as a flexible biological system that responds to the environment ensures that each individual makes maximum use of their innate qualities.

Holism and reductionism (pages 51–53)

1. D

2. Biological reductionism is the view that complex behaviours can be reduced to the actions of neurons, neurotransmitters and hormones.
   - For example, the biological approach attempts to explain relationships as being a result of an inherited preference for certain desirable qualities, such as physical attraction or intelligence, when looking for a partner.
   - However, environmental reductionism is the view that behaviours can be reduced to simple stimulus–response links.
   - For example, the behaviourist approach attempts to explain phobias as being a result of someone associating a neutral stimulus with a painful unconditioned stimulus.

3. One issue with biological reductionism is that it ignores the context and function of behaviour. For example, to say that we are ‘no more than the behaviour of a vast assembly of nerve cells’ fails to acknowledge the context and function of behaviour.
   - This means that psychological explanations may be better because they take more account of these factors.
4. ‘Levels of explanation’ is the reductionist belief that behaviour can be explained at different levels. For example, memory can be explained at the biological level (brain structures and brain chemicals).
   a. Nominal.
   b. Directional. She predicted that people would be more likely to agree with the second statement than the first, so she is predicting the direction the results will take.

5. Possible AO1 content:
   - A reductionist approach involves breaking a complex behaviour into simpler components.
   - There are different types of reductionism. Biological reductionism is the view that complex behaviours can be reduced to the actions of genes, neurons, neurotransmitters, and hormones. For example, the biological approach attempts to explain relationships as being a result of an inherited preference for certain desirable qualities, such as physical attraction or intelligence, when looking for a partner.
   - Environmental reductionism is the view that behaviours can be reduced to simple stimulus–response links. For example, the behaviourist approach attempts to explain phobias as being a result of someone associating a neutral stimulus with a painful unconditioned stimulus.
   - Experimental reductionism is the view that reducing complex behaviours to isolated variables is a useful strategy for conducting research. Behaviours are reduced to operationalised variables that can be manipulated and measured to determine causal relationships.

Possible AO3 content:
   - A strength of biological reductionism is the development of drug therapies. For example, these have led to treatments which have resulted in a considerable reduction in institutionalisation.
   - One issue with environmental reductionism is that the experiments may not apply to human behaviour. For example, the behavioural approach was developed as a result of experiments with non-human animals, but such explanations may not be appropriate for complex human behaviours. This matters because environmental reductionism ignores other possible influences on human behaviour, such as cognition or emotional factors.
   - An issue with experimental reductionism is that the research findings may not be applicable to everyday life. For example, Loftus and Palmer’s laboratory experiment provide an insight into the accuracy of eyewitness testimony, but these results have not been supported by real-life research.
   - One issue with a reductionist approach in general is that it can lead to errors in understanding. For example, lower levels of explanation, such as the biological level, are taken in isolation, and therefore the meaning of the behaviour might be overlooked. This matters because we do not develop an accurate understanding of human behaviour.
   - It may be better to consider an interactionist point of view rather than take a reductionist approach because research has shown that the mind can affect our biology. For example, Martin et al. found that depressed patients receiving psychotherapy experience the same changes in serotonin as those who received drug therapy. This suggests that the different levels of explanation interact.

Idiographic and nomothetic approaches to psychological investigation (pages 54–57)

1. C

2. • An idiographic approach to psychological investigation focuses on the individual case as a means of understanding behaviour, rather than aiming to formulate general laws of behaviour.
   • However, a nomothetic approach to psychological investigation attempts to formulate general laws of behaviour.
   • An idiographic approach to psychological investigation uses methods such as case studies, unstructured interviews, and thematic analysis.
   • However, a nomothetic approach to psychological investigation uses statistical (quantitative) techniques, such as experiments.
3.  
a. The idiographic approach to psychological investigation focuses on the individual case as a means of understanding behaviour. It collects data that is qualitative, which is non-numerical data, and allows for an in-depth insight into human behaviour. This means that we can avoid losing some of what Sebastian calls the ‘richness and complexity’ of social life.

b. *Sample answer provided in workbook.*

4.  
a. Reliability refers to the consistency of a measurement. Validity refers to whether the effect is a genuine one.

b. One way in which the reliability of a personality test could be measured is the test-retest method. This involves giving the participants the same test on two occasions to see if the same results were obtained.

OR

One way in which the validity of a personality test could be measured is to compare scores on an existing test with scores on the one in which you are interested. If the test has concurrent validity, there will be a positive correlation between scores on the existing test and the one in which you are interested.

5.  
Possible AO1 content:

- The idiographic approach to psychological investigation focuses on the individual case as a means of understanding behaviour, rather than aiming to formulate general laws of behaviour.
- It prefers to use methods that give qualitative data, such as case studies, unstructured interviews, and thematic analysis.
- An example of the idiographic approach in psychology is Freud’s case study of Little Hans, which consisted of over 150 pages of quotations and descriptions of events in Little Hans’ life, as well as Freud’s own interpretations of the events.
- The nomothetic approach to psychological investigation focuses on the formation of general laws of behaviour, and involves the study of a large number of people.
- It prefers to use methods that give quantitative data, such as experiments.
- An example of the nomothetic approach in psychology is the behavioural approach, which produces general laws of behaviour, through classical and operant conditioning, to explain learning in humans.

Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of the idiographic approach is that it focuses on the individual. For example, Allport argued that a drastic reorientation was needed as it is only by fully understanding an individual that we can predict how an individual might act in a given situation.
- However, one limitation of the idiographic approach is that it is not scientific. For example, it has been claimed that the approach is not sufficiently evidence-based. Because of this, critics argue that its findings are essentially meaningless, and tell us little, if anything, about how people behave.
- A further limitation of the idiographic approach is that its methods are relatively time consuming. For example, collecting large amounts of data from one person takes far more time than collecting large amounts of data from a group of people. This means that the idiographic approach is less efficient when it comes to data collection.
- The nomothetic approach may be better than the idiographic approach because it is able to produce general predictions about behaviour. For example, it allows us to produce drugs to help treat mental disorders. It would be far too time consuming to produce personal therapies for each individual.
An issue with both the idiographic and nomothetic approaches is that the distinction between them may be false. For example, Holt claims that there is no such thing as a unique individual and what idiographic approaches actually do is generate general principles. Millon and Davis argue that researchers should start with the nomothetic approach and can then focus on an idiographic understanding.

Ethical implications of research studies and theory (pages 58–60)

1. D

2. a. Socially sensitive research is any research that might have direct social consequences for participants in the research, or the group that they represent. This research may be considered socially sensitive because the F-scale measures the different components that make up the authoritarian personality. For example, the volunteer would be told that he had an authoritarian personality, and he may be uncomfortable with discovering this.

   b. One way in which ethical issues can be dealt with is by giving sensitive briefing/debriefing to the participants. This could involve giving participants information about the validity of the questionnaire and any other information that ensured they were not harmed by their experiences in the study.

   c. One socially sensitive research study is Kurdek and Schmitt's research into social exchange theory. This investigated the importance of social exchange factors in determining relationship quality in heterosexual and homosexual couples. Their questionnaire showed that factors that predict satisfaction in same-sex relationships are the same ones that predict satisfaction in heterosexual relationships. It is socially sensitive because the research question suggested there may be a difference in the quality of heterosexual and homosexual relationships.

3. a. Findings obtained at one time might not hold true at another time with different researchers or different participants. Therefore, research must be replicated before a finding can be accepted as well established.

   b. A Type 1 error is when a researcher rejects a null hypothesis that is true. A Type 2 error is when a researcher accepts a null hypothesis that is false.

   c. The first research team believed the second research team should have used a one-tailed test instead of the two-tailed test they did use. If they had done this, they would have been able to reject the null hypothesis, and would have avoided making a Type 2 error.

4. Possible AO1 content:

   • Socially sensitive research is any research that might have direct social consequences for participants in the research, or the group that they represent.

   • According to Sieber and Stanley, there are four key aspects of the research process. These are all likely to have ethical issues with social consequences. For example, a research question that asks ‘Is homosexuality inherited?’ may be damaging to members of that group.

   • The ethical implications of research into relationships are important to be aware of. For example, research on relationship breakdown has potential social consequences for people involved in the research. Participants are likely to be vulnerable and trying to cope with a relationship ending, so it is important to consider ethical guidelines, and ensure that the benefits of conducting this research outweighs the costs to participants.
Possible AO3 content:

- One issue with socially sensitive research is the wider impact of the research itself. For example, there is the potential for an indirect impact on the participants’ families or co-workers. This means that it isn’t enough to simply safeguard the interests of the individual in research.
- Another issue with socially sensitive research is that it may disadvantage marginalised groups in society. For example, people who are involved in parasocial relationships are sometimes excluded from, or misrepresented in, psychological research. This matters because it means that these groups may then miss out on any potential benefits the research brings.
- One issue with the current ethical guidelines is that researchers may inflict harm on a group of people. For example, they do not ask researchers to consider how their research might be used by others, or how they could form or shape public policy.
- One solution to the issue of conducting socially sensitive research is to avoid it. For example, researchers could avoid researching sensitive areas such as gender, homosexuality, race or addiction. However, Sieber and Stanley argue that this is an avoidance of responsibility by psychologists, who have a duty to conduct socially sensitive research.
- Another solution to the issue of conducting socially sensitive research is for researchers to engage in policy matters. For example, in order to reduce the likelihood of misuse of data, psychologists should take a proactive role in taking responsibility for what happens with their findings.