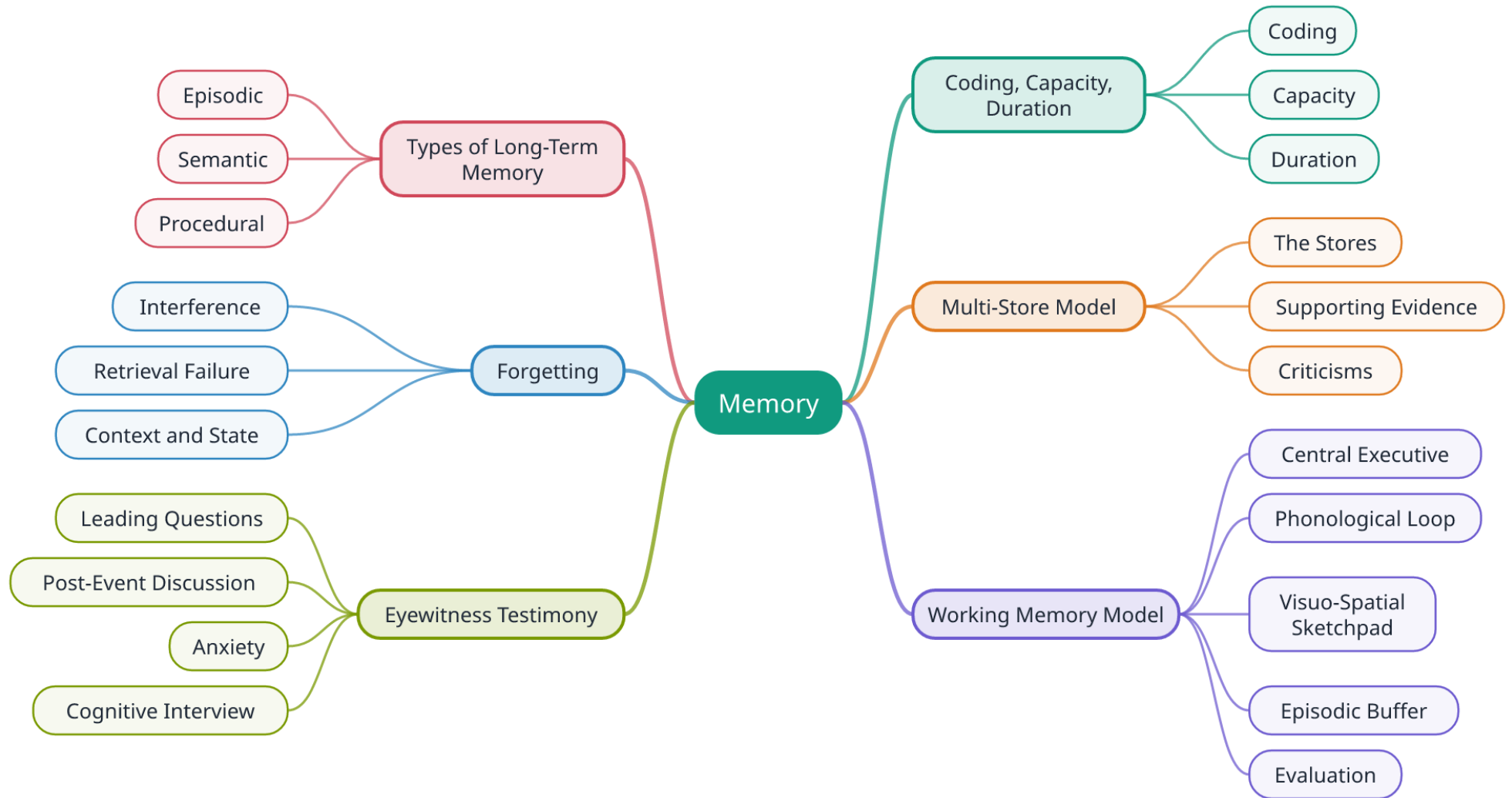


Memory Mind Map (A Level Psychology)

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Memory mind map explained

Coding, Capacity, Duration

How short-term memory (STM) and long-term memory (LTM) differ.

Coding

STM is mainly acoustic and LTM mainly semantic (Baddeley, 1966, using acoustically and semantically similar word lists).

Capacity

STM holds about 7 plus or minus 2 items (Miller, 1956); Jacobs (1887) measured it with digit span. LTM capacity is potentially unlimited.

Duration

STM lasts about 18 to 30 seconds without rehearsal (Peterson and Peterson, 1959). LTM can last a lifetime (Bahrick et al., 1975, on recognising classmates' photos).

Multi-Store Model

Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968): memory as three separate stores linked by processes.

The Stores

Sensory register -> (attention) -> short-term memory -> (rehearsal) -> long-term memory. Retrieval brings information back from LTM to STM.

Supporting Evidence

Studies of coding, capacity and duration support separate stores. The case of HM, who could not form new long-term memories after brain surgery, suggests STM and LTM are in different brain areas.

Criticisms

Too simple: KF had an impaired STM for verbal but not visual information, suggesting more than one STM store. Rehearsal is not always needed to transfer information to LTM.

Working Memory Model

Baddeley and Hitch (1974): STM as an active system with several parts.

Central Executive

Directs attention and allocates tasks to the slave systems. Limited capacity.

Phonological Loop

Holds sound-based information: the phonological store (inner ear) and the articulatory process (inner voice).

Visuo-Spatial Sketchpad

Holds visual and spatial information (the inner eye).

Episodic Buffer

Added by Baddeley in 2000. A temporary store that combines information from the other parts and links to LTM.

Evaluation

Dual-task studies show two visual tasks interfere but a visual and a verbal task do not, supporting separate slave systems. KF's case also supports it. The central executive is vaguely defined.

Types of Long-Term Memory

Tulving (1985) and others divided LTM into different stores.

Episodic

Memories of personal events, such as your last birthday, with details of time and place. Explicit and needs conscious effort to recall.

Semantic

Knowledge of facts and meanings, such as the capital of France. Explicit.

Procedural

Memory for skills and actions, such as riding a bike. Implicit: recalled without conscious effort.

Forgetting

Two main explanations for why information in LTM is forgotten.

Interference

Proactive interference is when old learning disrupts new; retroactive is when new learning disrupts old. McGeoch and McDonald (1931) found more interference the more similar the material.

Retrieval Failure

Information is there but cannot be accessed without the right cues. Encoding specificity: cues present at learning help recall.

Context and State

Godden and Baddeley (1975): divers recalled words better in the same environment, land or underwater, where they learned them. Carter and Cassaday (1998) showed the same for internal state, using antihistamines.

Eyewitness Testimony

How accurate witnesses are, and how to improve their accounts.

Leading Questions

Loftus and Palmer (1974): participants who heard "smashed" estimated a mean speed of 40.5 mph; those who heard "contacted" estimated 31.8 mph.

Post-Event Discussion

Gabbert et al. (2003): 71% of participants who discussed a crime with a co-witness reported details they had not seen themselves.

Anxiety

Johnson and Scott (1976): in the weapon focus study, 33% identified the man holding a bloody knife, against 49% who saw him holding a pen. But Yuille and Cutshall (1986) found real witnesses to a shooting were highly accurate.

Cognitive Interview

Fisher and Geiselman (1992): report everything, reinstate the context, recall in a different order and change perspective. The enhanced version adds techniques such as building rapport.

How to revise with this mind map

1. Learn each model with a diagram. Be able to draw the multi-store and working memory models from memory and label every part.
2. Pair every claim with a study. For each feature or explanation, know a named study, its method and its key finding, ideally with a number.
3. Practise evaluation with the PEEL structure: point, evidence, explain, link. AQA rewards evaluation that is specific and explained, not a list of strengths and weaknesses.
4. Prepare for applied questions. Practise using the models and explanations to explain a scenario in the question, quoting its details.
5. Make it yours. Build your own memory map in Mindmapi from your notes, and ask the AI about any study you are unsure of. The answer is saved into that branch's notes for next time.