1. According to Gestalt psychology, apparent movement, for example, happens because our minds fill in missing information. This belief that the whole is greater than the sum of the individual parts led to the discovery of several different phenomena that occur during perception. The law of closure is another example of a Gestalt law of perceptual organization. According to this principle, things in the environment often tend to be seen as part of a whole. In many cases, our minds will even fill in the missing information to create cohesive shapes. Gestalt psychology was founded by German thinkers Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Kohler and Kurt Koffka and focused on how people interpret the world. The Gestalt perspective formed partially as a response to the structuralism of Wilhelm Wundt, who focused on breaking down mental events and experiences to the smallest elements. Max Wertheimer noted that rapid sequences of perceptual events, such as rows of flashing lights, create the illusion of motion even when there is none. This is known as the phi phenomenon. Motion pictures are based on this principle, with a series of still images appearing in rapid succession to form a seamless visual experience. According to Gestalt psychology, the whole is different from the sum of its parts. Based upon this belief, Gestalt psychologists developed a set of principles to explain perceptual organization, or how smaller objects are grouped to form larger ones. These principles are often referred to as the "laws of perceptual organization." However, it is important to note that while Gestalt psychologists call these phenomena "laws," a more accurate term would be "principles of perceptual organization." These principles are much like heuristics, which are mental shortcuts for solving problems.
2. Language can be described in different ways, but some of the commonalities between different languages are: They are communicative, arbitrarily symbolic, regularly structured, structured at multiple levels, generative and productive as well as dynamic. These traits are not exhaustive but some will say all need to be present in order for us to call some communication a language. This can exclude most animal communication systems, although this can be debated. There are basic units in language as phonemes and morphemes, but the units we are most aware of are words, the units that contain and transfers meaning from one person to another. Understanding words is vital to good language processing, as is being able to put words together to form sentences. In order to process oral language our speech perception needs to function at several levels. We perceive speech categorically, and are at the same time able to overlook aspects of speech which are not important for detection of meaning. There are two main views on speech perception: That it is special or that it is ordinary. Independent of these views is the fact that speech perception is affected not only by the auditory, but also on the visual modality.

3. One way to approach this question is to elaborate on Schacter’s seven sins of memory, listed on page 238 of the fifth edition (chapter on memory processes). These are: Transience. Memory fades. Depending on how much time is available to answer the questions, students may elaborate on this to list phenomena involved forgetting, such as proactive interference, retroactive interference or decay. Absent-mindedness. This is lack of attention. What I consider most relevant here are divided attention as an example of limited attentional capacity, selective attention, as an example of excluding information considered irrelevant at the time, and concrete examples such as change blindness. Topics such as filter bottleneck and attentional resource models I consider less relevant, unless they are used to explain selective or divided attention. Blocking. Sternberg only offers examples such as the tip of the tongue phenomenon, without discussing underlying mechanisms. We therefore cannot expect any discussion of those mechanisms. Misattribution. Information from one event is misattributed to another, or an inference is misattributed to a story or an experience. For example, people told that “Little Johnny’s mother looked out of the kitchen window to see why he was making so much noise. She saw that he was banging a nail into the bird house he was building.” People are later asked what tool the story said little Johnny had been using. Many reports a hammer, even though the story did not mention the tool; a hammer is merely a plausible inference, that may have been inserted into a mental image that people constructed. Sternberg also provides examples from Loftus’ research, where often information contained in a question is falsely attributed to the original event the question asks about. Suggestibility. This is misattribution where the false information specifically comes from someone else’s suggestion. Therefore, Loftus’ research also fits this category. Bias. This is a quantitative distortion of memory. Because Sternberg does not discuss this further at this point, and other relevant information is not in the chapters that are pensum, we can’t expect anything more here. Persistence. Some memories are far more accessible than people would like, such as in post-traumatic stress disorder. However, the phrasing of the exam question makes persistence irrelevant, so we can’t expect anything on this, either. A focus on Schacter’s sins of memory requires the student to integrate information from different chapters of the book. An alternative approach would be to focus on Loftus’ research on eyewitness and autobiographical memory, and perhaps on the Roediger-McDermott memory illusion paradigm. A word list consisting of the 15 strongest associates of a core word is presented to subjects, but the core word is omitted. Yet this core word is often recognised or recalled in later tests. Sternberg attributes this to spreading activation.