

Approaches Review

For all of the approaches you must be able to do the following:

Outline their key principles/assumptions: you need to be able to outline their beliefs about the causes/origins of behaviour and outline their view of how behaviour can be treated/changed. You should be able to outline how they believe we should measure/test behaviour. You must be able to outline/define any relevant key terms within the approach.

Evaluate them: you need to consider what evidence there is to support/refute the approach, which disorders they can/cannot explain, which areas of psychology they have contributed to, how scientific they are and whether they contribute to psychology being considered a science, which sides of the debates they sit, who they hold responsible for behaviour and the implications of this.

Compare them: you need to consider how similar or different they are in terms of: the methods they use; how scientific they are; how they believe disorders should be treated; what assumptions they make about the origins/causes of behaviour; which sides of the debates they sit; implications in terms of responsibility. Within your comparative writing you need to use appropriate language such as 'whereas', 'however', 'in contrast to', 'similarly'. You must consider the implications of the similarities and differences you present by extending your points to demonstrate what they mean; use language such as 'this means' or 'the result of this is.'

Apply them: if you are given a scenario in your examination you have to apply one or more approach to either explain or treat the behaviour described. You must use appropriate terminology and relevant evidence.

Note: if you are asked to outline and evaluate/discuss contributions of an approach you need to clearly state how they have contributed to psychology and then evaluate their contributions by considering how scientific they are, how useful they are, how effective they are and what they have not contributed; you can compare contributions with other approaches too and use relevant research to support your points.

Suggested Questions:

Outline the contributions of Wundt

Describe how Wundt contributed to psychology today

Discuss Wundt's contribution to psychology today

Outline the key assumptions and principles of (insert approach)

Outline one strength and one limitation of (insert approach)

Explain one difference between (insert approach) and (insert approach)

Discuss the contributions of (insert approach)

Outline the (insert approach). Compare this approach to (insert approach)

Discuss the (insert approach(es))

With reference to the (insert approach(es)) explain the behaviour and discuss how the behaviour in the scenario can be addressed

The Origins of Psychology

A01

Psychology has been studied since 1875 when Wundt, a physician from Germany, set up the first laboratory to investigate the minds of humans; he was the first person to take psychology from the philosophical to the scientific field. He wanted to study the mind in a structured way and emphasised the importance of using controls and measuring objectively. Since then psychology has developed and includes five main approaches discussed below. Without Wundt we would not be where we are now in terms of our understanding of human behaviour and scientific methods of investigation. He set up the Institute of Experimental Psychology at the University of Leipzig in 1879; this became the centre of for the experimental study of psychology; he would have participants report their sensations following exposure to a stimulus. Wundt used voluntarism to record thoughts and sensations and analyse them into their constituent elements so he could provide organised understanding of the mind. Wundt's initial focus was to look at aspects of the mind in a manner which could be observed and measured under controlled conditions. Wundt believed in introspection; he argued we can study functions of the mind through asking individuals to describe their thoughts, feelings and experiences. From this we can make inferences about human behaviour, according to Wundt. Wundt advocated for reductionism by studying components in isolation, rather than looking at the mind holistically; he believed in breaking consciousness down to its basic elements.

The different approaches in psychology developed over time, with Wundt's work initiating this process in 1879 with his opening of the Institute of Experimental Psychology. Following this, Freud's work emerged in the 1900s; he focused on dream analysis. During the early 20th century behaviourism was developed and psychologists looked at how we respond to stimulus in the environment. In the 1950s we saw the emergence of humanism; this approach focuses on the self. Following this, the 1960s and 70s were focused on cognitive psychology which looked at mental processes. Social learning theory, which is classified as a behaviourist approach, was investigated during the 1960s. Finally, psychology moved towards a biological perspective later in the 20th century.

A02/3

Wundt contributed to our understanding of human behaviour and how it should be studied, promoting the idea that psychology could be considered a valid, experimental science. He contributed to the development of psychology through promoting the use of controlled conditions by using laboratory experiments. This idea has been continued by other psychologists, for example behaviourists such as Skinner, Pavlov and Bandura, all used controlled experiments to investigate human behaviour and test their theories of learning. However, such behaviourists do not believe that introspection is scientific as it relies on subjective interpretation of what is reported. This shows that Wundt failed to achieve objectivity in his work and did not meet this feature of a science. For this reason, behaviourists focus on observable behaviour which does not rely on participants reporting their thoughts or feelings.

Wundt's concentration on mental functioning, thoughts, images and feelings has been continued within the field of cognitive psychology; the mental processes studied in this field today can be traced back to Wundt and thus our understanding of human memory and how we process information has developed as a result of Wundt's initial ideas. Cognitive psychologists continue to use controlled experiments in the same way Wundt did to study the mind.

Learning Theories/Behaviourist Approach

A01

The learning approach includes classical conditioning, operant conditioning and social learning theory. This approach focuses on the role of the environment and how we learn from experience, suggesting all behaviours are learnt from our environment. Behavioural psychologists believe that we should only investigate observable behaviour, that is behaviour which can be seen, using laboratory experiments. The aim is to establish cause and effect by controlling variables. This approach believes that animals and humans learn in the same way so behaviourists carry out experiments on animals and extrapolate the results to humans. Psychology should be scientific and objective according to behaviourists so they use laboratory experiments to achieve this.

Pavlov developed the theory of classical conditioning in 1927. He was interested in how we learn through association. Using dogs he noted that if a new stimulus was paired with an existing stimulus-response then an association can be made between the two stimuli. Pavlov, using a lab experiment, showed that dogs could be conditioned to salivate at the sound of a bell if that sound was repeatedly presented at the same time that they were given food. First the dogs were presented with the food, they salivated. The food was the unconditioned stimulus and salivation was an unconditioned (innate) response. Then Pavlov sounded the bell (neutral stimulus) before giving the food. After a few pairings the dogs salivated when they heard the bell even when no food was given. The bell had become the conditioned stimulus and salivation had become the conditioned response. The dogs had learnt to associate the bell with the food and the sound of the bell and salivation was triggered by the sound of the bell.

If we are exposed to several different neutral stimuli but only one is paired with the unconditioned stimulus then stimulus discrimination occurs; only one stimuli will become the conditioned response. The unconditioned stimulus and neutral stimulus must be paired together or occur around the same time for the association to be made; this is called temporal contiguity.

Unlike classical conditioning, operant conditioning does not focus on associations, instead it looks at how we learn from the consequences of our actions. Again, we looked at this when investigating how attachments are formed as well as how phobias are maintained. According to Skinner, who developed the theory of operant conditioning, we repeat behaviours which are reinforced and do not repeat behaviours which are punished. Reinforcements can be positive or negative, as can punishments. However, reinforcements are always rewarding and punishments are not. Skinner argued that learning is an active process. When humans and animals act on and in their environment consequences follow these behaviours. If the consequences are pleasant they repeat the behaviour but if the consequences are unpleasant they do not repeat the behaviour. Positive reinforcement is receiving a reward. Negative reinforcement occurs when performing an action stops something unpleasant happening. For example in one of Skinner's experiment a rat had to press a lever to stop receiving an electric shock. Punishment is an unpleasant consequence. For example being grounded for not doing your psychology homework.

Skinner investigated learning using rats in a laboratory experiment. He found they could be trained to repeat or avoid behaviours. He varied the consequences of the action of pressing a lever; sometimes doing this gave food, other times it stopped electric shocks and other times it delivered an electric shock. The rats learned what would lead to positive consequences and repeated such behaviour. A hungry rat was placed in a box. Every time he activated the lever a food pellet fell in the food dispenser (positive reinforcement). The rats quickly learnt to go straight to the lever after a few times of being put in the box. This suggests that positive reinforcement increases the likelihood of the behaviour being repeated. In another experiment, a rat was placed in a box in which they were subjected to an uncomfortable electrical current and as he moved around the box the rat hit the lever, this immediately switched off the electrical

current (negative reinforcement). The rats quickly learnt to go straight to the lever after a few times of being put in the box. This suggests that negative reinforcement increases the likelihood of the behaviour being repeated.

Reinforcement can be continuous; every response is reinforced. This can be useful to learn a particular response but cannot be maintained long term. Therefore partial reinforcement schedules reinforce regularly and can be maintained over time; it is unrealistic to expect a reward every time and the reward will have less effect so this schedule is preferred.

The most recent aspect of behaviourism which psychologists focused on during the 1960s is social learning theory. Bandura agreed with other behaviourists that behaviour is learnt through experience, however he proposed a different mechanism than conditioning. He argued that we learn through observation and imitation of others' behaviour. This theory focuses not only on the behaviour itself but also on the mental processes involved in learning so it is not a pure behaviourist theory.

Rather than just looking at stimulus-response relationships, he highlighted the role of cognitive processes in learning. SLT argues that we learn from observing others; when we see someone being rewarded then we imitate their behaviour in order to get the same reward. This is referred to as vicarious reinforcement; we do not experience the reward directly but through another person. We tend to pay attention to those who we can identify with by watching their behaviour and noting the consequences as a mental representation; our role models are those we have similarities to and who we can aspire to be like. Mediation processes refers to the fact that behaviour is noticed by others and remembered in LTM (retained). If the behaviour is rewarded this is a motivation for the behaviour to be copied by others (reproduction). Motivation also involves the individual expecting to receive the same positive reinforcements from imitating the observed behaviour that they have seen the model receiving. Imitation is more likely to occur if the model (the person who performs the behaviour) is positively reinforced. Imitation is also more likely if we identify with the model; we see them as sharing some characteristics with us i.e. similar age, gender, social status as we identify with them.

To investigate learning, Bandura used observations to see if we copy what we see others do; he was interested in learning whether human behaviour can be transmitted. Bandura acknowledged the role of learning but wanted to understand the cognitive processes involved. Bandura conducted the Bobo doll experiment in 1961 to investigate whether children will learn and imitate aggressive behaviour which they saw an adult role model carrying out. Bandura's (1961) Bobo doll study was as a lab experiment using American children between 3-6 years old. In group 1, 12 girls and 12 boys were shown a model hitting the doll with a hammer and shouting at the doll. In group 2, 12 girls and 12 boys were shown a model shown a non-aggressive model and in group 3, 12 girls and 12 boys (control group) were not shown a model. Then the children were taken to a room with some attractive toys but were told not to play with the toys (aggression arousal). Then the children were taken individually in a room containing a bobo doll, non-aggressive toys like pencils and plastic farm animals and aggressive toys like a hammer and a pistol. The children who had observed the aggressive model (group 1) were more aggressive than the children from the other two groups. Group 1 imitated specific aggressive acts that were displayed by the model. Boys imitated more physically aggressive acts than girls. There was no difference in the verbal aggression between boys and girls. This supports SLT as it shows that children imitate behaviour of role models even if the behaviour is aggressive. The bobo doll experiment was repeated, but this time the three groups were exposed to an aggressive model and saw different consequences for the model: Group 1: the model was praised; Group 2: the model was punished (told off); Group 3: no consequences for the aggressive behaviour. When left on their own to play the children in group 1 showed the most aggression followed by group 3. Group 2 was the least aggressive. This shows that imitation is more likely to occur when the model is positively reinforced, demonstrating the importance of vicarious reinforcement.

A02/3

Behaviourism has increased our understanding of the causes of phobias and attachment; highlighting that these behaviours can come about through classical and operant conditioning. It has given rise to therapies such as systematic desensitisation to address phobias by learning new associations and token economy to manage behaviour in prisons and schools with the use of reinforcements.

Behaviourism has experimental support as Pavlov showed that classical conditioning leads to learning by association and Watson and Rayner showed that phobias can be learnt through classical conditioning in the "little Albert" experiment. This means that there is evidence that both animals and humans can learn through association and therefore the theory can be generalised across species as intended.

Behaviourism introduced scientific methods to psychology. Laboratory experiments were used with high control of extraneous variables by the three theorists. These experiments were replicable and the data obtained was objective (not influenced by an individual's judgement or opinion) and measurable. This gave psychology more credibility than the work of Wundt and Freud who used subjective interpretation to explain human behaviours. However, many of the experiments carried out used animals; we are different cognitively and physiologically, and humans have different social norms and moral values. These mediate the effects of the environment therefore we might behave differently from animals so the laws and principles derived from these experiments might apply more to animals than to humans.

Behaviourism does not explain important aspects of human behaviour such as memory and problem solving as these are internal mental events which cannot be observed, therefore this approach cannot be used to explain all aspects of human behaviour. Furthermore, it does not take into account biological factors such as the role of neurotransmitters, for example a low level of serotonin can give rise to depression or high levels of dopamine is linked to OCD. Classical conditioning sees people as passive in their learning with little conscious thoughts influencing their behaviour; other approaches recognise the importance of mental events in the learning process, for example how schemas affect future behaviour.

Social learning theory is supported by research Bandura et al. (1961) and Bandura and Walters (1963) however these were laboratory experiments and the task did not reflect the way the participants behave in their normal life. At this young age parents would guide their understanding of the situation and moderate their behaviour; this was not the case in the studies as the children were on their own. The children were aggressive towards a doll which they know does not feel pain and cannot retaliate; their behaviour might be different towards another child. Furthermore the children were in an unfamiliar environment they might have thought that they were expected to behave like the model (demand characteristics). The participants were young children, older children and adults might not have imitated the aggressive behaviour as they have more developed moral values. The theory does not explain why the boys imitated the physical aggressive behaviour more than the girls. Other factors must be involved such as biological factors like testosterone.

SLT can explain the difference of behaviour between different cultures as if a behaviour is not displayed it cannot be imitated, this can explain why groups such as the Amish are non-violent. SLT can be used to explain the influence of media on aggressive behaviour. It is a more complete explanation of human behaviour than conditioning as it takes into account cognitive factors in learning. However it does not take into account free will and moral values. The approach neglects the influence of free will as it argues that our behaviour is the result of previous conditioning. Skinner argues that free will is an illusion. Strong determinism is evident in the behavioural approach as it argues that all behaviour is learnt from our environment (environmental determinism) through classical and operant conditioning. We are the sum total of our previous conditioning. Softer determinism can be seen within the social learning approach theory as it recognises an element of choice as to whether we imitate a behaviour or not.

Behaviourism is very much on the nurture side of the debate as it argues that our behaviour is learnt from the environment. The social learning theory is also on the nurture side because it argues that we learn our behaviour from role models in our environment. However, this approach does acknowledge that we have an innate ability to learn but it overlooks other key elements of nature such as genetic drives and abnormal brain structure which can affect behaviour.

The behaviourist approach proposes that apart from a few innate reflexes and the capacity for learning, all complex behaviour is learned from the environment. The behaviourist approach and social learning are reductionist; they isolate parts of complex behaviours to study. The behaviourists take the view that all behaviour, no matter how complex, can be broken down into the fundamental processes of conditioning. This is in agreement with Wundt who advocated for reductionism, however by overlooking holism, behaviourists may not appreciate all influences on behaviour and so may not provide a comprehensive explanation of behaviour. Behaviourism is a nomothetic approach as it views all behaviour governed by the same laws of conditioning. However, it does account for individual differences and explain them in terms of difference of history of conditioning.

The Cognitive Approach

A01

The main assumption of the cognitive approach is that information received from our senses is processed by the brain and that this processing directs how we behave. These internal mental processes cannot be observed directly but we can infer what a person is thinking based on how they act. This approach was developed in response to the behaviourist approach; researchers in this field criticised a lack of understanding with regards to internal mental processes. Cognitive psychologists argue to fully understand human behaviour we must study internal processes of the mind in controlled conditions. This approach assumes that internal processes can be studied to make inferences about the mind from the behaviour displayed. A schema is a "packet of information" or cognitive framework that helps us organise and interpret information. They are based on our previous experience. Schemas help us to interpret incoming information quickly and effectively, this prevents us from being overwhelmed by the vast amount of information we perceive in our environment. However it can also lead to distortion of this information as we select and interpret environmental stimuli using schemas which might not be relevant. This could be the cause of inaccuracies in areas such as eyewitness testimony. It can also explain some errors we make when perceiving optical illusions. Cognitive psychology has been influenced by developments in computer science and analogies are often made between how a computer works and how we process information. Based on this computer analogy, cognitive psychology is interested in how the brain inputs, stores and retrieves information. This has led to models which shows information flowing through the cognitive system such as the multi-store model of memory.

Cognitive neuroscience is an emerging field within psychology. This aims to scientifically investigate how different areas of the brain are involved in various mental processes. We can use scanning techniques to investigate the brain and see how it functions. Neuroscience aims to find out how the brain structures influence the way we process information and map mental cognitive functions to specific areas of the brain. This is done using brain imaging techniques such as fMRI and PET scans. Examples of brain mapping include Braver et al. (1997) who found that when their participants were performing activities involving the central executive while being scanned the prefrontal cortex showed greater activity. This suggests that the central executive is situated in the prefrontal cortex.

Laboratory experiments are the preferred method of investigation of the cognitive approach e.g. Loftus and Palmer (1974). In these experiments the extraneous variables are tightly controlled so they can be replicated, but they lack ecological validity as they take place in artificial environments and the tasks are also artificial. For example, in real life if you were a witness to a car crash you would not be interviewed

by a psychologist but by a policeman/woman and you would know that there would be consequences to what you say so you might be more careful about the way you answer the questions. Participants could be influenced by demand characteristics.

Case studies are used to study rare conditions which provide an insight on the working of some mental processes i.e. Clive Wearing, HM. Although case studies deal with a very small sample, so the results cannot be generalised to the wider population as they are influenced by individual characteristics, they allow us to study cases which could not be produced experimentally because of ethical and practical reasons. Brain imaging such as fMRI and Pet scans are used to map areas of the brain to cognitive function because the processing of information by centres in the brain can be seen directly. Such processing causes the area of the brain involved to increase metabolism and "light up" on the scan (Braver et al, 1997).

A02/3

The study of memory has led to the development of cognitive interview which has decreased the inaccuracy of eyewitness memory; this should lead to a decrease of wrongful convictions. It also helped us understand the causes of depression and the approach also proposes a therapy, cognitive behavioural therapy which has shown to be effective for a range of mental disorders and unlike drugs has no side effects.

The cognitive approach uses a very scientific method; mainly lab experiments. These are controlled and replicable so the results are reliable however they lack ecological validity because of the artificiality of the tasks and environment so it might not reflect the way people process information in their everyday life. For example Baddeley (1966) used lists of words to find out the encoding used by LTM, however these words had no meaning to the participants so the way they used their memory in this task was probably very different than they would have done if the words had meaning for them. This is a weakness as the theories might not explain how memory really works outside the laboratory.

The cognitive approach has a wide range of practical applications. For example schemas can be used to explain how eyewitness memories of events can be distorted and therefore inaccurate. The study of memory processes such as cue dependent forgetting has led to a strategy to improve EWT (the cognitive interview). By highlighting the importance of cognitive processing, the cognitive approach is able to offer an explanation for mental disorders such as depression where Beck argues that it is the negative schemas we hold about the self, the world and the future which lead to depression rather than external events. However it does not take into account the genetic factors which seem to be involved in mental disorders such as schizophrenia. Furthermore this approach has led to cognitive behavioural therapy which is an effective way to deal with depression and unlike drugs has no side-effects.

The cognitive approach tends to be reductionist as when studying a variable it isolates processes such as memory from other cognitive processes. However, in our normal life we would use many cognitive processes simultaneously, so it lacks validity. The approach is reductionist as it does not take into account emotions and motivation which influence the processing of information and memory for example according to the Yerkes-Dodson law anxiety can influence our memory. The cognitive approach is less deterministic than the learning approach as although it argues that our thinking is limited by the way we process information it does not deny the influence of moral values and social norms. The position of the approach is unclear as it argues on one hand that the way we process information is determined by our past experience (schemas) but on the other hand in the therapy derived from the approach (CBT) it argues that we can change the way we think, suggesting a degree of free will. The cognitive approach takes an interactionist view of the nature-nurture debate as it argues that our behaviour is influenced by learning and experience (nurture), but also by some of our brain's innate capacities as information processors e.g. language acquisition (nature).

The Biological Approach

A01

This approach looks at the effect of genes, neurochemicals and the nervous system as well as evolutionary drives. This approach makes the following assumptions; the central nervous system influences behaviour; hormones and neurotransmitters influence behaviour; our genetic makeup influences behaviour and genes can be implicated in mental illness, criminal behaviour and characteristics of our personality; genes which have an advantage in terms of survival are passed down. Our genotype is the actual genetic material we have and is unique to us (except if you are an identical twin). However, our phenotype is the way our genes are expressed in terms of our behaviour and physical appearance; this can be influenced by environment. According to evolution we adapt to our environment. Genetic material is passed down through generations and behaviour which aids survival is passed down.

To determine the involvement of genetic factors we use twin studies. We compare the concordance rate (the presence of the same trait in both members of a pair of twins) of monozygotic twins (MZ twins- same genetic material) to the concordance rate of dizygotic twins (DZ twins- share 50% of their genetic material). For example McGuffin et al. (1996) found 46% concordance for depression in MZ twins compared with 20% DZ twins.

Charles Darwin proposed the theory of natural selection. He argued that genetically determined characteristics or behaviour that enhances our chances of survival and reproduction will be passed on to the next generation, and become more common in a population whereas traits which do not enhance survival will gradually disappear. Evolutionary psychology is an approach that attempts to explain mental and psychological traits i.e. memory and perception are seen as adaptations which increase our chances of survival. An example of an evolutionary explanation is Bowlby's theory of attachment.

A02/3

A practical example of the difference between genotype and phenotype: phenylketonuria (PKU) PKU is a genetic disorder which affects the ability to break down a substance contained in normal foods (phenylalanine). If the individual follows a strict diet avoiding this substance his phenotype will be normal intelligence and behaviour however if an individual eats a diet containing the substance then it will accumulate in the brain, this will lead to a different phenotype: severe learning difficulties and behavioural problems. This shows that the presence of particular genes might lead to different outcome depending on the social environment. Characteristics depend upon an interaction between nature (the genes) and nurture (the environment); both sides of this debate must be considered.

The understanding of the role of neurotransmitters has led to the development of drugs which are effective in the treatment of mental disorders such as schizophrenia and depression. This enables many of the sufferers to lead a fairly normal life. However these drugs are not effective for all patients and they can have serious side effects and they do not cure the disorders as if the patients stop taking the drug the symptoms reappear.

This approach uses scientific research methods such as EEGs, fMRI and PET scans and twin studies. These produce objective data which can be replicated and peer reviewed. However, it could be argued that twin studies do not separate nature and nurture because twins are raised and live in the same environment and the difference in the concordance rates found between MZ and DZ twins could be due to the fact that MZ twins are treated more similarly by their parents than DZ twins because they look more similar. Also we usually do not find 100% concordance rate in MZ twins for mental disorders which indicates that environmental and social factors must be involved in the development of these disorders.

The approach has real-life applications; based on the understanding of the neurotransmitters psychoactive drugs have been developed which help treat mental disorders such as OCD and depression. This allows people with these mental disorders to live a fairly normal life. However they do not cure the disorders and when patients stop the drugs the symptoms reappear. These drugs can have very serious side-effects. Additionally it could be argued that the unbalance in neurotransmitters such as low serotonin in depressed individuals is the consequence rather than the cause of depression because the brain is a plastic organ which changes with the way we use it so it could be that the depressed thinking causes the low level of serotonin observed.

Furthermore the imbalance in neurotransmitters is usually not directly observed; it is deduced from drug trials where patients are given the drugs and seen to improve so we deduce that it was the lack of the neurotransmitters which cause the disorder but this might not be the case. For example if we cut ourselves and the cut becomes infected it is not the lack of disinfectant which causes the infection it is the presence of germs.

The biological approach is determinist as it sees our behaviour as caused entirely by biological factors over which we have no control. This encourages people not to take responsibility for their own actions and blame their genetic makeup. The biological approach is firmly on the nature side of the debate; however, it does recognise that our brain is a plastic organ which changes with experience in our social world so it does not entirely deny the influence of nurture. The biological approach is reductionist as it aims to explain all behaviour by the action of genetic or biochemical processes. It neglects the influence of factors such as early childhood experiences, conditioning or cognitive processes. It is nomothetic approach as it focuses on establishing laws and theories about the effects of physiological and biochemical processes that apply to all people. The biological approach uses very scientific methods such as scans, and biochemistry. Animals are often used in this approach as the approach assumes that humans are physiologically similar to animals.

The Psychodynamic Approach

A01

Freud developed this approach in the 19th century. He focused on explaining personality and how mental disorders can be addressed using psychoanalytic therapy. Freud focused on the role of the unconscious and argued this part of the human mind is influential on our behaviour but is not accessible. To help us understand his view on how the mind was structured, Freud used the analogy of an iceberg; most of our thoughts are below the surface and not in our conscious mind. He stated that we have an unconscious mind which contains information which the conscious mind would find uncomfortable and to cope we use defence mechanisms to repress such information and reduce anxiety. The main assumption of the psychodynamic approach is that all behaviour can be explained in terms of the inner conflicts of the mind. Freud highlights the role of the unconscious mind, the structure of personality and the influence that childhood experiences have on later life. Freud believed that the unconscious mind determines most of our behaviour and that we are motivated by unconscious emotional drives.

According to this approach, the mind is divided in three parts; the conscious and this is the part we are aware of and can access without any effort - it contains part of the ego; the preconscious and this a part of the mind that we cannot access without effort - it contains the ego and some of the superego; the unconscious and this part of the mind cannot be accessed without the help of a trained psychoanalyst - it contains the superego and the Id. When unconscious conflicts between the Id and the superego cannot be resolved by the ego they create anxiety. To reduce this anxiety we use defence mechanisms such as repression. Repression is used by the ego to keep disturbing memories out of the conscious mind and in the unconscious mind where they cannot be accessed. Displacement occurs when an impulse may be

redirected from its original target onto a more acceptable one. Denial occurs when the existence of unpleasant internal or external realities is denied and kept out of conscious awareness.

Freud believed the human personality has a specific structure and has three distinctive parts. These are: Id: it is the biological part (instincts and drives) of the personality. It is present at birth. The Id is motivated by the pleasure principle; it demands instant gratification of its needs. Ego: develops from 1 - 3 years. It is motivated by the reality principle. It mediates the conflicts between the Id and superego. It uses defence mechanisms to achieve this. Superego: develops from 3 - 5 years. It is motivated by the morality principle. It punishes the ego with guilt for "wrong doing".

To be mentally healthy the ego has to be able to balance the demands of the id and the superego. If the superego is dominant, the individual might develop a neurosis e.g. depression. If the Id is dominant, the individual might develop a psychosis e.g. schizophrenia. The personality, according to Freud, develops through a five developmental stages. Each stage involves conflicts and psychological urges which must be resolved/controlled in order to develop normally. The stages are:

The oral stage (0-2): Gratification is achieved by feeding and there is a focus on exploring the world with the mouth. This stage is when the Id is most dominant. The anal stage (2-3): This involves achieving gratification through pooing so there is a focus on anal activity. At this point potty training can begin. The phallic stage (3-6): This is when a child will start to focus on their genitals. Boys will go through the Oedipus complex whilst girls will go through the Electra complex. At this stage we develop our gender identity. The latency stage (6-12): At this stage there is focus on developing relationships with others so conflicts from the prior stages are repressed if they are not resolved. The genital stage (12+): Sexual energy is the focus here and is directed towards relationships with sexual partners.

A02/3.

The psychodynamic approach has given rise to one of the first "talking cures", psychoanalysis, on which many psychological therapies are now based. Psychoanalysis is rarely used now in its original form but it is still used in a shorter version in some cases. This approach can be used to explain mental disorders such as depression and schizophrenia although these explanations are rarely used by mainstream psychology. One of the very influential concepts put forward by Freud is the lasting importance of childhood on later life and development.

The concepts of Id, ego and superego are very abstract and difficult to test experimentally so evidence is obtained from case studies (Little Hans and Anna O). However, the sample used in these case studies is mainly Austrian so lacks population validity. These case studies used mainly unstructured interviews so yielded qualitative data. The need for interpretation of the material gathered means that it is biased on the part of the researchers as they tend to interpret the data in a way that supports their theory. Furthermore, the fact that two different researchers can reach completely different interpretations of the same case suggests that the methods lack objectivity.

The psychodynamic approach recognises the influence of social factors as it argues that we are driven by innate biological instincts, represented by the Id (nature), but the ways these instincts are expressed is shaped by our social and cultural environment (nurture). This means it has some interactionism within it and does not solely focus on the role of the innate or the environment. It could be argued that Freud was the first person to highlight the importance of childhood in mental health and this is an idea extensively used today. However, it cannot explain the biological symptoms observed in some disorders such as enlarged ventricles in schizophrenics and so does not give us a fully comprehensive explanation of mental health disorders.

The psychodynamic approach is determinist as it rejects the idea of free will. A person's behaviour is determined by their unconscious motives which are shaped by their biological drives and their early experiences. This can lead to individuals not taking responsibility for their actions or disorders as they can use their past as an excuse; this can lead to learned helplessness or increased deviant behaviour as the person will feel they are not in control of their actions as they are psychically determined. The individual is not seen as responsible for their disorders however as the conflicts which lead to the disorder are unconscious there is nothing they can do about it without an analyst so they are disempowered.

Freud argued that human behaviour is governed by universal processes that apply to everyone e.g. the tripartite structure of the mind (nomothetic) however, he also proposed that the ways in which these processes manifest themselves in the individual is unique (idiographic). However, he based his nomothetic explanations of the findings from case studies he conducted using limited samples; this is not appropriate as when making universal assumptions, psychologists should test large samples to get an understanding which is representative and therefore can be generalised.

The concepts proposed by Freud cannot be tested empirically. The theory is not falsifiable as if people behave in the way predicted by the theory it is viewed as support, if they don't it is argued that they are using defence mechanisms. The use of case studies to investigate Freud's ideas does not maintain the features of a science as there is a lack of control and often qualitative data is collected from secondary sources, for example when investigating Little Hans, Freud relied on letters from the boy's father, therefore there is interpretation required which is a subjective process.

The Humanistic Approach

A01

This approach was put forward by Rogers and Maslow during the 1950s. This area of psychology can be referred to as the 'third force', with Freudian ideas being the 'first force' and early behaviourism being the 'second force.' Humanism rejects the idea that we can be objective; it focuses on subjective experience and strives for every person to be seen as unique. Therefore, psychologists in this field do not advocate the isolation and testing of variables in laboratory conditions. One of the main developments from this approach has been in the field of counselling psychology. Unlike Freud, humanists focus on conscious thoughts and how humans are aware of themselves and the reactions of others. One benefit of this is that we are able to make choices and have responsibility. According to this approach there is intention behind every behaviour; our actions have a purpose.

Every person has their own unique way of perceiving and understanding the world and the things they do only make sense in this light, according to this approach. Therefore, the aim of this approach is not objectivity; its aim is to understand people's subjectivity. According to this approach, people are self-determining, which means that they have free will they can make choices about the way they think and act. These choices are not determined by biological or other external factors. All people have an innate tendency towards growth and the fulfilment of their potential, they have a desire to become everything that they are capable of. Maslow (1954) proposed the hierarchy of needs to explain the idea that we are driven to be the best that we can if our needs are met. Needs are initially basic; these are physiological and safety needs. Once these initial needs are met then we can address our psychological needs and ultimately achieve self-actualisation.

Self-actualisation is a core concept in this approach and is when we become the best person we can be; we achieve our full potential as a human being. To achieve this, lower level needs must be met. Once self-actualisation is achieved, to maintain it then we must continue to meet these lower needs. Achieving self-actualisation is not the norm; most people never will. Self-actualisation is only possible if there is

congruence between the way an individual sees themselves and their ideal self (the way they want to be or think they should be).

Supporters of this approach believe in free will; they argue we choose who we want to be. This is in stark contrast to more deterministic approaches which argue who we are is beyond our control and pre-programmed by factors such as genetics or parenting. However, humanists do not ignore the role of nature and nurture; our physiological needs are present from birth and our environment can help to facilitate or inhibit self-actualisation.

Humanistic psychology advocates the use of counselling as personal growth is hampered by experiencing conditional positive regard and therapy aims to direct the person towards unconditional positive regard. Conditional positive regard forces us to act in a way which meets certain requirements so that we can gain approval. This limits the chance to self-actualise and achieve congruence. Congruence is when the ideal self and our self-concept match. Client centred therapy allows personal growth as it provides unconditional positive regard as the client is accepted for who they are without judgement.

Client centred therapy is about developing a good client-therapist relationship so that the therapist can create conditions which allow for the client to achieve personal growth. To achieve this the client must develop their own understanding of their issues and decide for themselves how they can be addressed. This means the therapist takes a non-directive role; they reflect back to the client whatever the client shares in a manner that is respectful. Sessions promote trust and mutual regard. The aim is for clients to solve their own problems by examining issues with the therapist. The therapist must provide empathy and unconditional positive regard for this to happen.

Rogers (1951) argued there are three selves and these need to be integrated if we are to feel good. The three selves are: the self-concept – the self you think you are; the real self – who you really are; the ideal self – the self you aspire to be. Rogers believed that for self-actualisation to occur then a person must be congruent. This means that their selves should all be the same or similar. Therapy aims to achieve this by providing unconditional positive regard so that self-esteem increases and the ideal self can be adjusted; the aim being for the ideal self and self-concept to be similar to the real self. This approach has been praised for being an alternative to medication and less time consuming than psychoanalysis. According to Rogers, people could only self-actualise if they had a positive view of themselves (positive self-regard). This can only happen if they have unconditional positive regard from others – if they feel that they are valued and respected without reservation by those around them (especially their parents when they were children). However, most people don't perceive the positive regard of others as being unconditional. They tend to think they will only be loved and valued if they meet certain conditions of worth. These conditions of worth create incongruity within the self between the real self (how the person is) and the ideal self (how they think they should be or want to be).

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Humanism provides a non-directive therapy in which the client is encouraged to discover their own solutions to their difficulties in an atmosphere that is supportive and non-judgemental and that provides unconditional positive regard. It focuses on the present rather than dwell on the past unlike psychoanalysis. This therapy is widely used e.g. in health, education and industry. It has given rise to a new way to look at people's needs, for example Maslow's hierarchy of needs is widely used in health and social work as a framework for assessing clients' needs. Client-centred therapy is widely used in health, social work and industry. This therapy has helped many people overcome difficulties they face in life, which is a significant contribution to improving people's quality of life.

The approach uses non-scientific research methods. As its aim is to understand people's subjectivity, it uses methods that yield qualitative data such as unstructured interviews or participant observations. These are difficult/ impossible to replicate and the interpretation of the data is influenced by researcher bias. It proposes a positive view of human nature, however, it could be argued that this might not be very realistic when considering the everyday reality such as domestic violence and genocides. Furthermore, the approach's focus on meeting our needs and fulfilling our growth potential reflects an individualistic, self-obsessed outlook that is part of the problem faced by our society rather than a solution.

The approach is non-determinist as it recognises free will but its position on this topic is somewhat incoherent as on one hand it argues that people have free will but, on the other hand it argues that our behaviour is determined by the way other people treat us (whether we feel that we are valued and respected without reservation by those around us). Therefore there are elements of environmental determinism within the approach as those we interact with can affect how we feel and whether we achieve congruence

The approach recognises both the influence of nature and nurture, nurture- the influence of experiences on a person's ways of perceiving and understanding the world, nature- influence of biological drives and needs (Maslow's hierarchy of needs). This means it offers an interactionist explanation of human behaviour and looks at more factors than other approaches, such as the biological approach which focuses on genetic influences for example and not experiences.

The approach is holistic as it does not try to break down behaviours in simpler components. This means that it attempts to offer a high level of explanation for behaviour as it does not advocate reductionism; it values looking at the person as whole.

As this approach views the individual as unique it does not attempt to establish universal laws about the causes of behaviour, although it proposes a hierarchy of needs for all humans. It is an idiographic approach as it values studying each individual as unique person and therefore does not promote the use of large scale experiments on samples which are then generalised to the wider population. As the approach views the individual as unique it does not believe that scientific measurements of their behaviour are appropriate.