Write your name here

Surname
StemUp Model Solution

Other names

Pearson Edexcel
International Advanced Level

Centre Number

Candidate Number

Psychology

International Advanced Level
Paper 3: Applications of Psychology

Monday 23 January 2017 – Afternoon
Time: 1 hour 30 minutes

Paper Reference
WPS03/01

You do not need any other materials.

Total Marks

Instructions

- Use **black** ink or ball-point pen.
- **Fill in the boxes** at the top of this page with your name, centre number and candidate number.
- Answer **ALL** questions in Section A, and all questions from **EITHER** Option 1 criminological psychology **OR** Option 2 health psychology.
- Answer the questions in the spaces provided
  – *there may be more space than you need.*

Information

- The total mark for this paper is 64.
- The marks for **each** question are shown in brackets
  – *use this as a guide as to how much time to spend on each question.*
- The list of formulae and critical value tables are printed at the start of this paper.
- Candidates may use a calculator.

Advice

- Read each question carefully before you start to answer it.
- Check your answers if you have time at the end.

Turn over ▶

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FORMULAE AND STATISTICAL TABLES

Standard deviation (sample estimate)

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum(x-\bar{x})^2}{n-1}\right)}$$

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient

$$1-\frac{6\sum d^2}{n(n^2-1)}$$

Critical values for Spearman's rank

	Level of significance for a one-tailed test				
	0.05	**0.025**	**0.01**	**0.005**	**0.0025**
	Level of significance for a two-tailed test				
n	**0.10**	**0.05**	**0.025**	**0.01**	**0.005**
4	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
5	0.700	0.900	0.900	1.000	1.000
6	0.657	0.771	0.829	0.943	0.943
7	0.571	0.679	0.786	0.857	0.893
8	0.548	0.643	0.738	0.810	0.857
9	0.483	0.600	0.683	0.767	0.817
10	0.442	0.564	0.649	0.733	0.782
11	0.418	0.527	0.609	0.700	0.755
12	0.399	0.504	0.587	0.671	0.727
13	0.379	0.478	0.560	0.648	0.698
14	0.367	0.459	0.539	0.622	0.675
15	0.350	0.443	0.518	0.600	0.654
16	0.338	0.427	0.503	0.582	0.632
17	0.327	0.412	0.482	0.558	0.606
18	0.317	0.400	0.468	0.543	0.590
19	0.308	0.389	0.456	0.529	0.575
20	0.299	0.378	0.444	0.516	0.561
21	0.291	0.369	0.433	0.503	0.549
22	0.284	0.360	0.423	0.492	0.537
23	0.277	0.352	0.413	0.482	0.526
24	0.271	0.344	0.404	0.472	0.515
25	0.265	0.337	0.396	0.462	0.505
26	0.260	0.330	0.388	0.453	0.496
27	0.255	0.323	0.381	0.445	0.487
28	0.250	0.317	0.374	0.437	0.479
29	0.245	0.312	0.367	0.430	0.471
30	0.241	0.306	0.361	0.423	0.463

The calculated value must be equal to or exceed the critical value in this table for significance to be shown.

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Chi-squared distribution formula

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \qquad df = (r-1)(c-1)$$

Critical values for chi-squared distribution

	Level of significance for a one-tailed test					
	0.10	**0.05**	**0.025**	**0.01**	**0.005**	**0.0005**
	Level of significance for a two-tailed test					
df	**0.20**	**0.10**	**0.05**	**0.025**	**0.01**	**0.001**
1	1.64	2.71	3.84	5.02	6.64	10.83
2	3.22	4.61	5.99	7.38	9.21	13.82
3	4.64	6.25	7.82	9.35	11.35	16.27
4	5.99	7.78	9.49	11.14	13.28	18.47
5	7.29	9.24	11.07	12.83	15.09	20.52
6	8.56	10.65	12.59	14.45	16.81	22.46
7	9.80	12.02	14.07	16.01	18.48	24.32
8	11.03	13.36	15.51	17.54	20.09	26.12
9	12.24	14.68	16.92	19.02	21.67	27.88
10	13.44	15.99	18.31	20.48	23.21	29.59
11	14.63	17.28	19.68	21.92	24.73	31.26
12	15.81	18.55	21.03	23.34	26.22	32.91
13	16.99	19.81	22.36	24.74	27.69	34.53
14	18.15	21.06	23.69	26.12	29.14	36.12
15	19.31	22.31	25.00	27.49	30.58	37.70
16	20.47	23.54	26.30	28.85	32.00	39.25
17	21.62	24.77	27.59	30.19	33.41	40.79
18	22.76	25.99	28.87	31.53	34.81	42.31
19	23.90	27.20	30.14	32.85	36.19	43.82
20	25.04	28.41	31.41	34.17	37.57	45.32
21	26.17	29.62	32.67	35.48	38.93	46.80
22	27.30	30.81	33.92	36.78	40.29	48.27
23	28.43	32.01	35.17	38.08	41.64	49.73
24	29.55	33.20	36.42	39.36	42.98	51.18
25	30.68	34.38	37.65	40.65	44.31	52.62
26	31.80	35.56	38.89	41.92	45.64	54.05
27	32.91	36.74	40.11	43.20	46.96	55.48
28	34.03	37.92	41.34	44.46	48.28	56.89
29	35.14	39.09	42.56	45.72	49.59	58.30
30	36.25	40.26	43.77	46.98	50.89	59.70
40	47.27	51.81	55.76	59.34	63.69	73.40
50	58.16	63.17	67.51	71.42	76.15	86.66
60	68.97	74.40	79.08	83.30	88.38	99.61
70	79.72	85.53	90.53	95.02	100.43	112.32

The calculated value must be equal to or exceed the critical value in this table for significance to be shown.

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Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test process

- Calculate the difference between two scores by taking one from the other
- Rank the differences giving the smallest difference Rank 1

  Note: do not rank any differences of 0 and when adding the number of scores, do not count those with a difference of 0, and ignore the signs when calculating the difference
- Add up the ranks for positive differences
- Add up the ranks for negative differences
- T is the figure that is the smallest when the ranks are totalled (may be positive or negative)
- N is the number of scores left, ignore those with 0 difference

Critical values for the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test

	Level of significance for a one-tailed test		
	0.05	0.025	0.01
	Level of significance for a two-tailed test		
n	0.1	0.05	0.02
N=5	0	–	–
6	2	0	–
7	3	2	0
8	5	3	1
9	8	5	3
10	11	8	5
11	13	10	7
12	17	13	9

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SECTION A BEGINS ON THE NEXT PAGE.

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SECTION A

Answer ALL questions in this section. Write your answers in the spaces provided.

1 A researcher replicated Ainsworth's Strange Situation on two 12-month-old infants, Amelia and Hannah. In the presence of their primary care giver, Hannah did not explore the room, but Amelia did.

The researcher observed that when the primary care giver left the room Amelia was not distressed and Hannah was extremely distressed.

(a) Identify the type of attachment demonstrated by Amelia and Hannah.

(2)

Amelia's type of attachment

Anxious avoidant (insecure avoidant, Type A)

Hannah's type of attachment

Anxious resistant (insecure resistant, Type C)

(b) Describe the reunion behaviour you would expect Hannah to show on the primary care giver's return.

(2)

When the caregiver returns, Hannah would show ambivalent behaviour: she would go to the caregiver and seek contact, but then resist it, for example by pushing away or struggling to be put down. She would be difficult to comfort and would keep crying rather than returning to explore.

(Total for Question 1 = 4 marks)

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QUESTION 2 BEGINS ON THE NEXT PAGE.

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2 Anton investigated the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Five year olds were either paired with another child of the same age or with a seven year old.

The children were given a mathematical problem and the time taken to solve it was recorded.

Table 1 shows the mean score for time taken in seconds by children in each condition, A and B, to solve the problem.

	Condition A **Five year old paired with a child of the same age**	**Condition B** **Five year old paired with a seven year old**
Mean score for time taken in seconds	15.5	10.6

Table 1

(a) Give **one** conclusion that can be drawn from the data in **Table 1**.

(2)

Five year olds solve the problem faster when paired with an older child, as they took a mean of 10.6 seconds with a seven year old compared with 15.5 seconds with a same-age peer, which is 4.9 seconds quicker.

(b) Define what is meant by a zone of proximal development (ZPD).

(1)

The ZPD is the gap between what a child can do on their own and what they can achieve with help from a more knowledgeable other.

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Anton's investigation gathered quantitative data. This is where the data gathered is expressed numerically.

(c) Justify the use of quantitative data in research.

(1)

Quantitative data can be statistically analysed and compared objectively, so it is possible to test whether a difference is significant.

(d) Explain **one** weakness of Anton's investigation.

(2)

Anton did not take a baseline measure of the children's mathematical ability before the study. This means he cannot know whether the five year olds were really working within their ZPD, or whether the faster times were simply due to the seven year old solving the problem for them.

(Total for Question 2 = 6 marks)

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3 Pawel and David carried out a structured observation to test conservation with children aged five to eight years old. Pawel altered the presentation of items and the children were then asked to estimate number, mass and volume.

David observed the children's responses and recorded the data.

Table 2 represents the percentage of conservation errors made by the children.

Age	Percentage % of conservation errors in mass	Percentage % of conservation errors in number	Percentage % of conservation errors in volume
Five year olds	85	73	83
Six year olds	57	43	64
Seven year olds	32	25	45
Eight year olds	16	13	26

Table 2

Space for calculations

(a) (57 + 43 + 64) ÷ 3 = 164 ÷ 3 = 54.666... = 54.67%

(b) Volume errors fall by 19 each year: 83 → 64 → 45 → 26

so for nine year olds: 26 − 19 = 7%

(a) Calculate the mean percentage score for all conservation errors made by the six year olds.

You must express your answer to two decimal places.

(1)

Total mean percentage score 54.67%

(b) Predict the percentage of conservation errors in volume for nine-year-old children based on the current trend in the data.

(1)

Percentage of conservation errors in volume 7%

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(c) Explain **one** weakness of using a structured observation.

(2)

A structured observation can be an artificial situation, such as Pawel deliberately changing the presentation of items. This means it lacks ecological validity, as the task is unlike the children's everyday experiences, so their errors may not reflect how they think in real life.

(d) Explain **one** alternative research method used in developmental psychology.

(2)

An unstructured interview could be used, where the researcher asks children open questions about their thinking, such as why they think there is more water in a taller glass. This gathers rich qualitative data from the child's own point of view, which gives the data meaning and increases validity.

(Total for Question 3 = 6 marks)

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4 Evaluate learning theories as an explanation of attachment.

(8)

Learning theory explains attachment as learned rather than innate. Through classical conditioning, food (an unconditioned stimulus) produces pleasure (an unconditioned response). The mother is at first a neutral stimulus, but because she is repeatedly paired with food she becomes a conditioned stimulus who produces pleasure on her own, which is the attachment. Through operant conditioning, Dollard and Miller (1950) argued that a hungry infant feels discomfort and is motivated to reduce this drive. Being fed reduces the drive, so food is a primary reinforcer and the caregiver who provides it becomes a secondary reinforcer, so the infant seeks to be close to her. Social learning theory adds that children learn attachment behaviours, such as hugging, by observing and imitating their parents as role models, and this learning happens within the parent–child relationship and the family environment.

A strength is that there is some support for the idea that experience shapes attachment. O'Connor (2013) argues that children's real-life experiences directly and indirectly shape their behaviour, so attachments can be learned, and parents who respond to their infant are rewarding attachment behaviour.

However, Harlow's research with rhesus monkeys contradicts the "cupboard love" view, as the infant monkeys spent most of their time clinging to a soft cloth mother rather than the wire mother that gave milk, showing that contact comfort matters more than food. Schaffer and Emerson (1964) also found that many infants formed their strongest attachment to the person who was most responsive to them, not the person who fed them. Bowlby would argue instead that attachment is an innate, evolved process of bonding with a monotropic figure during a critical period, not something learned from role models. Harris (1998) found that children raised by the same parents in the same home are no more alike than if they had been raised

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separately, which questions how much is learned from parents. Much of the evidence for conditioning also comes from animal or artificial laboratory settings, which lack ecological validity for real human attachments.

In conclusion, learning theories can explain why caregivers who respond and reward behaviour become attachment figures, but the evidence that comfort and responsiveness matter more than food suggests that they are only a partial explanation, and an innate drive to attach is also needed.

(Total for Question 4 = 8 marks)

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5 Assess the generalisability of cross-cultural research into the development of children.

(8)

Generalisability is how far findings from a study can be applied to children in other cultures. Ainsworth's Strange Situation (1969) was developed in the USA and classified infants as secure, insecure avoidant or insecure resistant, and it has since been used to assess attachment types in many cultures. Sagi et al (1985) studied attachment in Israeli children raised on a kibbutz, where children spend much of their time in communal care, and found more insecure resistant children than in the USA. Van IJzendoorn and Kroonenberg (1988) carried out a meta-analysis comparing the results of 32 Strange Situation studies from eight countries and found that secure attachment was the most common type in every country.

Cross-cultural research can be generalisable because the same standardised procedure is used, so the findings can be compared directly. Ainsworth used her procedure in more than one culture, including Uganda as well as the USA, and found similar patterns, and van IJzendoorn and Kroonenberg's meta-analysis pooled a very large sample across several cultures, so their conclusion that secure attachment is the norm can be generalised widely.

However, the Strange Situation was designed in the USA, so it may be an imposed etic that judges other cultures by American norms. For example, Japanese infants are rarely separated from their mothers, so they may appear highly distressed and be classed as insecure resistant when this is normal for their culture. Sagi et al's (1985) findings are not generalisable because other cultures do not have the same communal family structure as a kibbutz. Van IJzendoorn and Kroonenberg also found that variation within one country was greater than variation between countries, so treating one sample as representing a whole culture is not valid. Many studies also use small samples from one city, which limits generalisability further.

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Overall, cross-cultural research is generalisable to some extent, especially large meta-analyses showing secure attachment is common everywhere, but the cultural bias in the procedure and the differences in family structure mean findings should only be generalised with caution.

(Total for Question 5 = 8 marks)

TOTAL FOR SECTION A = 32 MARKS

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SECTION B

Answer ALL questions from EITHER OPTION 1: CRIMINOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY OR OPTION 2: HEALTH PSYCHOLOGY.

Indicate which question you are answering by marking a cross in the box ☒. If you change your mind, put a line through the box ☒ and then indicate your new question with a cross ☒.

If you answer the questions in Option 1 put a cross in the box ☒ .

OPTION 1: CRIMINOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY

Write your answers in the spaces provided.

6 Some psychologists have suggested a link between the level of stress and the ability of an eyewitness to recall accurate information.

(a) State what is meant by the term stress in relation to eyewitnesses.

(1)

Stress is the physical or emotional tension an eyewitness feels because of the crime, for example fear and a racing heart when a weapon is pointed at them.

(b) Give **one** reason why the stress experienced by eyewitnesses affects the reliability of their recall.

(1)

High stress affects how the eyewitness encodes the memory at the time of the crime (Qin et al, 1997), so details such as the culprit's face may not be stored accurately.

(Total for Question 6 = 2 marks)

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QUESTION 7 BEGINS ON THE NEXT PAGE.

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7 Remi and Aram conducted research to explore whether the race of a jury and defendant affects jury decision making. They reviewed five trials by jury that recorded guilty verdicts.

The results of their study are shown in **Table 3**.

Trial	% Caucasian jurors	% Afro-Caribbean jurors	% other ethnic background jurors	Nature of crime
A	67	23	10	Fraud
B	42	15	43	Drugs
C	56	28	16	Violence
D	25	24	51	Drugs
E	46	36	18	Property

Table 3

Space for calculations

Highest = 51% (Trial D) Lowest = 10% (Trial A)

51 − 10 = 41

Fraud 1, Drugs 2, Violence 1, Property 1 ⇒ Drugs occurs most often

(a) Calculate the **range** for jurors from other ethnic backgrounds.

(1)

Range *41*

(b) Calculate the **modal** crime from **Table 3**.

(1)

Modal *Drugs (drug related crime)*

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Remi and Aram decided to research the effects of the defendants' race on jury decision making.

(c) State **two** effects of the defendants' race on jury decision making that Remi and Aram may have found in their research.

(2)

1 *Caucasian jurors may be more likely to find defendants from other ethnic groups guilty than defendants of their own ethnic group.*

2 *Jurors may stereotypically perceive one ethnic group as more likely to be involved in drug crimes, so defendants from that group are more likely to be convicted of drug offences.*

(d) Explain **two** ethical considerations that Remi and Aram may have considered in their research to study the effect of race on jury decision making.

(4)

1 *Confidentiality: Remi and Aram referred to the five trials only by letter, such as Trial A, so the defendants and jurors could not be identified by anyone if the research was published.*

2 *Consent: they may not have needed informed consent from the defendants or jurors, because the trials were held in public and the verdicts are public record, so using them causes no breach of privacy.*

(Total for Question 7 = 8 marks)

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8 Loftus and Palmer (1974) carried out research into the influence of verb use in leading questions following a traffic accident.

Table 4 shows the mean speed estimates for each verb used.

Verb used in leading questions	Mean speed estimate to nearest whole number (mph)
Smashed	40
Collided	39
Bumped	38
Hit	34
Contacted	32

Table 4

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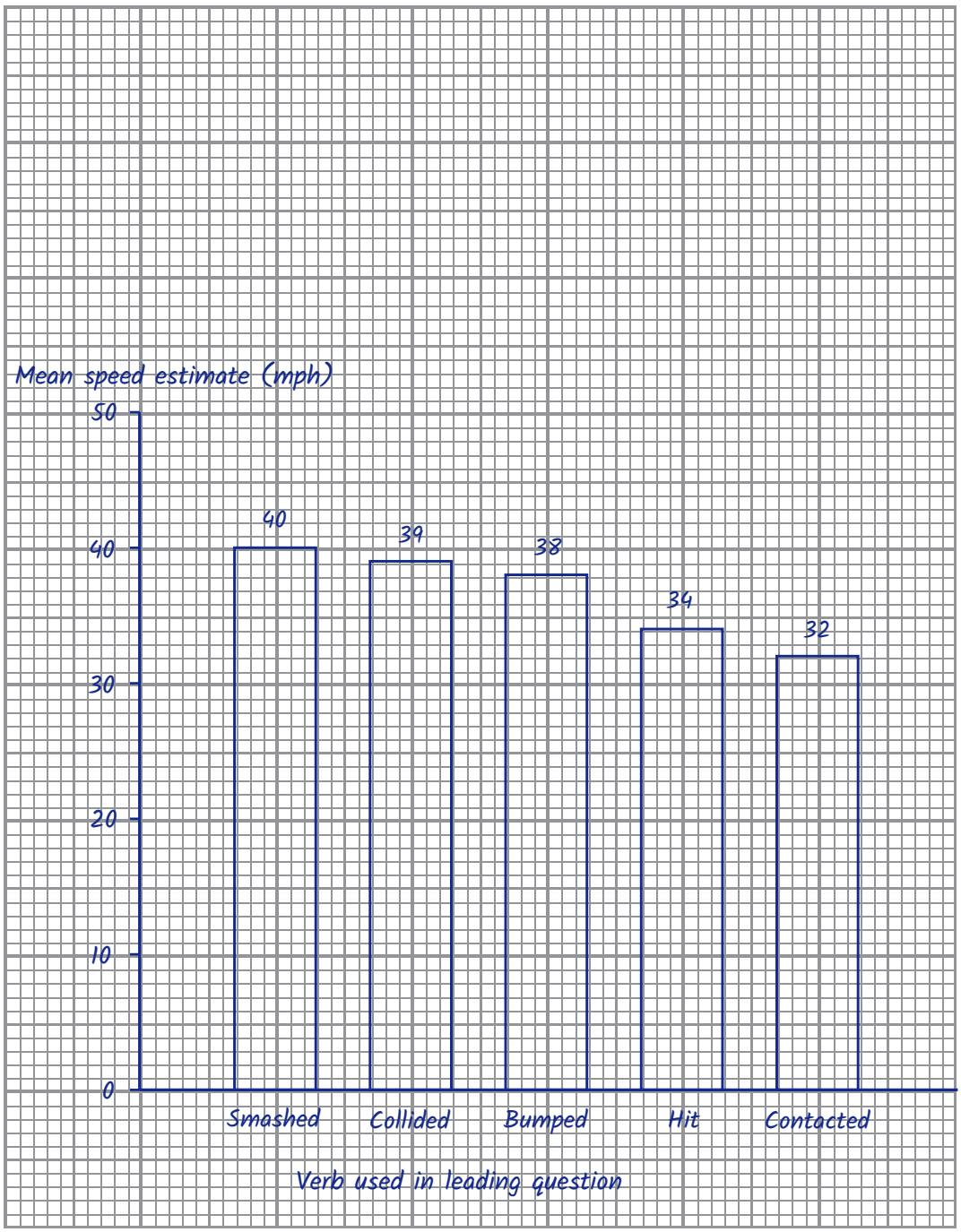
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(a) Draw a bar chart to illustrate the data in Table 4.

(3)

Title

Mean speed estimate (mph) for each verb used in the leading question



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(b) Loftus and Palmer (1974) concluded from their data in **Table 4** that a change of verb in leading questions could affect eyewitness recall of a car accident.

Explain why Loftus and Palmer (1974) came to this conclusion.

(3)

Loftus and Palmer found that the actual speed of the cars in the film made little difference to estimates, but the verb in the question did. The data show that "smashed" gave the highest mean estimate of 40 mph, compared with only 32 mph for "contacted", a difference of 8 mph from changing one word. This supports Bartlett (1932), who proposed that memory is a reconstructive process, so the verb adds information that is built into the memory and changes what the eyewitness recalls.

(Total for Question 8 = 6 marks)

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9 Evaluate Penrod and Cutler's (1989) research of eyewitness expert testimony.

(8)

Penrod and Cutler (1989) investigated whether expert testimony about eyewitness memory affects how jurors judge an eyewitness. The sample was undergraduate psychology students acting as mock jurors, as well as experienced jurors. Participants watched a video recording of a robbery trial in which the main evidence was an eyewitness identification. Factors were varied, such as the witnessing and identification conditions (for example whether the robber was disguised or a weapon was visible) and how confident the eyewitness was. Some jurors were shown clips of an expert psychologist giving testimony about eyewitness memory and others were not. The participants then rated the credibility of the eyewitness and gave a verdict. Without expert testimony, jurors relied heavily on how confident the witness seemed, but expert testimony made them more sensitive to the conditions that actually affect accuracy.

A strength is that the procedure was standardised, as every juror saw the same video with only the variables changed, so there was good control and the study is replicable, allowing cause and effect to be inferred. Using experienced jurors as well as students also improves generalisability. The findings have useful applications, as they suggest courts should allow expert testimony to reduce wrongful convictions based on confident but mistaken eyewitnesses.

However, the psychology students may have shown demand characteristics, as they took part for their course and may have guessed the aim. Watching a video and giving individual ratings is not how a real jury reaches a decision, as there was no group deliberation, so the task lacks validity. Ecological validity is also limited because the mock jurors knew no real defendant would be affected, so they may have taken the task less seriously than real jurors. Characteristics of the jurors, such as their race, may also have affected their ratings of the eyewitness, reducing the reliability of the data.

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In conclusion, Penrod and Cutler's research is well controlled and gives useful evidence that expert testimony improves jurors' judgements, but because of the artificial video task and student sample the findings may not fully reflect real courtroom decisions.

(Total for Question 9 = 8 marks)

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10 Assess the role of the media as the main influence on antisocial behaviour.

(8)

Social learning theory explains how the media could influence antisocial behaviour through observation, identification and reproduction. Viewers pay attention to role models on television, in films and in video games, who are often popular, powerful and likeable, so they are more likely to identify with them and imitate them. Vicarious reinforcement occurs because few negative consequences of violence are shown in the media, so violent acts appear to be rewarded. Video games go further, as they actively reward players with points or progression for violent, antisocial acts, which is direct positive reinforcement.

Bandura's research supports this, as children who watched an adult model behave aggressively towards a Bobo doll imitated the aggression, and Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963) found this also happened when the model was on film, suggesting media role models can be copied. Anderson and Dill (2000) found that students who played a violent video game gave longer noise blasts to an opponent, so violent media may increase aggression.

However, Charlton et al (2000) found no increase in antisocial behaviour in children on St Helena after television was introduced, which suggests the media is not the main influence and that family and community norms may protect children. Bandura's studies were laboratory based with a doll that is meant to be hit, so they lack ecological validity. Other factors also explain antisocial behaviour: Jahoda (1954) found that Ashanti boys born on a Wednesday, who were labelled as aggressive, were more often convicted than boys born on a Monday, suggesting a self-fulfilling prophecy rather than the media. Biological explanations, such as brain differences found by Raine et al (1997) in murderers, suggest some people are predisposed regardless of media.

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Overall, the media can be one influence on antisocial behaviour, especially through role models and reward in video games, but the evidence that other factors such as labelling, family and biology matter means it is unlikely to be the main influence.

(Total for Question 10 = 8 marks)

TOTAL FOR SECTION B OPTION 1 = 32 MARKS

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SECTION B

If you answer the questions in Option 2 put a cross in the box ☒ .

OPTION 2: HEALTH PSYCHOLOGY

Write your answers in the spaces provided.

11 Malcolm is 28 years old and was explaining to his girlfriend that he had recently lost his job and was now struggling to find new employment.

(a) State what is meant by the term life event in relation to Malcom.

(1)

A life event is a major change, such as Malcolm losing his job, that alters his life and circumstances substantially and requires him to readjust, which can cause stress.

(b) State **one** other life event that Malcolm may experience in the future.

(1)

Malcolm may get married to his girlfriend.

(Total for Question 11 = 2 marks)

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12 Andrew and Samira conducted research to investigate the role of religion in the everyday lives of people living away from their friends and family. They gave five people a structured questionnaire, asking them to anonymously record how many times they used religion as a source of support during one month.

Table 5 shows the results of Andrew and Samira's research.

Participant	Number of times in one month that religion is used as a source of support		
	When feeling sad	When feeling worried	When feeling frustrated
A	7	4	4
B	5	5	1
C	6	3	3
D	3	4	7
E	10	6	9

Table 5

Space for calculations

Frustrated: 4, 1, 3, 7, 9 ⇒ 9 − 1 = 8

Worried: 4, 5, 3, 4, 6 ⇒ 4 occurs twice, so mode = 4

(a) Calculate the **range** for people who use religion as a source of support when feeling frustrated.

(1)

Range *8*

(b) Calculate the **modal** score for people who use religion as a source of support when feeling worried.

(1)

Modal *4*

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Andrew and Samira decided to research the effects of social support.

(c) State **two** effects of social support that Andrew and Samira may have found in their research.

(2)

1 *Social support from religion and the church community may reduce stress and decrease the likelihood of low self-esteem in people living away from home.*

2 *Social support may provide coping mechanisms, such as emotional comfort and advice, for people living away from their friends and family.*

(d) Explain **two** ethical considerations that Andrew and Samira may have considered in their research to study the effect of religion as a source of social support.

(4)

1 *Confidentiality: the questionnaire was completed anonymously, which ensured that each participant's personal religious beliefs and feelings stayed private and could not be traced back to them.*

2 *Consent: participants would have agreed to take part, as they had to actively complete the questionnaire and share their personal experience, and they should be told they can withdraw their data.*

(Total for Question 12 = 8 marks)

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13 Research has shown that there is a relationship between stress and illness.

Table 6 shows data for days absent from work in a year and participant scores on a stress questionnaire.

Number of days absent from work in a year	Stress scores (higher scores indicate more stress)
1	25
2	40
3	30
4	50
5	55

Table 6

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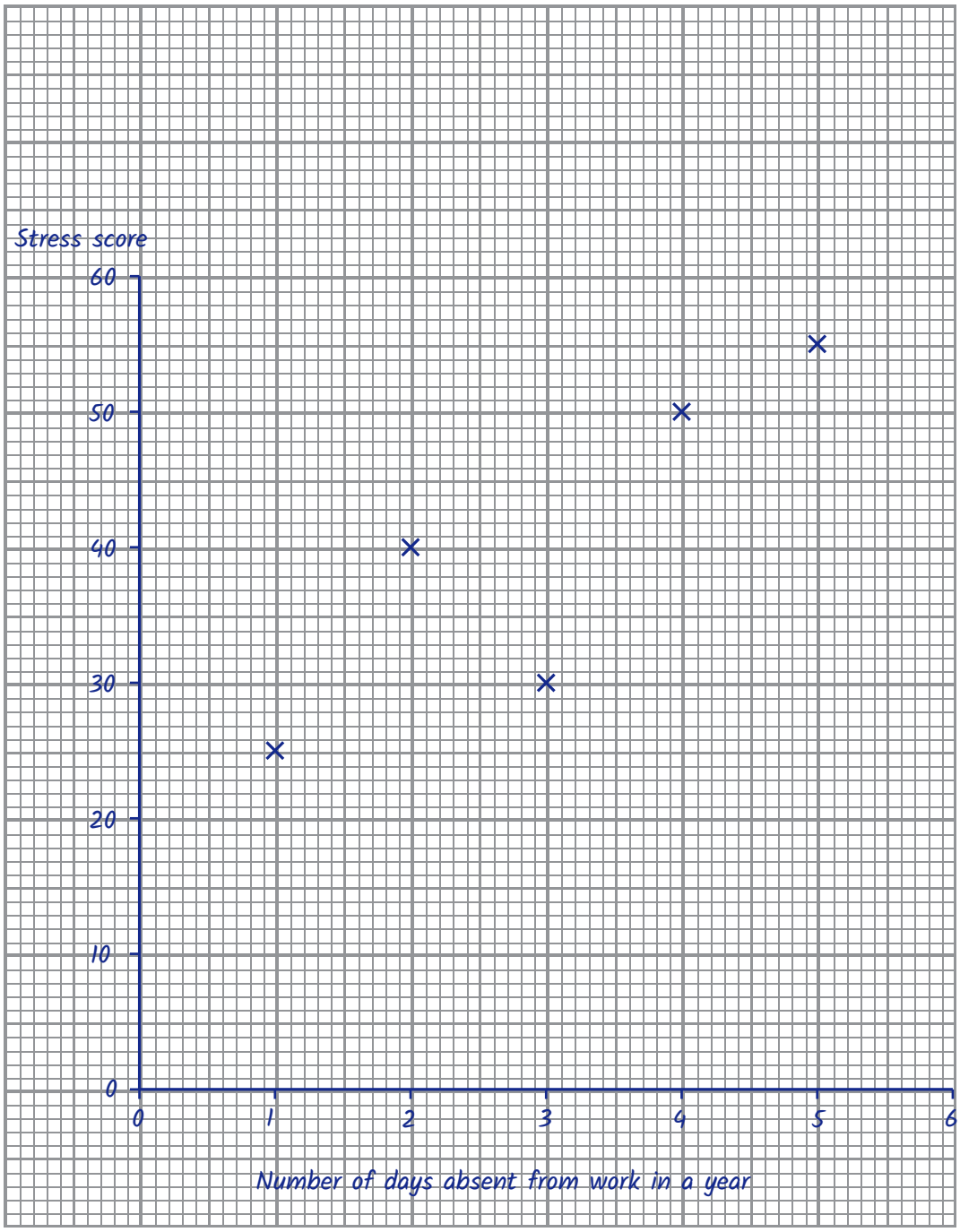
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(a) Draw a scatter diagram to illustrate the data in **Table 6**.

(3)

Title

Scatter diagram of days absent from work in a year against stress score



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(b) Andrew and Samira concluded from their data in **Table 6** that the number of days absent from work is related to an individual's stress score.

Explain why Andrew and Samira came to this conclusion.

(3)

Stress can make people unwell, for example by weakening the immune system, so they need more time off work. The data show a positive correlation: as stress scores rise from 25 to 55, days absent rise from 1 to 5. Spearman's rho is 1 − (6 × 2) ÷ (5 × 24) = 0.9, which equals the critical value of 0.900 (n = 5, one-tailed, p ≤ 0.05), so the relationship is significant. This is supported by Brady (1958), who found that workplace stress caused ulcers in "executive" monkeys, increasing the likelihood of illness.

(Total for Question 13 = 6 marks)

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14 Evaluate cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) as a treatment for anxiety disorders.

(8)

Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) is based on the idea that anxiety disorders are caused by irrational and faulty thinking patterns, such as catastrophising or overestimating danger, which lead to maladaptive behaviour such as avoidance. CBT treats both the thoughts and the behaviour that results from them. The therapist helps the client identify negative automatic thoughts and challenge them by testing the evidence, then replace them with more rational ones (cognitive restructuring). Behavioural techniques such as graded exposure and homework tasks let the client test their beliefs in real situations. CBT is a non-invasive, talking therapy with clear, measurable goals, usually over a set number of sessions.

A strength is that there is strong evidence of effectiveness. Hoffman et al (2012) reviewed many meta-analyses and found CBT has a strong success rate for anxiety disorders. Because the outcomes are measurable, standardised measures such as the Schwartz Outcome Scale (SOS-10) can track a client's progress during treatment, so the plan can be adjusted. As it is non-invasive, CBT has fewer side effects than drug therapies such as SSRIs like Prozac, and it teaches skills the client keeps, so relapse may be lower once treatment ends.

However, CBT assumes the cause of anxiety is faulty thinking. If anxiety is caused by neurotransmitter imbalances, such as low GABA activity, then CBT may not treat the underlying cause and drugs may be more appropriate, at least in the short term. CBT also requires motivation and effort, including homework, so it may not suit people with severe anxiety who struggle to engage, and it can be expensive and time consuming. Success may also depend on the relationship with the therapist rather than the specific techniques.

In conclusion, CBT is an effective and safe treatment for many anxiety disorders, supported by

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strong evidence, but it may work best for motivated clients and in combination with drugs for those whose anxiety has a biological cause.

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15 Evaluate Nakonz and Shik's (2009) study.

(8)

Nakonz and Shik (2009) studied how Filipino migrant domestic workers in Hong Kong use religion to cope with stress. The researchers used participant observation of Sunday church services and after-church religious activities for three months. They also conducted in-depth interviews with open-ended questions with ten participants, all female Filipino domestic workers aged from their mid-twenties to late forties, and a focus group with four participants. They found that the women faced stressors such as separation from family and problems with employers, and used religious coping strategies, such as prayer and handing their problems over to God, while the church community gave them social support.

A strength is that observing the participants in their usual religious activities is high in ecological validity, as they were in an everyday situation. Using three methods, observation, interviews and a focus group, allows triangulation, which increases the validity of the conclusions. The open-ended questions gave rich qualitative data in the women's own words. The results are similar to the findings of Cruz (2006), which increases the reliability of the conclusions made.

However, the sample was only female domestic workers, so the results cannot be generalised to all Filipino migrants, as males and other occupations were excluded. The sample of ten interviewees is also small. Participants were aware they were being observed, so they may have shown demand characteristics, such as presenting themselves as more devout, which reduces the validity of the data. Qualitative data must be interpreted, so researcher bias may have affected which coping strategies were identified.

In conclusion, the study gives valid, in-depth insight into religious coping, but its small, narrow

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sample means the findings should be generalised with caution.

(Total for Question 15 = 8 marks)

TOTAL FOR SECTION B OPTION 2 = 32 MARKS
TOTAL FOR PAPER = 64 MARKS

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