Surname	StemUp Model Solution	Centre Number	Candidate Number
First name(s)			2

GCE A LEVEL

S23-A290U10-1

A290U10-1

FRIDAY, 19 MAY 2023 – MORNING

PSYCHOLOGY – A level component 1
Psychology: Past to Present

2 hours 15 minutes

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Question	**Maximum Mark**	**Mark Awarded**
1.	**12**	
2.	**10**	
3.	**10**	
4.	**10**	
5.	**14**	
6.	**10**	
7.	**10**	
8.	**24**	
Total	**100**	

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01

INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES

Use black ink or black ball-point pen. Do not use gel pen or correction fluid.

Write your name, centre number and candidate number in the spaces at the top of this page.

Answer **all** questions.

Write your answers in the spaces provided in this booklet. Additional space is provided for some questions within the booklet (if required). If further space is required for any question, you should use the additional page(s) at the back of the booklet, taking care to number the question(s) correctly.

INFORMATION FOR CANDIDATES

The number of marks is given in brackets at the end of each question or part-question.

You are reminded of the necessity for good English and orderly presentation in your answers.

Assessment will take into account the quality of written communication used in your answers.

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Answer **all** questions.

1. (a) Using an example from psychology, describe the biological assumption of 'neurotransmitters'. [4]

The biological approach assumes that behaviour is influenced by neurotransmitters, chemical messengers that carry signals between neurons. When an electrical impulse reaches the end of the presynaptic neuron, vesicles release the neurotransmitter into the synapse (synaptic cleft). It diffuses across the gap and binds to receptor sites on the postsynaptic neuron, making it more or less likely to fire (excitatory or inhibitory). Any excess is broken down or taken back up by reuptake.

For example, low levels of serotonin in the synapse are linked to depression. This is why SSRIs such as fluoxetine (Prozac) are prescribed: they block the reuptake of serotonin so more remains in the synapse, which reduces depressive symptoms. Similarly, excess dopamine is linked to schizophrenia.

Additional space for question **1**(a) only:

(b) Using an example from psychology, describe the biological assumption of 'evolutionary influences'. [4]

The biological approach assumes behaviour has been shaped by evolution through natural selection. Behaviours that helped our ancestors survive and reproduce (survival of the fittest) were more likely to be passed on in their genes, so over many generations these adaptive behaviours became more common in the population, as individuals best adapted to their environment produced more offspring.

An example is mate selection. Buss (1989) surveyed over 10 000 people in 37 cultures and found that men valued youth and physical attractiveness (signs of fertility), whereas women valued resources and ambition in a partner (ability to

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Additional space for question **1**(b) only:

provide for offspring). This consistency across cultures suggests these preferences are evolved, genetically based behaviours rather than learned. Another example is preparedness to develop phobias of snakes and heights (Seligman, 1971).

(c) Using an example from psychology, describe the positive assumption of 'authenticity of goodness and excellence'. [4]

Positive psychology assumes that goodness and excellence (e.g. happiness, kindness, courage) are just as authentic, real parts of human nature as negative states such as anxiety, stress and depression, and so they deserve equal study. Positive emotions are not simply defences or the absence of illness. Seligman argued psychology should identify and build people's signature strengths, the character strengths an individual uses most naturally, such as kindness, humour, gratitude or love of learning, rather than only repairing weaknesses. For example, Seligman et al. (2005) asked participants to use one of their signature strengths in a new way every day for a week. This increased

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happiness and reduced depressive symptoms for up to six months, showing that building genuine strengths leads to well-being and fulfilment, including in relationships with others.

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2. Evaluate either cognitive behavioural therapy **OR** rational emotive behaviour therapy. [10]

I will evaluate cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT).

A strength of CBT is the research evidence for its effectiveness in treating depression. In the Treatment for Adolescents with Depression Study (March et al., 2007), after 12 weeks 71% of adolescents receiving CBT combined with fluoxetine improved, compared with 61% on fluoxetine alone and 43% with CBT alone. This shows CBT is effective, especially in combination with drugs, and CBT is recommended by NICE for depression and anxiety. However, CBT alone was less effective than drugs in the short term, so for severe depression it may not be enough on its own.

A second strength is that CBT respects the free will of the client. The client is an active, equal partner who sets goals with the therapist and learns to challenge their own irrational thoughts, so they are empowered and learn skills they can use after therapy ends, reducing the risk of relapse. This contrasts with drug therapy, which treats symptoms passively and can cause side effects.

CBT uses specific, structured techniques such as the dysfunctional thought diary, where the client records situations, automatic negative thoughts and more rational alternatives, and pleasant activity scheduling, which increases rewarding activities. These are clear and measurable, so progress can be monitored and the therapy can be tested scientifically. CBT is also relatively short (often 6 to 20 sessions) and cost-effective.

On the other hand, there are individual differences in who benefits. CBT relies on homework and motivation, so clients who are severely depressed, lack energy or concentration may struggle to complete the diaries and drop out. It may also suit people with high verbal ability better than others. Success also depends on the role and competence of the therapist: a therapist who is poorly trained or

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who does not build a good therapeutic alliance will be less effective, making outcomes inconsistent.

There are ethical issues too. CBT focuses on the client's irrational thinking, so clients may feel they are to blame for their problems, which could cause psychological harm, and it may ignore real social causes such as poverty or abuse. Therapists must therefore gain valid informed consent, explain the right to withdraw and avoid implying blame.

In conclusion, CBT is a well-supported, ethical and cost-effective therapy that treats the thinking behind depression and empowers clients, but it is not suitable for everyone and works best for motivated clients, often alongside medication for severe cases.

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3. Outline the findings and conclusions of Bowlby's (1944) research *'Forty-four juvenile thieves: Their characters and home-life'*. [10]

Findings: Bowlby compared 44 juvenile thieves with a control group of 44 emotionally disturbed children at the same child guidance clinic who did not steal. The thieves were classified into six character types: 2 'normal', 9 'depressed', 2 'circular', 13 'hyperthymic' (constantly over-active), 14 'affectionless' (lacking normal affection, shame or sense of responsibility) and 4 'schizoid'. Only 2 of the 44 were judged normal, and even they showed some instability, and Bowlby believed that without treatment the other 42 would develop neurotic or psychotic symptoms in later life.

Prolonged separation from the mother (at least 6 months) in the first five years was found in about 40% (17) of the thieves but in only 5% (2) of the controls. This was especially common in the affectionless characters: 12 of the 14 (86%) had experienced prolonged separation from their mothers or

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mother-substitutes, a far higher rate than in any other group, and there were no affectionless characters in the control group. Of the 14 affectionless thieves, 13 (93%) were persistent (Grade 4) thieves, and of the 23 persistent thieves, 13 (56%) were affectionless. Also 14 of the 23 persistent thieves (61%) had suffered prolonged separation.

In the 27 thieves who had not been separated, the home environment was often far from normal: several children were unwanted, many had anxious, unstable or nagging mothers, and in 5 cases the father was openly hostile towards the child and did not hide that he never wanted them.

Conclusions: Bowlby concluded that the findings confirm the psychoanalytic assumption that the early years are of great importance for character development. Prolonged maternal deprivation in early childhood appears to be a cause of affectionless psychopathy and persistent delinquency, supporting his

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maternal deprivation hypothesis. However, he also concluded that juvenile crime is not only a psychological problem but a social and economic problem too. Finally, he argued that if everyone involved in caring for young children understood the damage prolonged separations do to a child's character, more effort would be made to avoid them, and many cases of criminal behaviour could be prevented.

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4. 'Beth thinks the psychodynamic approach is useful in psychology; however, Ravi disagrees.'

With reference to the above scenario, discuss strengths and weaknesses of the psychodynamic approach. [10]

Beth would argue the psychodynamic approach is useful because its therapies treat the cause of behaviour, not just the symptoms. Psychoanalysis uses techniques such as free association and dream analysis to bring repressed conflicts from the unconscious into conscious awareness so the client gains insight and catharsis. Beth could contrast this with biological therapies such as drugs, which psychodynamic psychologists reject as a cure because they only mask symptoms and symptoms often return when medication stops.

Beth could also point out that the approach recognises the importance of childhood. Freud argued that the influence of parents during the psychosexual stages (e.g. fixation in the oral or anal stage) shapes adult personality. This idea is supported by later research such as Bowlby's 44 juvenile thieves study, which linked early maternal separation to affectionless psychopathy. The approach also considers both nature (innate drives of the id) and nurture (parenting experiences), which is less reductionist than some approaches.

However, Ravi would argue the approach lacks an empirical basis. Concepts such as the unconscious, the id and the Oedipus complex cannot be directly observed or measured, so the theory is unfalsifiable and unscientific. Freud relied on non-scientific methods such as case studies of a small number of mainly middle-class Viennese patients, like Little Hans, whose evidence came second-hand from his father. Interpretations were subjective, so findings lack reliability and cannot be generalised.

Ravi could also criticise the length and cost of therapy. Psychoanalysis may take several sessions a week for years, making it expensive and time-consuming, and it is unsuitable for people who cannot express themselves verbally or who

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have severe disorders such as schizophrenia. Its success depends heavily on the competence of the therapist, whose interpretations may be biased, and there is a risk of creating false memories. Ravi would add that the approach is psychically deterministic, suggesting behaviour is directed by unconscious forces beyond our control, which ignores free will.

Overall, Ravi is right that the approach is not scientific, but Beth is correct that it has been very influential, for example in highlighting the importance of childhood and the unconscious and in developing talking therapies, so it is useful even if it is not fully supported.

5. (a) Describe the methodology of Loftus and Palmer's (1974) research *'Reconstruction of automobile destruction: an example of the interaction between language and memory'*. [6]

Loftus and Palmer carried out two laboratory experiments using an independent groups design, at the University of Washington.

In experiment one the sample was 45 students, divided into five groups of 9. The IV was the verb used in the critical question about the speed of the cars: 'smashed', 'collided', 'bumped', 'hit' or 'contacted'. The DV was the participants' estimate of speed in miles per hour, recorded on a questionnaire after watching seven short films of traffic accidents. Quantitative data were analysed by comparing the mean speed estimates for each verb.

In experiment two the sample was 150 students, split into three groups of 50 who were tested in groups of various sizes. The IV was again the verb: 'smashed', 'hit', or a control group who were not asked about speed. The DV was whether participants reported seeing broken glass (yes or no) one week later, a

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critical question as there was no broken glass in the film.

(b) Evaluate the methodology of Loftus and Palmer's (1974) research *'Reconstruction of automobile destruction: an example of the interaction between language and memory'*. [8]

A strength of the methodology is the use of laboratory experiments. Variables were tightly controlled: all participants watched the same films and only the verb was changed, so cause and effect can be established, showing that leading questions altered the speed estimates. The standardised procedure also makes the study replicable and reliable.

However, the laboratory setting reduces ecological validity. Watching a short film clip is not the same as witnessing a real accident, which is emotionally arousing and where the consequences of an inaccurate testimony are serious. Yuille and Cutshall (1986) found real witnesses to a shooting gave accurate accounts even when asked misleading questions, suggesting the findings may not apply to real life.

The use of an independent groups design avoids order effects and reduces demand characteristics, as each participant only heard one verb and was less likely to guess the aim. However, participant variables, such as driving experience or ability to judge speed, could explain differences between groups, especially with only 9 per group in experiment one.

The questionnaire technique produced quantitative data, which is objective and easy to compare. However, people are poor at estimating speed, and the verb may have caused response bias rather than a real change in memory.

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Experiment two addressed this by using a control group and a follow-up question about broken glass a week later, showing memory itself had been reconstructed, which strengthens validity.

The sample of American students is unrepresentative: they may be less experienced drivers and the study is ethnocentric, so generalisability is limited.

Ethically, participants were deceived about the true aim, but the deception was mild, caused no harm and could be justified with a debrief.

Overall, the methodology is highly controlled and reliable but lacks ecological and population validity.

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6. Compare and contrast the biological approach and the behaviourist approach. [10]

One similarity is that both approaches are scientific. They study observable, measurable phenomena and favour laboratory experiments with high control, for example the behaviourist Skinner box studies of operant conditioning and biological research using brain scans or drug trials. However, the biological approach could be viewed as more scientific because it can measure physical processes directly, such as neurotransmitter levels, whereas behaviourists infer learning from behaviour.

Both approaches also use non-human animals in research. Skinner studied rats and pigeons, and Pavlov studied dogs; biological psychologists study animal brains and genetics. Both assume there is enough continuity between species to generalise, but this raises ethical issues about harm to animals and questions

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about whether findings apply to humans.

Both are reductionist, deterministic and nomothetic. The biological approach reduces behaviour to genes, hormones and neurotransmitters (biological determinism), while behaviourism reduces it to stimulus-response links (environmental determinism). Neither allows much room for free will or cognition, or for individual differences.

The key difference is the nature-nurture debate. The biological approach takes a nature view, that behaviour is caused by inherited genes and physiology, while behaviourists take an extreme nurture view, that we are born a blank slate and all behaviour is learned through classical and operant conditioning.

Their treatments also differ. Biological therapies such as SSRIs for depression act quickly and require little effort from the patient, but they tackle symptoms rather than causes, can have side effects, and symptoms may return when the drug is stopped. Behaviourist therapies such as systematic desensitisation also

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target the symptom (the learned response), but research shows it is highly effective for phobias with long-lasting results, although it takes several sessions and some techniques like flooding or aversion therapy raise ethical concerns about distress.

In conclusion, the two approaches are similar in their scientific methods and determinism but differ fundamentally on nature versus nurture. Each explains some behaviours better, so an interactionist view, such as the diathesis-stress model, is probably most accurate.

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7. 'Rachel stated that positive therapies are the most appropriate to use with clients.'

With reference to the above scenario, explain why mindfulness **OR** quality of life therapy is used by psychologists from the positive approach. [10]

Rachel would argue that mindfulness is used by positive psychologists because it fits the assumptions of the approach. Mindfulness, developed from Buddhist meditation by Kabat-Zinn, teaches clients to focus on the present moment, noticing thoughts, feelings and bodily sensations without judging them. Rather than repairing what is wrong, it aims to help clients achieve the pleasant, good and meaningful life described by Seligman, and it reflects the assumption that positive states such as calm and contentment are as authentic as anxiety and stress.

Positive psychologists believe people have free will. In mindfulness the client actively chooses to practise, for example through body scans and mindful breathing at home, so they take responsibility for their own well-being. Rachel could argue this is more empowering than drug therapies, where the client is passive.

There is research to support its effectiveness, which Rachel could use to justify her view. Kabat-Zinn's Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction (MBSR) eight-week programme reduced stress and pain in patients with chronic pain. Teasdale et al. (2000) found that mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (MBCT) roughly halved the rate of relapse in people who had experienced three or more episodes of depression, compared with usual treatment. Kuyken et al. (2016), in a meta-analysis, also found MBCT reduced the risk of relapse. This suggests mindfulness has lasting benefits.

Mindfulness also helps build character and signature strengths such as self-control, gratitude, patience and kindness towards oneself, and practices such as loving-kindness meditation extend compassion to others, helping clients create and maintain positive relationships, which positive psychologists see as key to

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well-being.

Rachel might also explain that mindfulness is preferred to other approaches because it is low cost, can be taught in groups or through apps, has no side effects compared with drugs, and can prevent problems rather than only treat them, so it can be used with non-clinical clients too.

However, Rachel's claim that positive therapies are the most appropriate for all clients is too strong. Mindfulness requires motivation and regular practice, and it may not suit people with severe mental illness such as psychosis, where it could increase distress. So, while psychologists use mindfulness because it is effective and consistent with the positive approach, it may be best used alongside other therapies.

8. Using psychological knowledge, discuss the extent to which conditioning techniques should be used to control the behaviour of children, including the ethical implications. [24]

Conditioning techniques come from the behaviourist approach, which assumes all behaviour is learned through classical and operant conditioning. In operant conditioning (Skinner), behaviour that is followed by positive reinforcement (a reward) or negative reinforcement (removal of something unpleasant) is strengthened, while punishment weakens it. Classical conditioning (Pavlov) involves learning by association. These principles are widely used to control children's behaviour at home, in schools and with vulnerable children.

In schools, teachers use token economies, where children earn stickers, house points or merits for good behaviour that can be exchanged for rewards, and punishments such as detentions or loss of privileges. At home, parents use praise, pocket money, time-out and the 'naughty step', which removes the child from the reinforcement of attention.

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With vulnerable children, Lovaas (1987) developed applied behaviour analysis (ABA) for young children with autism. Children under four received around 40 hours a week of one-to-one operant conditioning for two years or more, where desired behaviours such as eye contact and speech were broken into small steps and rewarded. Lovaas found that 47% of the intensive group achieved normal intellectual and educational functioning, compared with only 2% of a control group who received 10 hours a week or less. Soares et al. (2009) also used behavioural techniques with a child with Asperger's syndrome in a school setting, and found that reinforcement and self-monitoring reduced problem behaviour and improved on-task work. Classical conditioning is also used: the bell-and-pad alarm (Mowrer and Mowrer, 1938) conditions children to wake when their bladder is full, and it is a successful treatment for bedwetting. These findings support the use of conditioning: the techniques have a clear, measurable effect on behaviour, they are cheap, can be applied consistently by parents and teachers, and can give vulnerable children skills that improve their quality of life and independence. Because ABA and token economies have been used in real settings such as homes and classrooms, the research has high ecological validity.

However, there are problems. Mazur (1998) argued that punishment does not correct behaviour: it only suppresses it temporarily, does not teach the child what they should do instead, and the behaviour often returns when the punisher is absent. Punishment may also cause fear, anxiety and resentment towards the parent or teacher. Gershoff (2002), in a meta-analysis of research on physical punishment, found it was associated with higher aggression and poorer mental health in children. Bandura's Bobo doll research supports this, as children imitate aggressive models, so a parent who smacks may teach

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aggression rather than reduce it.

Rewards also have problems. Research into the overjustification effect (Lepper, Greene and Nisbett, 1973) found that children who expected a reward for drawing later showed less interest in drawing than children who were not rewarded. This suggests token economies can undermine intrinsic motivation, so children behave well only for the reward, and the behaviour may not generalise beyond the classroom once tokens stop.

There are also reliability and validity issues. Much of the original research on conditioning was carried out in laboratory experiments with animals such as Skinner's rats and pigeons, so it may not generalise to children, who have cognition, emotions and free will. Behaviourism ignores the reasons behind behaviour, so a child misbehaving because of bullying, abuse or ADHD may have the symptom suppressed while the cause remains. There are also individual differences and a lack of consistency: different teachers and parents apply rewards and punishments inconsistently, what reinforces one child may not reinforce another, and conditioning techniques vary between cultures, so outcomes are unreliable. Temporal validity is also an issue, as attitudes have changed: physical punishment was once common in UK schools but is now banned.

The ethical implications are serious. Children are vulnerable and cannot give fully informed consent; consent is given by parents, so the child's rights may be ignored. Lovaas's early work included aversive techniques such as shouting and physical punishment, which would breach protection from harm today. Some autistic adults have argued that ABA trains children to suppress natural behaviours such as stimming in order to appear 'normal', which raises issues of dignity and psychological harm. Conditioning can also be seen as manipulation

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that removes the child's free will, and in the wrong hands could be used to control rather than help. The ethical treatment of children in research is also an issue, as shown by Watson and Rayner's (1920) Little Albert study, where a baby was conditioned to fear a white rat without the fear being removed. On the other hand, it could be argued that it is unethical not to use effective techniques: if ABA or the bell-and-pad gives a child independence and wellbeing, the benefits outweigh the costs, as long as positive reinforcement rather than punishment is used, the techniques are explained, and the child's best interests are protected.

In conclusion, conditioning techniques should be used to control the behaviour of children only to a limited extent. The evidence, such as Lovaas (1987) and the success of token economies and the bell-and-pad, shows positive reinforcement can be effective and ethically acceptable, especially for vulnerable children. However, punishment should be avoided, as research by Mazur and Gershoff shows it is ineffective and harmful. Conditioning should be used consistently, alongside approaches that address the causes of behaviour and respect the child's free will, with strict ethical safeguards such as informed parental consent, the child's assent where possible, and protection from harm.

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