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

GCE AS

B290U10-1

S23-B290U10-1

MONDAY, 15 MAY 2023 – AFTERNOON

PSYCHOLOGY – AS component 1
Psychology: Past to Present

1 hour 45 minutes

For Examiner's use only		
Question	**Maximum Mark**	**Mark Awarded**
1.	**5**	
2.	**10**	
3.	**10**	
4.	**10**	
5.	**5**	
6.	**10**	
7.	**10**	
8.	**20**	
Total	**80**	

B290U101
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 need for good English and orderly, clear presentation in your answers.

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

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

Answer **all** questions.

1. Using your knowledge of cognitive psychology, explain why a relationship is formed. [5]

The cognitive approach explains relationship formation through internal mental processes and schemas. We are active processors of information about potential partners: we perceive, attend to and remember information about people, and this processing guides who we are attracted to.

Relationship schemas are organised packets of knowledge, stored in long-term memory, about what relationships and partners should be like, built up from past experience, family, the media and culture. When we meet someone, we compare them to our schema of an ideal partner, and if they fit, a relationship is more likely to form. The halo effect is a schema-driven bias: if we perceive someone as physically attractive, we assume they also have other positive traits, such as kindness and intelligence, which increases attraction. Our self-schema (beliefs about our own attractiveness and worth) also matters. According to the matching hypothesis (Walster), we judge our own 'market value' and seek partners of a similar level of attractiveness, because this reduces the risk of rejection.

Additional space for question **1** only:

Other internal processes are involved too. Perception of the other person, memories of previous relationships (positive or negative) and linguistic concepts such as 'sweet love' shape how we interpret our feelings. Cacioppo et al. (2012) found that the striatum is involved in learning connections between behaviour and rewards, so we come to associate a person with reward, which helps a relationship to form.

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

2. Describe the psychodynamic assumptions of the 'influence of childhood experiences' **and** the 'tripartite personality'. [5 + 5]

Influence of childhood experiences: Freud assumed that adult personality and behaviour are shaped by experiences in the first five years of life. Children are born with libido (sexual energy), which is focused on a different erogenous zone at each psychosexual stage: oral (0 to 1 year, mouth, e.g. sucking), anal (1 to 3, anus, toilet training), phallic (3 to 6, genitals), latency (6 to puberty, libido dormant) and genital (puberty onwards, mature sexual relationships). At each stage there is a conflict that must be resolved. If a child experiences frustration (needs not met) or overindulgence (needs over-satisfied), they become fixated at that stage, leaving some libido 'stuck' there, with consequences in adulthood. For example, oral fixation may lead to smoking, nail biting or dependency, and anal fixation to an anal-retentive personality (obsessive tidiness and stubbornness) or anal-expulsive personality (messiness). In the phallic stage, boys experience the Oedipus complex (desire for the mother, seeing the father as a rival and fearing castration) and girls the Electra complex (penis envy and desire for the father). This is resolved by identifying with the same-sex parent, so the roles of mother and father are crucial in development.

Tripartite personality: Freud assumed the personality has three parts in dynamic conflict. The id is present from birth, is entirely unconscious and works on the pleasure principle: it demands immediate gratification of selfish, instinctive needs such as hunger, sex and aggression, regardless of consequences. The ego develops at around 18 months to 3 years and works on the reality principle: it is the rational, mostly conscious part that mediates between the demands of the id, the superego and the real world, delaying gratification until it is realistic. When conflict between the id and superego causes anxiety, the ego protects itself using unconscious defence mechanisms such as repression, denial and displacement. The superego develops at around 3 to 5 years, as a result of resolving the Oedipus or Electra complex in the phallic stage by identifying with the same-sex parent. It works on the morality principle and consists

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

Additional space for question **2** only:

of the conscience (which punishes wrongdoing with guilt) and the ego-ideal (what we aspire to be). A healthy personality requires a strong ego balancing the id and superego.

3. Describe the findings of Myers and Diener's (1995) '*Who is happy?*' research. [10]

Myers and Diener (1995) reviewed research on subjective well-being (SWB) to identify who is happy. Age: there was no real difference; no time of life (young, middle-aged or newly retired) is notably happier or unhappier than others (Inglehart, 1990), although the predictors of happiness change with age.

Gender: generally no difference. A meta-analysis found gender accounts for less than 1% of people's well-being, and 80% of men and women said they were at least 'fairly satisfied' with life (Inglehart, 1990). The sexes differ in the psychological disorders they experience (Robins and Regier, 1991): women are more prone to depression and anxiety, men to alcoholism and antisocial personality, but overall happiness is similar.

Race: no real difference; for example African Americans and European Americans report similar happiness and score similarly on tests of self-esteem. Crocker and Major (1989) explained how disadvantaged groups maintain self-esteem, e.g. by valuing what they are good at and comparing themselves with their own group.

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

Culture: large differences were found. Even when income differences are controlled for, about 10% of people in Portugal say they are very happy compared with about 40% in the Netherlands. In general, collectivist cultures report lower SWB than individualistic cultures.

Money: there are moderate positive correlations between wealth and happiness between nations. In poorer countries financial satisfaction is a moderate predictor of SWB, but once people can afford life's necessities such as food and shelter, more money matters much less. Within wealthy nations, income growth has not increased happiness (Strumpel, 1976; Austin, Green and Korn, 1987, found more students wanted to be 'very well off financially'). Satisfaction with income is a better predictor of SWB than income itself.

Traits: the best indicators of a happy person are high self-esteem, a sense of personal control, optimism and extraversion. The self-esteem link is weaker in collectivist cultures, where the group is given priority over the individual. Optimists tend to be more successful, healthier and happier than pessimists.

Relationships: those with more close friends are happier and have higher positive emotion; married people report greater happiness than those never married, divorced or separated.

Flow: people with greater work satisfaction also have better life satisfaction; happiness comes from being absorbed in a challenging task that matches our skills (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Faith: religious people report higher levels of happiness and cope better with crises.

Additional space for question **3** only:

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

4. Loftus and Palmer's (1974) '*Reconstruction of automobile destruction; an example of the interaction between language and memory*' is often considered to be a better piece of research compared to Bowlby's (1944) '*Forty-four juvenile thieves: Their characters and home-life*'.
Discuss the extent to which you agree with this statement. [10]

I largely agree with the statement, although Bowlby's research has some strengths that Loftus and Palmer's lacks.

Methodology: Loftus and Palmer used laboratory experiments with a standardised procedure. In experiment 1, 45 students watched seven film clips of car accidents and were asked 'About how fast were the cars going when they smashed / collided / bumped / hit / contacted each other?' The IV (verb) was manipulated, so cause and effect could be established ('smashed' gave a mean estimate of 40.5 mph, 'contacted' 31.8 mph). Because everyone saw the same clips and questions, the study is replicable and reliable. In contrast, Bowlby's case studies of 44 thieves and 44 controls relied on clinical interviews with children and mothers and his own interpretation, so standardisation and reliability are low and researcher bias is possible, as Bowlby himself made the diagnoses.

Validity: Bowlby's research was more ecologically valid, because it used real children and real-life histories of maternal separation (e.g. 12 of the 14 affectionless thieves had experienced prolonged early separation, compared with only 2 of the 44 controls). Loftus and Palmer used video clips, which lack the emotional impact of a real accident, and participants knew there were no consequences for their answers, so their research has lower ecological and mundane realism. However, Bowlby's data relied on retrospective recall by mothers, which may be inaccurate, and the findings are correlational, so separation cannot be said to cause delinquency.

Samples: Loftus and Palmer used only American students, limiting generalisability, while Bowlby's sample was from one London clinic and also small.

Ethics: Loftus and Palmer's research was low risk, with only mild deception. Bowlby's involved vulnerable children and sensitive personal information, but it was intended to

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

Additional space for question **4** only:

help them through therapy.

Time and approach: Bowlby worked in 1944 within the psychodynamic approach, when standards of scientific rigour were lower; Loftus and Palmer used the more scientific cognitive approach.

Applications: both have useful applications: Loftus and Palmer changed police questioning of eyewitnesses, and Bowlby changed hospital visiting and childcare policies.

In conclusion, Loftus and Palmer's research is better in terms of control, reliability and scientific rigour, but Bowlby's is stronger in ecological validity, so it is only partly true that it is the better piece of research.

5. Briefly describe either drug therapy **OR** psychosurgery. [5]

Drug therapy is a biological therapy based on the assumption that mental disorders are caused by abnormal brain chemistry, especially imbalances of neurotransmitters, so chemicals are used to correct them.

Antipsychotic drugs are used for schizophrenia. Typical antipsychotics such as chlorpromazine are dopamine antagonists: they block D2 dopamine receptors at the synapse, reducing excess dopamine activity and positive symptoms such as hallucinations. Atypical antipsychotics such as clozapine also act on serotonin receptors.

Antidepressant drugs are used for depression. SSRIs such as fluoxetine (Prozac) block the reuptake of serotonin into the presynaptic neuron, so more serotonin remains in the synapse to stimulate the postsynaptic neuron. Older types include tricyclics and

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

Additional space for question **5** only:

MAOIs.

Anti-anxiety drugs are used for stress and anxiety. Benzodiazepines such as Valium enhance the action of GABA, the brain's main inhibitory neurotransmitter, making neurons less excitable and calming the person. Beta-blockers reduce the physical effects of stress by blocking adrenaline at receptors in the heart.

6. Evaluate mindfulness **OR** quality of life therapy. [10]

One strength of mindfulness is that there is evidence for its effectiveness. Teasdale et al. (2000) found that mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (MBCT) nearly halved the relapse rate (37% compared with 66%) in recovered depressed patients who had experienced three or more episodes of depression, compared with treatment as usual. This shows it can prevent relapse, although it was not effective for those with only two previous episodes, so it is not suitable for everyone.

Similarly, mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR), developed by Jon Kabat-Zinn, has been shown to be effective. Reibel et al. (2001) found that patients with a range of medical conditions who completed an eight-week MBSR programme showed improved health-related quality of life and reduced anxiety and depression, and the gains were maintained at one-year follow-up. Much research credits Kabat-Zinn for bringing

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

mindfulness into mainstream medicine.

A further strength is that mindfulness can be integrated with other therapies, for example with CBT to create MBCT, or with psychoanalysis, increasing its range of application. It can be delivered in groups, which is cost-effective and offers social support, or individually, which can be tailored to the client; however, group sessions may suit fewer people who find disclosure difficult.

However, there are weaknesses. Many studies rely on self-report measures of stress and wellbeing, which may be biased by expectations and demand characteristics, and some lack proper control groups, so placebo effects cannot be ruled out. Mindfulness also requires commitment and daily practice, so drop-out rates can be high.

There are also ethical and moral issues. Mindfulness has been removed from its Buddhist ethical roots and is sometimes used to make people accept poor conditions, e.g. in workplaces. On the other hand, Ruedy and Schweitzer (2010) found that more mindful individuals were less likely to behave unethically, e.g. cheat, suggesting it can

Additional space for question **6** only:

improve moral behaviour. Some clients may also experience distress when attending to difficult thoughts.

In conclusion, evidence from Teasdale et al. and Reibel et al. suggests mindfulness is an effective, low-risk therapy, especially combined with CBT for recurrent depression, but methodological weaknesses mean its benefits may be somewhat overstated.

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

7. Analyse the strengths **and** weaknesses of the biological approach. [10]

A key strength of the biological approach is that it is scientific. It uses objective, measurable methods such as brain scans (PET, fMRI), twin and adoption studies and laboratory experiments, which allow cause and effect relationships to be tested and replicated. For example, Raine et al. (1997) used PET scans to show reduced prefrontal activity in murderers. This gives the approach credibility, although interpreting scans still involves some subjectivity.

A second strength is its successful applications and therapies. Understanding neurotransmitters has led to drug therapies such as SSRIs for depression and antipsychotics for schizophrenia, which are effective for many people, cheap and easy to administer. Its focus on the here and now means treatments target current symptoms rather than delving into the past. However, drugs treat symptoms rather than causes, have side effects and relapse is common when they are stopped.

A weakness is that the approach is reductionist. It reduces complex behaviour such as depression or aggression to genes, hormones or neurotransmitters, ignoring the social, cognitive and emotional factors that also contribute. Twin studies show concordance rates for schizophrenia of around 48% for MZ twins, not 100%, so environment must also play a role. However, reductionism can be a strength, because breaking behaviour down makes it easier to research.

The approach is also deterministic, suggesting behaviour is caused by biology and we have no free will. This has implications for responsibility, for example whether criminals should be blamed if their brain is abnormal. It also takes the nature side of the nature-nurture debate, underplaying the influence of upbringing and culture.

Finally, it is nomothetic and tends to ignore individual differences: it looks for general laws of biology, yet people respond differently to the same drug or genetic risk. Much research is also based on animals, which raises questions about generalising to humans.

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

Additional space for question **7** only:

In conclusion, the biological approach is highly scientific and has produced effective therapies, but its reductionist and deterministic nature means it gives only a partial explanation of behaviour, and it is best combined with other approaches, such as in the diathesis-stress model.

8. 'It is not appropriate to use conditioning techniques to control the behaviour of children.'

Using psychological knowledge, discuss to what extent you agree with this statement, including reference to social and cultural diversity. [20]

Conditioning techniques come from the behaviourist approach. In classical conditioning (Pavlov), a neutral stimulus is associated with an unconditioned stimulus until it produces a conditioned response. In operant conditioning (Skinner), behaviour is shaped by its consequences: positive reinforcement (adding something pleasant, e.g. praise or stickers) and negative reinforcement (removing something unpleasant) increase a behaviour, while punishment decreases it. Seligman's learned helplessness theory showed that dogs exposed to unavoidable shocks later stopped trying to escape, suggesting that repeated uncontrollable punishment can make children passive and depressed.

Conditioning is widely used to control children's behaviour at school and at home. McAllister et al. (1969) found that teachers using praise for appropriate behaviour and

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

disapproval for inappropriate talking significantly reduced inappropriate behaviour in a high school English class compared with a control class. Levitt et al. (2010) found that financial and non-financial rewards given immediately before tests improved students' performance, but delayed rewards had no effect. At home, Gill (1998) discussed the use of rewards and smacking by parents: physical punishment may stop behaviour in the short term but can model aggression. Conditioning is also used therapeutically: token economies reward desired behaviour with tokens exchanged for treats, and Chaney et al. (2004) found that the Funhaler, an asthma inhaler that rewarded children with whistles and spinning toys when used correctly, increased correct use by children aged 1.5 to 6 by 38% compared with a standard inhaler. Lovaas (1987) used intensive applied behaviour analysis (ABA) with children with autism and found 47% of the experimental group achieved normal intellectual and educational functioning, compared with 2% of controls.

This suggests conditioning can be appropriate, especially reinforcement rather than punishment. It is cheap and effective, and can transform vulnerable children's lives, as in the Funhaler and Lovaas studies. However, Lovaas' ABA was intensive (40 hours a week for two years), so it is economically demanding, used aversive methods such as slapping in early versions, and lacked random allocation, raising methodological and ethical concerns.

On the other hand, there are strong arguments that conditioning is not appropriate. It relies on extrinsic motivation. Lepper et al. (1973) found that nursery children who expected a reward for drawing later spent less free time drawing than those not rewarded, showing rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation. Dweck (1975) argued that children praised only for success develop less resilience when they fail. Conditioning also fails to deal with underlying problems: a child disrupting class because of difficulties at home may stop the behaviour but the cause remains. The

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Examiner only

Additional space for question **8** only:

psychodynamic approach suggests that if children's emotional needs are not met, there may be long-term emotional consequences in later life, and Morris (2014) raised concerns about the long-term emotional effects of punishment. Alternatives, such as treating misbehaviour as an opportunity for learning and building emotional intelligence, may be more appropriate. Peers also act as role models (Bricker et al., 2006), so behaviour can be learned socially despite rewards and punishments.

The approach is also reductionist and deterministic, ignoring children's free will and thoughts, and many principles were extrapolated from animal research (Skinner's rats and pigeons), which may not apply to children. Individual differences matter: Gray's theory of personality suggests children with a strong behavioural inhibition system (BIS) are more sensitive to punishment, while impulsive children, including many with ADHD, respond more to rewards, so a nomothetic one-size-fits-all system is inappropriate.

Social and cultural diversity is important. Lewis (1995) found that in Japanese schools little praise or reward systems were used; children seemed internally motivated by belonging to the group, showing that conditioning is not necessary in collectivist cultures. Attitudes to physical punishment also differ: smacking is banned in many countries such as Sweden and in Wales, but accepted elsewhere.

In conclusion, I partly agree with the statement. Punishment-based conditioning is often inappropriate because of its emotional effects, cultural differences and failure to address causes. However, positive reinforcement used ethically, alongside approaches that develop intrinsic motivation and emotional intelligence, can be an appropriate and effective way to support children's behaviour.

END OF PAPER

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Question number	Additional page, if required. Write the question number(s) in the left-hand margin.

Examiner only

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Question number	Additional page, if required. Write the question number(s) in the left-hand margin.

Examiner only

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk

Question number	Additional page, if required. Write the question number(s) in the left-hand margin.

Examiner only

© WJEC CBAC Ltd.

stemup.co.uk