Oeuvre

'In The Field of Psychology'

As Part of

Advanced Psychology *by Research* (ACCPH)

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<u>Acknowledgements</u>

A wise man gets more from his enemies than a fool does from his friends

Research Statement

This document is the culmination of my research in psychology. It is intended to provide a broad overview of original analysis that includes the varied areas of research within the field of psychology. It has considered different perspectives within the field without prejudice and has analysed and examined them based on their individual merits as well as their comparison to opposing or supporting views.

It is not an exhaustive consideration of the subject but rather a focused examination within the paraments that were agreed on prior to the beginning of this research.

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Section 1 - Psychological Approaches

1.

Researchers have summarised the personality element of Galen's personality theory to mean "the result of the internal organisation of an individual's cognitive, affective and cognitive characteristics"[1] Galen's theory describes three types of the human psyche. These types of the human psyche are also referred to as temperaments within the literature. Galen's theory begins with the cognitive or intellectual type of personality.[2] Then it considers the connotative or the intentional form of personality. Finally, affective, otherwise referred to as the emotional personality type. Galen believes the intellectual and emotional types are personality forms that make up the driving force behind human behaviour. Additionally, he believes the connotative determines and guides how these forces are used.[3]

Therefore, Galen's personality theory refers to 3 forms of the human psyche, which considers the intellectual, intentional, and emotional personality types. Given the age of this theory and Galen's further work (especially the theory on humours), there is a limiting number of references to the theory within the literature.

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[1] Hans Jürgen Eysenck, *Dimensions of Personality* (New Brunswick, N.J: Transaction Publishers, 1998). P.25

[2] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022. P.6

[3] Ibid P.6

2.

The theory of four humours is based on the traditional explanation for illnesses.[4] Historically, they were broken down into four types.[5] These types were caused by excesses of fluid within the body. The four humours are; Choleric, Melancholic, Phlegmatic and Sanguine.[6] These Humours have associated elements and personality types that are still used today.

Choleric was based on an excess of yellow bile in the body. On the other hand, Melancholic resulted from the excess of black bile. An excess of phlegm in the body determines Phlegmatic, and Sanguine is by the excess of blood within the body.[7] These elements which make up Galen's theory form a component of type theory, a label used to describe a theory where a person belongs to a category or another.[8] This distinction has been made due to more recent research on Galen's work.

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[4] Robert M. Stelmack and Anastasios Stalikas, 'Galen and the Humour Theory of Temperament', *Personality and Individual Differences* 12, no. 3 (1 January 1991): 255–63, https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(91)90111-N. P.257

[5] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.718

[6] Jacquelyn H. Flaskerud, 'Temperament and Personality: From Galen to DSM 5', *Issues in Mental Health Nursing* 33, no. 9 (17 September 2012): 631–34, https://doi.org/10.3109/01612840.2011.647256. P.631

[7] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.713

[8] Ibid. P.713

As previously stated, these humours have associated personality types classified by the four humours themselves. Choleric has personality types associated with instability, such as restlessness and aggressiveness. Furthermore, it carries traits associated with an extrovert and an opportunistic and impulsive person. Sanguine is associated with stability. Furthermore, in relation to Choleric, the traits associated with an extrovert who is talkative are apparent. Other qualities of stability and leadership are associated with this type as well. Furthermore, Phlegmatic shares the stability characteristic of Sanguine but diverges by being linked with reliability instead. Also, the likely personality type for this person would be an introvert who displays traits of passiveness and carefulness of thought.[9] Finally, Melancholic shares the instability trait with Choleric but diverges because of its shared introvert trait with Phlegmatic. The theory suggests that unsociable and moody personality traits would also be present.[10]

In addition, the four humours have physical and elemental characteristics to go alongside the personality traits.[11] According to this idea, a person's physical appearance will be directed by the type of temperaments that a person subscribes to. This idea leads to different appearance types for each of the different temperaments.

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[9] [9] Jacquelyn H. Flaskerud, 'Temperament and Personality: From Galen to DSM 5', *Issues in Mental Health Nursing* 33, no. 9 (17 September 2012): 631–34, https://doi.org/10.3109/01612840.2011.647256. P.631;

Olyvia Sita Aldisa Thadea, Suhartono Taat Putra, and I Gusti Ngurah Gunadi Sindhu Putra, 'The Relationship Between Galen's Personality Type Theory and Emotional Intelligence Level', *Biomolecular and Health Science Journal* 1, no. 2 (26 November 2018): 80, P.80

[10] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.718

[11] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022. P.6

Choleric's physiological trait contains a red-haired, thin person who has an affinity with fire. Melancholic leads to thin and pale humans who are akin to earth. Phlegmatic refers to overweight people with an association with water. The Sanguine personality type possesses a ruddy complexion person who has an affinity to air.[12]

The four humours theory is based on the historical explanation for medical ailments. However, despite this historical foundation, the theory is applied today. Additionally, it acts as a critical theory in psychology as well as being a starting reference point for future research in the area.

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[12] Ibid P.6

3.

Memory models are used to divide the breadth of memory of the memory field into subsections of memory types that function differently from each other.[13] Regarding this examination, the Tulvin principle focuses on memory retrieval and its influences on human behaviour.[14]

It is essential to consider the importance of memory and those memories that stretch beyond recalling past events.[15] This is because when past experience influences someone at a later time, it is a reflection of stored memory that is the influencing factor of behaviour. This gives an insight into human behaviour based on the ability to recall and use one's memory.

Regarding memory types, explicit memory involves the conscious awareness of the route of the original informational situation.[16] Furthermore, this can also involve a recollected experience. In contrast, implicit memory refers to the influence on our behaviour, feelings, or thought resulting from a prior experience without a conscious reflection of these events.

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[13] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.229

[14] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022. P.10

[15] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.226

[16] Ibid. P.226

An example of this would be walking past the fish counter during the day and then thinking of having fish for dinner later on.[17] This scenario is an example of implicit memory because the recollection of the previous event (walking past the fish counter) was not conscious. More specifically, this was a primed memory.

In addition to implicit and explicit memory, There are several other types of memory. These include thematic, which stores facts and knowledge; episodic, which stores events and recollections; and procedure which stores methods and techniques.[18] This breadth of memory types provides us with an insight that shows that the study of memory is far more complex than simply the ability to recall what happened on a previous occasion. This differentiation between different types of memory is seen when examining the testing parameters for two different memory types. For example, when a subject is in an implicit memory test and exceeds the control rate, the researchers conclude that the subject was unconsciously primed, thus revealing an implicit memory.[19]

The literature in memory study shows that we use different types of memory daily. These memory types influence our ability to store knowledge, procedure memory that shows us how to do something through methods and techniques and our ability to recall past events in the episodic memory type.

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[17] Ibid.P.230

[18] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022. P.10

[19] Alan J. Parkin, Thomas K. Reid, and Riccardo Russo, 'On the Differential Nature of Implicit and Explicit Memory', *Memory & Cognition* 18, no. 5 (1 September 1990): 507–14, https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03198483. P.507

Furthermore, the implicit and explicit forms of memory are widely documented and used repeatedly in daily life. Therefore the study of memory considers more than a person's ability to recall a past event. In addition, how we use our memory is also considered in this area of study.

4.

The nature versus nurture debate is formed around the question as to whether intelligence is down to genetics (nature) or the environment (nurture).[20]

 The critical questions from this debate consider how do we come to be what we are? Additionally, what may cause us to develop the way that we do?[21] Historically, researchers emphatically took one side of the debate. This is evident in Locke (1690), who believe that environment and upbringing are the key factors that influence behaviour forming the empiricists' view.[22]

However, there has been a shift to a view that considers the influence of both environmental and genetic factors in human development. In ancient times Plato believed that children were born with all knowledge, and the discovery of new information was the result of recollection. Furthermore, this is supported by those who believe in development through nature. Galton believed in the late 19th century that intellectual ability was inherited. Furthermore, Bow believed that development resulted from nature as the bond between mother and child was a natural process that ensured survival.[23] This demonstrates that the strength of the nature argument has been sustained throughout different pieces of research over time.

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[20] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022. P.22

[21] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015).P.870

[22] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022. P.22

[23] Ibid P.24

On the other hand, empiricists reject this and say that the mind is a blank state which is filled through experiences and the learning process.[24] This suggests that environmental factors would be the dominant force that brought about intelligence, development and change within humans, as supported by James (1890). Both Locke and James take this view to extreme considerations, excluding any potential influence of genetic capabilities, thus firmly aligning themselves with the nurture side of the debate.

However, as previously stated, researchers developed their view to consider both sides of the debate when examining development. The most contemporary research has shifted to the point that believes that the mind is not a blank state and therefore must be nurtured. Furthermore, complex mechanisms are in place that allows for learning and culture absorption to take place. This suggests that our environmental factors play a more significant part than initially thought.[25]

In addition, a strong consensus has formed around the view that human behaviour is the product of interest and the interaction between the hereditary and the environmental elements during the developmental stage. Ceci and Williams support this in 1999, who report a similar explanation when discussing their research.[26] These developments show the progression of the debate from the entrenched views of historical research surrounding the issue.

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[24] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.264

[25] Steven Pinker, 'Why Nature & Nurture Won't Go Away', *Daedalus* 133, no. 4 (September 2004): 5–17, https://doi.org/10.1162/0011526042365591. P.6

[26] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.880

Therefore, the nature versus nurture debate has developed over time as research has repeatedly debated it. The evidence now supports the theory that the combination of hereditary and environmental factors provide the answers to our development rather than a single factor.

5.

Twin and adoption studies build on the nature versus nurture debate by questioning whether intelligence is formed through hereditary properties or through the environment of the child.

At its most basic interpretation, twin studies give us insights into genetic influence, whilst adoption studies consider the environmental factors which influence a child's development. Researchers have used the results of twin and adoption studies to address the nature and nurture debate and critically to move that debate forward.[27]

One of the crucial advantages of twin and adoption studies is that they closely represent the population for which they have been considered.[28] These studies provide the bulk of the evidence to support the theory that genes are the primary determinator of human traits and development. In twin studies, biological twins examine the nature approach through shared genes.[29]

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[27] guang guo, 'Twin Studies: What Can They Tell Us about Nature and Nurture?', *Contexts* 4, no. 3 (2005): P.43.

[28] Wendy Johnson et al., 'Beyond Heritability: Twin Studies in Behavioral Research', *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 18, no. 4 (August 2009): 217–20, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2009.01639.x. P.217

[29] guang guo, 'Twin Studies: What Can They Tell Us about Nature and Nurture?', *Contexts* 4, no. 3 (2005): P.43.

Another critical advantage of these studies is the preciseness in which they can be carried out. For example, MZ twins share all their genes; this allows researchers a clear starting point to consider similarities and differences. This is demonstrated when considering autism. In MZ twins (twins that share all of their genes), there is an increased likelihood of autistic behaviours in both twins, even if only one has a formal diagnosis.[30]

In contrast, adoption studies look at the nurture approach. This is important from a research perspective because adopted relations generally share the same environmental factors, despite not being related. Therefore, if an adopted child demonstrates traits of their relatives, whether that be parental or step-siblings, this is the result of the environmental factors as there is no biological link between them.

However, Scarring (1992) believed that "the contribution of shared experiences was zero by adulthood."[31] This theoretical consideration suggests that our genetic potential is the ceiling by which we will ultimately reach regardless of the environmental circumstances during our development.

Without studies, such as twin and adoption studies, such conclusions could not be reached, and therefore the debate considering human development could not be advanced forward.

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[30] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022, P25.

[31] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.285

This is supported by Birch's research that considered twins' IQ versus adopted siblings and found the intelligence data to support hereditary influence.[32]

These studies are crucial for our understanding of human development, especially when considering intelligence. Without them, our understanding of this area would be significantly reduced.

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[32] Ibid P.284

6.

Human intelligence from a research perspective involves some controversy. This is derived from research that considers labelling children on an intelligent spectrum.[33] This labelling has been called controversial from an ethical point of view. This is following the first significant piece of research on the matter conducted by Binet.

According to Binet, intelligence can only be measured based on a particular time and context.[34] This idea is logical given that our apparent intelligence evolves over a lifetime, and it is not universal; instead, it is focused depending on our particular strengths and weaknesses. Due to the nature of the developmental process, Binet's research concludes that children develop the capability of skills at a specific time.

Furthermore, Thorndike complements Binet's work, who believes that intelligence is the process of responding to neurological activity where stimuli turn to the response. In Thorndike's view, the more capable one is in this process, the more intelligent they are, thus supporting the view that intelligence is an inherited trait.

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[33] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022, P26.

[34] Ibid. P.27

On the other hand, Gartner's research reveals the debate in this area as it challenges Binet's and Thorndike's implication that intelligence is a single biological entity. Instead, his theory considers that intelligence must be layered into linguistic, logical, mathematical, spiritual and personal types of intelligence.[35] This theory explains why 'traditionally unintelligent people', as determined by the theories above where intelligence is a single metric, are successful in their specific areas. This is because intelligence is not a blanket concept. Instead, it is much more precise and different people are therefore intelligent in the different intelligence categories as outlined by Gartner's theory.

Therefore despite the historical consideration that intelligence is a natural process solely relying on milestones in the development period, other research suggests that the matter is more complex than previously thought. The label intelligence should not be prescribed to one consideration. Instead, it should incorporate the many layers of intelligence. This will provide a more comprehensive view of a person's intelligence. This gives this approach more validity from a research perspective.

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[35] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.276

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Johnson, Wendy, Eric Turkheimer, Irving I. Gottesman, and Thomas J. Bouchard. 'Beyond Heritability: Twin Studies in Behavioral Research'. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 18, no. 4 (August 2009): 217–20. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2009.01639.x.

Oxbridge, My. 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022.

Parkin, Alan J., Thomas K. Reid, and Riccardo Russo. 'On the Differential Nature of Implicit and Explicit Memory'. *Memory & Cognition* 18, no. 5 (1 September 1990): 507–14. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03198483.

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Stelmack, Robert M., and Anastasios Stalikas. 'Galen and the Humour Theory of Temperament'. *Personality and Individual Differences* 12, no. 3 (1 January 1991): 255–63. https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(91)90111-N.

Thadea, Olyvia Sita Aldisa, Suhartono Taat Putra, and I Gusti Ngurah Gunadi Sindhu Putra. 'The Relationship Between Galen's Personality Type Theory and Emotional Intelligence Level'.

Biomolecular and Health Science Journal 1, no. 2 (26 November 2018): 80. https://doi.org/10.20473/bhsj.v1i2.9579.

Section 2 - Cognitive Psychology

1.

Ebbinghaus's hypothesis revolved around the ability to forget learned material following the forgetting curve over time. The speed of forgetting something learned depends on the difficulty of the learned material, how that material is represented and the psychological factors that are affecting the learner.[36]

The measurement of forgetting derives from the forgetting curve. The curve comprises R, which equals the retrieval rate for learned material absent from other recall methods. The curve is also derived from S, measured by the rate of that forgetting over time (T).[37] Analysis of the forgetting curve has found that forgetting learned material occurs rapidly in the first few hours but then slows.[38]

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[36] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P4.

[37] Ibid. P.4

[38] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.17.

The psychological factors affecting the learner can include stress and sleep quality.[39] These factors were found in replication studies, such as Jenkins and Dallenbach, which increases the validity of these factors and the overall impact of psychological factors on learner's recall.[40] In addition, studies of the forgetting curve find that the baseline for forgetting learned material varies from person to person.[41] Additionally, in his hypothesis, Ebbinghaus found that one technique, such as mnemonics, was a way of overcoming the difficulties and differences in forgetting.

Furthermore, active recall methods such as spaced repetition interact with the forgetting curve over time by interrupting the forgetting curve and helps store learned material.[42] These techniques must occur over time as learners need to interrupt the forgetting curve appropriately. For example, studying four times in one day is less effective than the same material studied over four days, which allows for a more significant impact in disrupting the forgetting curve.[43] This is also demonstrated in figure 1, as seen below.

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[39] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P4.

[40] Jaap M. J. Murre and Joeri Dros, 'Replication and Analysis of Ebbinghaus' Forgetting Curve', ed. Dante R. Chialvo, *PLOS ONE* 10, no. 7 (6 July 2015):P.19

[41] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P4.

[42] Sean H. K. Kang, 'Spaced Repetition Promotes Efficient and Effective Learning: Policy Implications for Instruction', *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 3, no. 1 (1 March 2016): P.13

[43] Nate Kornell, 'Optimising Learning Using Flashcards: Spacing Is More Effective than Cramming', *Applied Cognitive Psychology* 23, no. 9 (2009): P.1298,

Figure 1.[44]
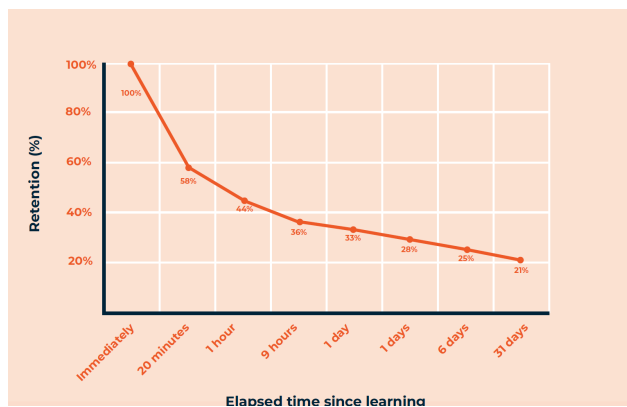
Ebbinghaus hypothesised that humans forget learned material over time (through the forgetting curve). However, there are ways in which this can be interrupted, allowing for learned material to remain in our memory for when we need it.

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[44] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P6.

2. .

Ebbinghaus proposed that using mnemonics was a solid technique to overcome the differences between subjects' baseline rates of forgetting (through his experiments, he found that all learners will forget material at different rates).[45] This technique changes the memories representation, which links with his view that monotonous information is harder to learn. This is supported by Prince's analysis of the active recall study method, which found that offering engaging learner activities prior to testing boosted recall.[46]

In addition to mnemonics, Active recall methods and spaced repetition interrupt the forgetting curve, which aids memory (of the learned material) over time.[47] Active recall methods, such as studying flashcards, work through using recall rather than rereading material. Furthermore, space repetition forces the brain to recall previously learnt knowledge repeatedly over the time of the forgetting curve.[48] This activity occurred without immediate prior exposure to the material.[49] The theory is that through this interruption, using recall rather than rereading, one strengthens the knowledge and the mind through the active process and embeds the material in the longer-term memory by interrupting the forgetting curve.

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[45] Ibid P.3

[46] Michael Prince, 'Does Active Learning Work? A Review of the Research', *Journal of Engineering Education* 93, no. 3 (July 2004): P.226

[47] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P5.

[48] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.286

[49] Leo Postman, William O. Jenkins, and Dorothy L. Postman, 'An Experimental Comparison of Active Recall and Recognition', *The American Journal of Psychology* 61, no. 4 (1948): P.514

Ebbinghaus found that all learners will forget learned material over time and at different rates through his experiments. However, through specific techniques, learners can improve the rate at which they will forget, making it easier to remember the material.

3.

One theory is that the forgetting curve is influenced by the significance of the subject's memory of shocking events. Therefore, shocking events (as a result of the event's emotional intensity) are more easily imprinted on the brain, such as 9/11 and the death of Princess Diana in 1997.[50] Another example is the Kennedy assassination, studied in 1977 by Brown and Kulik for the event's impact on the subject's memory recall.[51] These memories are called flashbulb memories, a type of memory so significant that it is remembered by many people and is retained as a clear memory long after the event has passed.

 The original literature by Brown and Kulik defines a *flashbulb memory* as a memory occurring in one's lifetime connected to a highly emotional event.[52] Conway et al. expand on this, saying that the event must be consequential and surprising to some participants, such as remembering where one was when they first heard of the planes hitting the Twin Towers in 2001.[53] Furthermore, Christianson research also states that a flashbulb memory could also have great biological significance, In addition to its consequential and surprising nature.[54]

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[50] Robert J. Sternberg and Karin Sternberg, *Cognitive Psychology* (Wadsworth/Cengage Learning, 2011). P.255

[51] Daniel B. Wright and George D. Gaskell, 'Flashbulb Memories: Conceptual and Methodological Issues', *Memory* 3, no. 1 (March 1995): P67.

[52] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P9.

[53] Martin A. Conway et al., 'The Formation of Flashbulb Memories', *Memory & Cognition* 22, no. 3 (May 1994):P.326.

[54] Sven-Áke Christianson, 'Flashbulb Memories: Special, but Not so Special', *Memory & Cognition* 17, no. 4 (July 1989): P.435.

When these properties exist, these events cause a new print mechanism within the brain that preserves memory.[55]

Further research into flashbulb memories which is which supports the 77 research, was by Conway et al. in 1994. This study involved many subjects recalling the events surrounding Margaret Thatcher's resignation, not only during the initial phase of the study but also 11 months later.[56] This supports the original definition of flashbulb memories proposed by Brown and Kulik. Additionally, further research has proven flashbulb memories can occur for events that are known to happen. Winograd and Killinger(1983) "found that events do not have to be unexpected to be memorable."[57]

This appears to contradict Conway's analysis that events must be surprising to some. However, when Winograd and Killinger cited Nixon's resignation, which was known to the public prior to it being carried out it cites a flashbulb memory that was known before it occurred, as evidence of their theory.[58]

Flashbulb memories occur when emotionally significant events take place that many people can recall a long time later. There is some debate within the literature surrounding the exact conditions required for a flashbulb memory; however, events such as the Kennedy assassination, 9/11, and the death of Princess Diana are widely agreed to be flashbulb memories.

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[55] Ibid P.435

[56] Daniel B. Wright and George D. Gaskell, 'Flashbulb Memories: Conceptual and Methodological Issues', *Memory* 3, no. 1 (March 1995): P70.

[57] Ibid P.70.

[58] Ibid P.70.

4.

Upon initial consideration, the memory models (semantic and episodic models of memory and the seven sins of memory theory) appear fundamentally different. Tulving classification focuses on the obtaining and categorisation of memory. However, Scatter focused on the loss of memory and the form in which the loss of memory takes, such as bias and misattributed memories. He also focussed on the memory's ability to function, or the changing state of memory and memory performance through its inability to function as before.[59] In Tulving's memory model, semantic memory stores facts and knowledge and episodic memory stores events and recollections.[60]

Tulving's memory model shows us some of the ways in which how our memories came to be. He gives us names for these conscious recollections of knowledge, such as facts about the topic. Also, he defines our most recognisable memory as those of the episodic category, which contains memories of past personal events, such as a person's wedding or a child's birth.[61]

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[59] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P9.

[60] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 1 Text Book', 2022. P.6

[61] Ibid P.10

However, this model has limitations. Firstly, the literature makes it clear that there are more types of memory than the two contained in the Tulving model, such as procedural memory, which stores methods and techniques.[62] This means that when examining and analysing the Tulving memory model, one has to be acutely aware that it is not the complete picture of the different forms that are memory takes. From research and practical perspectives, this is a weakness and must be acknowledged in all analyses and applications of the Tulving model.

Furthermore, as Tulving says in his later research, memory is an evolving area of study, and the rigid categorisation would be counter to its evolution of study.[63] For this reason, solely relying on such a model for understanding memory is ill-advised. This again demonstrates the concern of the Tulving model from a research perspective when it is considered entirely on its own.

In 2007 Schacter's research categorised the seven ways in which memories can fail. Through this categorisation, Schacter believes that our memories are matched with our moods.[64] For example, we encode positive memories when we are happy, and the inverse is true. Therefore our memories are biased toward our mood.

The first three sins of the Schacter memory model explain the different types of forgetting.[65] The next three focus on how we distort or inaccurately recall our memories.

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[62] Ibid P.10

[63] Endel Tulving, 'How Many Memory Systems Are There?', *American Psychologist*, 1985, 14. P.385

[64] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 2 Text Book', 2022, P10.

[65] Daniel L. Schacter, 'The Seven Sins of Memory. Insights from Psychology and Cognitive Neuroscience', *Am. Psychol*, 1999, P.183.

The final sin focuses on failing to forget those memories that are too traumatic for us to cope with the memories we wish we could forget.[66]

Schacter's earlier theories in 1999 provide the foundation for memory failings within the scientific literature. The author acknowledges this in his 2021 updated research, where he also acknowledges that much research and studies had occurred on the topic following his initial publication.[67]

While it appears that the two memory theories under discussion here (Tulving's memory model and Schacter's seven sins of memory) are inherently different. Upon further examination, certain links between the two are revealed.

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[66] Ibid P.183

[67] Daniel L. Schacter, 'The Seven Sins of Memory: An Update', *Memory*, 17 January 2021, P.1.

The link between the two models is apparent when considering the memory sin that is blocking. Memory blocking impacts the episodic and semantic memory types. This produces a conscious tip of the tongue state where the subject is aware of the memory but cannot retrieve it.[68] This link is investigated further in research by Roediger, H. L., & Neely, J. H., who suggest that such blocks occur in both types of Tulving, memory model, which links the memory sin of blocking withholdings earlier memory model episodic and semantic memories.[69] This is also further supported by more recent clinical studies that reference Tulving's work.

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[68] Daniel L Schacter, JOAN Y CHIAO, and JASON P MITCHELL, 'The Seven Sins of Memory', *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 1001, no. 1 (2003): P.181.

[69] Henry Roediger and James Neely, 'Retrieval Blocks in Episodic and Semantic Memory', *Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue Canadienne de Psychologie* 36 (1 June 1982):P.234.

Returning to Schacter's theory, certain problems emerge. As outlined by the author, the main issue with his theory is that it suggests that memory loss is a weakness of ourselves.[70] This proves a concerning point from a psychological standpoint by placing the entirety of the responsibility on the subject, which could be deeply troubling. This could cause psychological stress to somebody suffering from memory loss, especially in subjects struggling to come to terms with their new normal of declining memory, leaving a subject vulnerable. The research also clarifies this by claiming that the seven sins are the by-product of our memory skills in the first place, and they form part of adaptive forgetting, where our minds forget the information that is no longer needed.[71] This suggests that our memories which are perceived as robust during the majority of life, always contain the ability to forget, which is vitally important. Schacter believes that eventual memory loss is the inevitable process by which this forgetting takes a more prominent role in one's memory, whereas before, it was inconspicuous. Bjork and Bjork (1988) support this view of our developing memory.[72] Despite this clarification. The critical weakness in Schacter's memory theory is the complexity of the memory model. This poses a danger that it will be misinterpreted and cause undue stress on a vulnerable patient.

Upon consideration, the evidence suggests that both theories be included in the psychological intervention. This intervention will provide insight into the types of memory we have through the Tulving memory model, which is very important. This is because understanding the psychological problem is as important as its treatment.

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[70] Daniel L. Schacter, 'The Seven Sins of Memory. Insights from Psychology and Cognitive Neuroscience', *Am. Psychol*, 1999, P.196.

[71] Daniel L Schacter, *The Seven Sins of Memory: How the Mind Forgets and Remembers* (HMH, 2002).P.6.

[72] Ibid P.6.

Nevertheless, after explaining the memory system to somebody suffering from memory loss, further explanation from the relevant information (which would require analysis on which of the 'sins' patient was suffering from) from Schacter's seven sins of memory would be advantageous in any psychological intervention. This view is supported by Schacter et al. 2003 (building on the Greenwald 1980 hypothesis) where, researchers suggested that due to the links between self and memory, the understanding of oneself depends on the understanding of memories and their imperfections and failures.[73]

This can be taken further by suggesting that in any psychological intervention where a patient suffers from memory loss, a clear explanation of our memory using Tulving's memory model and perhaps others is required. Additionally, an analysis of the person to consider which of the sins the subject was suffering would be necessary, leading to an explanation using the seven sins memory model.

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[73] Daniel L Schacter, JOAN Y CHIAO, and JASON P MITCHELL, 'The Seven Sins of Memory', *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 1001, no. 1 (2003): P.227

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Section 3 - Insight into Cognitive Behaviourism

1

Obsessional thoughts are recurring and persistent thoughts, impulses and images that cause distress in a person.[74] It is also thought that the psychological pain these thoughts cause cannot easily be overcome with logic or reasoning.[75] Therefore, compulsive actions are used to control/cope with these compulsive thoughts, which adds another factor to the stress of this condition.[76] Furthermore, these thoughts have also been likened to being constantly stuck in a thought loop within the scientific literature.[77]

It is important to stress that the obsessions and compulsions are not the same from person to person, even those with similar states of mind, as evidenced by clinical studies.[78] An example of an obsessional thought is a fear of contamination from people or the environment.[79]

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[74] Hector Colon-Rivera, 'What Is Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder?', accessed 4 April 2022, https://www.psychiatry.org/patients-families/ocd/what-is-obsessive-compulsive-disorder.

[75] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 3 Text Book', 2022, P8.

[76] David A. Clark, 'Cognitive Behavioral Treatment of Obsessive-Compulsive Disorders: A Commentary', *Cognitive and Behavioral Practice* 4, no. 6 (1999): 408–15, https://doi.org/10.1016/S1077-7229(99)80059-5. P.408

[77] Gail Steketee and Randy Frost, 'Compulsive Hoarding: Current Status of the Research', *Clinical Psychology Review* 23, no. 7 (1 December 2003): 905–27, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2003.08.002.

[78] J. F. Leckman et al., 'Symptoms of Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder', *The American Journal of Psychiatry* 154, no. 7 (July 1997):, https://doi.org/10.1176/ajp.154.7.911. P.911

[79] David Veale, 'Cognitive–Behavioural Therapy for Obsessive–Compulsive Disorder', *Advances in Psychiatric Treatment* 13, no. 6 (November 2007): https://doi.org/10.1192/apt.bp.107.003699. P.438

Additionally, extreme concern with order, precision and symmetry is another example of an obsessional thought that can occur and cause stress in an individual.[80]

As previously stated, these obsessional thoughts can lead to obsessional compulsions. There are many examples exist that demonstrate this. Excessive or ritualised hand washing, showering and cleaning would link to the fear of contamination from people and the environment.[81] Additionally, the ritualised ordering of objects in a particular way within one's immediate environment is an example of the compulsion behaviour that is linked to the obsessional thought of extreme concern with order precision and symmetry.[82]

Therefore, obsessional thoughts are the trigger for obsessive-compulsive behaviour that individuals engage in.[83]

These thoughts and behaviours cause distress and cannot easily be overcome with logic and reasoning, and they vary from person to person, even between people with similar characteristics.

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[80] Clark, 'Cognitive Behavioral Treatment of Obsessive-Compulsive Disorders'. P.408

[81] Colon-Rivera, 'What Is Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder?', Fred F. Ferri, 'O Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD)', in Ferri's Differential Diagnosis (Second Edition), ed. Fred F. Ferri (Philadelphia: Mosby, 2011), 353–65, https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-07699-9.50019-0.

[82] Clark, 'Cognitive Behavioral Treatment of Obsessive-Compulsive Disorders'. P.408

[83] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.84

2

For treating compulsive behaviour, CBT allows for the reshaping of obsessional thoughts. The obsessive is empowered to recognise the obsessive thoughts for what they are from a more rational perspective.[84] In addition, the obsessive is then encouraged to acknowledge their responsibility for taking preventative measures, with a technique called response prevention, which will allow the compulsive's anxiety to dissipate.[85] This approach should happen without, as Veal says, "the obsessive taking an overinflated sense of responsibility which could lead to more significant psychological stress."[86]

Desensitisation (first referenced in the 1970s) is another technique to treat compulsive behaviour. This involves systematic gradual exposure to the person's obsessions or stimuli that provokes them.[87] This is also referred to within the literature as exposure and response prevention (ERP).

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[84] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 3 Text Book', 2022, P8.

[85] David Veale, 'Cognitive–Behavioural Therapy for Obsessive–Compulsive Disorder', *Advances in Psychiatric Treatment* 13, no. 6 (November 2007): https://doi.org/10.1192/apt.bp.107.003699. P.441

[86] Ibid P.438

[87] Clark, 'Cognitive Behavioral Treatment of Obsessive-Compulsive Disorders'. P.409

This method has been concluded as broadly successful following a meta-analysis of 24 recorded studies of ERP by Abramovich (1986), who reported that desensitisation produced a significant effect in causing a substantial reduction of the obsessive symptoms.[88]

There is a widespread discussion comparing the effects of both methods on the treatment of compulsive behaviour within the literature. Through this comparison, there is evidence of some issues with CBT. There is the possibility that the strategies employed within this type of therapy could cause a shift from control strategies to neutralising rituals reaffirming the increased threat or importance of the compulsion, as cited by Freeston and Ladoucer (1990). [89]This suggests that in any CBT therapy treating compulsive behaviour, the obsessive should be encouraged to report back accurately to their therapist. This should focus on how the techniques they employ affects their feeling and regularly report on what is working and what is not to avoid this problem.

Another issue from these treatments is low motivation affecting results. This is a common concern raised from analysis of the treatments, given the high reliance on so-called homework and strategies that are necessary for both forms of treatment. [90]Analysis of both treatments shows that low motivation (which can be a prevalent side effect of the psychological stress that these compulsions bring) will be detrimental to the process, as with any psychological intervention.[91]

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[88] Ibid P.409

[89] Ibid P.413

[90] Ibid P.414

[91] Ibid P.414

Furthermore, given the personal responsibility and nature of the treatment discussed, a lack of motivation could cause an unwillingness to challenge the compulsions or a willingness to face the exposure leading to diminishing results.[92] This could present a potential danger in further strengthening these behaviours and compulsions owing to the psychological stress involved in the treatment.

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[92] Jessica Grisham and Barlow David, 'Compulsive Hoarding: Current Research and Theory', *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment* 27 (1 March 2005): 45–52, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10862-005-3265-z. P.51

3

In the 1960s, psychoanalysis came under threat from cognitive psychology. This first came about with cognitive therapy influenced by Kelly's 1955 personal construct theory.[93] Then separately, rational emotive therapy eventually came under the collaborative theory of CBT.[94]

CBT was found to be very effective at treating obsessive-compulsive disorder, as demonstrated by the successful work of Salkovskis in 1985.[95] This threat emerged due to the lack of objective evidence for psychoanalysis or its abilities as a form of treatment. Furthermore, certain fundamental concepts of psychoanalysis, such as repressed memories, were challenged compared to evidence-based theories such as rational emotive therapy.[96]

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[93] Jane Milton, 'Psychoanalysis and Cognitive Behaviour Therapy - Rival Paradigms or Common Ground?', *The International Journal of Psychoanalysis* 82, no. 3 (June 2001): 431–47, https://doi.org/10.1516/DVLN-RK5E-C1YV-ME4V.P.433

[94] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 3 Text Book', 2022, P6.

[95] Ibid P.6

[96] Ibid P.6

These cognitive theories work on the basis that the patient will challenge and dispute their irrational beliefs with the help of their therapist.[97] This approach works on the view that people are not disturbed by events themselves but rather their perspective of them.[98] Over time these theories would gain supporting evidence from psychological studies to support the new field as a form of treatment and as a scientific theory.

However, the cognitive approach places a heavy emphasis on the patient not only to subscribe to the approach the therapist is taking and believe in the success of the treatment but also to commit to the work that is involved as an active participant in the treatment. These concerns demonstrate that whilst cognitive theories have challenged the mainstream status of psychoanalysis, these approaches as scientific theories and as treatment are not without problems.

Due to the existing analysis of cognitive psychology, there is evidence of work that combines the two theories of psychoanalysis and cognitive theories to reap the benefits and negate both problems. This idea is known as Cognitive Analytic Theory (CAT).[99] Supporters of the theory hail it as a flexible approach, as confirmed by Ryle (1995), who lauds this theory as "a very useful and safe first form of psychological intervention."[100]

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[97] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.24

[98] Ibid P.24

[99] Milton, 'Psychoanalysis and Cognitive Behaviour Therapy - Rival Paradigms or Common Ground?'P.440

[100] Ibid P.440

There is irrefutable evidence within psychology that there has been a shift in thinking and practice. This shift has led to a challenge to the original psychoanalysis theory. This challenge favours the evidence-based cognitive theories and their practical uses in treatment, with these evidence-based theories receiving greater prominence in their practical application and their reference in the scientific literature. However, analysis over time has concluded that there are issues with solely relying on cognitive theories.

The theory exists within the field that combining cognitive and psychoanalysis into one flexible treatment is an avenue worth exploring moving forward.

4

Date and Time	Systematic Desensitization Step:	Fear Rating Before Exposure (/10)	Fear Rating After Exposure (/10)	What Words Describe Feelings Before Exposure	What Words Describe Feelings After Exposure
When Fear is greater than 5 return to previous step and rebuild confidence, or when the next step seems overwhelming	*(Anxiety stimulus hierarchy.)* *Each one of these stimuli provokes anxiety within you. Through gradual exposure and coping strategies this will become less of a problem. Variables in bold*	*(This will show you your achievements in overcoming fear as you build confidence through the process)*	*This number will reassure you of the progress you are making*	*(Expressing these feelings will help make your understanding of your phobia more manageable)*	*(Expressing these feelings will help make your understanding of your phobia more manageable) Include techniques used to succeed in this effort.*
19/04/2022 18.22	Step 1: Thinking about a **small** spider	3/10	1/10	I am Confident, this is easy, I'm okay	Successful, easy, manageable.

Date/Time	Step	Fear (before)	Fear (after)	Feelings	Reflection
20/04/2022 10.15	Step 2: Look at a picture of a spider	4/10	2/10	Harder than before	That was not enjoyable.
27/04/2022 13.30	Step 3: Watching a **big** spider on a screen	6/10	5/10	Worried, scared	I didn't enjoy that, not too scary but not fun. I practiced deep breathing to control myself throughout.
4/05/2022 14.23	Step 4: Being in a room with a trapped spider, **alone or with someone else**	7/10	6/10	I need support to get through this	It wasn't as bad as I thought it would be glad the spider didn't escape.
11/05/2022 17.40	Step 5: Watching someone else hold a spider, **consider your distance, take a step closer if you can**	8/10	8/10	Very scared want to stay far away from it.	Took some courage to even look at it. Very real threat! I listened to calming music before trying.
18/05/2022 07.30	Step 6: Touching a spider with one finger	9.5/10	8/10	I need to watch someone else do it first before I give this a go.	Felt better than I thought I would its going to take some getting used too. Glad I had support
25/05/2022 18.56	Step 7: Holding a spider	10/10	9/10	My heart is pounding this is a very big thing	This is going to take getting used too, I was

				and I am incredibly scared. What if it bites me!	very scared, had to use a lot of courage.

Six Week Systematic Desensitisation Programme for Arachnophobia

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Section 4 - Social Psychology

1

The first type of learning is imitated learning, where a person imitates an instructor.[101] An example of imitation learning is a small child being shown how to push a toy car down a ramp and then asking that child to copy them, with the intent that this child will succeed based on their initial exposure to the task. Analysis of this type of learning reveals that teachers must create the appropriate environment to allow for meaningful imitation for this to be successful.[102] This environment must allow for easy and regular participation, as evidenced by studies of play-based learning curricula.[103]

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[101] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 4 Text Book', 2022, 4. P.9

[102] Bert van Oers, 'Meaningful Cultural Learning by Imitative Participation: The Case of Abstract Thinking in Primary School', *Human Development* 55, no. 3 (2012): 136–58, https://doi.org/10.1159/000339293. P.155

[103] Ibid P.155

The second type of learning is instructed learning, also referred to as the second stage of cultural learning.[104] This uses instructions from others (who are more accomplished in the task) to self regulate one's learning and compare it to one's understanding.[105]

An example of this instructed learning would firstly be a teacher giving instructions on the process used in calculating the mean average of several test scores and then having students fill out a worksheet with different examples.

According to Vygotsky, the more knowledgeable children can use this form of learning to bring others up to a similar level of competence.[106] Furthermore, there is a belief that as a person develops, this "peer tutoring" becomes the more prominent type of learning.[107]

The third type of learning is collaborative learning work, where peers work in groups to understand each other's comprehension and learn together during this collaboration process.[108] This learning occurs when learners have not mastered the subject matter independently, and this starting context aids the learning potential of the whole group.[109]

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[104] 'APA Dictionary of Psychology', accessed 22 April 2022, https://dictionary.apa.org/.

[105] Vera John-Steiner and Holbrook Mahn, 'Sociocultural Contexts for Teaching and Learning', in *Handbook of Psychology*, ed. Irving B. Weiner (Hoboken, NJ, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2003), wei0707, https://doi.org/10.1002/0471264385.wei0707. P.198

[106] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.538

[107] Ibid P.538

[108] Margaret E. Gredler, 'Understanding Vygotsky for the Classroom: Is It Too Late?', *Educational Psychology Review* 24, no. 1 (March 2012): 113–31, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-011-9183-6. P.116

[109] Ibid P.117

According to Vygotsky, collaborative learning is central to effective learning.[110] An example of this problem-based learning is for a group to develop a marketing pitch for a product with different solutions.

Vygotsky uses three types of learning to explain the process of passing cultural tools from one individual to another. The first is innovative learning, where a learner imitates another and compares it to their own understanding. The second is instructed learning, where the learner follows the explicit instructions given by the more advanced tutor.

The instructor's skill is the deciding factor rather than the age or other cultural considerations in this learning type.[111] Finally, the third is collaborative learning, where groups of peers with the same or similar level of comprehension work together to find the solution.

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[110] Ibid P.117

[111] John-Steiner and Mahn, 'Sociocultural Contexts for Teaching and Learning'. P.198

2

Bandura's social learning theory originated in the 1940s and 50s as a challenge to Freud's psychological theory on learning.[112] The theory begins with the principle that there is great importance when learning; to observe and model our behaviour, attitude and reactions on others.[113] To illustrate this, Bandura said, "learning would be exceedingly laborious and hazardous if we relied solely on our own actions".[114] Furthermore, this theory explains our behaviour from the perspective based on the interaction we have with our cognitive, behavioural and environmental influences.[115] Analysis of the theory demonstrates its potential application within the classroom-based environment. Furthermore, there is evidence when considering different examples that link the different types of principles, such as social activity-based and token economy forms of reinforcement.

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[112] Gross, *Psychology*. P.602

[113] Oxbridge, 'Unit 4 Text Book', 4. P.11

[114] Ibid P.11

[115] Ibid P.11

One example of this theory from the observational social perspective is in students who observe their peers getting good marks and the emotional behaviour that goes along with that public praise. According to this principle, this social reinforcement could trigger similar responses in others. This example as an indicator that the theory is applicable in a student-based setting.

However, whilst this example could promote similar behaviours for observers in the first exposure, repeated exposure to the success of others could lead to more intense feelings of resentment and low self-esteem, causing the opposite intended behavioural response.

Bandura states that most of our behaviour is learned through observation and that this guides our actions. Another example of social observational learning is a child acting aggressively and violent toward their peers in the classroom. This action is a learnt and observed behaviour after prior exposure, such as watching their parents being violent to each other.[116]

There is also the potential for a token-based economy within the classroom setting. This reinforcement works on the belief that the consequences for good or bad behaviour can be redeemed at a later stage.[117] One example of this is in a primary school setting, star charts could be filled in for good behaviour, and a complete chart can be redeemed for a certificate in a public assembly or extra playtime within the classroom. Both these examples work on the token economic system, but they both lead to social reinforcement when peers witness the consequences.

[116] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.319

[117] Oxbridge, 'Unit 4 Text Book', 4. P.13

Finally, a more modern example of this social learning theory is those students who are given free rein to consume more mature programs that casually engage with swearing, discussions of sex or drugs, such as reality TV shows. Following this activity reinforcement, these students could be more inclined to incorporate this behaviour into classroom life.

In addition, a cycle of repetitive behaviour could occur within the classroom as other students observe this behaviour (especially if it is widespread such as behaviour stemming from a popular TV show). As the theory suggests, these students who observe this new behaviour from their peers are more likely to use it to guide their future behaviour. This spread could lead to a cycle of current and future behaviour within a classroom setting.

Bandura's social learning theory is based on the principle that we must place importance on the behaviours and attitudes of others rather than simply ourselves. From a learning-based point of view, children's classroom behaviour could be significantly influenced by the reaction from the public praise or shame, observed learned behaviour from parental influences, and attitudes towards certain subjects learnt through the consumption of mature media.

3

Radical behaviourism was first introduced (despite the term being referenced in earlier unpublished works) by BF Skinner in 1945.[118] Radical behaviourism argues that behaviour rather than one's mental state should be the focus of psychology.[119] This school of thought prioritises the impact of reinforcement (evidenced by Tolman's maze, which tested the behavioural responses with variable re-enforcement (although this inclusion is debated in the literature) and the relationship between observable stimuli and responses.[120]

Skinner eliminates all references to the role that the mental and private states play in any discussion of behaviour. In this theory, the mental is relegated to the fictional classification within any discussion.[121] Instead, he believes that human behaviour can be predicted and controlled in the same way other behavioural analyses view non-human behaviour.[122] This unique and controversial view forms some of the radical parts of this theory.

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[118] .Schneider, Susan M., and Edward K. Morris. 'A History of the Term Radical Behaviorism: From Watson to Skinner'. *The Behavior Analyst* 10, no. 1 (1 April 1987): 27–39. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03392404. P.27

[119] Oxbridge, 'Unit 4 Text Book', 4. P.21

[120] Mecca Chiesa, *Radical Behaviorism: The Philosophy and the Science*, Radical Behaviorism: The Philosophy and the Science (Boston, MA, US: Authors Cooperative, 1994). P.191

[121] Ibid P.189

[122] Gross, *Psychology*. P.860

Furthermore, the unethical experiments by some of its supporters throughout history have cemented the radical label.[123] One example of the unethical experiments conducted was the little Albert experiments (See Appendix A) which attempted to use classic conditioning to modify human behaviour.[124] Additionally, more recent research on the experiment questions the validity of the original claim that Albert was healthy and emotionally stable, which raises further ethical concerns and reaffirms the radical classification of the theory.[125]

Furthermore, radical behaviourists focus only on behaviour and the variables that control it at the expense of other considerations, further differentiating the theory.[126] Thus, critics of the theory have often cited its lack of consideration of thoughts and feelings in the role of human behaviour.[127]

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[123] Fincham, Foster, and Hewstone, *Psychology*.P.15

[124] Ben Harris, 'Whatever Happened to Little Albert?', *American Psychologist* 34, no. 2 (1979): P151.

[125] Alan J Fridlund et al., 'Little Albert: A Neurologically Impaired Child.', *History of Psychology* 15, no. 4 (2012): P.4.

[126] Fincham, Foster, and Hewstone, *Psychology*.P.15

[127] William M. Baum, 'WHAT IS RADICAL BEHAVIORISM? A REVIEW OF JAY MOORE'S *CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS OF RADICAL BEHAVIORISM*', *Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behaviour* 95, no. 1 (January 2011): 119–26, https://doi.org/10.1901/jeab.2011.95-119. P.121

An important point within this theory is that the theory defines stimuli or respondents exclusively in what it does rather than the form it takes or other such functions within an experiment. For example, a lever to provide food, such as in Skinner's box experiment (see appendix B) which shows operational conditioning (building on Thorndike's law of effect) is classed as an adequate definition.[128]

The theory does not allow for specification analysis, such as its location or how the subject will interact with it during the experiment.[129] This parameter once again distinguishes radical behaviourism from other behavioural analyses.[130]

Finally, there is a debate within the literature regarding Tolman's association with Skinner and other behaviourists owing to the overlap between Tolman's latent learning experiment and Skinner's theories that focus on stimuli and response.[131] This debate means the inclusion of Tolman as an example of radical behaviourism is a controversial consideration. However, following analysis, there is an agreement that some crossover exists, and further examination has proven a deep academic association between the two sides within the scientific literature.[132]

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[128] Vivek R Athalye et al., 'Evidence for a Neural Law of Effect', *Science* 359, no. 6379 (2018): P.1., Gross, *Psychology*. P.188

[129] Saul McLeod, 'Skinner - Operant Conditioning', n.d., P.2.

[130] Baum, 'WHAT IS RADICAL BEHAVIORISM?' P.120

[131] Robert Jensen, 'Behaviorism, Latent Learning, and Cognitive Maps: Needed Revisions in Introductory Psychology Textbooks', *The Behavior Analyst* 29, no. 2 (2006): 187–209. P.196

[132] Ibid P.196

Therefore, whilst crossover exists between the two who explore similar themes (which makes considering Tolman's experiment appropriate in this context), analysis of Tolman himself as a radical behaviourist falls beyond the scope of an analysis of radical behaviourism theory.

Radical behaviourism distinctly differentiates itself from other types of behavioural analysis. This is partly due to its rigorous exclusions from its theory. Furthermore, the experimental means that have been used to test this theory historically contribute to the radical label.

There remains debate within the literature about who identifies as a radical behaviourist, but Skinner's research has clearly outlined this theory's initial parameters and criteria.

4

Gestalt psychology arose as an alternative to traditional behaviourism and structuralism.[133] Gestalt psychology is founded on two principles. Firstly our perception of an object is more than the sum of its parts; rather, it is seen as a whole.[134] That whole gives a shape or meaning to those parts. Furthermore, Gestalt literally means a unified one, a meaningful whole.[135]

This idea was based on an observation where lights flashed in rapid succession. This appears to the eye on initial exposure as though the light is moving, known as the phi phenomenon.[136] In this phenomenon, we see a string of lights even though only one is lit at a time.[137] This proves the principle that the perception of the whole (the movement) would be radically different from the components (the individual lights).[138]

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[133] Fincham, Foster, and Hewstone, Psychology.P.15

[134] D. BRETT KING et al., 'The Legacy of Max Wertheimer and Gestalt Psychology', *Social Research* 61, no. 4 (1994): 907–35. P.910

[135] C George Boeree, 'Gestalt Psychology', *Webspace. Ship. Edu. Available at: Http://Webspace. Ship. Edu/Cgboer/Gestalt. Html (Accessed: 29 March 2016)*, 2000. P.3

[136] Ibid P.3

[137] Ibid P.3

[138] Irvin Rock and Stephen Palmer, 'The Legacy of Gestalt Psychology', *Scientific American* 263, no. 6 (December 1990): 84–90, https://doi.org/10.1038/scientificamerican1290-84. P.86

The second principle aims to organise how the mind pieces meaningful information into meaningful wholes.[139] The Gestalt's believed that organisation within the brain was necessary to explain why humans see the world as distinct objects. This ability to see objects, stones, trees or houses must be because of organisation within the nervous system.[140] Otherwise, everyone would see their surroundings in light of varying intensity.

Tolman used the basis of the Gestalt principles in his research and experiments, most notably Tolman's maze experiment.[141] This claim is supported by Lambiotte et al. (1989) review of the subject.[142]

Firstly Tolman explores the concept of the initial learning period; during this period, there is no obvious reward for the participant during their initial learning, known as latent learning.[143] In his experiments group, two and three did not immediately find food yet continued to explore their surroundings and therefore fall within this category. This rejected earlier behaviourist theories that claimed that reinforcement was crucial to learning; Tolman believed that learning was a cognitive process that did not rely solely on re-enforcement for it to be successful.[144]

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[139] Oxbridge, 'Unit 4 Text Book', 4. P.26

[140] Irvin Rock and Stephen Palmer, 'The Legacy of Gestalt Psychology', *Scientific American* 263, no. 6 (December 1990): 84–90, https://doi.org/10.1038/scientificamerican1290-84. P.87, Riccardo Luccio et al., 'The Legacy Of Gestalt Psychology v', 2011. P.7

[141] Ibid P.27

[142] David S. Wallace et al., 'The Effect of Knowledge Maps That Incorporate Gestalt Principles on Learning', The Journal of Experimental Education 67, no. 1 (January 1998): 5–16, https://doi.org/10.1080/00220979809598341. P.6

[143] Jensen, 'Behaviorism, Latent Learning, and Cognitive Maps'. P.187

[144] Ibid P.27

Furthermore, Tolman believed that all animals build up a cognitive map of their landscape.[145] Animals use this map to negotiate their surroundings and reach specific goals (in his experiment, the food that they were trying to find faster at the end of the maze).[146] In Tolman's maze experiment (See appendix C), group 1 proves this as they learn to rush to the end of the maze to find food based on the cognitive map that they had built up combined with the reward, which became re-enforcement for subsequent days. Furthermore, when food was introduced as reinforcement to group 3, the rats learned to run to the end of the maze. This demonstrated that rats had learnt the organisation of the maze without the immediate reward of food during this initial period, again disproving earlier theories that animals required reinforcement in cognitive learning experiments.

Tolman appears to use the basis of two main Gestalt principles in his research. The first was an initial learning period where there is no obvious reward for the learning, also known as latent learning. The second principle was the idea that animals build up a cognitive map of their environment during the cognitive learning process, which enables them to reach their learning goal faster. Both principles individually have been widely identified in the literature and confirmed in experiments conducted by Tolman the most prominent being his Maze experiment. However explicit links between the two in the scientific literature remain scarce between the two with the exception of an autobiographical paper by Tolman. This context provides an opportunity for further analysis of this association.

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[145] Jonathon Ferrari, 'Latent Learning Study Guide | Edward Tolman', 22 October 2021, https://psychbite.com/study-guides/approaches/cognitive-psychology/latent-learning/.

[146] Jensen, 'Behaviorism, Latent Learning, and Cognitive Maps'. P.187

5

Storyboard Linear Programming Learning

Title: Linear Programming Learning. the content is divided into a sequence of small and unchanged steps, where learners respond at their own pace and are immediately provided with the results.   Our Goal is to double numbers up to 5 – Here the learner has a clear goal of what is trying to be achieved.
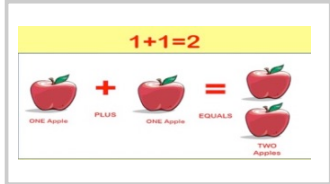
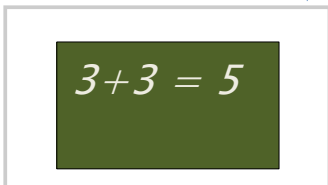
(Learning material provided from the start)

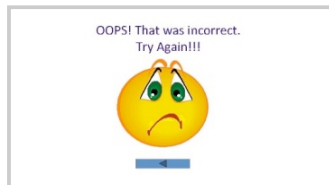Immediate reinforcement
and reward
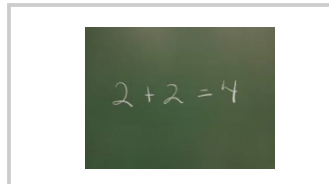
Operant Conditioning – This learning
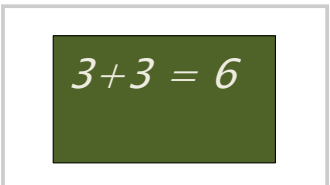Is achieved in small manageable steps

Feedback is provided regularly during the task

Instructors are asking questions to confirm
learners' comprehension.

Trying again allowing the learner
to retest what was not understood.

Note how the steps remains
unchanged regardless of answer given

No time limit, giving the learner full control
Of the pace of progression.
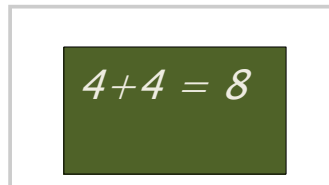
Skinner found that small stepped increments
Aided student motivations.

With each question the learner feels that they are making progress towards the goal
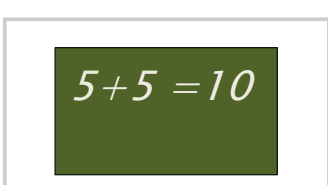
This learning process has been
based on   small steps, self-
pacing, and immediate feedback

Citations for Storyboard.

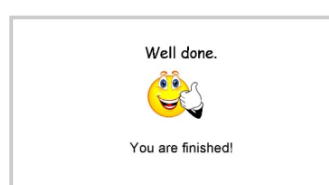Hošková, Šárka, and Zdena Rosická. 'Programmed Learning', n.d., 6.

Pappas, Christopher. 'Instructional Design Models and Theories: Programmed Instruction Educational Model'. eLearning Industry, 13 May 2014. https://elearningindustry.com/programmed-instruction-educational-model.

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Appendices

Appendix A

"Albert was described as 'healthy from birth' and 'on the whole solid and unemotional. When he was about nine months old, his reactions to various stimuli were tested – a white rat, a rabbit, a dog, a monkey, masks with and without hair, cotton wool, burning newspapers and a hammer striking a four-foot steel bar just behind his head. Only the last of these frightened him; when Albert was just over 11 months old, the rat was presented as Albert reached out to stroke the animal; Watson crept up behind the baby and brought the hammer crashing down on the steel bar. This occurred seven times in total over the next seven weeks. By this time, the rat on its own frightened Albert, Watson and Rayner had succeeded in deliberately producing in a baby a phobia of rats."

GROSS P.179

Appendix B

"Skinner placed a hungry rat in his 'Skinner box'. The box contained a lever on the side, and as the rat moved about the box, it would accidentally knock the lever. Immediately it did so, and a food pellet would drop into a container next to the lever. The rats quickly learned to go straight to the lever after a few times of being put in the box. The consequence of receiving food if they pressed the lever ensured that they would repeat the action again and again."

Mclerord P.4

Appendix C

"Tolman and Honzik studied three groups of rats who were put through a maze, of which a food box was placed at the end of the maze. Some of the rats were allowed to eat the food at the end of the run (reward), some were not allowed to eat the food and were removed from the maze, while some were allowed to eat the food only after ten days of running through the maze. All rats went through the maze once per day for a total of 17 days and were broken up into the following groups:

Group I – Rewarded – Rats in this group were rewarded with food every time they completed the maze.

Group II – Delayed reward – For days 1-10, rats from this group were not rewarded upon completion of the maze and were removed from the experiment. Days 11-17, rats were then rewarded upon completion of the maze in the same manner as group one.

Group III – No reward – For the duration of the entire experiment, rats in this group were not rewarded upon completion and were removed from the maze." Tolman - Latent Learning

Section 5 - Child and Educational Psychology

1.

Based on the existing research, there are four types of attachment (see figure 1). This is defined as the close links between human infants and caregivers or the intimate bond between adults.[147] These attachment styles were formed from two experiments and are divided into two categories the secure and insecure forms of attachment.[148] The first three attachment styles were conceived by Ainsworth in 1978 and were built on a strange situation/experience test. This test gauges a child's response as the mother re-enters the room following her departure during the child's play. Main and Solomon discovered the final style in 1986.[149]

Figure 1.[150]

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[147] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, *Psychology* (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.128

[148] Ibid P.128

[149] Ibid P.128

[150] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 2022. P.9

Attachment Style Matrix

	Anxious	Avoidant
High self-esteem	Secure	Dismissive-Avoidant
Low self-esteem	Anxious-Preoccupied	Fearful-Avoidant

The first type of attachment style is secure attachment. This form of attachment is where a child plays happily and shows distress when the mother departs.[151] This behaviour is divided into proximity seeking, contact maintenance, avoidance and resistance.[152]

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[151] Fincham, Foster, and Hewstone, *Psychology*. P.188

[152] Ruan Spies and Robbie Duschinsky, 'Inheriting Mary Ainsworth and the Strange Situation: Questions of Legacy, Authority, and Methodology for Contemporary Developmental Attachment Researchers', *SAGE Open* 11, no. 3 (1 July 2021): 21582440211047576, https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440211047577. P.1

However, the child responds positively to the mother's return to the room where the child is playing, therefore, using the mother as a safe base.[153] Additionally, play is significantly reduced, but the child tries to adapt to the separation.[154]

A prevalent criticism of this form of attachment exists within multiple analyses of Ainsworth's experiment in 1978. This criticism is that the Ainsworth test fails to consider cultural differences, which may affect the data.[155] Based on the Western model Ainsworth claims that a secure level of attachment meant that the child would continue to explore and play in the unfamiliar surroundings. However, in the Japanese experiment, the children demonstrated extreme distress at the beginning of the experiment. This distress would, indicates an insecure attachment type, according to Ainsworth. However, this is criticised as analysis suggests that the behaviour is not reflective of an insecure type of attachment but rather a response to the stress of the unfamiliar surroundings. The stress was so prevalent that neither stranger nor mother could calm the infant, thus falling outside the attachment type parameters established in the original experiments.[156]

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[153] Cristina Colonnesi et al., 'The Relation Between Insecure Attachment and Child Anxiety: A Meta-Analytic Review', Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology : The Official Journal for the Society of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, American Psychological Association, Division 53 40 (1 July 2011): 630–45, https://doi.org/10.1080/15374416.2011.581623. P.631

[154] Lenny Rosmalen, René van der Veer, and Frank van der Horst, 'Ainsworth's Strange Situation Procedure: The Origin of an Instrument', *Journal of the History of the Behavioral Sciences* 51 (1 May 2015), https://doi.org/10.1002/jhbs.21729. P.279

[155] Hiltrud Otto and Heidi Keller, *Different Faces of Attachment: Cultural Variations on a Universal Human Need* (Cambridge University Press, 2014). P.3

[156] Tatsuo Ujiie, 'IS THE STRANGE SITUATION TOO STRANGE FOR JAPANESE INFANTS?', n.d., 8. P.25

In this analysis, most of the tests were terminated because of this distress, these results were fundamentally different from those generated in the United States of America. Therefore, the psychological meaning behind these behaviours depends on the corner cultural context, such as the child-rearing customs and others.

The second attachment type is ambivalent (insecure attachment), also known as the anxious resistance type of attachment. This form of attachment is where the child has difficulty using the mother as a safe base.[157] A mother as a secure base is identified as preferable and demonstrated in the secure form attachment discovered by Ainsworth.[158] An example of this is the child reaching for contact with the mother and then immediately struggling to be put back down with the child not readily returning to the primary caregiver, demonstrating the child is ambivalent attachment type.

One criticism of this theory is its weakness in considering cultural differences regarding gender roles, especially in a historical context. More recent research, such as Hofstead (1998), says that the cultural and social view of the masculine role might affect attachment behaviour and emotional dependency.[159] This demonstrates that the original research failed to consider shifting and flexible gender roles within childcare giving. However, given the age of the original research (the 1970s), this is to be expected as gender roles were more rigid than in today's families. However, it does raise the point that non-traditional alternative influences must be considered when considering attachment in the modern setting.

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[157] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.537

[158] Spies and Duschinsky, 'Inheriting Mary Ainsworth and the Strange Situation'. P8

[159] Itziar Alonso-Arbiol, Phillip R. Shaver, and Sagrario Yarnoz, 'Insecure Attachment, Gender Roles, and Interpersonal Dependency in the Basque Country', *Personal Relationships* 9, no. 4 (December 2002): 479–90, https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6811.00030. P.482

The third type of attachment is avoidant attachment (insecure). This form of attachment is where a child actively resists contact with the mother when they return to the room. The child plays unaffected regardless of whether she is present or absent.[160] Furthermore, no distress is present when the mother leaves, but rather the child experiences extreme distress when they are left alone. This has been criticised within the literature, especially in the practical application of the strange situation experiment, specifically from a social worker's perspective. This is because it has been documented that some social workers use the theory as the gold standard to explain an infant's perspective.[161] Therefore when this behaviour is apparent, the fact that it represents "insecure" from the child based on the theory prompts a dramatic negative response from the adults at the expense of any other consideration. This view can even go as far as to lead to the removal of the child from the parent's care which has been documented widely within the literature.[162] This overreliance on this theory is well documented and suggests that a vacuum exists where alternative considerations or theories are not pondered, as demonstrated in the previous example of social workers, with negative consequences.

The final type of attachment is disorganised attachment (insecure). One of the critiques of this theory within the literature is that not all children fit neatly into Ainsworth -type. As a result, Main and Solomon identified the fourth type of attachment in 1986.[163] In this type, the child appears to lack investigation or exploration.

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[160] Gross, *Psychology*. P.537

[161] Spies and Duschinsky, 'Inheriting Mary Ainsworth and the Strange Situation'. P6

[162] Ibid P.6

[163] Gross, *Psychology*. P.538

Furthermore, contradictory behaviours such as a fear of the parent and incomplete movements and decisions are also present.[164] This type of attachment demonstrates the fluidly that exists in human, and especially child behaviour which reinforces the need for openness when analysing this behaviour.

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[164] Ibid P.538

2.

It is well documented that certain behaviours can be associated with children displaying avoidant attachment tendencies. Analysis has found the existence of a hierarchy of defensive strategies that are deployed throughout the interaction between the child and the caregiver. The researchers found this more prevalent in childhoods with less than optimal caregivers.[165]

The first behaviour type is defensive attachment strategies. This includes the suppression of emotional responses, for example, no signs of distress when the mother leaves in the strange situational experiment.[166] Furthermore, the child showed no desire for closeness with the primary caregiver, for example, actively ignoring them during their return in this test and their play remaining unaffected throughout. This behaviour is defined as defensive due to the likelihood that the child wishes to protect themselves from an adverse reaction from their caregiver. Furthermore, these defences vary from the adaptable and less mature to the non-adapt to bowl highly matured defences found in traumatic childhoods.

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[165] Antonio Prunas et al., 'Defense Mechanisms, Remembered Parental Caregiving, and Adult Attachment Style', *Psychoanalytic Psychology* 36, no. 1 (2019): 64–72, https://doi.org/10.1037/pap0000158. P.71

[166] My Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 2022, 5.10

The second type of behaviour is the physiological impact. Analysis of this attachment type shows children to possess a specific physiological profile.[167] This includes a high and stable heart rate, elevated cortisol levels leading to increased anxiety and right frontal EEG activation, which demonstrate a high level of emotional regulation.[168] Whilst this is not a conscious form of behaviour, the physiological reaction reveals much about the state of mind of the child, for example, the increased levels of cortisol within the child and the increased anxiety displayed.

The third behaviour is seeking physical proximity without direct engagement.[169] This is has been found that the child will seek to be in close proximity with the primary caregiver without actually interacting with them. Research has shown that these children will often have heightened physiological arousal during complete separations through this emotional regulation.[170] An example of this is not crying, which allows the child to achieve their goal of remaining in close proximity to the parent who would resist the emotional need to express pain and emotional hurt.

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[167] Kim B Burgess et al., 'Infant Attachment and Temperament as Predictors of Subsequent Externalizing Problems and Cardiac Physiology', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry* 44, no. 6 (2003): 819–31.P.819

[168] James A Coan and John J.B Allen, 'Frontal EEG Asymmetry as a Moderator and Mediator of Emotion', *Biological Psychology* 67, no. 1–2 (October 2004): 7–50, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsycho.2004.03.002. P.8

[169] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.9

[170] Robin S Edelstein, 'Closeness and Intimacy', n.d., 35. P.3

The fourth behaviour typically associated with avoidant attachment is self-soothing and self-nurture coping mechanisms. This is also referred to as emotional regulation within the literature.[171] In order for the child to protect themselves from emotional rejection, the child learns to suppress attachment; as such, the child will endeavour to become emotionally self-sufficient through such coping mechanisms.[172] This rationale is also linked to other similar behaviours. Through this repetitive cycle, the child will come to believe that they are emotionally self-sufficient. This realisation leads to little motivation to seek help or comfort from others. Analysis of this reveals that the emotional suppression and emotional self-reliant coping style may pose a risk for numerous physiological and psychological problems.[173] An example of this is, during routine medical injections with appointment attachment children, these children unprompted regulated stress faster than those who had a secure attachment with their caregiver.[174]

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[171] Tamara Kotler et al., 'Avoidant Attachment as a Risk Factor for Health', *British Journal of Medical Psychology* 67, no. 3 (1994): 237–45. P.239

[172] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.10

[173] Kotler et al., 'Avoidant Attachment as a Risk Factor for Health'. P.240

[174] Rachel E Horton et al., 'Distress Regulation in Infancy: Attachment and Temperament in the Context of Acute Pain', *Journal of Developmental & Behavioral Pediatrics* 36, no. 1 (2015): 35–44. P.37

3.

When presented with an avoidant attachment type, there is a consensus within the research that positive intervention is the best response to help the child. However, analysis has shown that not all interventions have the empirical evidence to support their effectiveness.[175] Given the preference for early intervention, the responsibility for the active participation of the intervention would lie with the caregiver given the age and response of the child, as demonstrated in Colletti's meta-analysis.[176]

The first positive intervention is infant carrying. This involves babies under 12 months having significantly greater physical proximity with their caregiver than they were used too.[177] The results of this intervention are supported by significant improvement from insecure attachment. In this intervention, mothers use baby carriers daily to promote physical contact and improve maternal responsiveness. This is supported by the study conducted by Ainsworth, which was shown to be effective at an 83% rate of improvement versus 38% of the control group.[178] The rationale for this intervention is to prevent defensive attachment strategies such as avoiding closeness with the caregiver and reducing futures physiological responses such as increased cortisol from unfamiliar closeness with their caregiver. Therefore the goal of this intervention is to promote secure attachment through closer proximity.

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[175] Barry Wright and Elizabeth Edginton, 'Evidence-Based Parenting Interventions to Promote Secure Attachment: Findings From a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis', *Global Pediatric Health* 3 (1 January 2016): 2333794X16661888, https://doi.org/10.1177/2333794X16661888. P.2

[176] Ibid P.2

[177] Ibid P.4

[178] Ibid P.5

The second positive intervention is child therapy child-parent psychotherapy (CPP). CPP is an evidence-based therapy focused on strengthening the relationship between the parents and the avoidant child.[179] CPP is conducted in the home of the child and is based on the observation between the parent and the child, often in living rooms with toys and other play materials that the child already uses. The parent uses the support of the therapist in this intervention to push themselves and challenge already held beliefs that the parents have, which prevent a secure relationship.[180] The process should encourage positive and sensitive interactions between the mother and the child. To this end, all sessions include parent and child. Additionally, in the 12 months follow-up, children had higher rates of secure attachment, demonstrating a medium-term result.[181] Given the play element of this positive intervention, the child's primary area of improvement will be improving physical proximity, especially around the disruption to play should that should the parent leave the room, thus aligning the child with those secure attachment characteristics.

Another positive intervention aimed at increasing maternal responsiveness is home visits. Home visit programs are designed to promote a positive home environment based on the belief

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[179] Erin Pickreign Stronach et al., 'Preventive Interventions and Sustained Attachment Security in Maltreated Children', *Development and Psychopathology* 25, no. 4 0 1 (November 2013): 10.1017/S0954579413000278, https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579413000278. P.7

[180] Ibid P.10

[181] Ibid P.10

that the infant develops better at home.[182] This intervention is an intensive 3×2 hour session over three months, with each one building on the work of the last.

This intervention is supported in clinical trials of over 400 families, and the results found that 62% of infants were classed as secure after three months as a pose to 28% of the control group.[183] By increasing maternal responsiveness to the avoidant child, this intervention has the capability to reduce the need for self losing and self-nurturing coping mechanisms found in avoidant children when faced with emotional variations. By providing the child with their emotional needs (as a result of increased maternal responsiveness), the child will be motivated to seek out emotional comfort and support, which is a behaviour associated with secure attachment.

The final positive intervention is the basic trust intervention which is a modern type of intervention aimed at educating the parent based on their own child's behaviour.[184] This is done with the help of the therapist and in the comfort of a neutral environment such as the therapist's office. (Therapy in the home has the potential to add stress and pressure to the parent, which is why the therapist's office provides a more suitable environment for this type of intervention.) The first part of the intervention involves setting goals and discussing the situation with the therapist.

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[182] Meena Cabral de Mello, 'Responsive Parenting: Interventions and Outcomes', *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 84, no. 12 (1 December 2006): 991–98, https://doi.org/10.2471/BLT.06.030163. P.993

[183] Ibid P.994

[184] Moniek A. J. Zeegers et al., 'Remediating Child Attachment Insecurity: Evaluating the Basic Trust Intervention in Adoptive Families', *Research on Social Work Practice* 30, no. 7 (1 October 2020): 736–49, https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731519863106. P.738

The second part involves the therapist making videos of the parent-child interactions in the child's natural play environment. The final part of the intervention programme is where the parent watches and discusses the views of the videos made previously with their therapist. This process is about creating awareness and understanding of the child's behaviour as well as working through concerns and difficulties with the parent.[185]

Analysis of this intervention has found decreases in children's insecure attachment.[186] This intervention places the whole focus on the caregiver, and the literature supports this in its discussion of this type of intervention. This intervention seeks to reduce defensive attachment strategies through analysis by the parent and therapist of their own child and themselves as the caregivers through play-based interactions. The results of this intervention support this, and as the child opens up during this playtime, it opens up the possibility of future openness and compatibility between the child and the parent with a view to moving to a secure attachment type.

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[185] Ibid P.739

[186] Ibid p.739

4.

Cognitive development is the process where a child learns to think, reason and use language, which is described as the development of the child's intellect.[187]

The first factor to influence cognitive development is the environment which is broken down in the literature into socioeconomic status, hereditary elements, education, gender influence and household stability.[188] The evidence on this factor shows that children who grow up in an enriched, stimulating environment develop quicker than other children and have higher IQs in adulthood.[189] This is supported by Bradley et al. 1994 who concluded that the degree to which a child's environment is exciting and stimulating is an indicator of future cognitive performance. An example of this is talking to a child early to increase their vocabulary and providing toys that offer positive stimuli to increase early and future cognitive skills.[190]

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[187] 'Cognitive Development - an Overview | ScienceDirect Topics', accessed 18 May 2022, https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/medicine-and-dentistry/cognitive-development.

[188] Shilu Tong et al., 'Socioeconomic Position, Maternal IQ, Home Environment, and Cognitive Development', *The Journal of Pediatrics* 151, no. 3 (September 2007): 284-288.e1, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2007.03.020. P.284

[189] Margaret R Burchinal et al., 'Cumulative Risk and Early Cognitive Development: A Comparison of Statistical Risk Models.', Developmental Psychology 36, no. 6 (2000): P.794

[190] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.11

The second factor is sensory development, something that is taken for granted by adults but is a crucial stage of development for children.[191] Contemporary research shows that children who have had the capacity under the right conditions to develop these cognitive skills. Furthermore, this capacity occurs due to the fact that the brain's plasticity is greatest, allowing stimuli to create a long-term impact.[192]

The opposite is also true of children; therefore, those children who are not exposed to visual and audio stimuli face negative consequences. An example of this is early exposure to music. Bilhartz et al. found a significant link between early music instruction and cognitive growth in non-music abilities.[193] This was supported by Schulenburg in replication studies which found reliable increases in 19 test cases over to testing sessions.[194] For example, reasoning skills. Other evidence points out that early exposure to music correlates to future interest in music which will further develop this form of cognitive ability.

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[191] Frank Fincham, Jonathan Foster, and Miles Hewstone, Psychology (John Wiley & Sons, 2005). P.182

[192] E. Glenn Schellenberg, 'Music and Cognitive Abilities', Current Directions in Psychological Science 14, no. 6 (2005): 317–20. P.317

[193] Terry D Bilhartz, Rick A Bruhn, and Judith E Olson, 'The Effect of Early Music Training on Child Cognitive Development', Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology 20, no. 4 (December 1999): 615–36, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0193-3973(99)00033-7. P.621

[194] E. Glenn Schellenberg, 'Music and Cognitive Abilities', Current Directions in Psychological Science 14, no. 6 (2005): 317–20. P.319

The third factor that influences early cognitive development is nutrition. Recent nutritional intervention studies provide evidence that the brain is vulnerable to sub-optimal nutrition in the early years.[195] This suboptimal nutrition could lead to profound negative effects later in life. For example, children who are chronically malnourished often develop slower than other children.[196] Another example by Rogers (1978) shows that children who were exclusively breastfed performed significantly higher in cognitive-based tasks such as sentence completion tests than those who were fed exclusively by the bottle.[197]

Furthermore, analysis of micronutrients such as protein levels as well as zinc and iron amounts have reinforced the importance of consistent, high-quality nutrition for influencing an infant's development.[198] More recent tests have found supplementation in these areas to have a positive effect on cognitive tests such as language and memory.[199]

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[195] Ruth Morley and Alan Lucas, 'Nutrition and Cognitive Development', n.d., 13. P.132

[196] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.12

[197] M Wadsworth et al., 'Infant Nutrition and Cognitive Development in the First Offspring of a National UK Birth Cohort', *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology* 40, no. 3 (1998): 163–67, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8749.1998.tb15441.x. P168

[198] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.12

[199] Ann M. DiGirolamo, Laura Ochaeta, and Rosa Mery Mejía Flores, 'Early Childhood Nutrition and Cognitive Functioning in Childhood and Adolescence', *Food and Nutrition Bulletin* 41, no. 1_suppl (June 2020): S31–40, https://doi.org/10.1177/0379572120907763. P.34

There is there exists a debate within the literature that considers the influence of genetics on absolute intelligence.[200] This debate is one stemming from the broader nature versus nurture debate that exists in the field. Despite earlier analysis advocating one side or another within this debate, more modern research presents a more balanced view. Given this balanced consensus is formed that a child with genetic challenges will likely struggle to develop skills.[201] This can, however, be somewhat overcome with early intervention (when the brain is most adaptable) and with a nurturing environment.[202]

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[200] Matt McGue et al., 'Behavioral Genetics of Cognitive Ability: A Life-Span Perspective.', in *Nature, Nurture & Psychology.*, ed. Robert Plomin and Gerald E. McClearn (Washington: American Psychological Association, 1993), 59–76, https://doi.org/10.1037/10131-003. P.56

[201] Ibid P.61

[202] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.12

5.

Holistic development is a term to refer to development as an entity split up into different factors. This could refer to biological, psychological, and social influences interconnecting with each other, which creates holistic development, and this form is defined as such by the American Department of Health.[203]

Through the biological development of children, such as greater motor control and increased brain function, children become more sophisticated.[204] This physical and cognitive development leads to psychosocial development resulting in forming the individual, which allows them to interact with and relate socially to others.[205] An example of this interconnectivity is a child learning to use a spoon independently. This development meets the physical developmental needs of easy access to food which leads to greater self-reliance from the independence it provides.

Additionally, this results in the development of higher self-esteem, which meets the emotional needs required in child development. This example reflects the different components within holistic development, and crucially it reflects the interaction that leads to the development as a whole.

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[203] Ibid P.19

[204] Chenhua Gu, 'The Influences From Montessori to the Early Years Children' (2020 5th International Conference on Modern Management and Education Technology (MMET 2020), Atlantis Press, 2020), 280–83. P.280

[205] Ibid P.280

Holistic development is also considered within education. Montessori derived a prepared environment where children developed independently at their own pace to aid the holistic development of the child but in a collaborative setting through group activities led by the teacher.[206] In order to be optimal, such an environment should be attractive and interesting to encourage exploration. This environment has been found to provide the opportunity for children to develop the motor skills needed for climbing, pulling their own body weight and walking.[207] This environment will help the holistic development of the child through the physical need of the act itself; this provides self-esteem fulfilling the emotional need as well as spiritual and social development through the interaction in this play-based environment, as well as the spiritual development through interacting with the natural environment around them.

The role of the parents within this view is a large one and is well documented in the literature. Engaging families has been hailed as a positive influence on children's learning and development.[208] In the Bronsfield social model (1979), parents are shown to be the most influential people in a child's life from a developmental perspective.[209]

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[206] Ibid P. 281

[207] Ibid P. 282

[208] Ibid P.283

[209] Ibid P.283

In practical terms, the holistic model promotes the participation of parents by inviting them to visit and speak to the class and participate in children's programs. This has been suggested to bring about pride and create connectedness for the child with the learning material.[210]

Normative development allows parents and other adults to understand what to expect from a child from a physical and behavioural perspective based on their age.[211] One example is an adult expecting a child of 3 to be able to zip up their own coat. From this model, this is unrealistic as the child is still developing the motor skills to do that normative development explains this.[212] However, there is a cautionary note to this theory for being too rigid. Children developing at different rates is a well-established view, mainly but not limited to children suffering from underlying or undiagnosed physical and mental challenges. Therefore, an overreliance on this view could be detrimental to an adult's understanding of a child's development. For example, if a teacher expects the whole class to achieve a task based solely on age (the normative developmental model), it is clear that many variables will affect the collective achievement other than their age.

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[210] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.19

[211] Ibid P.20

[212] Ibid P.20

6.

This section will discuss three theories on cognitive development, which refers to the development of human thinking skills, reasoning applying logic and problem-solving. The theories are Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner.[213]

Piaget's theory focuses on states and sequences of cognitive development that can be identified from birth to the age of seven. The first stage is sensor motor which occurs from age 0 to 2 years, where infants learn the world through their senses and by doing (their actions). [214]Furthermore, Piaget also broke this stage down into six sub-stages, highlighting the complexities of the development processes at this early time of life. Stage two is the pre-operational stage for children aged 2 to 7. This stage focuses on the development of internal images (based on how things look rather than the operation). Furthermore, he found the child had the inability at this stage to see things from another's point of view.[215]

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[213] Ibid P.21

[214] Gross, *Psychology*. P.537

[215] Dr Safdar Rehman Ghazi and Karim Ullah, 'CONCRETE OPERATIONAL STAGE OF PIAGET'S COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT THEORY: AN IMPLICATION IN LEARNING GENERAL SCIENCE' 31, no. 1 (2015): 13. P.81

Stage three is concrete operations occurring between the ages of seven and eleven, where the child develops certain logical processes, as well as reasoning. For example, classification and ordering, especially in mathematical and scientific subjects, albeit at a rudimentary level.

Stage four is the formal operational stage for children between the ages of 12 and 16. In this stage, children develop the capacity and scope for learning, and their understanding is greatly increased, especially the deductive reasoning way of thinking, which according to Piaget, becomes significant during this time. Furthermore, the majority of limitations of the previous stages are replaced by more complete abilities.

Piaget's theory of cognitive development also considers the processes that enable the transition from one stage to another. The first is an equilibrium which requires a balance between assimilation and accommodation, which by default are in tension with each other—for example, noticing conflicting elements of a situation, understanding the conflict and seeing a resolution.[216] Additionally, there is the equilibration state, where a state of tension between cognitive processes competing against each other exists. Furthermore, some theorists, in contrast to Piaget, believed that this is the optimal state for cognitive advancement.[217]

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[216] Hamidreza Babaee Bormanaki and Yasin Khoshhal, 'The Role of Equilibration in Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development and Its Implication for Receptive Skills: A Theoretical Study', *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 8, no. 5 (1 September 2017): 996, https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0805.22. P.999

[217] 'APA Dictionary of Psychology', accessed 22 April 2022, https://dictionary.apa.org/.

Additionally, there is assimilation which is the process where we incorporate new information entering existing mental structures and finally, accommodation, the process of altering the existing schema (by creating new ones) in response to new information and experiences.

Piaget's theory also discusses the idea of schema. The schema is a collection of basic knowledge that acts as a guide and as a form of the organisation through a mental structure to interpret our sensory data. Schema is built and developed using different processes.[218] Firstly assimilation is the process where we incorporate new information into our existing schemas.[219] Secondly, accommodation is the process of altering the existing schema and creating new responses to new information and experiences. [220]The schema is used to understand and respond to new situations. For example, the schema for a kitchen would tell a person what they might find in a kitchen, where those items are and what they would not find.[221] Furthermore, a child is in a state of cognitive balance when they can explain what they are experiencing at a point in time and, according to Piaget, as the child develops the schema, which becomes more detailed and complex.

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[218] Ibid

[219] Syukma Netti et al., 'The Failure to Construct Proof Based on Assimilation and Accommodation Framework from Piaget', *International Education Studies* 9, no. 12 (28 November 2016): 12, https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v9n12p12. P.13

[220] Ibid P.13

[221] Robert J. Sternberg and Karin Sternberg, *Cognitive Psychology* (Wadsworth/Cengage Learning, 2011). P.336

Piaget's theory for cognitive development explores the processes that enable the transition from stage to stage and the idea of the schema, the collection of knowledge that acts as the guide and the form of organisation that enables a child to develop and interpret the sensory data for which they are experiencing.

Vygotsky's theory focuses on the idea that social experiences and imaginative play are large contributors to children's cognitive development.[222] According to Vygotsky, meaningful play begins at three years of age. This play is always a social interaction, and it often involves more than one child. Furthermore, the setup, themes and roles that the play includes further cognitive development. It is also important to note that even solo play has a social element within this theory that aids cognitive development as the themes involved reflect a broader social and cultural entity.[223] Analysis of this idea presents the problem that Vygotsky makes no reference to emotional influence, especially the social stress and challenges and frustrations of collective failure that exist within the social play for children. Furthermore, Vygotsky states that children do not develop in isolation but rather within a social matrix, and the things learned in this process are ascribed meaning by the child because of this social element. This reinforces his conviction that the social element is vital for cognitive development, a point regularly used in criticism of his theory.

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[222] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.25

[223] Ageliki Nicolopoulou, 'Play, Cognitive Development, and the Social World: Piaget, Vygotsky, and Beyond', *Human Development* 36, no. 1 (1993): 1–23, https://doi.org/10.1159/000277285. P.7

Additionally, Vygotsky discussed the concept of the zone of proximately development. This zone includes the ideas that have not yet matured; these buds are in the ascendant stage of development. To assist this development which can only occur through social interaction by, Vygotsky referred to scaffolding.

Scaffolding refers to the guidance and support that adults (or more experienced peers) provide for the child to develop.[224] As the child advances, the scaffolding is withdrawn gradually until the task is completed successfully.

However, there remains a debate within the literature over the precise meaning and interpretation of the scaffolding concept. For example, Wells 1999 views it as a way of operationalising the zone of proximity. This refers to the practical application of this theory. [225]On the other hand, Mercer and Fisher (1993) view scaffolding as the transferring of responsibility for the task's success from the teacher to the pupil. Furthermore, there exist additional debate as to whether this is a collaborative process (Wells 1999) or a one-way transfer (Love and Wagner 1991 and 2002).[226]

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[224] Tayebeh Fani and Farid Ghaemi, 'Implications of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in Teacher Education: ZPTD and Self-Scaffolding', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 29 (2011): 1549–54, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.396. P.1551

[225] Irina Verenikina, 'Understanding Scaffolding and the ZPD in Educational Research', n.d., 9. P.3

[226] Ibid P.4

Vygotsky also focused on language as a role in the cognitive development process. This is broken down into three types. Firstly social speech from age two is the external form of communication necessary in this social learning form. Secondly, private speech, which he refers to the internal communication from age three serves as the beginning of an intellectual function.[227] The third type is silent in a speech from age seven that becomes self-regulating in function, demonstrating a more advanced and complex intellectual ability.

Bruner's theory believes that adults use three strategies to solve problems.[228] The first is enactive, which is a representative of past events through motor actions, e.g. providing a description of a pathway route requires it to be walked first.[229] The second is iconic, which is the summarising of events and images by sensory impressions.[230] Finally, the third is symbolic, which is the process of mentally representing objects and experiences through linguistic symbols, for example making the siren and engine noise of a fire engine whilst playing with a red block.[231]

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[227] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.26

[228] Ibid P.27

[229] Jerome S Bruner, 'THE COURSE OF COGNITIVE GROWTH', n.d., 15.P.2

[230] APA Dictionary of Psychology', accessed 22 April 2022, https://dictionary.apa.org/.

[231] Ibid

Despite being acquired in order as each requires the other to progress alongside other existing strategies, Bruner believes the existing strategies are not replaced like in stage theory but remain intact throughout life and that all three are applied by adults when problem-solving.[232]

There exists a consensus in the literature that Bruner's theory fits into the wider space of learning theories. However, there remains a discussion over the comparison between Bruner and other existing theories such as Piaget and Vygotsky. In some regard, Bruner has advanced the field, such as Vygotsky's work on scaffolding.[233]

Bruner agrees with Piaget that children learn through enquiry and investigation, but he rejects the concept of readiness as outlined in Piaget's stages and sequences, except for cognitive development.[234] Bruner developed the idea of contingency, which means that the teacher decides their method based on the child's behaviour, considering that the principal should be taught first and with a highly motivated child.[235] This can be criticised as an optimal context for learning rather than a realistic one. Furthermore, he believed that the child could learn something at any time provided the correct methods were used, such as the contingency method.

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[232] Bruner, 'THE COURSE OF COGNITIVE GROWTH'.P.2

[233] Richard Gross, Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour (Hodder Education, 2015). P.586

[234] Wang Ruixue, 'The Learning Theories of Piaget, Vygotsky & Bruner and Their Influence on Teaching', *Advances in Vocational and Technical Education* 3, no. 1 (2021): 32–35. P.35

[235] Oxbridge, 'Unit 5 Text Book', 5. P.27

This idea highlights a common criticism of the core of the cognitive development theories in that the theories do not take into account the individual circumstances of learning, the emotional factors involved, motivation, frustration and natural ability.

Bruner's practical application of the theory is within the spiral curriculum concept. The concept of this is that the topic is revised using different modes of representation until the child has understood.[236] This method is still used in classrooms today. Furthermore, during this period, the subject matter increases slightly in difficulty as the tutor goes deeper into the subject, with each revisit building on the previous one. The most obvious benefit is the reinforcement of the subject matter through regular exposure. Additionally, the gradual shift from simplicity to complexity means greater understanding and the inclusion of more students with variable abilities.[237]

The three theories consider different aspects of cognitive development, Piaget focuses on stages of development, Vygotsky considers the social elements, through learning as a social activity and Bruner focuses on the educational application for the cognitive development theories such as the idea of contingency.

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[236] R.M. Harden, 'What Is a Spiral Curriculum?', *Medical Teacher* 21, no. 2 (January 1999): 141–43, https://doi.org/10.1080/01421599979752. P.141

[237] Ibid P.142

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Section 6 - Individual Psychology

1.

There is limited reference to self-esteem from the Freudian perspective as it is currently defined within the literature. However, Freud's view on self-esteem begins with an analysis of the psyche.[238] Freud believes that a balanced psyche is a starting point for self-esteem. This is because an unbalanced psyche will rely on the unconscious automatic defence mechanisms.[239] These defences will preserve the low or denied based self-esteem rather than enhancing or promoting genuine self-esteem.[240] This is proven by contrast with people with high self-esteem who use these defences minimally, thus demonstrating a balanced psyche from the Freudian perspective.[241]

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[238] My Oxbridge, *Unit 6 Text Book*, 2022, 6. P.5

[239] Avinash De Sousa, 'Freudian Theory and Consciousness: A Conceptual Analysis**', *Mens Sana Monographs* 9, no. 1 (January 2011): 210–17, https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-1229.77437. P.213

[240] Robert Plutchik, Henry Kellerman, and Hope R. Conte, 'A Structural Theory of Ego Defenses and Emotions', in *Emotions in Personality and Psychopathology*, ed. Carroll E. Izard, Emotions, Personality, and Psychotherapy (Boston, MA: Springer US, 1979), 227–57, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4613-2892-6_9. P.229, Phebe Cramer, 'Defensiveness and Defense Mechanisms', *Journal of Personality* 66, no. 6 (December 1998): 879–94, . P.883

[241] Robert Plutchik, Henry Kellerman, and Hope R. Conte, 'A Structural Theory of Ego Defenses and Emotions', in *Emotions in Personality and Psychopathology*, ed. Carroll E. Izard, Emotions, Personality, and Psychotherapy (Boston, MA: Springer US, 1979), 227–57, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4613-2892-6_9

Freud and others explore one's self-esteem from an inferiority perspective which is the foundation of the negative consequences of social media, as discussed in the next section. This insecurity perspective begins with success and is linked to the balance psyche. According to Freud, success (in relation to a balanced psyche) promotes confidence that relieves inferiority.[242]

The literature on this issue explains that the connection between success and a developed balanced psyche is optimal for this feeling.

Furthermore, other theorists, such as Adler, a follower of Freud (who incorporated these ideas into their theories), have considered how the influence of inferiority acts as a motivating factor in attempts to succeed and build self-esteem within one's life. Within the scientific literature, *inferiority* is defined as constant feelings of failure, worthlessness, self-doubt, depressive symptoms and not being accepted by society, often resulting from social comparison.[243] This is an especially prevalent consideration when examining social media use and misuse.

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[242] My Oxbridge, *Unit 6 Text Book*, 2022, 6. P.5

[243] Katie A. Lamberson and Kelly L. Wester, 'Feelings of Inferiority: A First Attempt to Define the Construct Empirically', *The Journal of Individual Psychology* 74, no. 2 (2018): 172–87, https://doi.org/10.1353/jip.2018.0011. P.175

Adler makes clear that inferiority can be used as a motivating factor in achieving goals. Thus revealing a potential positive consequence for comparison. However, if unrealistic goals of the desired outcome (known or unknown) exist, then it is reasonable to deduce that the feelings of inferiority will grow, and no feelings of contentment will be present but rather an increased sense of failure and inferiority.

Despite this consideration, there remains a view that considers the possibility of positive effects of inferiority acting as a motivator and social media's role within that. An example of this would be the expansion of reach for self-help through social media, which could be argued as providing a positive effect on many. However, given that an inferiority state of mind acts as a starting point in this example, combined with the widely discussed negative consequences, the strength of this 'positive' use of social media appears to be limited.

In addition to other theorists on the matter, the Freudian view on self-esteem provides a basis for an analysis of the negative repercussions of social media use and misuse on social self-esteem. Firstly the theoretical perspective on self-esteem reveals its delicate nature, which makes any analysis of esteem finally balanced. As previously stated, Freud discusses the need for success in the development of success for it to be maintained. However, this is not guaranteed, and the first concern of social media use is the pressure to contribute to the social hive that feeds off the success of its users, which is present in this public forum.[244]

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[244] Beth Anderson et al., 'Facebook Psychology: Popular Questions Answered by Research.', *Psychology of Popular Media Culture* 1, no. 1 (January 2012): 23–37, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026452. P.31

If someone is struggling in their life, success is scarce (a normal state as evidenced by the library of written material that documents the lives of people whom all endured periods of failure). Their self-esteem will fall as they will feel a subconscious sense of failure for not being able to contribute to the hive success stream, which its very nature demands.[245]

Furthermore, a feeling of isolation will be prevalent as though they have let the side down by not being able to contribute through internal and external social comparison.[246] A conventional example of this would be in a classroom setting where each morning, the teacher insists on the children telling the class what they were successful at each evening. The exercise relies on success stories for it to work in a similar way that social media algorithms rely on documenting emotionally charged events for public viewing. However, social media has more profound negative consequences on self-esteem due to the social isolation problem. The users on social media see only the constant stream of others' success, and other people's negative experiences are hidden unless they choose to share with this voluntary contribution being the critical factor in this analysis.

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[245] Erin Vogel et al., 'Who Compares and Despairs? The Effect of Social Comparison Orientation on Social Media Use and Its Outcomes', *Personality and Individual Differences* 86 (30 November 2015): 249–56, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.06.026. P.256

[246] Katie A. Lamberson and Kelly L. Wester, 'Feelings of Inferiority: A First Attempt to Define the Construct Empirically', *The Journal of Individual Psychology* 74, no. 2 (2018): 172–87, https://doi.org/10.1353/jip.2018.0011. P.175

Another negative consequence of social media is feeling as though one is not being accepted by society. Instead, users feel an overwhelming sense of social media-induced belongingness, as described by Appel et al.[247] This phenomenon has different sides to it and can manifest itself in different ways depending on individual circumstances. However, through analysis, some themes are apparent.

Firstly it is important to state that humans possess a fundamental drive to compare to others. This serves the person's needs by being inspired, evaluating the self and assisting in decision-making.[248] This means that not all social comparisons can be attributed to adverse consequences on self-esteem. Instead, it is social media usage that provokes these negative realities.

The internal consideration begins with upwards comparison. Upward comparison is when a person compares themselves with people they ascribe to a higher standing than themselves. This often leaves people feeling inadequate, negatively impacting their self-evaluation, and leading to an overall reduction in self-esteem.[249]

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[247] Beth Anderson et al., 'Facebook Psychology: Popular Questions Answered by Research.', *Psychology of Popular Media Culture* 1, no. 1 (January 2012): 23–37, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026452. P.31

[248] Ibid P.31

[249] Erin Vogel et al., 'Who Compares and Despairs? The Effect of Social Comparison Orientation on Social Media Use and Its Outcomes', *Personality and Individual Differences* 86 (30 November 2015): 249–56, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.06.026. P.250

Social media compounds this effect due to the easy access to billions of comparisons in an easy and widely promoted way. Furthermore, conventional social interactions do not provide such opportunities for comparisons as the numbers are much lower and the required effort is much higher. Additionally, in-person social interactions do not allow for the impact of editing one's appearance, which researchers have shown to be detrimental to self-esteem from social media usage.[250] This provides another example of how social media usage can impact self-esteem.

Furthermore, this links to Freud's view on self-esteem, as Freud believes that we need success for self-esteem to flourish. However, it stands to reason that this form of comparison in the context of social media would distort a person's view of their success through constant upward comparisons. This is because a view of one's success comes from self-evaluation, which, as previously stated, is negatively affected by the constant upward comparison opportunities on social media.

The literature references these effects and provides an example of upward comparisons on social media affecting body image, a well-known side effect on self-esteem, particularly on younger, more impressionable users, which social media is more inclined to attract.[251] Furthermore, research has shown that people on social media are more likely to make upward comparisons than downward or lateral, confirming the negative effect on self-esteem.[252]

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[250] Jasmine Fardouly, Rebecca T. Pinkus, and Lenny R. Vartanian, 'The Impact of Appearance Comparisons Made through Social Media, Traditional Media, and in Person in Women's Everyday Lives', *Body Image* 20 (March 2017): 31–39, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2016.11.002. P.32

[251] Ibid P.32

[252] Ibid P.32

The second form of comparison comes from downward and lateral comparison. This is where a person compares to someone who is of lower or similar success to themselves. Whilst this does not carry the same attention in the literature as upward comparison, there is evidence that the potential link between these forms of comparison and negative self-esteem exists.

Firstly the evidence suggests that excessive comparison fuelled by the mass of opportunities to compare on social media does not provide a solid basis for self-esteem partly because it takes the focus away from oneself, especially during self-evaluation and decision making.[253]

This can be compounded further when constant comparisons influence these moments. The self-doubt that results from this could further lower self-esteem through increased stress resulting in an increase in depressive symptoms.[254]

Furthermore, downward comparisons can hurt self-esteem overall if certain actions accompany the comparison. Such actions could include negative comments on the compared person's posts, dislike buttons, and widespread sharing with others with negative comments attached to expand this negative comparison, especially if this occurs anonymously.

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[253] Philippe Verduyn et al., 'Social Comparison on Social Networking Sites', *Current Opinion in Psychology*, Cyberpsychology, 36 (1 December 2020): 32–37, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2020.04.002. P.33

[254] Ibid P.33

These actions occur with the aim to cement a perceived superiority hoping this will result in enhanced self-esteem.[255]

This occurrence negatively affects self-esteem in two ways. The first is for the victim. The potential actions that have accompanied the downward comparison they did not ask for will profoundly affect their self-esteem.[256] This is particularly prevalent if this negative comparison comes from anonymous sources, allowing the victim to believe the sentiment is more widespread and heartfelt than reality through the creation of fake accounts and coordinated bullying.[257] This scenario is commonplace on social media and highlights the consequences of misuse.

The second effect is on the perpetrator, for if their self-esteem is built on downward comparisons, the research in this area demonstrates that sub-optimal self-esteem is likely.[258]

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[255] Fanchang Kong et al., 'Vulnerable Narcissism in Social Networking Sites: The Role of Upward and Downward Social Comparisons', *Frontiers in Psychology* 12 (2021), https://www.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.711909. P.3

[256] Justin W. Patchin and Sameer Hinduja, 'Cyberbullying and Self-Esteem*', *Journal of School Health* 80, no. 12 (2010): 614–21, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1746-1561.2010.00548.x. P.616

[257] Ibid P.615

[258] Anthony Robinson et al., 'Social Comparisons, Social Media Addiction, and Social Interaction: An Examination of Specific Social Media Behaviors Related to Major Depressive Disorder in a Millennial

There exists a danger that another user will perform a downward comparison on them, and the consequences described above will befall them. Therefore, social media misuse has the potential to create a never-ending cycle of downward comparisons to the detriment of all. As previously stated, the ability to publicly edit and cure rate a perfect image means that there will always exist the opportunity for negative downward comparisons and their consequences.

This section has analysed social media usage on self-esteem, beginning with the Freudian perspective as its foundation. Given that Freud believed that success was needed for a balanced psyche (something he believed was critical for self-esteem), social media provides an interesting framework for such a discussion. With the opportunity to curate ones look and the multitude of opportunities, it is logical to conclude that social media has the potential to negatively affect self-esteem from a number of perspectives, and this analysis has concluded that a cycle that perpetuates negative self-esteem is possible and probable through social media usage. Despite that, there are limited references in the literature for its potential to provide esteem through upward comparison, but this remains debated.

Population', *Journal of Applied Biobehavioral Research* 24, no. 1 (March 2019): e12158, https://doi.org/10.1111/jabr.12158. P.10

2.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a psychological theory proposed by Maslow in 1943.[259] This theory can be viewed in parallel to other theories within the broader field of developmental psychology, which focus on human growth throughout their development. The original hierarchy was established in 1943 (see figure 1) and will provide the basis for this analysis.[260] However, Maslow expanded the hierarchy to include cognitive needs such as curiosity, exploration, knowledge, and understanding. Additionally, it included ascetic needs such as finding beauty in nature or finding balance in one's surroundings (see Appendix A).[261]

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[259] My Oxbridge, *Unit 6 Text Book*, 2022, 6. P.3

[260] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.144

[261] Ibid P.144

Figure 1[262]

The first stage is basic needs, and the first level refers to the biological needs of a human to survive, such as food, water, heat and rest.[263] However, it should be noted that the quantity of these needs and their importance relative to each other can vary from person to person. The second level is safety needs. This level contains the need to live in a state of security free from harm, such as protection from natural elements.

This level of needs is activated after the previous physiological needs are met, thus fulfilling the hierarchal structure and revealing the transitional pattern that exists throughout the model.[264] These two levels make up the theory's basic needs stage (stage I).

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[262] My Oxbridge, *Unit 6 Text Book*, 2022, 6. P.3

[263] Ibid P.25

[264] Avneet Kaur, 'Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory: Applications and Criticisms', n.d., 4. P.1062

The following two levels make up the psychological needs stage of the theory. The third level contains the need for love and belonging, for example, trust and acceptance with peers through friendships giving and receiving love and affection through family and relationships.[265] One potential criticism of this form of human need is that, unlike the previous two needs, this is hard to quantify or measure in terms of quality, particularly in adults where variations in family dynamics, relationships and social lifestyle become more prevalent.

The fourth level is esteem. This is based on feeling accomplishment and receiving the respect of others, accompanied by self-respect and self-esteem. Self-actualisation is the pinnacle of Maslow's theory, a stage where one achieves one's full potential.[266] This final stage of self-fulfilment needs differs from the previous stages due to motivation. In the prior stages of basic and psychological needs, motivation decreases as the needs are met; however, in this final stage, motivation increases as the person reaches their needs.[267]

Maslow also states that this need for self-actualisation is unique to humans in contrast to the other stages that humans potentially share with animals. Additionally, people will reach self-actualisation in different ways through life experiences rather than acquiring tangible needs.[268]

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[265] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.144

[266] Ibid P.144

[267] Saul Mcleod, 'Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs', n.d., 16. P.2

[268] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.144

Despite the acclaim associated with the theory, Maslow's theory has provoked a debate in the literature, promoting analysis and criticisms of his theory.

The first critique is one proposed by Cianci and Gambrel (2003), in which they say that the hierarchy of needs is too simplistic, and this is most apparent when considering societal changes such as economic downturns and times of war.[269] It would be logical to conclude that these social events would shift the priorities of the people involved in them. Therefore there is a view that the theory fails to take into account. This is a valid critique as humans constantly respond to changing circumstances which affect our motivations. However, it is also true that no theory can encompass all eventualities. Therefore it might be more appropriate to refer to this hierarchy as an optimal model in the absence of extreme outside changes rather than to dismiss it as too simplistic. Nevertheless, the consideration shows that this is a valid critique as it highlights the need to consider a theory in a broader context that responds to the world and its changing circumstances.

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[269] Sophie King-Hill, 'Critical Analysis of Maslow's Hierarchy of Need', *The STeP Journal (Student Teacher Perspectives)* 2, no. 4 (1 December 2015): 54–57. P.55

Another critique is from Hofstead (1984), who believed that the order of the hierarchy was based on Maslow's own American middle-class experiences but did not take into account global variations.[270] He states that Maslow presents his theory from an individualistic perspective, evidenced by self-actualisation and autonomy being placed at the top of the hierarchy.[271] Therefore, the model does not consider values prevalent in collectivist cultures that prioritise collective harmony, family support, and community over freedom and individual success.

This is a valid argument and an important one especially given the globalist international community that has developed as the world has evolved where people are increasingly likely to meet others from different cultures. Understanding and being aware of differences is vital for harmonious relationships between people; therefore, this critique highlights the need for revision of the theory to include differences or at least highlight that the theory is from a singular perspective, as Hofstead makes clear.

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[270] Geert Hofstede, 'The Cultural Relativity of the Quality of Life Concept', n.d., 10. P.396

[271] Ibid P.396

The final critique in this analysis is from one Wahba and Bridwell (1976). The first part of this critique is the lack of theoretical support and research evidence to validate the theory. They state that until the 1960s, 15 years after the initial iteration of the theory, there was little empirical evidence to support the theory.[272] This first part of the critique appears to be valid and highlights a concern whereby a popular theory is unsupported by empirical evidence. However, Wahba and Bridwell say, a renewed focus on testing the theory exists within the literature. Given that there is no time limit on supporting evidence, a review of the current research suggests that this critique is less prevalent over time.

The second part of the critique by Wahba and Bridwell is based on questioning the hierarchy itself. They argue that one size does not fit all and question whether people consider needs and their motivation for these needs in this form.[273] While there cannot be a one-size-fits-all when considering our needs, and the hierarchy does not reflect any adaptability, there is an argument that some structure is beneficial, especially at the lower end of the model. The hierarchy allows for the distinction of basic needs and our motivation to obtain them.

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[272] Mahmoud A. Wahba and Lawrence G. Bridwell, 'Maslow Reconsidered: A Review of Research on the Need Hierarchy Theory', *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 15, no. 2 (1 April 1976): 212–40, https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(76)90038-6. P.212

[273] My Oxbridge, *Unit 6 Text Book*, 2022. P.3

For example, without food, water and rest, humans would cease to live regardless of what success they have or how much love they might enjoy higher up the model (see figure 1).

This demonstrates that some hierarchal structure is beneficial. Therefore this critique has partial validity in its current in its concern for the one size fits all perspective that the theory has, which is in line with concerns raised by others. However, the structure critique is less robust as particular examples within the model show the benefits of its structure and order in this way.

3.

<u>**Context and Introduction**</u>[274]

This article looks at the issue of child mental health from an educational perspective, and it advocates the need for early support as supported by Sanders et al., who concur that early intervention is optimal for treatment within this context.[275] The author of this article is the coordinator of policy and campaigning for children and young people mental health coalition, which aims for mental health to be prioritised alongside early intervention measures, particularly in the school setting. It aims to achieve this through training staff and other adults in mental health and child development and ensuring support is accessible to all young people.

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[274] P Lavis, 'Resilience and Results: How Promoting Children's Emotional and Mental Wellbeing Helps Improve Attainment', *Education and Health* 32, no. 1 (2014): 30–35.

[275] Matthew R Sanders, Shylaja Gooley, and Jan Nicholson, *Early Intervention in Conduct Problems in Children. Clinical Approaches to Early Intervention in Child and Adolescent Mental Health, Volume 3.* (ERIC, 2000). P.13

What is mental health?

This article makes frequent references to mental health. It defines it using the World Health Organisation's definition 'a state of well-being in which the individual realises his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community.

Additionally, it makes clear that mental health is a positive term and that it plays a vital part in overall health through emotional and psychological well-being. The meaning behind this is that the mental side of health should be seen in the same favourable terms as its physical counterpart.

Additionally, the article makes clear that mental health, like physical health, is not one issue but rather encompasses a range that varies in severity. By making this clarification, the article attempts to shift the reader's attitude on mental health from a negative to a positive.

Risk and Protective Factors

The article devotes a section to the risk and protective factors that influence mental health. Risk factors refer to circumstances a child might encounter in their family, environment or themselves, increasing the likelihood of mental health problems. Additionally, the article states that more risk factors present in child results in a greater chance of mental health problems. Furthermore, protective factors exist, such as high levels of self-esteem, a good school with opportunities for success both academically and otherwise and is securely attached to a carer.

This form of attachment is where a child plays happily and shows distress when the mother departs.[276] However, the child responds positively to the mother's return to the room where the child is playing, therefore, using the mother as a safe base.[277] Additionally, play is significantly reduced, but the child tries to adapt to the separation.[278]

In this article's view, the presence of these risk factors makes early intervention so vital to reduce risk and increase and support protective factors. Given the article's preference for an early interventionism approach supported by the literature, it is logical to conclude that this early intervention would allow for risk factors to be resolved earlier. This reduces the overall likelihood of mental health problems developing whilst allowing the greatest chance for protective factors to develop for the child or young person.

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[276] Fincham, Foster, and Hewstone, *Psychology*. P.188

[277] Cristina Colonnesi et al., 'The Relation Between Insecure Attachment and Child Anxiety: A Meta-Analytic Review', Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology : The Official Journal for the Society of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, American Psychological Association, Division 53 40 (1 July 2011): 630–45, https://doi.org/10.1080/15374416.2011.581623. P.631

[278] Lenny Rosmalen, René van der Veer, and Frank van der Horst, 'Ainsworth's Strange Situation Procedure: The Origin of an Instrument', *Journal of the History of the Behavioral Sciences* 51 (1 May 2015), https://doi.org/10.1002/jhbs.21729. P.279

Why young people's mental health is so important

The next section outlines the context that explains why young people's mental health is such an important issue. This article section outlines the context that makes children's mental health such an important issue. One in 10 young people are known to have a mental health disorder, with this figure supported in the literature as of 2004. It is important to stress that the more recent research believes the number to be one in six or 16% of young children at a conservative estimate rather than 10% of the earlier figure.[279] Furthermore, the article clarifies that the poor mental health of the child can lead to poor outcomes in adulthood, such as a lack of qualifications and crime.

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[279] 'Children's Mental Health Statistics | The Children's Society', accessed 18 June 2022, https://www.childrenssociety.org.uk/what-we-do/our-work/well-being/mental-health-statistics.

How mental health problems influence educational success

The next section of the article explores the ways in which mental health problems impact educational success. The article demonstrates this correlation and provides some examples to support it. First of all, young people who struggle with behaviour or have emotional disorders such as depression or anxiety are more likely to be excluded leave school without qualifications or be assessed as having special educational needs. Secondly, young people with emotional problems are more likely to have difficulties in reading, spelling and maths.

Finally, young people with higher levels of emotional well-being have higher levels of academic success and are more engaged at school. Therefore, the inverse is true, as evidenced by the prior claims supporting the correlation as advocated by the article.

Mental health training and practical application

This article's key concern is that teachers have little training in mental health and emotional well-being, which reflects one of the core aims of the organisation behind this paper. There is a concern that poor teacher-student relationships could be contributing to poor mental health. To support this, a survey cited in the article found that only 10% believed that their school would be a supportive environment for somebody battling an eating disorder due to the lack of awareness by the school. The article also clarifies that the responsibility does not lie solely with school and that government also has a role in this area. The Mind Aid Portal is cited as an initiative to help address this problem by educating adults to identify children with mental health problems.

Further support is now available for staff working with children with complex special educational needs, and the 'making sense of mental health training pack' is referenced as another resource in this area. This section is, therefore, clearly devoted to the practical elements of addressing the concerns of mental health issues in school settings.

The following section states that research suggests that young people would rather speak to their teacher than a GP or other responsible adult about mental health problems they may face. The article uses this as evidence to support their view that teachers are best placed to help. However, it is important to point out that this is a generalised claim and would depend on individual preferences, most notably the relationship between the student and the teacher at that time. As previously discussed, this could contribute to a decline in student mental health if a poor student-teacher relationship exists. Furthermore, the article advocates that schools use their influence to reduce the stigma around mental health. Additionally, it advocates schools using their local community influence to promote specialist services as needed.

The next part of this section cites resources aimed at promoting mental health in school. It advocates a whole school approach but cautioned that teachers often report a lack of support from their superiors in this endeavour. This lack of leadership has been found to have a detrimental impact on the implementation of support supported by the wider literature. Finally, the article found that existing mechanisms such as PSHE lessons were inadequate, and OFSTED has confirmed this by saying that up to 40% of PSHE delivery required improvement in 2013. Additionally, enabling mental health in the wider curriculum subjects is a potential strategy the article presents to manage these inadequacies.

The final section focuses on external support based on the idea that schools have more control over their budget and, therefore in a position to commission services tailored to the needs of the school. Some examples in the article include bringing in specialist mentors, providing counselling services or offering mindfulness courses. Furthermore, it advocates that these services offer a good return on investment. Analysis has shown that for every one pound spent on preventing problems, a return of over £80 was yielded. Therefore it advocates that schools are less economical overall by not investing in young people's mental health. This point crystallised the purpose of this article, which is to advocate for further acknowledgement of the importance of mental health problems for children and young people.

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Outcomes'. *Personality and Individual Differences* 86 (30 November 2015): 249–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.06.026.

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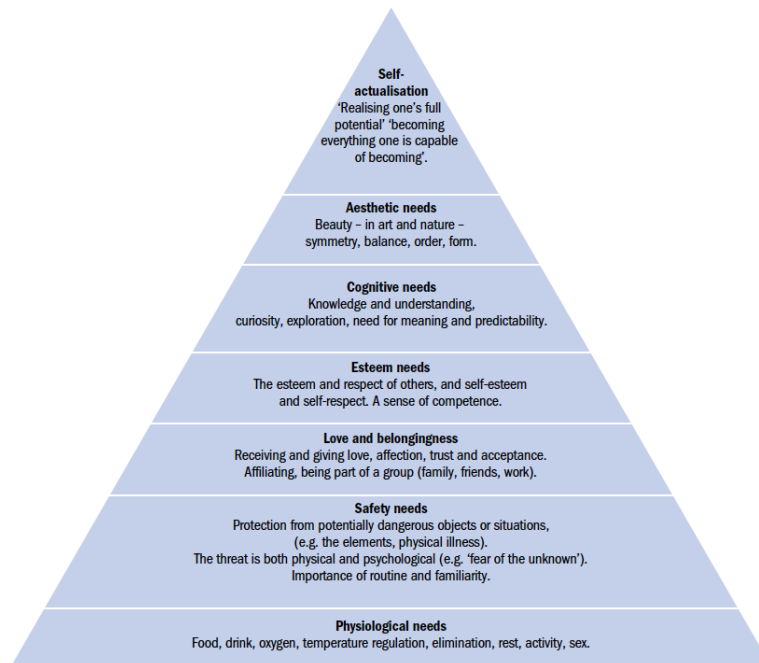
Appendices

Appendix A

Figure 9.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs (based on Maslow, 1954)

Citation: Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (Hodder Education, 2015). P.144

Section 7 - Psychoanalysis

1.

According to Freud, the human psyche resembles an iceberg.[280] This suggestion reflects the belief that a subconscious influence always exists over the conscious within the human mind.[281] The conscious and the unconscious must be defined to understand this dynamic between the two states.

Within the iceberg analogy, the two states (conscious and unconscious) refer to the two stages of human thought. Firstly the conscious resembles the visible state of the iceberg analogy, which is made up of the small part of mental activity that captures our attention.[282] The preconscious is also included within this state, commonly referred to as the tip of the iceberg in the literature.[283] This state comprises anything that can be retrieved through memory. According to Freud, this conscious state, most prevalently the preconscious state, is dealt with by the ego.

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[280] My Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*, 2022. P.5

[281] KJ Joseph and J Amalaveenus, 'THE INFLUENCE OF FREUDIAN PSYCHOANALYSIS ON SARAH SCHULMAN'S NOVEL EMPATHY', *Journal of Positive School Psychology*, 2022, P.3556.

[282] Ibid P.3356

[283] Saul Mcleod, '[Sigmund Freud's Theories]', 2013, https://www.simplypsychology.org/Sigmund-Freud.html.

The ego provides a regulatory function and is the external connection to reality.[284] Furthermore, the super-ego acts as an unconscious moral regulator, which provides feelings of guilt or rewards if these moral standards are manipulated, demonstrating a bridge within the ego between the conscious and the unconscious.[285]

The Freudian analysis clarifies that the super-ego is an unconscious state of mind. However, it could be argued that this is not always the case either through therapeutic engagement or self-realisation. This is predominantly evident if moral regulation is determined externally; it provides the possibility that a person is perfectly conscious of the rationale behind such feelings resulting in a conscious phenomenon.

This is supported by Hacker, whose modern analysis concludes that the super-ego is created by reality.[286] Additionally, it is influenced by external stimuli that the ego has incorporated into its consciousness. Therefore, its origins can be conscious, and its implication depends on the stimuli, with religion being cited as an example. For example, a person questioning their views on sensitive religious topics such as abortion may logically ask themselves why they believe in their current view. If they concluded that religious influence had played a part upon reflection, then subsequent feelings of guilt or rewards are not unconscious. This is because they have been externally influenced within the conscious. This is supported within the literature when analysing the super-ego. Grey 1944 argues (building on Freud's original work) that there is a case that aspects of the super-ego are available at the surface of the conscious.[287]

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[284] Vallabh Vidhyanagar, Gujarat and Ankit Patel, 'Person of Issue: Sigmund Freud (1856-1939)', *International Journal of Indian Psychology* 1, no. 1 (22 December 2013): 1–8, https://doi.org/10.25215/0101.001. P.3
[285] Glen O. Gabbard, Bonnie E. Litowitz, and Paul Williams, *Textbook of Psychoanalysis* (American Psychiatric Pub, 2012). P.13
[286] Frederick Hacker, 'Psychiatry and Religion', *The Journal of Religion* 35, no. 2 (1955): P.82.
[287] Marc-Andŕ Bouchard and Serge Lecours, 'Analyzing Forms of Superego Functioning as Mentalizations', *The International Journal of Psychoanalysis* 85, no. 4 (2004): P.885.

This is further supported by Wilbur, who states that this ultimate stage of consciousness is the aim of therapy.[288]

Returning to Freud's and the previous consideration of the ego, Freud clarifies that the preconscious state has the most significant relations with the ego. Although initially placed in the conscious state, a revision of the model created a new framework in 1923.[289] This new framework is considered a more robust theory supported by clinical data.[290] To this end, certain aspects of the ego were categorised within the unconscious part of the psyche to reflect better the mental conflicts that exist.[291]

According to Freud, the iceberg analogy reflects the psyche from a conscious perspective as this active form of thought is visible to ourselves as a tip of an iceberg is visible to viewers. However, in both cases, one must acknowledge a relationship between the visible and that which lies beneath the surface. The iceberg analogy contains this relationship, as supported by the literature.

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[288] Ken Wilber, 'A Developmental View of Consciousness', *Journal of Transpersonal Psychology* 11, no. 1 (1979): P.16.
[289] Glen O. Gabbard, Bonnie E. Litowitz, and Paul Williams, *Textbook of Psychoanalysis* (American Psychiatric Pub, 2012). P.13
[290] Ibid P.13
[291] Ibid P.13

The second state within Freud's analysis of the psyche is the unconscious part. The unconscious is unexamined, hidden and represents the most significant portion of the mind, exactly as the base of the physical iceberg is.[292] Additionally, the unconscious consists of personality elements that the person is unaware of. Furthermore, within the unconscious exists the Id, which contains a person's primitive instinctual drives that provide the underlying causes of most behaviour.[293] It is stated within the literature that the unconscious mind acts as a repository of desires and wishes, which includes those ideas or memories deemed too painful to process within the conscious mind.[294] This happens automatically, through a split process which restricts access to the conscious mind in favour of the unconscious. This process can happen through the means of repression.[295]

Freud's theory of the psyche begins with Freud describing the mind as an iceberg. This is because the small part of our mental activity is visible, as is the tip of an iceberg. However, a relationship exists between the tip and that below the surface. Within the psyche, this refers to the unconscious. The unconscious makes up most of our mental activity in the same way as an iceberg's greatest amount of mass lies beneath the water. This state is hidden and unexamined but plays a crucial role in its connection to the conscious and, as such, our human behaviour in the same way the base of an iceberg, although hidden, plays a crucial role in supporting that part which is visible. Freud revised the states of conscious and unconscious to include subcategories. This revision better reflects the nature of the human psyche supported by clinical data, and this work has opened up a debate within the literature regarding its contents.

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[292] Vallabh Vidhyanagar, Gujarat and Ankit Patel, 'Person of Issue: Sigmund Freud (1856-1939)', *International Journal of Indian Psychology* 1, no. 1 (22 December 2013): https://doi.org/10.25215/0101.001. P.3
[293] Daniel K. Lapsley and Paul C. Stey, 'Id, Ego, and Superego', *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior* 2 (2011). P.5
[294] Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*. P.5

[295] Mcleod, '[Sigmund Freud's Theories]'.

2.

According to Freud, repression is a process where if a thought (which exists in the conscious mind) is too painful, the mind moves the thought (for it cannot be destroyed) to the unconscious part of the mind.[296] To this point, Freud states in his article Repression, "the essence of repression lies simply in the function of rejecting and keeping something out of the consciousness".[297] Freud further clarifies this process by explaining that the motive behind this process is intent; however, this does not mean that this is an explicitly conscious process, as some of the early interpretations of his work have suggested.[298] Furthermore, this consideration of the process and its foundations of intent concerning consciousness and unconsciousness is a source of debate within the literature that has been widely discussed.

There exists reasoning within the literature that Freud's introduction of repression indicates its role as a defence mechanism. The research indicates that repression acts as the most basic of defence mechanisms.[299] Therefore whenever painful memories threaten the ego, it protects itself by repressing them into the unconsciousness. As previously stated, the act of oppression is identified as a rudimentary defence mechanism; however, its efficacy is debated within the literature as the field evolved from the original analysis.[300]

[296] Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*. P.6

[297] Matthew Hugh Erdelyi, 'The Unified Theory of Repression', *Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 29, no. 5 (2006): P.500.

[298] Ibid P.500

[299] mishar, 'Create the EQ Modelling Instrument Based on Goleman and Bar-On Models and Psychological Defense Mechanisms', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 115 (21 February 2014): P.404 , https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.02.446.

[300] Simon Boag, 'Freudian Repression, the Common View, and Pathological Science', *Review of General Psychology* 10, no. 1 (March 2006):, https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.10.1.74. P.78

The first example of repression is a child encountering a spider and receiving a bite from it. If, subsequently, an intense phobia of spiders develops and the older self could not recall being bit by the spider, then the process of repression has occurred. The memories of being bitten by a spider were too painful for the conscious mind to cope with. Therefore it moved the memories into the unconscious part of the psyche automatically. As a result, the person deals with the consequences of this process (in this case, a phobia of spiders) without being able to recall its root cause.

The second example of repression is a child suffering from abuse by a responsible adult who later has no apparent memory of the events but cannot form relationships due to trust issues. In this example, the future self cannot form relationships due to trust issues and endures this symptom regardless of whether they are aware of this. The lack of identification for the reasoning of the symptom once again indicates repression has occurred.

3.

There is this consensus within the literature that Freud's view on anxiety evolved as he progressed in his work.[301] However, Freud was one of the first to explain the critical role anxiety has on neurosis and explain how humans live in a state of anxiety which is a common predicament.[302]

The first phase of Freud's theory on anxiety was the toxic theory which had roots in sexual theory.[303] Particularly regarding libido repression, which links to the next evolution of his views on anxiety. According to Freud, when the libido is repressed and satisfaction becomes elusive, such as interrupted sexual activity, a person develops anxiety.[304] The weakness of this early view is that it revolves around a single interpretation of the ailment in exclusively sexual terms. This is something that future successors of Freud have tried to move away from throughout the field. This evaluation is supported by Mercer's analysis of Jung's work.[305]

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[301] 'What Did Freud Say about Anxiety?', Freud Museum London, accessed 18 July 2022, https://www.freud.org.uk/education/resources/what-did-freud-say-about-anxiety/.
[302] Kennard, 'Freud 101: Psychoanalysis - Causes - Anxiety', accessed 18 July 2022, https://www.healthcentral.com/article/freud-101-psychoanalysis.
[303] Falk Leichsenring and Simone Salzer, 'A Unified Protocol for the Transdiagnostic Psychodynamic Treatment of Anxiety Disorders: An Evidence-Based Approach.', *Psychotherapy* 51, no. 2 (2014): P.224, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033815.
[304] Franz L. Neumann, 'Anxiety and Politics', *TripleC: Communication, Capitalism & Critique. Open Access Journal for a Global Sustainable Information Society* 15, no. 2 (27 June 2017):, https://doi.org/10.31269/triplec.v15i2.901. P.615
[305] Joyce Ann Mercer, 'The Idea of the Child in Freud and Jung: Psychological Sources for Divergent Spiritualities of Childhood', *International Journal of Children's Spirituality* 8, no. 2 (1 August 2003): 115–32, https://doi.org/10.1080/13644360304625. *Abstract*

The second theory Freud developed on anxiety was anxiety as the result of repression. To this end, Freud said that "anxiety arises out of libido by the process of repression."[306] This quote demonstrates that Freud's second theory was an evolution of the previous view and was still rooted in sexual theory, which is associated with the same criticisms as previously stated. In addition, this evolution of the previous theory rather than a new one demonstrates a lack of conviction and impact within this iteration. However, that is not an applicable criticism of Freud's overall view on the origins of anxiety. Freud claimed this act of repression within the sexual context was a social necessity and thus valid.[307] Therefore there is an argument that suggests that this iteration provided a necessary bridge to potential future revisions of the theory and thus increased the collective understanding of the subject matter.

Furthermore, this evolution reveals to analysts that Freud never gave up on the original premises in the future revisions that would co-insist with the previous ones.[308] Therefore, this revision demonstrates anxieties complexities for humans as well as the complexities in studying it. Freud's multi-theory approach supports this in addition to the revision-based history of Freud's view on the subject. This is also supported in more recent literature for this reason, as well as those anxieties linked with repression, which adds another complex layer to understanding and ultimately treating anxiety.[309]

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[306] 'What Did Freud Say about Anxiety?' 'What Did Freud Say about Anxiety?'

[307] Donald F. Klein, 'Historical Aspects of Anxiety', *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience* 4, no. 3 (September 2002): P.298

[308] 'Psychoanalysis - Theory Of Anxiety And Affects', accessed 18 July 2022, https://science.jrank.org/pages/10905/Psychoanalysis-Theory-Anxiety-Affects.html.

[309] Charles D. Spielberger, *Anxiety and Behavior* (Academic Press, 2013). P.9

According to Freud, the final view on anxiety is 'anxiety as a signal' as it is referred to in the literature.[310] Freud distinguished between anxiety as a signal and where anxiety is automatic and overrides the ego in a traumatic situation.[311] For example, the threat of losing a loved one or the prospect of being helpless. This provides more evidence of Freud seeing anxiety as a complex entity rather than based on a singular event. This is consistent with more recent research supporting the endurance of Freud's view.

Furthermore, Freud believed that the ego responds to threats that originate from the impulses of the Id with a signal of anxiety.[312] Therefore according to Freud, anxiety originates from conflict deep within the psyche affecting both the conscious and unconscious parts. As a result, this requires specific and lengthy analysis to overcome. In this view, the symptom of anxiety is regarded as a compromised outcome from the tension between the significant impulse and the defence against it that occur within the human psyche.[313] Furthermore, this view of anxiety (which reveals the complex interaction of psychological and biological factors) is consistent with modern research such as Gabbert 1992 and Miller 2005.[314] This consistency with more modern research provides a consensus that this can be utilised in research. This gives this view a significant advantage regarding validity compared to previous Freudian views on anxiety and its origins.

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[310] 'What Did Freud Say about Anxiety?' 'What Did Freud Say about Anxiety?'

[311] 'Anxiety | Psychology | Britannica', accessed 18 July 2022, https://www.britannica.com/science/anxiety.

[312] Falk Leichsenring and Simone Salzer, 'A Unified Protocol for the Transdiagnostic Psychodynamic Treatment of Anxiety Disorders: An Evidence-Based Approach.', *Psychotherapy* 51, no. 2 (2014):, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033815. P.224

[313] Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*. P.7

[314] [314] Falk Leichsenring and Simone Salzer, 'A Unified Protocol for the Transdiagnostic Psychodynamic Treatment of Anxiety Disorders: An Evidence-Based Approach.', *Psychotherapy* 51, no. 2 (2014):, https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033815. P.224

The Freudian view on anxiety and its causes was continued by Anna Freud, who explored the self-critical nature of the super-ego, which she stated led to anxiety.[315] This view links to modern documentation of increased anxiety through constant criticisms and comparisons to set standards of achievement and behaviour, something that Anna Freud revealed that links to our internal criticisms from the super-ego.[316] This further supports the relevance of Freud and the Freudian view on anxiety and its long-standing applicability. Additionally, this is supported by Sadler et al.. They state that anxiety of inadequacy will arise from a highly critical super-ego, which the research asserts is wide-reaching across society.[317]

The Freudian view on the origins and nature of anxiety suggests a complex and ever-evolving view. This is a limitation, especially when evaluating the validity of the Freudian perspective. However, it also demonstrates an understanding of anxieties' complex nature, as evidenced by the distinction Freud made in his later theories from signal anxiety and automatic anxiety and its biological and psychological factors, which is consistent with more contemporary research. Additionally, Anna Freud's work on the super-ego provides insight into the psyche's self-critical nature and the impact this has on anxiety. Furthermore, this phenomenon is extensively cited in the literature, demonstrating this research's widespread applicability.

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[315] Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*. P.14
[316] Karen Horney, *New Ways in Psychoanalysis* (Routledge, 2013). P.11
[317] Joseph Sandler et al., 'The Classification of Superego Material in the Hampstead Index', *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, 10 February 2017, https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/00797308.1962.11822841. *abstract*

Upon analysis, there is evidence that Freud's earlier understanding of anxiety and its origins were based on a solely sexual interpretation of the clinical material, which was criticised; however, the revisions from this stance have provided a greater understanding of anxiety and its origins. When considering the Freudian perspective on the origins of anxiety, the evidence suggests that despite earlier weaknesses of the view, the latest theory provides a clear insight into the subject matter in a way that is still consistent with some modern research.

4.

The first point to clarify regarding psychoanalysis is that, as Freud says, simply telling a patient about the cause and meaning of their symptoms will not provide a cure alone. Psychoanalysis does more than that. The theoretical foundation of it states that analysts act as a mediator between the conscious and the unconsciousness where painful feelings may emerge.[318] Additionally, Freud views the analyst as a gardener who will remove weeds that impact growth but not act as a cure to the problem.[319] This is because Freud believed that the material for the cure of the problem can only come from the patient themselves.[320] Furthermore, the therapy context arises when repressed memories (which occur when they are too painful for the conscious endure) are bought into the consciousness.[321] This makes the patient aware of their existence, for example, in the case study of Elizabeth Von R (See appendix A). Furthermore, the analyst must allow for gratification to enter the therapy where appropriate so that frustration and excessive regression do not emerge.[322] This is a delicate balance for the analyst, which is why specific training in the field is required for this treatment to be effective, according to Freud.[323]

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[318] Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*. P.10
[319] Robert B Ewen, *An Introduction to Theories of Personality* (Psychology Press, 2014). P.39
[320] Pamela Thurschwell, *Sigmund Freud* (Routledge, 2009). P.19
[321] Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*. P.11
[322] Pamela Thurschwell, *Sigmund Freud* (Routledge, 2009). P.19
[323] Oxbridge, *Unit 7 Text Book*. P.10

Psychoanalysis allows for the psychic tension (when a conflict exists between ideas and incomplete feelings through the conscious (ideas:) and unconscious (feelings)) to be revealed from the symptom.[324] This occurs when the strong emotional responses are revealed in a mediated environment where the patient has the greatest chance.[325] According to Freud, this is where the patient lies on a couch away from the analyst, allowing the patient to focus without distraction from the analyst's involuntary non-verbal responses. Furthermore, the analyst says little to promote careful frustration, with leads to new material that evades the unconscious defences. Therefore, in this treatment, the repressed feelings and thoughts that exist in the unconscious are to enter the consciousness.[326] This makes the patient aware of these thoughts and feelings in a favourable environment over a long course of treatment.[327]

The effectiveness of psychoanalysis as a treatment, especially in a contemporary context, is widely debated and not discussed here. However, one criticism that is relevant to the analyst role that has been examined exists. Eagle cites a prevalent criticism of narrative truth whereby an analyst only has the ability to construct a new narrative for the patient rather than gain objective knowledge of the patient's mind.[328] Therefore this criticism states that an analyst is limited in what they can offer the patient, which is a persuasive narrative that the patient can understand and hopefully find helpful.[329] Furthermore, Eagle argues that Freud found this criticism to be the most damning and potentially revealing why such a debate exists over this question within the relevant literature.[330]

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[324] Marjorie Brierley, 'Affects in Theory and Practice', *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis* 18 (1937): P.256
[325] Pamela Thurschwell, *Sigmund Freud* (Routledge, 2009). P.29
[326] Robert B Ewen, *An Introduction to Theories of Personality* (Psychology Press, 2014). P.39
[327] Ibid P.40
[328] Morris N Eagle, 'Psychoanalysis and Its Critics.', *Psychoanalytic Psychology* 24, no. 1 (2007): P.15
[329] Ibid P.15
[330] Ibid P.16

This criticism links to the question of the analyst's ability to improve the self-awareness of the patient through their therapeutic treatment. The evidence shows a strong theoretical basis for analysts increasing patient awareness through psychoanalysis. This occurs by provoking the retrieval of painful memories and feelings from the unconscious to the conscious. However, as previously discussed, the issue of narrative truth brings into question whether this self-awareness is patient-orientated or something that is the unconscious product of the analyst intervention.

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Vallabh Vidhyanagar, Gujarat, and Ankit Patel. 'Person of Issue: Sigmund Freud (1856-1939)'. *International Journal of Indian Psychology* 1, no. 1 (22 December 2013): 1–8. https://doi.org/10.25215/0101.001.

Freud Museum London. 'What Did Freud Say about Anxiety?' Accessed 18 July 2022. https://www.freud.org.uk/education/resources/what-did-freud-say-about-anxiety/.

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Appendices.

Appendix A

Studies in Hysteria (Elizabeth von R.) the patient refused to admit to herself that she was in love with her brother-in-law. When her sister died, an upsetting thought entered her mind: 'now he is free to marry me'. This unwelcome wish had to be immediately repressed – her conscious mind could not allow it in because of the guilt she immediately felt for thinking it. Because it was repressed from her mind it returned, acted out on her body, as a hysterical symptom.

Pamela Thurschwell, *Sigmund Freud* (Routledge, 2009). P.21

Section 8 - The Person-Centred Approach of Mental Health

1A.

According to Rogers, a consequential reaction exists because of the inherent need for positive regard within people.[331] This occurs when this positivity is absent or as a result of anxiety (Rogers first proposed this in 1956, and more recent research has suggested that the response to anxiety is the result of a complex relationship between psychological and biological factors) or when an internal conflict emerges with prior held beliefs.[332] An example is circumstances not evolving how we wanted them to and without the direct means to change them.[333] The behaviour resulting from this is called defensive behaviour.

These defensive mechanisms detach the person in small ways initially from their reality. As this continues, the literature states that the person will become confused, vulnerable and dissatisfied as they refuse reality in favour of preconditioned ideas.[334] This contrasts with the harmonious person whose self-image is flexible and realistically adjusts to new experiences. These benefits include allowing the possibility to access profound, more fulfilling experiences.[335] As such, Rogers states that people should experience the world as it is rather than what people think it should be.

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[331] Frank Fincham, *Psychology* (Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing, 2005). P.297
[332] Nik Ahmad Hisham Ismail, 'Rediscovering Rogers's Self Theory and Personality' 4, no. 3 (2015): 8. P.147
[333] Carl Ransom Rogers, *On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy* (Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 1995). P.165
[334] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour 7th Edition* (Hachette UK, 2015). P.726
[335] My Oxbridge, *Unit 8 Text Book*, 2022, 8. P.5

Defensive behaviour takes on different forms, but according to Rogers, denial and distortion are the most common.[336] Firstly denial occurs when a person unequivocally rejects the possibility of a situation or feeling that provokes a conflict with a previously held reality or personal view.[337] It is important to point out that this behaviour may be unconscious, and the person may have little to no awareness of the cause of the conflict. The second behaviour distortion occurs when the reality of the situation is so unpalatable that a dose of self-enhancing spin is required for the person to cope.[338] This happens in a positive manner but involves the denial of the full spectrum of emotions associated with the event resulting in an artificial snapshot of the experience.[339] In certain circumstances, this could lead to a significant psychological issue with emotional understanding and processing that could result in a limited emotional range from this defence behaviour requiring therapeutic intervention to process these experiences fully.

On the surface, these behaviours could appear to offer immediate release to the person and are favourable (especially with distortion that positively reframes experiences). However, the reality is different. Rogers clarifies that persistent defensive behaviour will result in false unsocial behaviour as the person continues to reject reality.[340] Furthermore, this will harm relationships as the person is increasingly likely to make socially destructive decisions because of the type of behaviour utilised.[341] Additionally, persistent defensive behaviour will hinder any potential therapeutic relationship.[342] Overall this analysis shows the negatives of persistent defensive behaviour, while a realistic, flexible approach to life's experiences has more obvious benefits.

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[336] Brian Thorne and Pete Sanders, *Carl Rogers* (SAGE, 2012). P.31
[337] Ibid P.31
[338] Brad Bowins, 'Psychological Defense Mechanisms: A New Perspective', *The American Journal of Psychoanalysis* 64, no. 1 (March 2004): 1–26, https://doi.org/10.1023/B:TAJP.0000017989.72521.26. P.7
[339] Oxbridge, *Unit 8 Text Book*, 8. P.4

[340] Rogers, *On Becoming a Person*. P.34
[341] Ibid P.110
[342] Ibid P.110

1B.

Rogers believed that unconditional self-acceptance or unconditional positive regard (as it is also referred to within the literature) and that acceptance of others is vital for high self-esteem.[343] Additionally, according to Rogers, when this is not fully formed for the self, others can and should provide this.

The first example of unconditional acceptance is a parent not offering their love to a child based on actions or situations, for example, getting good grades at school or completing chores around the house.[344] This example is the most cited within the literature as an example of a widely understood relationship based on unconditional acceptance.

The second example is cited by Rogers when he describes a therapist offering enduring support, care and acceptance for their client regardless of actions.[345] This occurs without suppressing their emotions or using the client for their emotional needs. With this example, the personal perspective originates with the client.[346]

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[343] Paul Wilkins, 'Unconditional Positive Regard Reconsidered', *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling* 28, no. 1 (February 2000): 23–36, https://doi.org/10.1080/030698800109592. P.24
[344] Oxbridge, *Unit 8 Text Book*, 8. P.6
[345] Wilkins, 'Unconditional Positive Regard Reconsidered'. P.24

[346] Carl R Rogers, 'The Necessary and Sufficient Conditions of Therapeutic Personality Change.', *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 21, no. 2 (1957): P.95.

The third example involves child's play and the responsible adults supervising. Landreth 1993 says that this unconditional acceptance of the young child allows the child's natural behaviour to enter the environment, allowing them to self-direct themselves within their play and make mistakes safe from an adult's criticism or judgement.[347] Additionally, this ensures the relationship endures these moments because of this attitude to the child's benefit, for the child learns about positive interactions and their worth from observing others' reactions.[348] With this example, the personal perspective originates with the child towards the responsible adult as they cannot easily distinguish different types of relationships at this stage.

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[347] Agnieszka Swarra et al., '17. The Meaning of Teacher's Unconditional Positive Regard towards Students in Educational Contexts', n.d., 7. P.113
[348] Richard Gross, *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour 7th Edition* (Hachette UK, 2015). P.561

2.

Dear Amy,

Congratulations on your forthcoming gap year, which I hope you will find rewarding as well as enjoyable. I understand you have some internal conflict regarding your itinerary for the year, and I would like to take this opportunity to advocate a project supporting sick children in hospitals. Which I believe you will find fulfilling despite your reservations. In this email, I will advocate this project and address your reservations in three key points.

Firstly it is important to stress that this will not be an easy project. There is no advantage to spinning it into something that it is not. This will only cause a greater shock and internal conflict when you begin. However, I am convinced that you will find meaning and fulfilment in providing these children with your empathy and care, something that we all need and something the children are especially receptive to. This reality makes you such an ideal person for these children as your circumstances allow you to provide these children with undivided emotional support.

As I said previously, this will not be without negative moments. These children are sick and in pain, which is challenging to confront. Many avoid confronting this reality by denying its emotional significance or distorting the truth and convincing themselves that there is nothing they can do. However, you are in a position to do something, but to offer that support, you must confront the pain the child is in, the helplessness of their family and the sad reality of their passing. By facing and enduring this reality, you will bestow the gift of understanding, care and support, which is in short supply for these children and their families.

My third and final point is some advice on preparing and responding to the negative emotions that you will have. Regarding preparation, I advise you to be flexible in understanding the situation and your expectations of events. This will ensure that you avoid prolonged internal emotional conflict that will make the experience harder. Furthermore, when responding to negative emotions and experiences, do not deny yourself the emotional response you will feel. Additionally, try not to spin the realities of the situation; instead, be open and talk about your experiences. This will allow you the complete emotional response and give you the opportunity to process. Communication in situations like this is critical, and you may always contact me if you desire.

As I said at the beginning of this email, this will not be an easy project. However, with the right attitude and understanding (something I believe you possess), this project has the opportunity to provide you with fulfilment and a real sense of service, something I know you will only build upon in the future.

Kind regards,

Ollie.

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Appendix

1: Research Parameters

Section 1

1. According to Galen's Theory of Personality, explain the three domains of the human psyche.

2. Describe the four humours (or temperaments).

3. Compare different types of memory e.g. implicit and explicit memory.

4. Critically evaluate the nature and nurture debate in psychology with examples.

5. Explain the importance of twin and adoption studies in psychology.

6. Analyse human intelligence.

Section 2

a) Describe the hypothesis Ebbinghaus derived from the 'forgetting curve'.

b) According to Ebbinghaus, what are the two best methods for increasing the strength of memory?

c) Explain what a 'flashbulb' memory is, providing examples.

2

Compare and evaluate the semantic vs. episodic model of memory with the seven sins of memory theory. In your answer, consider which approach would be more helpful if you were planning psychological interventions for patients who suffer from memory lapse.

Section 3

a) Define obsessional thoughts with two examples.

b) Discuss psychological interventions that can be used to treat compulsive behaviour rituals.

c) Examine why many therapists favoured the cognitive psychology approach rather than psychoanalysis from the 1960s onwards.

2.

Use a chart or table to develop a six-week desensitisation programme for a patient with a specific phobia e.g. a dog phobia.

Section 4

a) From a Vygotskian perspective, what three types of learning are involved in passing cultural tools from one individual to another? Give an example for each type.

b) Describe the principles of Bandura's social learning theory with three examples of its applications in today's classroom e.g. reinforcement.

c) Define 'radical behaviourism' OR 'latent learning.' Provide examples.

d) Explain the two main principles of Gestalt psychology and describe how Tolman used these principles to develop cognitive mapping e.g. in the maze experiment.

2. Complete ONE of the following:

a) a storyboard explaining Skinner's Incremental Learning Programme. A storyboard uses images and text to explain something in sequence,

Section 5

a) Evaluate the four attachment styles; provide descriptions and critiques of each.

b) Describe four behaviours associated with avoidant attachment in children.

c) Outline four positive interventions that could be used to support children exhibiting behaviours associated with avoidant attachment.

d) Using examples, describe the four factors that influence early cognitive development.

e) Explain holistic development and normative development. Provide examples.

2.

b) Discuss the main features of the following theories of cognitive development (approximately 200 words for each theory):Piaget, Vygotsky, Bruner.

Section 6

1) In the context of social media use (and misuse), describe the 'looking glass self' theory OR Freud's view on self-esteem. Use this as a basis to discuss how social media can have a negative impact on self-esteem

2) Describe, providing examples, each level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Discuss the criticisms attached to these and state your reasoning as to whether you agree or disagree to these

3) In your own words, given your knowledge of developmental and individual psychology, read and disseminate this article: Paula Lavis Resilience and Results: How Promoting Children's Emotional and Mental Wellbeing Helps Improve Attainment.

This article looks at why children and young people's1 mental health and emotional wellbeing

is such an issue and why it is essential that they receive appropriate support when problems first emerge. In particular it will focus on the Children & Young People's Mental Health Coalition's work connected to schools. The Children & Young People's Mental Health Coalition (Coalition2) brings together 14

leading children's and mental health charities to

campaign with and on behalf of young people in relation to their mental health and wellbeing. We have a shared vision of a nation where mental health is prioritised, positive mental health is promoted and early intervention practices are in place to secure mentally healthier futures for children and young people.

Our priority areas include promoting early intervention and ensuring that support is easily accessible for young people when mental health

problems first emerge; and ensuring that everyone working with young people receives appropriate training about mental health and child development. With this in mind, the Coalition has been working to help schools understand the importance of mental health and how to support their students.

What is Mental Health?

People often confuse the term 'mental' with mental health problems. The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines mental health as being 'a state of wellbeing in which the individual realises his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community' (WHO. 2011). This definition illustrates that mental health is a positive term and a key component of health and is similar to other terms, such as, emotional wellbeing and psychological wellbeing.

Mental health problems refer to a wide range of difficulties, which vary in their persistence and severity. Mild problems are at one end of the spectrum and severe mental illness at the other.

Risk and Protective Factors
for Mental Health

It is well-established that children and young people who experience certain risk factors are at

a greater risk of developing mental health problems. These risk factors can be within the child, within the family and within their

environment (Department of Health, 2008). The

more risk factors experienced, the greater the chance they will develop mental health problems. Research has found that 28% of young children are growing up in households with more than one risk factor, and with some experiencing five or more risk factors (Sabates and Dex, 2013). Outcomes for cognitive, emotional and conduct development and hyperactivity were all worse for children exposed to multiple risks by age five (Sabates and Dex, 2013).

Conversely, there are well known protective factors, which help build resilience in the child and reduce the risk of mental health problems developing. These factors include: having higher levels of self-esteem, being securely attached to a main carer, having a good support

network, having a good relationship with your

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Resilience and Results: How Promoting Children's

Emotional and Mental Wellbeing Helps Improve Attainment

1 The term young people will be used throughout this article to refer to both children and young people.

2 Coalition is used throughout this article to refer to the Children and Young People's Mental Health Coalition, and doesn't refer to the Coalition
Government.

parents, good housing and having access to schools with strong academic and non-academic

opportunities (Department of Health, 2008). This is why early intervention is so crucial, both in terms of working to reduce the impact of risk factors and helping the child be more resilient and able to cope with the difficulties they may face.

Why Young People's Mental Health
is an Issue

One in 10 young people are known to have a mental disorder (Green et al., 2004). Mental health problems often have their roots in childhood, so tackling problems when they first emerge is both morally right and cost effective (Department of Health, 2011). Mental health problems in childhood are associated with poor

outcomes in adulthood. For instance, people

who had severe conduct problems in childhood
were more likely to: have no educational qualifications, be economically inactive and have been arrested (Richards et al., 2009).

How Mental Health Problems Impact on Educational Attainment

Mental health problems have a profound effect on the educational attainment of some young people.

● Young people with persistent conduct or emotional disorders are:

o more likely to be excluded from school
o more likely to be assessed as having special educational needs, and
o more likely to leave school without educational qualifications (Parry-Langdon, 2008)

● Young People with emotional problems are:

o much more likely to do poorly at school
o they are twice as likely as other children to have marked difficulties in reading, spelling and mathematics (Green et al., 2005)

● Young people with conduct disorders and hyperkinetic disorder may be four to five times more likely to struggle to attain literacy and numeracy skills (Green et al., 2005)

● Young people with higher levels of emotional wellbeing have higher levels of academic attainment and are more engaged in school (Morrison & Vorhaus, 2012).

Training in Mental Health and Emotional Wellbeing

The Coalition is concerned that most teachers have no or little training in mental health and emotional wellbeing, and child development. This is a big issue given the prevalence of mental health problems and the impact mental health difficulties have on the child and the rest
of the school, including the teachers. While we know that many schools really do understand the importance of promoting children and young people's mental health and emotional wellbeing, and see it as their business, others do
not.

Anecdotally, we have heard that schools are not always good at engaging with their pupils' mental health. To support this finding, a recent study found that a problematic pupil-teacher relationship significantly increased the odds of a child having a psychiatric disorder or conduct
disorder (Lang et al., 2013). While not causal, there is a clear association between developing
a psychiatric condition and a poor pupil-teacher

relationship. In another study concerning eating
disorders, 16% of young people said that staff had little or no knowledge about eating disorders (Knightsmith et al., 2013). Worryingly
only 1 in 10 young people thought that their school would provide a supportive environment for someone recovering from an eating disorder (Knightsmith et al., 2013).

This lack of training is not just the responsibility of schools. It is something that the
Government needs to address through teacher training. Hopefully the MindEd e-portal (2013), which the Government are funding, will help provide school staff with some knowledge about mental health. This portal will provide free online education to help adults to identify and understand children and young people with mental health issues. The National Association of Independent Schools and Non-Maintained Special Schools (NASS) (2012) have
also produced an eLearning training resource, which is called Making Sense of Mental Health.

This training pack is aimed at staff working in schools with children and young people who have complex Special Educational Needs (SEN).

Schools can help by encouraging their staff to complete this on-line training or to ensure that 32 Education and Health Vol.32 No.1, 2014 they develop their knowledge of mental health in other ways.

Ensuring that school staff have training in mental health and emotional wellbeing is important in light of the SEN reforms.

Government have proposed in the SEN Code of
Practice that the Behaviour, Emotional and Social Difficulties (BESD) category be revised and renamed as Social, Mental and Emotional Health (Department for Education, 2013).

Schools will need to be able to identify emerging mental health problems. So additional
training in mental health will be essential if school staff are to be able to do this.

Helping Schools promote their Pupil's Mental Health and Emotional Wellbeing

Schools have a responsibility to look after and nurture their pupils. There is some research that
shows that young people would rather speak to
their teacher about their problems, than go to their GP or a mental health professional (Right Here Brighton and Hove, 2012; Green, et al.,

2004). School staff are in a good position to help
reduce the stigma around mental health, identify emerging mental health difficulties and work with local statutory and voluntary sector providers to help ensure that young people access specialist support when they need it. There are lots of things that schools can do to help support young people's mental health, and
for that reason the Coalition (2012) have produced a guidance document for schools called Resilience and Results. This document aims to encourage schools to think about how they can promote mental health within their school and provide additional support for those with mental health problems. It includes case studies, which illustrate what support is available, and quotes from young people, parents, and teachers.
A whole school approach to promoting mental health within schools is a way of putting in place the right systems and developing the right culture for this to be implemented. It has been shown that to achieve
this head teachers and senior staff need to be effective leaders and champion mental health (Durlak and DuPre, 2008). Research has found
that a lack of leadership around emotional and mental wellbeing has a detrimental impact on the implementation of this vital work (Kendall, et al., 2013). The study by Kendall et al. (2013)
found that staff often didn't feel they were supported by managers to participate in the mental health promotion project being implemented within their school. A school culture that doesn't support help-seeking may discourage pupils accessing emotional support.
There are opportunities to use existing lessons and other systems that already exist within the school. A good pastoral system and staff such as learning mentors, teaching assistants, higher
level teaching assistants and school nurses are
all important resources to draw on to help children and young people who are experiencing difficulties.
PSHE lessons could potentially be used to increase young people's knowledge of mental health and wellbeing, increase their emotional literacy and reduce stigma. The young people that Coalition members work with have all experienced mental health problems; and they told us that they didn't learn about mental

health within their PSHE lessons. Most of these
young people were very frightened and distressed when they started to experience mental health difficulties, and if they had learnt about this subject at school, they said they would have felt less frightened and more empowered to help themselves.
OFSTED (2013) has reported that 40% of schools' PSHE provision required improvement
or was inadequate. OFSTED (2013) also asked a
panel of young people what they would like to learn about in school, but currently didn't. Young people told them that mental health issues were at the top of their list, with:
• 38% wanting to learn how to deal with bereavement
• 33% wanted to know how to cope with stress
• nearly a third wanted to know more about eating disorders such as anorexia
Embedding mental health and emotional wellbeing education within other subjects is one
additional method of ensuring young people learn about this important topic. For example, English lessons could cover literature and poetry that deals with distress; students could learn about the mind, brain, emotions and medication through science lessons; the importance of exercise and nutrition in the context of mental health could be covered in 33 Education and Health Vol.32 No.1, 2014 physical education and food technology; and pupils could be encouraged to identify and express emotions through their music, art and drama classes.

Commissioning External Support
These days head teachers have more control over their own budgets, so are in a position to develop or commission services that are tailored
to the needs of their school. There are a number
of different types of support that the school can
commission. This might be commissioning an external organisation to provide mentors, or a mindfulness course. Some schools already employ their own counsellor, or commission an
agency to provide counselling. The Coalition would advocate the latter, as there are a number
of safeguarding issues that need to be addressed, such as whether they are suitably qualified, how their practice is supervised and so on.

While this work isn't free, there is good evidence to show that you get a good return on your money. A cost-effectiveness analysis conducted on behalf of the Department of Heath found that every £1 spent on the prevention of conduct disorders through social and emotional based interventions in school gave a total return of nearly £84 (Knapp, et al., 2011). So in the current economic climate, investing in school based services to support children and young people's mental health makes both financial and clinical sense.

Resilience and Results from the Coalition (2012) gives schools some guidance about commissioning external services and provides links to other resources which have more of a focus on commissioning, such as the BOND Consortium (2013). The focus in *Resilience and Results* is on how the voluntary sector can help and, with that in mind, it includes examples of how these organisations are working to support schools. However, there will also be statutory services such as educational psychology services and possibly private sector services that will also be able to help schools support the mental health of their pupils.

How Schools are Promoting Mental Health

The Coalition held a competition in 2013 to find out how their guidance*, Resilience and Results*, was being implemented in schools and to identify good practice in supporting pupil's emotional and social development. A panel of educational and health professionals, with input from young people, picked the winners. The competition was generously funded by the Zurich Community Trust

The competition winner was the Kings Hedges Educational Federation, which is a Cambridgeshire primary school and nursery for 357 pupils aged 3-11. This school impressed the judges by really putting wellbeing at the centre of their work. They have used their Pupil Premium money and other funds to help all pupils by providing universal support, and they have commissioned targeted services aimed at those who are more vulnerable. For instance, they provide lessons to help all early years' pupils to relax; they have commissioned a

counseling service called *Blue Smile*; and they also have the *Red Hen project*, which works with parents.

The runner ups were the Newall Green High School, which is a mixed sex secondary school and sixth form centre in Greater Manchester; and the Epsom Downs Primary School & Children's Centre, which is based in Surrey. A highly commended award was given to The Harbour School, a special school in Portsmouth, which adopted a collaborative approach across the school to facilitate interagency working.

Further information about the winners can be found on our website - http://www.cypmhc. org.uk/schools_competition_2013/

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Section 7

1) Explain why Freud said that the human mind is like an iceberg.

2) Define 'repression' with two examples.

3) Critically evaluate Freud's view on the origin of all anxiety.

4) Examine how psychoanalysts intervene to improve patients' self-awareness and resolve their issues.

Section 8

1.

a) Outline the function of defensive behaviour, as described by Carl Rogers.

b) Give three examples of unconditional acceptance in familial or other close personal relationships.

2.

Compose an email to convince a gap year student of the benefits of spending time on a project that they fear will create negative emotions. Examples could include visits to a developing country, or spending time in a hospital for sick children. In your email, convince the gap year student to confront the possible negative responses they may experience and describe how to prepare for and respond to these feelings. Use principles outlined by Carl Rogers to develop your points.