Assumption 2: The Unconscious Mind

- Freud believed that the majority of what goes on in our minds occur in the unconscious and preconscious mind.
- The conscious mind is logical, whereas the unconscious mind is not and is ruled by pleasure seeking.
- Freud believed that much of our behaviour is determined by the unconscious mind and that we are motivated by unconscious emotional drives.
- Conflicts between the id, ego and superego create anxiety, and so the ego protects itself with various ego defences.
- Displacement – transfer of impulses from one person or object to another.
- Projection – undesirable thoughts are attributed to someone else.
- Repression – pushing painful memories deep down into our unconscious mind so they are effectively forgotten.
Freud’s Dreamwork Processes

- **Condensation:**
  Dream thoughts are rich in detail but these are condensed to the brief images we experience during a dream. One dream image stands for several associations and ideas.

- **Displacement:**
  The emotional significance of a dream object is separated from its real object/content and attached to a different one so that the dream content is not censored.

- **Representation:**
  A thought is translated into visual images.

- **Symbolism:**
  A symbol replaces and action, person or idea.

- **Secondary elaboration:**
  The unconscious mind collects all the different images and ties them together to form a logical story, further disguising the latent content. The dream material may be supplied from a recent event in a person’s life.
Evaluation of Dream Analysis

- **Research evidence:**
  Freud’s idea of the id expressing itself through dreams has been supported by Solms 2000 study. Solms used PET scans to highlight regions of the brain active during dreaming. The results showed that the rational part of the brain is inactive during REM sleep, whereas centres concerned with memory and motivation are very active.

  Another source of support comes from Hopfield et al on neural networks. These are computer stimulations that mimic the action of the brain. They show that neural networks deal with an overloaded memory by condensing memories. This supports Freud’s notion of condensation within the dreamwork process.

- **Methodological issues:**
  Much of the research into dreaming is conducted in sleep laboratories. Therefore, the sleep the individuals experience may not be as authentic as when they fall asleep in natural conditions. We cannot generalise these results to usual sleep experience and therefore, the ecological validity of dream research is questioned.

  Many studies into dreaming are conducted on humans and animals that have been deprived of sleep or particular stages of sleep. Significant disruption will impair important biological functions such as the secretion of hormones. These may act as confounding variables.

- **Subjective interpretation:**
  Interpreting manifest content and coming up with its underlying meaning relies on the subjective interpretation of the therapist. The dreams being interpreted is a subjective report of the dreamer and therefore may be unreliable information.
Bowlby wanted to find out whether early separation from a child and his/her mother could explain 'habitual delinquency.'

The experimental group was of 44 child thieves who attended a child guidance clinic. The sample consisted of 31 boys and 13 girls aged between 5 and 17 years. They were graded in terms of seriousness of their stealing, grade 4 being the highest. 22 children were grade 4. They were mainly of average intelligence.

A control group consisted of a further 44 children from the same clinic and were similar in age, sex and IQ to the experimental thieving group. They were emotionally disturbed like the experimental group, but did not steal.

The sample was obtained by opportunity sampling.

Each child was given mental tests by a psychologist to assess their intelligence. The psychologist also noted their emotional attitude. A social worker interviewed the child’s mother and recorded details about the child’s early psychiatric history. Both the psychologist and the social worker reported to Bowlby who then personally interviewed the child and the mother.

Many of the children continued to meet with the psychiatrist weekly over a period of around 6 months. These meetings and discussions enabled a detailed case study to be recorded and also enabled the psychiatrist to diagnose the children’s emotional problems.
Assumption 2: Behaviour is learned through conditioning

• In CLASSICAL CONDITIONING, behaviours are learned through association.
• We can be conditioned or trained to associate stimuli to provoke certain responses.
• In OPERANT CONDITIONING, new behaviours are learned through reinforcement and punishment.
• A positive reinforcement is a reward to encourage an individual to repeat their behaviour.
• A negative reinforcement strengthens behaviour by taking something unpleasant away.
• For example, completing homework may mean you AVOID detention.
• Punishment weakens behaviour and should decrease the likelihood that the behaviour will reoccur.
Assumption 3: Humans and animals learn in similar ways

- We are able to study animal learning in a laboratory environment and make generalisations about behaviour.
- For example, Pavlov’s experiment on his dog has been applied to humans in behaviourist therapies such as systematic desensitisation – the patient can learn to associate feelings of relaxation with their phobia.
- Operant conditioning has also been applied to humans through the use of positive reinforcement where, for example, children who behave well get a reward like a sticker or gold star. Similarly, negative reinforcement takes place in school where a teacher may confiscate a child’s phone in order for them to complete their work.
Systematic Desensitisation: Evaluation

- **Research support**
  Capfons et al. found that patients with a fear of flying showed less signs of fear whilst in a flight simulator after a 12-25 week treatment period, where both in vivo and in vitro techniques were used. Barlow & Lehman found that 90% of patients with a fear of injections and injury were cured after 5 sessions of SD.

- **Not appropriate for all phobias**
  Seligman argued that humans are genetically programmed to learn association between life-threatening stimuli and fear. Therefore, it is not a result of conditioning but instead is because of our ancestry.
  
  The concept of biological preparedness would explain why people are much less likely to develop fears of modern objects such as toasters that are much more of a threat than spiders; these items were not a danger in our evolutionary past. This concept has been supported by Bregman, who failed to condition a fear response in young infants by pairing a loud bell with wooden blocks.

- **Symptom substitution**
  SD may not work with certain phobias because the fear may be the tip of the iceberg. SD may remove the symptoms but if the cause still remains, the symptoms will re-appear. For example, Freud believed phobias develop because of projection. He recorded the case of a boy who was afraid of horses. His actual problem was that he had an envy for his father but passed these feelings on to the horse. The phobia was cured when he accepted his feelings about his father.
Loftus & Palmer: Conclusions

• The findings indicate that the form of a question (in this case, a single word) can affect a witness's answer to that question.

• **RESPONSE BIAS FACTORS**
  The different speed estimates occur because the critical word (e.g. ‘smashed’ or ‘hit’) biases a person’s response.

• **MEMORY REPRESENTATION IS ALTERED**
  The critical word changes a person’s memory to that their perception of the event is affected. Some critical words would change a person’s perception and make them believe it to be more serious.

• If it is true that the memory is altered, then we would expect people to ‘remember’ other details that are not true. In the ‘smashed’ condition, the word used forms a memory of an accident that appears quite severe and therefore generates certain expectations, for example that there is likely to be broken glass.

• The findings from experiment 2, that more people in the smashed condition reported seeing broken glass, suggest that the effect of leading questions is not the result of response-bias, but that the memory is actually altered because of leading questions.

• Carmichael et al found that verbal labels cause a shift in the way information is represented in memory, in the direction of being more similar to the suggestions given by the verbal label.
Evaluation of cognitive approach:

Strengths

• Meditational processes
  Cognitive psychology focuses on processes that occur between stimulus and response. Psychologists have used the approach to explain how important meditational processes such as perception and memory affect the way we respond to the world around us.
  Cognitive psychologists look at ways of improving memory using retrieval cues. Such research can show us why we need to make shopping lists etc.

• Important contributions
  As well as being usefully applied in therapy such as CBT to successfully treat disorders like depression, it has also been applied to developmental psychology.
  PIAGET developed a theory that suggested children’s thinking is not the same as adults. He suggested that children aged 8 and 9 cannot think in the abstract; if they are to solve a mathematical problem, for example, they must see it in concrete form, such as using counting blocks. This idea had a major effect on education as teachers realised it was important to use concrete examples on younger children, and therefore changed teaching methods within schools.
  Additionally, cognitive psychology ahs advanced memory research. The work of Elizabeth Loftus showed that eyewitness accounts can be easily distorted by post-event information. This lead to the abolishment of leading questions and further influenced interviewing techniques.

• Scientific approach
  The cognitive approach lends itself to objective and controlled scientific research. For example, research into memory has mainly been conducted under strict, laboratory conditions. Also, in more recent times, memory research has involved using brain scanning techniques such as PET and MRI scans to pinpoint specific areas of the brain as opposed to using guesswork.
  This field is known as cognitive neuroscience. It is devoted to pinpointing exact locations of the brain to establish which parts are active and responsible for different things. Cognitive neuroscience is also useful in trying to understand what the brain does when it is ‘at rest,’ therefore effectively studying all areas of the brain.
Evaluation of cognitive approach: Weaknesses

- **Nature and nurture**
  The cognitive approach does consider both internal factors (processes within the mind) and external factors (development of schemas), it fails to consider both nature and nurture. For example, the role of genes in human cognition is ignored, even though research into intelligence has consistently looked at the influence of genes.

  Additionally, social and cultural actors are also ignored. For example, Piaget failed to consider the role of culture and gender on the development of thinking in children.

- **Determinist approach**
  People acquire schemas through direct experience and social interactions, and they have a significant influence on our behaviour. Our schemas, however, allow us to form stereotypes about people and situations, for example that robbers always wear a ski mask, or that people with glasses are intelligent. These stereotypes, however, may determine the way we interpret situations and approach different people.

- **Mechanistic approach**
  The cognitive approach portrays human behaviour like that of a machine; one of the assumptions compares our brains to a computer. This means that it often ignores social and emotional factors. The cognitive perception of mental illnesses would see a depressed person to have faulty thinking patterns that can be changed. However, the cause of the depression may lie in significant events such as divorce or death of a loved one. Changing the thinking patterns may help them, however they can never be fully cured unless the underlying cause is taken away. In many cases, this is not possible.
Assumption 2: Authenticity of goodness and excellence

- States that the feelings of happiness are as natural as feelings of anxiety and stress, and therefore psychologists need to assign these positive states of mind equal attention.
- According to Seligman, the belief that traits such as happiness are less authentic than negative traits such as anxiety has been an obstacle in psychological research.
- Seligman believes that we have inherent traits or ‘signature strengths’ such as kindness, generosity and humour. These traits need to be nurtured in order to lead a positive life.
- Psychology traditionally focuses upon mental health problems and negative states of mind; positive psychology aims to change this and focus on the good things in life rather than the worst.
- Rather than trying to fix what is wrong, a positive psychologist will facilitate positive well-being.
- It aims to alleviate mental illnesses such as depression by focusing on traits that produce excellence (e.g. altruistic behaviour) and helping people understand that these traits can be further developed.
- The positive approach suggests that such understanding will act as a buffer to protect the individual from future mental health problems.
Mindfulness: Evaluation

• Integration with other therapies
  Mindfulness techniques have become incorporated with other therapies such as psychoanalysis and cognitive-behavioural therapy. Mindfulness-based CBT incorporates mindfulness with CBT. Traditionally, CBT attempts to identify and modify people’s unrealistic thoughts, but MiCBT helps to change the process of thinking, not just the content of our thoughts. Thus mindfulness is evidently a successful technique.

• Application in Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy (MBCT)
  MBCT has been used to prevent those suffering from depression from relapse. TEASEDALE ET AL evaluated the effectiveness of MBCT across 145 recurrently depressed patients. Patients were randomly allocated to receive treatment as usual as well as 8 MBCT classes. The study found that MBCT provided the greatest help to those who had relapsed more frequently. It substantially reduced the risk of relapse in those who had 3 or more previous episodes of depression.

• Application in Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction (MBSR)
  MBSR was developed for use in general hospitals with patients suffering from conditions which may be painful, chronic, terminal or disabling.
  REIBEL ET AL reported that MBSR decreased levels of anxiety and depression in 136 patients who participated in an 8 week mindfulness programme involving 20 minutes of meditation per day. These results were seen a year later.

• Group versus individual mindfulness
  There is evidence to suggest that mindfulness meditation is more effective in group settings. Research found that participants in a group setting lost more weight and lowered their levels of cognitive-behavioural avoidance than those who tried to lose weight individually. These participants practised mediation for 6 weeks with their group or individually. This shows that the benefits on individual mindfulness need to be viewed with caution.
Location of research
Cognitive; The reliability of eyewitness testimony (including children)

Post event information

In Loftus and Palmer’s classic research, the information “suggested” after the event became incorporated into the original memory; participants were shown clips of a car crash then split into groups. They were all asked “how fast were the cars going when they hit each other?” The blanks was replaced by a different adjective for each group. The groups where the adjective was more dramatic (such as “smashed”) predicted a higher speed than those who had the word “bumped” or “contacted.”

Loftus and Zanni reported similar results. 7% of those asked “did you see the broken headlight?” reported seeing one, whereas 17% of those asked “did you see the broken headlight?” reported seeing one. Also, some research suggests that post event information is misleading. Loftus showed participants an image of a man stealing a large, red purse from a woman’s handbag. The P’s were later exposed to information containing subtle errors, although they were often wrong about unimportant items, 98% of the participants correctly remembered that the purse was red. This suggests that eye witness recollection of key details may be more resistant to distortion from post-event information.

Memory is reconstructive

Information already held in our schemas may distort new information; we would try to fit it in to suit our schemas and logic. In our criminal schema we will have an expectation of what a criminal would like look, influenced by TV, media, news etc. These expectations may become incorporated with our memory when we have to recall information about a crime, leading to inaccuracies in recall.

One study showed that students had similar ideas of what a ‘good guy’ and a ‘bad guy’ looked like, therefore suggesting that stereotypes could lead us into wrongly convicting someone of a crime. Eyewitnesses may not select the actual criminal, but perhaps the person who looks like a criminal.

Allport and Postman showed white participants a picture of a white man holding a black man at knifepoint. When asked to recall the event, they misremembered the black man as the mugger.

In many crimes, eyewitnesses know the perpetrator of the crime and so they don’t need to refer to their schemas. RapeCrisis report that 90% of rapists are known to their victims. This means that the eyewitness’s ability to identify the attacker is likely to be very reliable, even when the crimes are traumatic.

When research is conducted with eyewitnesses to real-life crimes, their accuracy is much higher than that suggested by lab-based research. The recollections did not fade over time and the eyewitnesses were not susceptible to leading questions (Yuille & Cutshall).

Sometimes our schemas can help us remember an event more accurately; One study showed that participants, after witnessing a video of a bank robbery, recalled more details that fitted with the stereotype of a bank robber (such as the bank robber being male). The participants were also good at remembering counter-stereotype information, for example that the robbers didn’t have guns; this shows that schemas don’t always interfere with our memory.

Child witnesses

Children as eyewitnesses are often regarded as unreliable as they are more easily swayed by the suggestions of others and prone to fantasy. One study review showed that children under the age of 5 were less likely than older children or adults to correctly identify a target individual in a line-up. Children aged 5-13 did not differ significantly in identifying the target individual, however they were more likely to make a choice (which was inevitably wrong) when the target individual was not even present. This suggests that children are more sensitive about doing what they are asked; they feel they can’t say ‘no’ and have to give some answer. Therefore children may be less reliable and sensitive to leading questions.

Some research suggests that all age groups are most accurate when recognising an offender from their own age group; this could mean that using children to identify adults might be unreliable.

Davies et al found that children aged 6-7 and 10-11 are fairly accurate in their memories of an event; they do not make things up or deliberately lie. Their memory for important details is not significantly altered by leading questions.

Some research suggests that all age groups are most accurate when recognising an offender from their own age group; this could mean that children might be more reliable to use as an eyewitness when identifying another child.