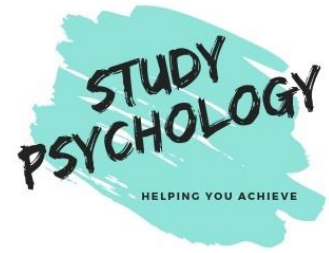


FACTBOOK

AO1 and AO3

APPROACHES





Approaches

Origins of Psychology

Wundt & Introspection

Introspection can be used to describe both an informal reflection process and a more formalised experimental approach.

Introspection involves informally examining our own internal thoughts and feelings.

When we reflect on our thoughts, emotions, and memories and examine what they mean, we are engaging in introspection.

The term introspection is also used to describe a research technique that was first developed by psychologist **Wilhelm Wundt**.

Introspection is the process by which a person gains knowledge about their own mental and emotional states.

Introspection is also known as experimental self-observation.

Wundt's technique involved training people to carefully and objectively as possible analyse the content of their own thoughts.

Wundt developed the technique of 'introspection'. This is how people gain knowledge about their own mental and emotional states.

In 1879 **Wundt** opened the first scientific laboratory dedicated to studying Psychology.

Wilhelm Wundt wanted to make psychological analysis more scientific.

Wundt wanted to standardise procedures for studying mental processes.

Wundt tried to isolate the structure of consciousness which became known as structuralism.

Wundt is believed to be the founder of modern Psychology.

Wundt developed the Institute of Experimental Psychology in the University of Leipzig.

Evaluation

Wundt developed standardised techniques which have high reliability.

Lab experiments are highly controlled and can be replicated easily, making them more reliable.

Lab experiments manipulate and control variables making them very objective.

High levels of control in the lab, make experimental research more scientific.

Lab experiments aim to control extraneous variables, which may disrupt the true findings of the research.

One limitation of introspection is it can be very subjective.

Introspection is based on subjective analysis of your own thoughts, which is not scientific.

Wundt's approach to introspection may lack temporal validity.

Participants engaging in introspection, may display demand characteristics.

Some people may not tell the truth when asked to describe their thoughts or feelings.

Wundt's research set the foundation for other approaches like the cognitive and behavioural.

Psychology as a Science

The scientific method starts with a theory/ idea from which a hypothesis is then formulated in order to test this idea.

The scientific method conducts experimental research to make a conclusion about behaviour. This can then be evaluated.

Science uses paradigms to illustrate a shared set of beliefs. Most traditional sciences have one key paradigm that all researchers support, however in Psychology, we have several paradigms.

The different approaches in Psychology are known as paradigms.

Kuhn (1962) claimed that all sciences must have a paradigm; a unique set of beliefs or principles that people work with.

Kuhn (1962) argued that Psychology was not a science as it has multiple paradigms.

In Psychology each approach holds a shared set of beliefs and all supporters agree that this is the case.

Popper (1959) proposed the idea of falsification. This aims to refute theories; can we prove them to be wrong? If a theory is falsified it becomes discredited and should be rejected.

We cannot ever disprove/ falsify a theory unless we stringently test the idea using precise hypotheses.

Empirical evidence refers to data collected through direct observation or experiment.

Objectivity means researchers should remain unbiased and minimise sources of bias.

Control involves controlling extraneous variables to establish cause and effect.

Hypothesis testing involves making predictions that can be tested and verified.

Replication refers to the ability to repeat a method and obtain similar results.

Predictability aims to predict future behaviour based on research findings.

The scientific process involves formulating theories, generating hypotheses, and testing them through observations and experiments.

Psychology emerged as a scientific discipline in the late 1800s, with **Wilhelm Wundt** establishing the first Psychology lab in 1879.

Cognitive Psychology adopts a scientific approach to unobservable mental processes.

The Humanistic approach rejects the scientific viewpoint and values subjective conscious experience.

The behaviourist approach began around the 1900s with scientists such as **John Watson**.

Behaviourism follows general laws and principles when explaining behaviour. These should be objectively tested and measured.

The cognitive approach used scientific experiments to test internal mental processes.

The cognitive approach kicked off in the 1950s but many studies like **Loftus'** were conducted in the 70s.

Science evolved quickly in the 1980s and 90s and scientific equipment such as brain scans have helped make behavioural assumptions more objective.

Towards the end of the last century science and cognition merged to form areas of study such as cognitive neuroscience.

Evaluation

Lab experiments aim to control extraneous variables, which may disrupt the true findings of the research.

High levels of control in the lab, make experimental research more scientific.

Lab experiments are highly controlled and can be replicated easily, making them more reliable.

Lab experiments manipulate and control variables making them very objective.

Adopting a scientific approach is useful as it allows for more reliable conclusions to be formed.

Many areas of Psychology aim to be scientific, as it adds more credibility.

Objective methods in Psychology allow for more reliable and credible conclusions.

Learning Approaches

The behaviourist approach focuses on observable events, and behaviourists believe that much of human behaviour can be explained in terms of a basic form of learning known as conditioning.

Classical and operant conditioning make up the behaviourist approach.

Behaviourism is primarily concerned with observable behaviour, as opposed to internal events like thinking and emotion.

Behaviourists believe people do not have free will in that a person's environment determines their behaviour.

Behaviourism suggests when we are born our mind is 'tabula rasa' (a blank slate).

The learning approach believes that the external environment shapes our behaviour (nurture debate).

Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is learning through association.

Classical conditioning assumes that we learn through association. For example, we have learnt to associate the colour red with hot and the colour blue with cold, when referring to water taps.

Drivers have learnt to associate red traffic lights with stop and green with go.

Classical conditioning uses the principle of stimulus-response (SR).

Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) a Russian physiologist received a Nobel Prize for his work on digestion in dogs.

Pavlov stumbled across the idea of classical conditioning in his experiments with dogs in 1927.

Classical conditioning was suggested by **Pavlov** following his work with digestion in dogs.

Pavlov's dogs, restrained in an experimental chamber, were presented with meat powder whilst having their saliva collected via a surgically implanted tube in their saliva glands.

The dogs would salivate at the sight of food. This is an innate, automatic reaction. The food acts as the unconditioned stimulus (UCS). The salivation is the unconditioned response (UCR).

Pavlov paired the meat powder with various stimuli such as the ringing of a bell. After the meat powder and bell were presented together several times, the bell was used alone.

In **Pavlov's** experiment the bell eventually became the conditioned stimulus (CS).

At the beginning of **Pavlov's** study the bell was a neutral stimulus (NS) and had no impact on the dogs response.

Classical conditioning is creating new learning when a neutral stimulus is consistently paired with an unconditioned stimulus.

Before conditioning, we have automatic, innate responses to stimuli.

During conditioning, we learn to make new associations.

After conditioning a new conditioned stimulus is associated with the now conditioned response.

In **Pavlov's** experiment at the beginning the unconditioned stimulus (UCS) was the food.

In **Pavlov's** experiment at the beginning the unconditioned response (UCR) was to salivate.

During **Pavlov's** experiment the unconditioned stimulus (UCS) was paired with the neutral stimulus (NS) over time.

After **Pavlov's** experiment the neutral stimulus (NS) becomes the conditioned stimulus (CS), creating a conditioned response (CR).

Evaluation

Classical conditioning has useful applications in Clinical Psychology, as treatment programmes such as systematic desensitisation.

Classical conditioning can help children learn new information by making associations.

Lab experiments allow cause and effects to be tested.

Most research is done in a lab so has high reliability.

As most of the research is done in a lab setting it lacks ecological validity.

Classical conditioning ignores any biological explanations for behaviour.

Classical conditioning does not account for the role of cognition in behaviour as this is not observable.

Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning is learning through trial and error using reinforcement & punishment.

Operant conditioning uses reinforcement to encourage behaviour to continue.

B.F. Skinner (1904 -1990) was an American psychologist believed to be the founding father of behaviourism. He suggested reinforcement was primary in the shaping of behaviour.

Skinner developed the 'Skinner Box' to show the effects of reinforcement on the behaviour of rats.

Rats were placed in the Skinner box and through trial and error discovered the lever which released food pellets. They then learnt that by pressing the lever food could be released. This is an example of positive reinforcement.

Positive reinforcement strengthens a behaviour by providing a consequence such as giving a reward.

Negative reinforcement encourages a behaviour to continue by taking away something unpleasant.

Negative reinforcement strengthens behaviour because it stops or removes an unpleasant experience.

Punishment is the opposite of reinforcement since it is designed to weaken or eliminate a response rather than increase it.

Primary reinforcement is a type of reinforcement that satisfies an individual's basic needs, such as food/ water or sex (essential for survival).

Secondary reinforcement is a type of reinforcement which becomes associated with the primary reinforcement. It is anything the individual/ animal has to learn to regard as positive through experience (e.g. money).

The law of reinforcement suggests a positive reward/reinforcement (e.g. food/praise) increases the chance of learning a behaviour.

The law of contiguity suggests that we associate things that occur close to each other in time and space (thunder & lightening).

Schedules of reinforcement can be used in the learning process.

Continuous reinforcement gives a reward after every response the animal makes. For example, a rat will receive a pellet of food after every lever press.

Partial reinforcement gives a reward after only some responses. Skinner found four schedules of partial reinforcement.

Fixed ratio schedule when a reward is given after a certain number of responses. For example, a food pellet after every 8 presses on the lever.

Variable ratio schedule is when a reward is given after a certain number of responses. For example, food mostly after 8 presses, but there is sometimes a reward after the 6th press and sometimes after the 10th press.

Fixed interval schedule is when a reward is given following the first response after a certain interval of time. For example, food for a lever press every 5 minutes.

Variable interval schedule is for example, when the food reward is given about every two minutes (sometimes 1.5 minutes, sometimes 2.5 minutes). Intervals can vary.

Thorndike (1898) thought that learning happens by trial and error.

Evaluation

In practice operant conditioning can be an effective way for both humans and animals to learn.

Weiss & Wilson (2003) used positive reinforcement to train 4 tortoises to approach a target and hold their head still while touching it. They were given food as a reward for doing this. Training the tortoises to do this meant that it would be easier to take blood samples from.

Operant conditioning has good application in real life with token economy programmes.

Token economy programmes work well in schools, hospitals and prisons and are an ethical way of learning.

Many of the experiments were carried out under controlled conditions in the lab, so can be replicated easily.

Many of the lab experiments are standardised and controlled making them more reliable.

Lab experiments lack ecological validity.

Many of the early animal experiments broke ethical guidelines as they exposed them to unpleasant stimuli.

Many of the experiments use animals which cause problems for generalisation.

Operant conditioning ignores cognitive factors in learning.

Operant conditioning does not account for innate abilities or biological factors in behaviour.

Animals are learning unnatural behaviours that they would not do in the wild (e.g., pressing a lever).

Breland & Breland (1961) tried to train pigs to put a wooden token into a piggy bank. The pig would then get a reward. However, the pigs would not do this, so this technique does not work with all animals.

Operant conditioning does not consider other forms of learning such as observational learning. **Sherry & Galef (1984)** found that birds learnt to open a tub of cream by watching other birds do it.

Social Learning Theory

Albert Bandura devised the social learning theory (SLT).

The social learning theory was devised in the 1960s following behaviourism.

The SLT states that learning can occur directly (classical & operant conditioning) and indirectly.

The social learning theory (SLT) suggests that learning is through observation, imitation and modelling.

Social Learning assumes that we learn from the people in our social environment through 'modelling' (copying social role models).

Modelling takes place when an individual identifies with a role and imitates their behaviour.

The SLT also suggests that vicarious reinforcement can be used to aid learning.

Vicarious reinforcement is when someone observes another person receiving reinforcement, so imitates their behaviour to hopefully receive the same reward.

The social learning can also be called observational learning.

Bandura introduced mediational processes which are mental (cognitive) factors that intervene in the learning process to determine whether a new behaviour is acquired or not.

Bandura introduced the ARRM theory in 1977.

Bandura created the ARRM theory to explain mediational processes in social learning.

Mediational processes proposed by Bandura are attention, retention, reproduction and motivation.

In the ARRM theory attention (A) is whether we notice the behaviour.

In the ARRM theory retention (R) whether we retain and remember the behaviour.

In the ARRM theory reproduction (R) is whether we are able to perform/ reproduce the behaviour.

In the ARRM theory motivation (M) is whether the perceived rewards outweigh the perceived costs, so how motivated we are to reproduce the behaviour.

Bandura (1961) demonstrated his ideas using his Bobo doll experiment.

Evaluation

Great deal of supporting research for the SLT from **Bandura** and others.

Bandura (1961) found that children will imitate aggressive behaviour if they observe a role model acting that way.

Bandura (1977) found that children who watched violent TV programmes were more likely to act aggressively towards others than those who did not watch them.

Cook (1988) supports the SLT in animals as it was found that reared Rhesus monkeys, which initially displayed no fear of snakes, displayed alarm after watching the reaction of wild monkeys to snakes.

The SLT has lots of practical applications in helping parents and teachers understand how children learn.

The SLT can help us understand how people are influenced by role models.

Bandura's SLT has been used to help our understanding of media influence on behaviour.

Bandura (2001) found that watching violence on the internet was linked with increased levels of aggression among young adults.

SLT accepts that cognitive processes are also involved in learning.

Many experiments were in the lab, making them more reliable.

The SLT supports the nurture debate in Psychology.

The SLT has been criticised for making little reference to biological factors influencing behaviour.

The SLT is deterministic as it suggests situational variables cause behaviour to occur.

A limitation of using the SLT to explain learning is that it does not take into account individual differences between people. For example, some people may be more susceptible to social influences than others.

The SLT also fails to consider the impact of culture on learning. Different cultures have different norms about what behaviours are acceptable so this could affect which behaviours we choose to copy from others.

Many of **Bandura's** early studies used children as participants, which is more unethical.

Many of Bandura's early studies used children as participants which is at greater risk of demand characteristics.

The Cognitive Approach

The cognitive approach assumes that behaviour is the result of internal mental processes, such as memory, perception and thinking.

Internal mental processes involve how we process information to guide our behaviour.

Schemas are cognitive frameworks that help organise and interpret information.

Theoretical models are simplified representations of mental processes based on research evidence.

Computer models use computer analogies to represent human cognition, so the mind works like a computer.

The cognitive approach takes a scientific approach using the experimental method.

The cognitive approach uses computer models to explain human cognition, but there are important differences between computer processing and human processing.

The cognitive approach takes a scientific approach, using the experimental method to collect and evaluate evidence.

The computer analogy suggests that information comes in an input, gets processed, before being stored or deleted as output.

Memory is the process by which we store and retrieve information.

Information Processing is the method, in which information is taken in by the senses, analysed and responded to.

Cognitive processing can be affected by an individual's beliefs and expectations; these are called schemas.

Schemas allow us to process information quickly which is a useful skill.

Information processing occurs in sequential stages; input, process, output.

Cognitive neuroscience is the study of the brain structures and how they influence our internal mental processes.

The field of Cognitive Neuroscience concerns the scientific study of the neural mechanisms underlying cognition and is a branch of neuroscience.

Methods employed in Cognitive Neuroscience include psychophysical experiments, functional neuroimaging, electrophysiological studies of neural systems and, increasingly, cognitive genomics and behavioural genetics.

Brain scans such as fMRI's can show brain activity whilst people are undergoing a particular task or activity.

Evaluation

Cognitive approach takes a scientific approach and uses experimental methods, which is very reliable.

Cognitive neuroscience studies the neural bases of cognitive functions using brain imaging techniques, which are very objective.

Theoretical models such as the multi-store model of memory have been used to explain how information is processed.

Many experiments were conducted in the lab, making them more reliable.

The cognitive approach aims to be scientific, by objectively measuring internal mental processes.

The cognitive approach has been instrumental in helping us understand how memory works, particularly in the area of eyewitness testimony.

The cognitive approach has many practical applications in therapy such as CBT for depression or schizophrenia.

Computer models use computer analogies to represent human cognition which are abstract concepts, so may not apply to human emotion.

One limitation of the cognitive approach it is based on machine reductionism, which decreases the validity.

Computer models may not accurately represent human information processing.

The cognitive approach may lack ecological validity and the computer models used may not fully capture human information processing.

Humans make mistakes and forget, unlike computers.

Limitations of the cognitive approach include the lack of focus on emotion and motivation and the use of artificial test materials.

The cognitive approach is argued to be too simplistic as it ignores the role of human emotion in behaviour.

The cognitive approach is founded on soft determinism, which suggests there is an element of free will in our decision making.

The Biological Approach

The biological approach assumes all behaviour is innate.

The biological approach studies genetics, biochemistry and the brain.

The biological approach uses scientific methods to measure behaviour.

Genetic explanations of behaviour focus on inherited characteristics.

Genetic explanations use twin studies to support their findings, especially MZ twins who share 100% of their DNA.

Concordance rates are used in twin studies to tell us the level of agreement between the characteristics, the higher the concordance rate, the greater the genetic similarity.

Concordance rates are usually measured by a % giving a level of agreement.

Twin studies include MZ (identical) and DZ (non-identical) pairs.

Identical twins share 100% of their DNA and non-identical twins share 50%.

The genotype is the genetic make-up of an individual (actual DNA).

The phenotype is the way genes are expressed through physical characteristics.

The most important biological structure in behaviour is the brain, which consists of 2 cerebral hemispheres called the cerebrum.

One way messages are passed within the brain is by neurotransmitters.

Neurochemistry refers to the actions of chemicals in the brain, such as neurotransmitters.

Dopamine, serotonin and noradrenaline are examples of neurotransmitters.

The brain has many parts such as the limbic system which is linked to aggression and the hippocampus which is thought to be where short-term memory occurs.

Hormones are a way messages are passed around the body.

The biological approach supports the nature side of the debate.

Evolution is the process by which a species adapts to its environment.

Genetic material is passed on through generations by the process of reproduction.

Darwin suggested natural selection increases the chances of a species survival.

Natural selection is the process whereby organisms better adapted to their environment tend to survive and produce more offspring.

Natural selection is now regarded as the main process that brings about evolution.

Evaluation

The biological approach uses the scientific method as its main method of investigation, which is objective and reliable.

Experiments take place in highly controlled environments so that other researchers can replicate the research, increasing the internal validity.

There are significant applications of biological research in the real world such as drug therapy.

Understanding the biology of an individual can help predict their future behaviour.

Studying the brain is useful, so comparisons can be made to help brain-damaged individuals.

Scanning techniques are used to study the brain which are very objective.

The biological approach uses scientific methods to explain behaviour.

Having an understanding of neurotransmitters means drugs such as SSRIs for depression can be used successfully.

The biological approach is very deterministic as it assumes behaviour is pre-determined by biological processes.

The biological approach is very reductionist as it aims to find one underlying cause for behaviour.

Reductionism is the belief that complex human behaviour can be explained by breaking it down into its smallest parts, such as the action of genes, neurochemicals and hormones.

We cannot fully understand a behaviour without taking account of the other factors that influence it, such as cognitive, emotional and cultural factors.

The Psychodynamic Approach

The psychodynamic approach originated with the work of **Sigmund Freud**.

Freud was the founding father of the psychodynamic approach.

Freud was best known for the development of 'talking therapies' or counselling.

Freud believed in the existence of a part of the mind that was inaccessible to conscious thought.

Freud's theory of the unconscious mind can be explained using an 'iceberg' analogy.

Freud believed that most of our everyday actions and behaviours are not controlled consciously but are the product of the unconscious mind.

The preconscious mind contains thoughts and memories which are not currently in conscious awareness but can be accessed easily.

The mind actively prevents traumatic memories from the unconscious from reaching conscious awareness because these memories might cause anxiety.

Freud divided the mind into three structures, each of which demands gratification, but is frequently in conflict with the other parts.

Freud believed that instincts of sex and aggression drive behaviour.

Freud referred to sexual instincts as the life instincts energy, essential for survival, driven by the libido.

Freud developed a theory of personality to explain how basic instincts played a part within our unconscious mind, and how this manifests itself in our characteristics and traits.

Freud's theory of personality has three parts; id, ego and superego.

The id is the pleasure principle, the ego is the reality principle and the superego is the morality principle.

The id operates solely in the unconscious mind and acts according to the pleasure principle.

The ego mediates between the impulsive demands of the id and the reality of the external world (the reality principle).

The ego compromises between the impulsive id and the moralistic superego.

The superego is the moral side of our personality, which often make us feel guilt or shame.

Freud said that when things go wrong in our lives, which we cannot deal with, we develop defence mechanisms.

Defence mechanisms prevent the mind from feeling pain and anxiety.

Defence mechanisms include repression, displacement and denial.

Repression is the unconscious blocking of unacceptable thoughts and impulses by pushing them deep into the unconscious mind.

Repression is also known as motivated forgetting.

Denial is the refusal to accept reality to avoid having to deal with any painful feelings that might be associated with an event.

Displacement involves the redirecting of thoughts and feelings, which are usually hostile or negative onto someone or something else.

Freud developed the psychosexual stages to outline infantile sexuality.

Freud's theory of psychosexual development also outlines how experiences in our childhood influence our adult personality.

There are 5 stages of psychosexual development.

The 5 stages of psychosexual development are oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital.

Oral stage (0-2 years) focuses on the mouth as a point of pleasure, satisfying the libido.

People who were believed to be fixated in the oral stage, developed adult habits such as smoking or biting their nails.

Anal stage (2-4 years) focuses on the anus as a point of pleasure, satisfying the libido. Some people become fixated and develop personality traits in adulthood that reflect this.

People who were believed to be fixated in the anal stage, developed traits such as neatness (anal retentive) or messiness (anal expulsive).

Phallic stage (4-6 years) focuses on the genital area as a point of pleasure, satisfying the libido. This is where boys and girls experience different complexes.

Freud suggested that boys go through the Oedipus complex in the phallic stage of development.

Freud suggested that girls go through the Electra complex in the phallic stage of development.

In order to resolve the Oedipus and Electra complex children must identify with the same sex parent.

Latency stage (7+ years) is seen as a 'latent period' as not much happens sexually. The focus is on other aspects of development.

The genital stage (12+ years) is from puberty onwards where the focus is on the opposite sex.

The psychodynamic approach also explores early childhood experiences, and interpersonal relationships to help explain human behaviour and to treat people suffering from mental illnesses.

Catharsis is the useful release of negative emotion, experienced in therapy.

Evaluation

Psychotherapy is a practical application of **Freud's** theories.

Freud & Breuer brought 'cathartic therapy' as therapeutic method into modern Psychology.

Pascual-Leone & Greenberg (2007) presented evidence that states processing emotions in therapy is a significant step towards positive change.

Fisher & Greenberg (1996) summarised 2,500 studies and found support for the existence of unconscious motivation in human behaviour as well as for the defence mechanisms of repression, denial and displacement.

It was the first approach to suggest a psychological, rather than a biological, treatment for disorders such as depression.

The case study of Little Hans (**Freud, 1909**) supports many of the ideas in the psychodynamic approach.

Does not take into account importance of social learning from outside the family such as media influences.

Alternative ideas like behaviourist theories would explain childhood behaviour as being due simply to classical and operant conditioning.

Karl Popper argued that the psychodynamic approach does not meet the scientific criteria for falsification.

The psychodynamic approach is not open to empirical testing.

Does not take into account the physical or biological aspects of behaviour.

The psychodynamic approach ignores the importance of genetic factors.

We cannot prove/ disprove or even measure the unconscious mind.

Freud's theories cannot be tested but also cannot be falsified.

The psychodynamic approach uses case studies which are very limiting and cannot easily be generalised to others.

Much of the research is observational or based on self-reports, which are subjective.

Much of the supporting research was by **Freud** himself, which is subjective.

Many children in today's society are successfully brought up by one parent, which is not acknowledged by **Freud's** ideas.

The psychodynamic approach is gender-biased, which limits its validity.

The psychodynamic approach is believed to be deterministic (psychic determinism).

Humanistic Psychology

Humanistic Psychology focuses on the individual and believes everyone is in charge of their own destiny.

The humanistic approach focuses on the unique nature of an individual and their free will to behave as they wish.

According to humanism, behaviour is not constrained by either past experience of the individual or current circumstances.

Humanistic psychologists focus on the self as a centre for understanding behaviour.

The self is the humanistic term for who we really are as a person.

Maslow (1943) was interested in human potential, and how we fulfil that potential.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is an idea in Psychology proposed by American psychologist **Abraham Maslow** in 1943.

From the bottom of the hierarchy upwards, the needs are physiological (food and clothing), safety (job security), love and belonging (friendship), esteem, and self-actualisation.

To reach the top of the hierarchy individuals must reach self-actualisation.

Self-actualisation is what a person's full potential is and the realisation of that potential.

Another fundamental psychologist in humanistic Psychology was **Carl Rogers**.

Carl Rogers devised a humanistic therapy called client-centred therapy.

Rogers stated for a person to "grow", they need an environment that provides them with genuineness, acceptance and empathy.

According to **Rogers** genuineness is an openness and ability to have the confidence for self-disclosure.

Rogers outlined people need acceptance (being seen with unconditional positive regard) and empathy (being listened to and understood).

Rogers believed that every person could achieve their goals, wishes, and desires in life.

The humanistic approach states that the self is composed of concepts unique to ourselves, known as the self-concept.

There are 3 parts of the self-concept; self-worth (or self-esteem), self-image (how we see ourselves) and ideal self (the person who we would like to be).

According to **Rogers (1959)**, we want to feel, experience and behave in ways which are consistent with our self-image and which reflect what we would like to be like, our ideal self.

The closer our self-image and ideal self are to each other, the more consistent or congruent we are and the higher our sense of self-worth.

A difference may exist between a person's ideal self and actual experience; this is called incongruence.

A person is said to be in a state of incongruence if some of the totality of their experience is unacceptable to them and is denied or distorted in the self-image.

The closer our self-image and ideal self are to each other, the more congruent we are and the higher our sense of self-worth.

Carl Rogers (1951) viewed the child as having two basic needs: positive regard from other people and self-worth.

Rogers believed feelings of self-worth developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father.

Rogers believed that we need to be regarded positively by others; we need to feel valued, respected, treated with affection and loved.

Unconditional positive regard is where parents or significant others accept and love the person for what he or she is.

Conditional positive regard is where positive regard, praise, and approval, depend upon the child, for example, behaving in ways that the parents think correct.

A person who constantly seeks approval from other people is likely only to have experienced conditional positive regard as a child.

Evaluation

The humanistic approach is holistic, as it does not try to break down behaviours in simpler components.

Humanistic Psychology is not reductionist, opting to take a more holistic view.

The humanistic approach is holistic, as it does not try to break down behaviours in simpler components.

The humanistic approach recognises both nature and nurture; nature through influences from biological drives and needs, and nurture from a person's experiences of perceiving and understanding the world.

Client-centred therapy has helped develop the principles of modern day counselling.

Client-centred therapy focuses on the present rather than dwell on the past unlike psychoanalysis.

A practical application of client-centred therapy is useful as it aims to increase self-worth and decrease the incongruence between the self-concept and the ideal self.

Humanistic Psychology has given rise to a new way of looking at people's needs, e.g. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is widely used in health and social work as a framework for assessing clients' needs.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been used to explain motivation in the workplace.

The humanistic is short on empirical evidence to support its ideas.

The humanistic approach does not scientifically measure thoughts or behaviours so is less objective than other approaches.

Many aspects of humanistic Psychology are difficult to break down and objectively measure.

The humanistic approach is very subjective as it is based on unique feelings or experiences.

It uses methods that gather qualitative data such as unstructured interviews or participant observations, which can be more biased.

Many ideas in the humanistic approach are believed to be culturally biased to more individualistic cultures (western).

Comparison of Approaches

The psychodynamic approach gives the most comprehensive view of child development compared to other approaches.

Both the psychodynamic and cognitive approach developed stages of child development.

The cognitive approach gives an environmental view of development compared to the biological approach.

The humanistic approach is very focused on the self, compared to the other approaches.

The biological and some aspects of the psychodynamic approach support the nature debate.

The cognitive and learning theories support the nurture debate.

Most of the approaches in Psychology adopt a reductionist view, but humanistic tries to take a more holistic approach.

The cognitive approach adopts a machine reductionist view of behaviour.

The learning theories adopt an environmental determinist view.

The biological approach adopts a biologically deterministic view.

The psychodynamic approach adopts a psychic determinist view.

The humanistic approach adopts free will as a main perspective.

Hard determinism is seen in approaches like biological and behaviourist/ learning theories.

Humanistic approaches are more in line with soft determinism.

Idiographic approaches study more unique individual behaviour such as in the humanistic approach.

Nomothetic approaches like the learning theory and cognitive approach are more likely to study people in large groups.

Many psychologists will take a multidisciplinary approach which combine values and beliefs from several approaches to explain behaviour.

Adopting a more eclectic approach by combining assumptions from several approaches may be more useful.

