

Lesson 1

THE NATURE OF PERSONALITY THEORY

What sort of creatures are we?”

1-Individual differences - Of the several billion people who presently inhabit the earth, no two individuals are exactly alike even the identical twins. Personality psychology is concerned with the differences among the people

.Objectives of Personality Psychology

The personality psychology is directly concerned with the problem of understanding human personality within the framework of the science of psychology. Scientifically based concepts and methods of personality psychology will ultimately prove to be of most value in understanding the complex nature of human behavior.

- (1) To have a general, integrated and clear concept about Personality
- (2) To understand personality assessment
- (3) To identify several important Theories of Personality
- (4) To identify key themes in Theories of Personality.

What makes personality psychology a science?

The process of converting speculations or opinions or beliefs about human nature into concepts that can be studied and tested empirically it is a process beset by many hazards; indeed, efforts to establish a “science of persons”. It may seem fascinating to try to gain insight into the causes of our behavior and development. Psychologists resist to objectifying personality within the field of psychology, because it undermines human uniqueness and complexity instead, they concentrate on the qualities of human beings such as literature, art, history and religion which may each provide valuable insights into human behavior. A second objective of personality psychology is to help people live their lives more fully and satisfyingly by finding ways to promote more healthy patterns of growth. These efforts include new forms of psychotherapy, various special learning programs, and changes in the psychological environment intended to permit people to develop to their full potential.

Theories of Personality

Different systems of consistent group of concepts called theories of personality. Each theory is about human nature and the goal of each theory is the understanding of the diversity and complexity of the whole person functioning in the real world. Theory refers to unsubstantiated hypothesis or speculation concerning reality that is not definitely known but when a theory has confirmatory data or evidence it is a fact.

1. A theory is useful when it can efficiently generate predictions and propositions
2. A theory should contain two parts a cluster of relevant assumptions systematically related to each other and a set of empirical definitions

What purpose do theories of personality serve?

Theories of personality represent elaborate speculation or hypotheses about why people behave as they do and they serve the following functions

1. A personality theory is descriptive. In other words, a theory provides a meaningful framework (i.e. a kind of map) for simplifying and integrating all that is known about a related set of events. A good personality theory, then, provides a meaningful context within which human behavior can be consistently described and interpreted.
2. A theory should not only describe past and present events but also predict future ones. The second function of a personality theory is therefore to provide a basis for the prediction of events and outcomes that have not yet occurred.
3. This purpose clearly implies that a theory's concepts must be testable and capable of being confirmed or disconfirmed. For example, a theory should furnish a basis for predicting specific changes in Raymond's behavior as a function of parental treatment. What will happen if his mother actively encourages these feelings? Not only should such general predictions be possible but, ideally, the concepts of a theory should be formulated to permit rigorous and precise empirical testing.

How we can evaluate Personality Theories?

Given the sheer number of alternative personality theories, how do we evaluate the relative merits of each? The most puzzling question that comes to your mind is what criteria can be used to evaluate a theory? We believe that six major criteria can be employed to evaluate personality theories and each personality theory should satisfy each of these criteria to some extent in order to receive a positive and satisfactory evaluation. We will describe these criteria, compare and contrast the theories in terms of these six criteria.

1. **Verifiability:** A theory is positively evaluated to the degree that its concepts lend themselves to verification by independent investigators. This means that a theory must be stated in such a way that its concepts are clearly, explicitly defined and logically related to one another so that the theory can be empirically tested. This requirement has been exceedingly difficult for personologists to demonstrate even a moderate amount of empirical validation for their theoretical positions. A good theory should be empirically testable, leading to modification of the theory if necessary.
2. **Heuristic Value:** The degree to which a theory directly stimulates a research. A theory by translating its core concepts into a form of operationalization can allow for relevant research activity. Personality theories differ immensely in their capacity to fulfill this goal. Some of the most provocative theoretical formulations of personality (e.g.,

Maslow's self-actualizing theory) are practically devoid of empirical support. This state of affairs usually results from the theorist's failure to define his or her concepts operationally i.e., **in manner whereby they can readily be subjected to empirical test.**

3. **Internal Consistency:** This criterion stipulates that a theory should not contradict itself that is a good theory is internally consistent way. On the whole, theories of personality reasonably satisfy this standard,
4. **Parsimony (simple):** A theory may also be judged on the basis of the number of concepts it requires to explain events within its domain. The law of parsimony states that the preferred explanation is the one which demands the fewest number of concepts, i.e., is most economical.
5. **Comprehensiveness:** This criterion refers to the range and diversity of phenomena encompassed by a theory. The more comprehensive a personality theory is the more behavioral ground it covers. The theorist should include behavioral events such as biological, emotional, cognitive, social, and cultural in human behavior. At the same time, it must be recognized that no present theory can account for all human functioning.
6. **Functional Significance:** Finally, a theory may be evaluated on the basis of how useful it is in helping people to understand everyday human behavior. All of us are interested in knowing more about ourselves and other people. Indeed, knowledge of the personal and social insights provided by personality theorists can greatly help one's understanding and appreciation of human nature.

What are the influences Personality development?

1. Genetics
2. Environment (learning)
3. Culture and Society
4. Self-awareness
5. Traits
6. Unconscious Mechanisms

Lesson 2

Nature of Personality Theory

What is personality?

Personality refers to characteristic ways a person behaves and thinks. So, personality refers to the overall impression that an individual makes on others, that is, a sum total or constellation of characteristics that are typical of the individual and thus observable in various social settings.

Example:

- A is shy and timid
- B is sensitive and gets upset easily
- C is suspicious of friends and family
- D is confident and successful

The word “personality” in English is derived from the Latin persona. It the masks worn by theatrical players in ancient Greek dramas term came to encompass the actor’s roles as well.

Thus, personality is the public personality that people display to those around them. This view is similar with that of the layperson who equates personality with charm, social poise, popularity, physical attractiveness, and a host of other socially desirable characteristics. A quick overview of the meaning of personality in psychology can be gained by briefly considering the views offered by a few recognized theorists in the field.

- **Carl Rogers** views personality in terms of self, an organized, permanent, subjectively perceived entity which is at the very heart of all our experiences.
- **Gordon Allport** defines personality as that which an individual really is, an internal “something” that guides and directs all human activity.
- **Erik Erikson**, life proceeds in terms of a series of psychosocial crises, and personality is a function of their outcome.
- **George Kelly** regards personality as the individual’s unique way of “making sense” out of life experiences.
- **Sigmund Freud** who described the structure of personality as composed of three elements- the id, ego, and superego.

These different conceptions clearly indicate that the meaning of personality in psychology extends far beyond the original “superficial social image” concept. It refers to something much more essential and enduring about a person. Beyond this basic point of agreement, theoretical definitions of personality have other features in common.

1. Most definitions depict personality as some kind of hypothetical structure or organization. In other words, personality is an abstraction based on inferences derived from behavioral observation.
2. Most definitions stress the need to understand the meaning of individual differences. With the word “personality,” the palpable uniqueness in all individuals is indicated.
3. Most definitions emphasize the importance of viewing personality in terms of a life history, or developmental perspective and social experiences, and changing environmental circumstances. --

Personality Psychology as a Field of Study

What distinguishes personality psychology from the other psychological domains is its attempt to synthesize and integrate the principles of other areas of psychology. For example, in the psychology of perception, the basic structures and processes underlying how people perceive and interpret the world around them are examined. The personality psychology as a field of study combines these principles in an effort to understand human behavior.

To be comprehensive, a personality theory must incorporate all the principles of general psychology that influence or determine an individual's behavior and experience fall within the domain of the **personologist, a term that has been used to designate both personality theorists and researchers (Murray, 1938).** In light of all this, it is evident that no other area of psychology attempts to cover as much territory as the field of personality the focus of study has been nothing less than the total individual. Given such an ambitious goal, YOU can rightfully expect the study of personality to be an exciting and challenging undertaking.

Modern Personality Theory

Current conceptions of personality have been shaped by many events. To see personality theory in a meaningful perspective, it is necessary to examine some of the more important historical and contemporary influences upon it. Four courses appear to have been direct and major influences upon current personality theory- European Clinical Medicine, behaviorism, psychometrics and gestalt psychology. After examining these historical factors, more contemporary sources of influence upon personality will be discussed.

European Clinical Medicine however the clinical medicine of eighteenth- and nineteenth-century Europe (particularly France) had the most direct influence upon the structure of twentieth-century personality theory. The European clinical medicine of that time primarily dealt with the understanding, classification, and treatment of mental disorders.

- 1- Based upon the French physician Philippe Pinel (1745-1826) was able to conceive of psychotic personality disorders in terms of brain dysfunction.
- 2- This physicalistic conception of psychoses set in motion a scientifically based attempt to classify psychotic disorders, as illustrated in the work of the German physician Emil Kraepeline (1856-1926), as well as a widespread series of humanitarian reforms in the treatment of psychotics.
- 3- European clinical medicine, then, furnished the intellectual climate in which Freud was to develop his unique psychoanalytic techniques and classify personality disorders, and its therapeutic approaches to the treatment of disturbed persons, has left an indelible imprint upon modern personality theory.

2- Psychometrics:

Psychometrics, or psychological measurement, has significantly helped to make a science of psychology. Before the advent of psychometrics, it was not possible, or even conceivable, to

measure aspects of human psychological functioning, e.g., intelligence, aptitudes, interests, motives, personality traits. Now, within certain limitations, such measurements can be obtained. When psychological testing was introduced, the field of personality acquired the potential for quantification and measurement of its concepts. In brief, psychometrics made possible meaningful research in personality.

Consider a personologists who wishes to study the relationship between need for affiliation or friendship and a person's vocational interests. Without psychometric tools, he or she would have to be content with simply speculating that people with a high affiliation need are probably interested in occupations that permit close interpersonal contact. But his could never be known for sure. With current psychological measurement techniques, a personality researcher can quantify both degree of their relationship in the group studied.

3- Behaviorism:

Behaviorism as a school of psychology was founded in 1913 by the American psychologist John B. Watson (1878-1958). It became an extraordinarily influential movement in American psychology and, although the days of psychology schools are distinctly over, its pervasive influences are still quite evident today. The historical roots of behaviorism are deep. Watson and Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1849- 1936) who was most influential in setting the stage for the focus of contemporary behaviorist approaches to personality. Stimulated by such giants as Edwin Guthrie (1896-1959), Clark Hull (1884-1952), and Edward Tolman (1886-1959), all of whom developed their own elaborate theories of learning, and their imprint upon personality theory, therapy, and research has been great. Social learning theories such as that of Albert Bandura also reflect the influence of behaviorism.

4- Gestalt Psychology:

The German noun gestalt cannot precisely be translated into English. The closest approximations of its meanings are the words "form," "figure," "shape," "configuration," "structure." Gestalt psychology as a distinct school was founded in 1912 by the German psychologist Max Wertheimer (1880-1943). His ingenious and varied experiments upon the holistic nature of perception stimulated Kurt Koffka (1886- 1941) and Wolfgang Kohler (1887-1967), two of his experimental subjects and colleagues, to develop and extend the principles of gestalt, psychology to psychological spheres other than perception. For example, where the behaviorists emphasized elements, the gestaltists stressed wholes.

Gestalt psychology, then, stresses the impossibility of understanding complex psychological processes by attempting to break them down into their component parts. The whole is greater than, and different from, the sum of its parts. Many psychologists view personality as an organized dynamic whole that cannot be reduced to the sum of its parts.

What's happening at present?

While the shape of today's personality field has been determined by historical factors, new directions in personality will result from events occurring now. Any discipline that studies the behavior of people must, to remain open to factors that have direct implications for understanding human nature. In a world of constant change, these factors are numerous indeed.

- 1- **Cross-cultural research has forced a reevaluation of the generalizability of psychological findings from one culture and/or subculture to another;** what holds true for American college students may not apply to young people in the other part of the world.
- 2- **Because of recent increased interest in the study of cognitive,** or thinking, processes, human conceptual abilities are becoming a more salient aspect of personality theory.
- 3- The factor of constant social change is forging new directions for personality theory and research, while **computer technology (Loehlin, 1968) continues to open up new and exciting research possibilities.**
- 4- On a broader scale, the person revolution of the 1970s has brought about a deeper awareness of the relativity of values, life-styles, and the meaning of life itself. These are but a few of the diverse contemporary influences upon the personality field; **many forces, both within and outside the boundaries of psychology, will continue to shape its development.** There have been and will continue to be important developments in many areas and disciplines that are highly relevant to an understanding of the nature of human beings.

Lesson 3

PERSONALITY MEASUREMENT

Personality measurement and assessment procedures are useful in understanding the person. They include:

- Interviews
- Observation
- Rating scales
- Personality tests
- Projective Tests

1. Interviews:

The interview is the most commonly used procedure in psychological assessment. Interviews provide an opportunity to ask people for their own descriptions of their problems. Interviews also allow clinicians to observe important features of a person's appearance and nonverbal behavior.

- **Structured Interviews**

Assessment interviews vary with regard to the amount of structure that is imposed by the clinician. Some are relatively open-ended, or nondirective. Structured interviews, in which the clinician must ask each patient a specific list of detailed questions, are

frequently employed for collecting information that will be used to make diagnostic decisions and to rate the extent to which a person is impaired by psychopathology. Structured interviews list a series of specific questions that lead to a detailed description of the person's behavior and experiences. Structured interview schedules provide a systematic framework for the collection of important diagnostic information, but they don't eliminate the need for an experienced clinician

2. Observational Procedures

Observational skills play an important part in most assessment procedures.

Sometimes the things that we observe confirm the person's self-report, and at other times the person's overt behavior appears to be at odds with what he or she says. Observational procedures may be either informal or formal. **Informal observations are primarily qualitative.** The clinician observes the person's behavior and the environment in which it occurs without attempting to record the frequency or intensity of specific responses. Although observations are often conducted in the natural environment, there are times when it is useful to observe the person's behavior in a situation that the psychologist can arrange and control.

• **The Mental Status Examination**

The mental status examination involves **systematic observation of an individual's behavior.** This type of observation occurs when one individual interacts with another.

Mental status examination can be structured and detailed. It covers five categories:

- Appearance and behavior
- Thought Process
- Mood and affect.
- Intellectual Function
- Perception of person, place and time.

The mental status examination tells us how people think, feel and behave and how these actions might contribute to explain their problems. So actually, we are doing behavioral assessment of people. This behavioral assessment is done by using direct observation of an individual's thought, feelings and behavior in situations or context where the individual is having problems.

3. Rating Scales

A rating scale is a procedure in which the observer is asked to make judgments that place the person somewhere along a dimension. Ratings can also be made on the basis of information collected during an interview. Rating scales provide abstract descriptions of a person's behavior rather than a specific record of exactly what the person has done.

These are assessment tools, which are used before the treatment to assess changes in patient's behavior after the treatment. Brief psychiatric rating scales are usually used and completed by hospital staff to assess an individual on different constructs related with physical or psychological illness. There are two point rating scales.

• **Behavioral Coding Systems**

Rather than making judgments about where the person falls on a particular dimension, behavioral coding systems focus on the frequency of specific behavioral events. Some adult clients are able to make records and keep track of their own behavior—a procedure known as self-monitoring.

4. Personality Inventories

Personality inventories present an elaborate picture of an individual's overall personality including the traits, the characteristics, the tendency and the styles that are thought to underlie behavior. The questions in personality inventories are presented in form of statements. These statements are the items of personality test. Many personality inventories are available such as MMPI Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. This test was developed in 1940 and published in 1943. It is based on empirical approach i.e. the collection and evaluation of data. The individual is presented with statements and the answers have options like true, false and cannot say. Some of the statements from MMPI are following:

- I cry easily
- I am happy most of the time.
- I believe, I am being followed

MMPI consisted of 550 items. MMPI consists of ten clinical scales, meaning that it diagnoses people on ten clinical disorders. It has got four validity scales, which include

- Lie scale
- The F Scale, Infrequency scale,
- K scale, The Defensiveness Scale
- The Cannot say scale

They consist of a series of straightforward statements; the person being tested is typically required to indicate whether each statement is true or false in relation to an individual. Some personality inventories are designed to identify personality traits in a normal population, and others focus more specifically on psychological problems. The most extensively used personality Inventory is the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). The inventory was revised several years ago, and it is currently known as the MMPI-2. The MMPI-2 is based on 567 statements that cover topics ranging from physical complaints and psychological states to occupational preferences and social attitudes. Scoring of the MMPI-2 is objective. After the responses to all questions are totaled, the person receives a numerical score on each of 10 clinical scales as well as on four validities. The MMPI not only diagnoses a person on ten clinical scales it also detects sources of invalidities like lying, carelessness, defensiveness on part of respondent. It attempts to present all information in form of a profile of scores. This profile of scores across all ten clinical scales and four validity scales is presented as deviations from general population norms. The normal scale score is a Tscore of 50 any score above 50 is a sign of pathology. Before considering the possible clinical significance of a person's MMPI-2 profile, the psychologist will examine a number of validity scales, which reflect the patient's attitude toward the test and the openness and consistency with which the questions were answered. The L (Lie) Scale is sensitive to unsophisticated attempts to avoid answering in a frank and honest manner. Examples of items of MMPI-II:

1. I like automobile magazines.
2. I wake up with lots of energy most mornings.
3. I am startled by loud noises.

5. Projective Personality Tests

Psychoanalytic personality theorists have developed several assessment measures known as projective tests. They include a variety of methods in which ambiguous stimuli, such as pictures of people, or things are presented to a person who is

asked to describe what he or she sees. The theory here is that people 'project' their own personality, their needs, their wishes, their desires and their unconscious fears on other people and things such as ink blots, pictures, sometimes vague and sometimes structure. Projective tests are based on psychoanalytic theory. They have been and they still remain, controversial. Some of the most widely used projective tests are Rorschach Ink Blot Test, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), House Tree Person (HTP) and the Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB). In projective tests, the person is presented with a series of ambiguous stimuli. The known projective test, introduced in 1921 by Hermann Rorschach, a Swiss psychiatrist, is based on the use of inkblots. Projective techniques such as the Rorschach test were originally based on psychodynamic assumptions about the nature of personality and psychopathology and impulses of which the person is largely unaware.

More recent Considerable emphasis was placed on the importance of unconscious motivations — conflicts approaches to the use of projective tests view the person's descriptions of the cards as a sample of his or her perceptual and cognitive styles. This test consists of ten standardized ink blot cards. That serves as ambiguous stimuli. The examiner presents the inkblot cards one by one to the person being examined, who responds by telling what he or she sees. The therapists may encourage the subject to give more detailed answers and you may get different responses on the same inkblot. Exner's system of administering and scoring the Rorschach inkblot test specifies how the card should be presented, what should the examiner say and how the responses should be recorded.

- **The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)** consists of a series of drawings that depict human figures in various ambiguous situations. The person is asked to describe the identities of the people in the cards and to make up a story about what is happening. Morgan and Murray at the Harvard Psychological Clinic developed the TAT. It consists of 31 cards, 30 with pictures on them and one blank card. The picture card is shown to the subject and the therapist asks the subject to tell a dramatic story about the picture. The instructions of the test begin 'this is a test of imagination, one form of intelligence. Let your imaginations have its way as in a fairy story and tell what the people in the picture card are doing.' The story should have a title, a beginning middle part and an end. The basic assumption is that most of the subjects will reveal their unconscious mental processes, their needs, desires on the characters of their stories about the pictures. There have been several variations of the TAT for different groups e.g. CAT- Children Apperception Test and SAT A Senior Apperception Technique.
- **Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blank Test (RISB)**
This test consists of a series unfinished sentences that people are asked to complete, usually it is considered a good spring board to explore and pinpoint areas of an individual's life that are problematic or conflicting. The sentences are usually, I wish _____. My father is _____. Girls are _____. Home is a place _____. This test explores an individual's social, familial and general attitudes towards life. This test has 40 items which are in form of incomplete sentences. This test has qualitative and quantitative scoring procedures.
- **House Tree and Person (HTP)**

This is a test which tells us about the evaluations of the drawings based on the quality and shape of the drawing, solidity of a pencil line, location of the drawing on the paper, the size of the figure, features of the figures, use of the background and comments made by the respondent during the drawing task. The house reflects individual's interpersonal relationships, the tree reflects ego development and functioning and the Person reflects the individual self-perception and perception of the other gender.

Advantages of Projective Tests:

Some people may feel more comfortable talking in an unstructured situation than they would if they were required to participate in a structured interview or to complete the lengthy MMPI. Projective tests can provide an interesting source of information regarding the person's unique view of the world, and they can be a useful supplement to information obtained with other assessment tools. To whatever extent a person's relationships with other people are governed by unconscious cognitive and emotional events, projective tests may provide information that cannot be obtained through direct interviewing methods or observational procedures.

Limitations of Projective Tests:

Lack of standardization in administration and scoring is a serious problem. Little information is available on which to base comparisons to normal adults or children. Some projective procedures, such as the Rorschach, can be very time-consuming. The reliability of scoring and interpretation tends to be low. Many self-report inventories, rating scales, and behavioral coding systems have been designed for the assessment of marital relationships and family systems. One popular self-report inventory is the Family Environment Scale (FES), which is composed of 90 true-false items and was designed to measure the social characteristics of families.

Lesson 4

SIGMUND FREUD: A PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Personality can be approached or studied using the four perspectives:

1. Psychodynamic
2. Dispositional
3. Behavioral
4. Humanistic

Perspectives of psychology

1- The psychodynamics approach

It was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior. Freud believed that personality has three components-id, ego and super ego. He also emphasized on the role of ego defense mechanisms which keep these conflicts at the unconscious level. He further talked about psycho sexual stages of development-such as oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital stage. There are other psychodynamic theorists who differed from Freud such as:

- Jung
- Adler
- Karen Horney

2- The dispositional Approach:

This Approach assumes that personality is made up of a set of stable internal characteristics that guide behavior. These characteristics are described as personality types but more often each person's unique combination of traits, factors or needs. These inherited tendencies or traits are the raw material which is molded into a unique personality by the environment.

3- The Behavioral Approach:

This Approach assumes that personality is a unique pattern of learned behavior that people display in various situations. This perception is advocated by Watson and Skinner. There are certain behaviorists who include the role of learned patterns of thinking as well-such as cognitive-behavioral approach which emphasizes on behavior as the outcome of person-situation interactions.

4- The Humanistic Approach

It is based on the assumption that personality is determined by the unique ways in which each individual views the world. These perceptions of the person form a personal vision of reality and guides behavior of the person to reach its fullest human potential. This Approach is represented in the theories of Carl Rogers and Maslow.

Sigmund Freud

His main contributions are as follows:

1. Theory of personality
2. Method of treatment- Psychoanalysis
3. Set of clinical observations (e.g., defenses)
4. Methods of investigation (free association, dream analysis)

Freud's Theory of Personality-Major Assumptions

1. **Psychic determinism**--all our behavior has a purpose
2. **Unconscious motivation**--universally accepted
3. **Freud emphasized the predominance of unconscious** motives and processes - Recent translation into cognitive psychology

The Theory of Consciousness

Original theory is based on experience with hypnosis and early treatment of hysteria. Sigmund Freud, a young Viennese physician, he theorized that individuals are in a perpetual state of conflict motivated by their unconscious sexual and aggressive urges. Freud with his active writing and clinical practice developed:

- (1) The first comprehensive personality theory
- (2) An extensive body of clinical observations based on his therapeutic experience and self-analysis
- (3) A compelling method for treating mental or behavioral disorders
- (4) A procedure for the investigation of mental processes which are almost inaccessible in any other way.

Freud's personality theory and its underlying assumptions will be examined.

In 1895 he published book called studies in Hysteria and in 1897 he began his self-analysis but the year 1900 is important because his most famous book called interpretation of dreams was published

Levels of Consciousness

(How Personality Is Organized?)

For a long time in the theoretical development of psychoanalysis, Freud employed a topographical model of personality organization. According to this model, psychic life can be represented by three levels of consciousness

- The conscious
- The preconscious/sub-conscious
- The unconscious.

Freud used this mental "map" of the mind to describe the degree to which mental events such as thoughts and fantasies vary in accessibility to awareness.

According to this triangle, the top smallest part is the conscious experience the middle small layer is subconscious and the largest portion is unconscious.

According to Freud that part of the mind about which we are aware is consciousness but it is a small part of mental life. You are listening to me it is your conscious mental activity. The preconscious are thoughts or activities that are easily made conscious by an effort to remember or say, you have the present lecture's handout in front of you and you are conscious that you are writing on it. The largest segment is the unconscious not easily reachable / accessed yet it gives rise on to important needs and influences our behavior.

Example:

All your nightmares, phobias, fears which influence you but why you have them is because of the unconscious, you don't have an answer. Freud suggested ways / techniques of reaching the unconscious

Example:

You stand near a river, the top water is the conscious part, fill out some muddy water in container, it is the sub-conscious and when you dug the river bed and find something buried in it well that is the unconscious part.

The Anatomy of Personality

The concept of unconscious mental processes was central to Freud's early description of personality organization. However, during the early 1920s he revised his conceptual model of mental life and introduced three basic structures in the anatomy of personality: id, ego, and super ego.

The Id:

The word "id" comes from the Latin word for "it" and refers exclusively to the biological component of personality. The id is the mental agency containing everything inherited, present at birth, and fixed in the individual's constitution- especially sexual and aggressive instincts. It is raw, animalistic, and unorganized, knows no laws, obeys no rules and remains basic to the individual throughout life. Freud identified two mechanisms the id employs to rid the personality of tension: **reflex action** and *primary process*. In the former, the id responds automatically to sources of irritation, thereby promptly removing the tension which the irritant elicits. Examples of such inborn reflex mechanisms are **sneezing, coughing, and blinking**. Id is the unorganized reservoir of wishes or passions related to our sexual and aggressive drives, it strives for immediate gratification that bypasses demands of reality, order logic and reason. The Id is like a child when it wants something it wants it there and then without regard for consequences, **so Id**

operates on pleasure principle. This refers to Greek concept of hedonism meaning pleasure. The energy within the Id is labeled as the libido. The Id has its own characteristic way of processing information, cognitive style referred as primary process. The thinking patterns of Id are illogical, irrational, emotional immature and purely selfish.

The Ego:

The ego is that portion of the psychic apparatus that seeks to express and gratify the desires of the id in accordance with the restrictions of both outer reality and the superego. The ego acquires its structure and functions from the id, having evolved from it, and proceeds to borrow some of the id's energy for its own use in response to the demands of the environment. Ego thus assures the safety and self-preservation of the organism. In its battle for survival against both the external world and the instinctual demands of the id, ego must continuously differentiate between things in the mind and things in the outer world of reality. The hungry man in search of food, for example, must distinguish between a mental Image of food and an actual perception of food if tension reduction is to occur. The ego operates according to the reality principle and the cognitive operations of the ego are characterized by logic, reason and are referred as the secondary process. The ego is the master control, it tries to resolve conflicts between the demands of Id within the permitted boundaries of super ego. The ego has the role to mediate conflict between the Id and super ego according to realities of the world. If it mediates successfully, we see an intelligent, creative individual who is well adjusted while if ego is unsuccessful either Id or super ego will be strong. If Id is strong, we see an antisocial criminal and if super ego is strong we see a pure, rigid, nonflexible individual.

Super Ego

Super ego is the storehouse of moral and ethical standards taught by parents, teachers and culture (it also refers to the conscience of the psyche). It operates according to the moral Principle when we do something wrong, when ethical, moral standards are violated then super ego generates guilt.

Example:

You go to a store you see a lovely jacket but the price is high but no one is looking you face intra-psychic conflict:

Id→

I want the jacket and I want it now.

Ego↔

I have to be realistic I cannot afford the jacket.

Super Ego

Stealing is bad.

Lesson 5

INSTINCT: WHAT MOTIVATES HUMAN BEHAVIOR?

Accordance with the law of conservation of Energy (i.e. energy may be converted from one state to another, but is all the same energy). Freud accepted this principle of nature, translated it into psychological terms, and theorized that the source of psychic energy derives from neurophysiologic states of excitation. He further postulated that each individual has a limited amount of such energy available for mental activity, and that the goal of all human behavior was the reduction of tension created by the unpleasant accumulation of energy over time. For

example, if most of your energy is presently being expended to recognize the words on this page, then little is left for other types of mental activity like daydreaming or viewing a TV program.

A Matter of Life and Death

Freud recognized the existence of two basic groups of them-*life* and *death* instincts. The former group includes all the forces which serve to maintain. Vital life processes and assures propagation of the species. Because of the significance attributed to them in the psychic organization of individuals, the *sex instincts* were singled out by Freud as the most salient of the life instincts for the development of personality. The energy force underlying the sexual instincts is called *libido* (from the Latin word for "wish" or "desire") or *libidinal energy*.

The other group represents destructive side of the personality.

Human Development Viewed Psychosexually

The psychoanalytic theory of development is based on two premises. The first, the *genetic* approach, emphasizes that adult personality is shaped by various types of early childhood experiences. The second is that a certain amount of sexual energy (*libido*) is present at birth and thereafter progresses through a series of *psychosexual* stages that are rooted in the instinctual processes of the organism. The formation of personality; *oral*, *anal*, *phallic*, and *genital*. A period of *latency*, normally occurring between the ages of 6 or 7 and the onset of puberty, was included by Freud in the overall scheme of development, but, technically speaking, it is not a stage. The first three stages of development extend from birth to 5 years of age and are called *pregenital stage*.

Oral Stage	Birth – 18 months	Ego formation begins, weaning begins, delayed gratification is learnt; body image develops Time of psychosocial development
Anal Stage	18months - 3 Years	Continuation of ego development; toilet training; formation of super ego
Phallic Stage	3years - 5 Years	Bodily and genital awareness
The Latency Period	(5 years to 12 years):	Between the ages of 6 or 7 and the onset of adolescence, the child passes through a period of comparative sexual quiescence. During the latency period, the libido is sublimated i.e. channeled into nonsexual activities such as intellectual interests, athletics, and peer relationships.

Genital Stage	Puberty - end of life	With the advent of puberty comes a resurgence of sexual and aggressive impulses coupled with an increased awareness of and interest in the opposite sex. The initial <i>phase</i> of the <i>genital</i> stage (a period extending from adolescence until death) is brought about by biochemical and physiological changes in the organism. The reproductive organs mature, and the endocrine system secretes hormones that result in secondary sex characteristics (e.g., beards in males, breast development in females).
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The Nature of Anxiety

Freud's initial interest in the phenomenon of anxiety was motivated by his interest in explaining neurotic symptoms and treating people suffering from them. This Interest at first led him to propose that anxiety is a consequence of inadequately discharged libidinal energy. He further theorized that the state of increased tension resulting from blocked libido and un-discharged excitation was converted into and manifested by anxiety neuroses.

Types of Anxiety

Realistic Anxiety:

The emotional response to threat and/ or perception of real dangers in the external environment (e.g., poisonous snakes, wild animals, earthquakes, final examinations) is called *realistic*, or *objective*, anxiety. It is essentially synonymous with fear and may have a debilitating effect on the individual's ability to cope effectively with the source of danger.

Neurotic Anxiety:

An emotional response to the threat that id impulses will become conscious is called *neurotic anxiety*. Neurotic anxiety comes from an unconscious fear that the basic impulses of the id will take control of the person, leading to eventual punishment from expressing the id's desires

Moral Anxiety:

Moral anxiety comes from the superego. It appears in the form of a fear of violating values or moral codes and appears as feelings like guilt or shame.

Ego Defense Mechanisms

The major psychodynamic functions of anxiety are to help the individual avoid conscious recognition of unacceptable instinctual impulses and to allow impulse gratification only indirectly. *Ego defense mechanisms help* to carry out these functions as well as to protect the person from overwhelming anxiety.

- By blocking the impulse from expression in conscious behavior
- By distorting it to such a degree that the original intensity is markedly reduced or deflected.

They operate on an unconscious level and are therefore self-deceptive and they distort one's perception of reality, so as to make anxiety less threatening to the individual and they protect the ego. The ego fights a battle to stay at the top of id and super ego. **The conflicts between id and super ego produce anxiety that is a threat to ego.** The threat or anxiety experienced by ego is a signal that alerts the ego to use unconscious protective processes that keep primitive emotions associated with conflicts in check. These protective processes are defense mechanisms or coping styles.

Id

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Coping Styles Ego

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Super ego

- I. **Repression:** Blocking unpleasant/unacceptable thoughts by pushing them into the unconscious e.g. forgetting events of the painful childhood.
- II. **Regression:** Reverting back to a stage that was satisfying e.g. a boss showing temper tantrums like a child; or acting like a baby.
- III. **Displacement:** Redirecting the expression of unwanted desires or impulses to a substitute rather than the actual target e.g. beating children when a wife cannot express anger toward husband.
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- VII. **Sublimation:** Converting unwanted impulses into socially approved thoughts, feelings and actions e.g. disliking the in-laws but behaving in a very friendly manner.

Techniques of Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis is a therapeutic process which reveals unconscious mental process and conflicts through catharsis and insight.

1. Free association: The patient is asked to lie on a couch and the therapist sits behind the client, then the patient is asked to give a running account of his thought pattern uninterrupted without social censoring it. This technique brings to the conscious level emotionally loaded material that at times can be painful, threatening to be discussed at conscious level.

2. Dream analysis

Dream analysis as a process in which the contents of the dream usually the id impulses (wishes) related to the unconscious conflicts. In his book interpretation of the dreams in 1900 he refers to this. The therapist interprets the contents of dreams and relates them to various unconscious wishes.

- **Example:**

Suppose you go to the bazaar and you want to buy a very expensive pair of shoes, costing a fortune. Your mother refuses to buy and says that you are out of your mind. So at night, you dream that you are owner of that shoe shop so your id desire has been fulfilled in a dream.

3. The relationship between the patient with the therapist

The patient may relate with therapist positively as with an important person in his life like parents, teachers, and friends. We label it as **positive transference** phenomenon.

The patient may relate negatively with the therapist with anger resentment or dislike. We say negative transference has occurred. The patient may at times like the therapist while at times resent him so an ambivalent transference takes place. The therapist (is human) he also at times projects his feelings, emotion usually positive ones towards the patient this is counter transference. This should not happen.

- **Therapist ← Client Ambivalent (positive negative).**
- **Therapist → Client Counter transference**

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In his book *The Psychopathology of Every Day Life* he talks about **the slip of tongue and pen**. Freudian slips means you wanted to say something but you said something wrong or embarrassing say Freud went to USA to deliver lectures on Psychoanalysis and a professor introduced him as Dr. Fraud, though he apologized but that is a Freudian slip.

5. Humor

It is an essential part of psyche. What sort of humor do you read and enjoy? For Freud humor is mostly related to death and sex two unknown areas of your life about which you are not sure.

Lesson 6

INSTINCT: WHAT MOTIVATES HUMAN BEHAVIOR?

Accordance with the *law of conservation of Energy* (i.e. energy may be converted from one state to another, but is all the same energy). Freud accepted this principle of nature, translated it into psychological terms, and theorized that the source of psychic energy derives from neurophysiologic states of excitation. He further postulated that each individual has a limited amount of such energy available for mental activity, and that the goal of all human behavior was the reduction of tension created by the unpleasant accumulation of energy over time. For example, if most of your energy is presently being expended to recognize the words on this page, then little is left for other types of mental activity like daydreaming or viewing a TV program.

A Matter of Life and Death

Freud recognized the existence of two basic groups of them-*life* and *death* instincts. The former group includes all the forces which serve to maintain. Vital life processes and assures propagation of the species. Because of the significance attributed to them in the psychic organization of individuals, the *sex instincts* were singled out by Freud as the most salient of the life instincts for the development of personality. The energy force underlying the sexual instincts is called *libido* (from the Latin word for "wish" or "desire") or *libidinal energy*. The other group represents destructive side of the personality.

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Lesson 7 THEORY OF CARL JUNG (Analytical Psychology)

Biographical Sketch

Carl Jung was born in 1875 in a Swiss village. Religion was a strong theme running through his early life, may be because his eight uncles and his father was a pastor in a Swiss church.

Jung saw his mother as a dominating person. His parents were most of the time fighting which caused Jung to isolate himself from the family which caused him to rely on his dreams vision and fantasies.

When Jung was 10 year's old, he carved out a wooden man from a ruler and kept it in a little wooden case and dressed him in black coat, boots and a top hat. This figure was a refuge for Jung whenever he was depressed and troubled, he would visit him and share his secret with this refuge figure.

Jung believed in dual aspect of his personality, one as a school boy and one as the wise old man and the wise old man was about one hundred year's old than the school boy who was apparently the real person.

Jung by profession was a doctor. Jung developed a strong relationship with Freud after reading Freud's book called *The Interpretation of Dreams*. Jung began to apply his ideas in his therapy. Jung wrote a number of letters to Freud. Freud invited him to visit him and to accompany him to America to deliver a series of lectures at Clark University on Psycho-analysis. The relationship between Jung and Freud initially flourished because Freud named Jung as the president of his Psycho-analytic society. But the relationship soon suffered a setback when Jung began to criticize Freud's overemphasis on psycho-sexual development.

Jung advised Freud that even the liberal American audience did not like Freud's emphasis on sex. The two broke-up and Jung called it as the dark years of his life when he began to explore his own theory of personality with emphasis on ego, collective un-conscious, personal un-conscious and archetypes. IN 1909

Freud was invited by Stanley Hall to come to America and introduce his Psychoanalysis to the American audience. Jung accompanied Freud to America during his visit to America Jung noted that even the liberal American audience did not approve Freud's over emphasis on sexual interpretation and on unconscious motives in each and every behavior pattern. All in good faith Jung advised Freud not to emphasize on sex, unconscious and childhood experiences, Freud ignored and soon broke his relations with him and as a punishment the president-ship of the Psychoanalytic society was given to Adler.

Concepts of the Theory

Libido: Libido is the driving force of the personality. It is the general biological life energy that is concentrated in solving different problems as they arise. For Jung, Libido is the creative life force that

leads to continuous psychological growth of the person, when we are engaged in activities such as eating, sleeping, studying, walking, and talking, all these needs require energy and Libido is that store house which provides energy for all our physical, psychological and spiritual needs. For Freud, Libido is the main sexual aggressive force or energy, while for Jung the Libidinal energy is the life energy, not just required for sex and aggression.

Equivalence: The principle of Equivalence is the first law of the thermo dynamics (Thermo mean heat and dynamics mean the movement so it refers to the flow of heat). The first law of thermo-dynamics states that the amount of energy in a system is fixed. It is also called law of conservation of energy. Now our psyche-individual also possesses psychic-energy which is Libido and the amount of Libido is fixed. Energy may change form but its total amount will remain the same. You may invest your energy in one activity say studying more and sleep less while another student may sleep more and study less. So energy is simply changing its form but its total amount remains the same. Example

The conscious and unconscious are the two aspects of the individual which use energy - libido. when you concentrate more on conscious activities like talking , walking, socializing then libido is being utilized in conscious but it can be used for unconscious activity so psychical energy is changing forms only.

Entropy:

This is the second law of thermo-dynamics, which says that there is tendency towards equalization of energy within a system, for example, all components of the psyche have a tendency to equalize their energy level e.g. the conscious and the un-conscious are the components of the psyche and there will be a tendency that the energy levels of the two components should be equal.

Principles of Opposites:

According to Newton to every action, there is an equal opposite reaction which is the third law of motion. For Hegel everything carries its own negation or antithesis, we can say, that the un-conscious is the opposite of the conscious, the rational is the opposite of the irrational, and the introvert is the opposite of the extrovert, as far as our psychical system is concerned.

Components of Personality

Ego:

Ego is our every conscious experience. It is our thinking, feeling, remembering, perceiving. So it is responsible for everything, we do. Ego is responsible for our everyday functions and activities.

- It is our sense of identity.

Example:

- All your daily activities and your personal identity as student of VU are due to ego.

The personal un-conscious consists of repressed or forgotten or not very vivid or clear memories. It consists of clusters of emotionally loaded thoughts which Jung labeled as complexes. A complex is a personally disturbing cluster of ideas connected together by a common feelings or emotions e.g. the mother complex or the father complex or the power complex or the money complex is a thought which is given a lot of importance by the person and he would invest a lot of energy in activities related with the mother complex or any other which is important to him. Jung reformed Wundt's word association test. This test reveals and detects complexes by studying the common response patterns among mother and daughter, father and son, thus showing that a family background has an influence in forming the concept of complex.

The Collective Unconscious: It refers to our ancestral experiences, memories from untold millions of years, so it is fragments of all human history that we inherit from our forefathers. Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes. An archetype is an inherited predisposition to respond to certain aspects of the world in certain ways. This concept is the crowning principle of Jung's theory. Jung gave us the following archetypes:

Persona, Anima, Animus, Shadow and Self

The Persona: Persona is the mask. It is a Greek word which means the mask or cover which the actors use to wear on the stage. It refers to individual's public personality. It is our very polite and full of manner public personality. Personal may deceive other people but is only a small part of our psyche. It should not

be mistaken and taken as the complete whole person. The persona and the real person that is the public personality and the real personality should be closer to one another for a good healthy adjustment.

Anima: This is the female component of the male psyche. It comes in to existence because of the experiences that women have had with men over centuries. It facilitates women to have the better understanding of the other gender. Secondly, it provides a framework within which males interact with females.

Animus: The animus is the masculine component of the female psyche. The male who has a strong animus would help him in taking care of all domestic chores which females are competent in.

Shadow: It is the darkest, deepest part of the psyche or the animal side of the human psyche. As the word shadow shows, it is the devil, the monster, the evil, the destructive, damaging, revengeful side of you and me.

Self: The self is that component of the psyche that strives to unite, harmonize and integrate all components of the psyche in to one whole. When this process takes place, we say that the individual has self actualized or he has achieved his life goal.

Lesson 8

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL TYPES

Even those people, who have not read Jung, are familiar with his famous psychological types. Which are discussed in his famous book, the psychological types, published in 1921, his main focus is on two types, introverts, extroverts. Types refer to orientation or the way an individual interacts with other people.

Introverts: The introverts are quiet, imaginative, more interested in staying at home alone, reading or enjoying one's own company. The introverts are usually labeled as self-centered or book worms and preferring indoor activities.

Extroverts: Extroverts tend to be sociable, outgoing, an interested in parties, picnics, people and group activities. They are the ones who loved to be socialized and visit other's rather than staying alone.

Along with these two orientations there are some four functions of our thinking process as well, such as sensing, thinking, feeling, intuiting. So we get eight types of people, such as

- thinking extrovert,
- feeling extrovert,
- sensing extrovert,
- intuiting extrovert, capable of basing decisions, actions etc on feelings rather than on facts or evidence
- thinking introvert,
- feeling introvert,
- sensing introvert,
- Intuiting introvert

Stages of Development

Childhood:

From birth to adolescence: During this period the psychic energy is used in learning to walk, to talk and other skills of survival, than this energy is spend in learning to educate.

Young Adulthood:

From Adolescence to forty years: During this stage, one selects one's profession, gets married, raise children, and relate to the community. At this level, the person is usually is energetic, outgoing, passionate and loving.

Middle Ages:

From about forty to later years: This is the most important stage, because almost all biological and physical needs are satisfied and now individual strives to find meaning in life. So, after material development, spiritual development begins to take shape.

Life after Retirement:

After active work, one finds refuge in the need to help others, so the task of finding a new meaning provides energy to continue living further.

Life Goal:

The goal of life is the harmony of the psyche that is combining various parts of the **personality in to one**. This is also called the **transcendent function** or the self.

Individuation:

On the other hand, individuation is the exact opposite of the life goal. Individuation is becoming aware of each and every part of the psyche such as the anima, animus, shadow, and self.

Causality:

According to Jung, adult personality should be understood in terms of past experiences which guide us, and provide solution to our problems but our behavior is also guided by teleology that is human behavior is always guided by past as well as by future. So past experiences push us forward and future goals pull us ahead.

Synchronicity:

When you dream of a person and shortly in the near future, the person appears in front of you, when you dream of a place and you visit it in future, when you dream of an event and the event takes place, this is called meaningful coincidence. The example Abraham Lincoln, who needed Blackstone's commentaries.

Research Techniques:

1. Word Association Test: He redesigned Wundt's word association test and used it extensively with his patient's.
2. Dream Analysis: For Jung a dream is just what it appears to be. It provides individual with an awareness and understanding of his problem and solution to the problem as well.
3. For Jung, personal unconscious, collective unconscious and archetypes are very important. The unity of all these into self is the goal of life.
4. Jung's personality theory has a background of history, religion and anthropology (culture and civilization).
5. There is emphasis on personality development following a stage of development where spiritual development is emphasized.

Comparison with Freud:

FREUD	JUNG
Freud's theory is biological in nature	His theory is psychological and social in emphasis
Emphasis on sex and aggression	Emphasis on unification of different component of the psyche
Dreams have manifest and latent meaning	Dreams are what in individual sees them
Stages of development are five, beginning from birth up till adolescence	Stages of development are four, focuses from birth till retirement
Psychological types are not provided	Psychological types are provided, introverts and extroverts

Lesson 9 **ALFRED ADLER** **(Individual Psychology)**

Biographical Sketch

Adler was born in Vienna, Austria in 1870, he was second of six children and he had severe rivalry with his older brother who was very athletic and the model child of the family. Alder thought of himself as

ugly and short. He had miserable childhood. He suffered from rickets which prevented him to take part in sports.

When he was five years old, he suffered from Pneumonia. He heard the doctor's say to his parents, you boy is lost. After getting better, he decided to become a medical doctor. Adler read **Freud's book called *The Interpretation of Dreams***, and he wrote a paper supporting this book. Freud invited Adler to join the psycho-analytic society and to become the president of the Society. This was Adler's biggest mistake to become the president of the psycho-analytic society. Soon he began to find that Freud could not take criticism and would become very aggressive and abusive. After breaking from Freud, **Adler coined the term Individual Psychology** and began developing his own theory of personality. Initially, Adler's work was focused on problems of child rearing, education and other everyday problems. Adler's theory is still pursued by his daughter Alexandra and son Kurt who practiced their father's brand of psychology in New York.

Individual Psychology:

The term individual psychology refers to the fact that individuals are unique, they characterize by inner harmony and a striving force to cooperate with fellow humans. It does not mean that human beings are selfish, aggressive and motivated to satisfy their own biological motives. His theory focuses on the whole individual, the whole is more than the sum of its parts. And we dissect we distort the harmony of the whole. Thus Adler seems to be talking, like a Gestaltian.

Organs of Inferiority and Compensation:

According to Adler, some of us are born with weak eyes, others with weak stomach, some with weak hearts and still other with damaged limbs. These biological deficiencies or shortcomings create problem for people. An individual with organ inferiority compensates for this particular weakness by concentrating on its development or by emphasizing other functions which make up for the weakness. For example, a blind person may concentrate on development of his auditory skills or focused more on some other modality such as touch or feeling. We have many examples, Helen Keller who was blind, deaf, worked hard and focused on her sense of touch. Beethoven, who was toned deaf, created the best music in the world.

Feeling of Inferiority:

For Adler, all of us staff life with feelings of inferiority, because we are completely dependent on adults for our survival. This feeling of being weak and inferior stimulates and creates intense desire to seek power and to overcome feeling of inferiority. Are feeling of inferiority bad? It is a fact, which is the driving force in all humans. One feels inferior and therefore, strives to become powerful and tries to accomplish more.

Therefore all humans experience the feeling of being inferior but in some, it creates neurosis, a need to succeed under all circumstances and conditions.

Striving for Superiority:

Striving for superiority is individual's superiority to strive for a superior or a perfect society. This could be beneficial as well as harmful, if a person concentrates on fulfilling his personal needs and ignores the needs of others, and the society then he suffers from superiority complex i.e. one individual tries to be domineering, arrogant and tries to deceive others. This is a self centered selfish individual.

Style of Life:

All humans strive for superiority, but how superiority is sought depends upon a person's unique circumstances. **The means by which a particular individual attempts to gain superiority is called the style of life.** A person's life style provides him with his identity. It determines how he will solve his problems, what future goals he will pursue and how he will attain them. A healthy style of life permits a person to live in harmony with others and to contribute towards the advancement of the society. A mistaken style of life is based on one selfish motives and ignorance towards betterment of society. The style of life evolves early in life so the child can overcome his feelings of inferiority and strive for perfection and pursue the betterment of the society. Adler believed that style of life develops early in childhood, whereas Erikson sees style of life as self identity and it develops during late adolescence

Lesson 10

INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY

Fictional Finalism

All of us are guided by the fictions or fictional beliefs or ideas which make our life significant and organized. These fictional themes are very useful for the person to deal with its problems of existence. These fictions can include, If I have enough money, I will be happy, if only I can get my Masters degree, everything will be fine, if I can write a good book, I will be famous. The concept of fictional finalism according to Adler is a guiding self-ideal. These ideals are invented by the individual to make his life more significant and meaningful. Healthy people change their fictions when circumstances want them to. Whereas the neurotic individuals hang on to the same fictional ideal throughout their lives. These goals, ideals or plans provide a means of living in more effective and constructive life.

Social Interest:

Social interest is an innate need of all human to live in harmony, peace and friendship with others and to make a perfect society. Every individual has a degree of or potential for social interest. If this potential is realized, the person will be successful. All humans have three major problems, which require a well-developed social interest:

1. Occupational Tasks, which required the person's help to advance the society.
2. Societal tasks. This required the cooperation of other human beings and it provides security and welfare to all human beings.
3. Love and marriage tasks. This requires mutual living together as a family based on love and passion. Adler, Horney and Erikson, all agree that social interests and satisfaction of this need relate to presence or absence of adjustment problems in life.

Mistaken Styles of Life:

An individual, who seeks personal superiority and self goal, only suffers superiority complex (from mistaken style of life) and he who is overwhelmed by feeling of inferiority he suffers from inferiority complex.

Adler classified four types of people according to the degree of social interest.

- I. The ruling dominant type.**
The focus over here is to dominate and rule people and to suppress them.
- II. The getting leaning type.**
This type expects everything to be done from others and gets everything from others either politely or rudely.
- III. The avoiding type.**
This type avoids failure by never attempting anything at all.
- IV. Social useful type.**
This is a type of person who works in harmony and cooperation with other and leads a rich and purposeful life.

Creative Self:

Heredity and environment provide are the raw materials which the individual uses in his unique creative way to develop and determine his relationship with the world. For Freud humans are not free to choose one's destiny rather all human behavior is determined whereas Adler thinks that humans are free to choose destiny.

Methods of Studying an Individual:

For Adler birth order, first memories and dream analysis are methods of studying the mental life of an individual.

Birth Order:

The first born, second born, youngest born, and the only born. **The first born is the crown prince**, a status which no one can shake. He enjoys a unique position. He is the focus of attention until the second child is born. The second born is involved in **a rat race from the first day of his life**, he is extremely ambitious and achieves every task before the first born to get the love of parents. **The only born child is like a child that is never going to be dethroned at least by a sibling**. The only born child when enters the school learns that

he is not the center of the attention. The only born child is the most spoiled child. This child is pampered by parents a lot.

First Memories:

First memories according to Adler are the earliest recollections of an individual, which are very important and significant to the individual. An individual chooses to remember only those memories that represent an important theme in the individual's life. Adler's own first memories were related to his illness or death in the family.

Dream Analysis:

Dreams are important because they provide the individual with ways and means of dealing with life's problem. They help the individual to plan for his future.

Goal of Psychotherapy:

For Adler, lifestyle focuses on one way of looking at things and this mode of perception persists unless the person runs into major problems, this is a faulty life style so a new life style which contains social interest.

Evaluation:

- i. Adler focuses on **wholeness** or holistic existence of humans.
- ii. For Adler personality is not completely determined by inheritance and environment but it is **creative self** which allows us to be what we choose to be.
- iii. His theory is used by counselors, therapists and educators.

Comparison with Freud:

FREUD	ADLER
Freud's theory is biological in nature	His theory emphasizes on the psychological and social aspect of the individual.
Emphasis on sex and aggression	Emphasis on style of life, social interest and self.
Future goals are unimportant	Future goals are important.
Dreams are used to detect contents of unconscious mind.	Dreams are used as problem solving mechanisms.
Goal of psychotherapy is to discover repressed early memories	Goal of psychotherapy is to encourage healthy lifestyle by incorporating social interest.
Personality is completely determined by heredity and environment	Humans are partially free to determine their Personality

Lesson 11

KAREN HORNEY

Horney developed a theory based on two concepts:

- 1- Basic Anxiety
- 2- Neurotic Personality
 - **Basic Anxiety** - anxiety created when a child is born into the bigger and more powerful world of older children and adults.
 - **Neurotic Personalities** – maladaptive ways of dealing with relationships, especially parent child relationship-based on hostility or rejection.

A woman and a parent focus on the concept of:

- 1- Child's feeling of insecurity creates anxiety
- 2- Faulty parent child relationship creates neurotic personality

Goal of Therapy

In her book called Self Analysis, Karen Horney says, “that many people do not have emotional problems because they learn to minimize conflict and try to maintain a relationship between their real and ideal self.

So the goal of psychotherapy is create a realistic relationship between the real self and ideal self.”

Those people who accept themselves what they really are, they develop realistic goals for future and they have peace and harmony with themselves.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Karen Horney was born in 1885 when she was twelve year’s old, she was treated by a doctor who impressed her so much that she decided to become a doctor herself. Then she began practicing psycho-analysis. In 1932 she came to America, in New York she started her private practice and trained psycho-analysts.

While practicing psycho-analysis, Karen Horney soon discovered that Freud’s theory did not fit the problems that people were having during the economic depression in America. People were worried about their jobs, not having enough money to pay the rent, to provide good education to their children, to provide good medical care to their children and to buy food. It was this philosophy that Karen Horney began to develop her own theory of personality

1- Basic Hostility and Basic Anxiety

In 1937, Karen Horney wrote a book called “The Neurotic Personality of our Time” in this book, Karen Horney tried to discuss that a child has two basic needs, which are safety and satisfaction and the child is dependent on the parents for their satisfaction and gratification. The child is helpless and dependent in the early years of his life. Two things can happen, the parent can demonstrate true love and affection towards the child and satisfy his safety and satisfaction need or they can be indifferent towards the child, rejects the child, be hostile towards the child, show obvious preference to another child, show unfair, punishment towards the child, ridicule the child, humiliate the child, have un kept promises to the child or isolate the child from the others. A child who is abused and rejected, develops hostility towards his parents, he tries to repress this hostility and generalizes it towards the entire world and all the people in it. When a child experiences love and warmth he will develop normally. But when he is abused, rejected, he will develop a neurotic behavior or an unhealthy personality.

2- Adjustment to Basic Anxiety

Karen Horney has listed ten neurotic needs or ten abnormal trends in people.

- 1- The neurotic need for affection and approval.
- 2- The neurotic need for a partner who will run one’s life.
- 3- The neurotic need to live ones life with in narrow limits.
- 4- The neurotic need for power.
- 5- The neurotic need to exploit others.
- 6- The neurotic need for social recognition.
- 7- The neurotic need for personal admiration.
- 8- The neurotic need for ambition and personal achievement.
- 9- The neurotic need for self-sufficiency and independence.
- 10- The neurotic need for perfection.

All normal people experience all the above ten needs but a normal satisfies one need at a time and then moves on to others. The neurotic person hangs on to one need even when it is not fulfilled, he still is fixated over it and invests all his energy in it and ignores all his other needs.

In 1945, Karen Horney in her book “Our Inner Conflicts” classified ten neurotic needs in three categories.

- 1- Moving Towards People
- 2- Moving Against People
- 3- Moving Away from People

4- Relationship between Real Self and Ideal Self

1-Moving Towards People

In this pattern of adjustment, individual moves towards people in order to satisfy his needs for affection and approval, for a dominant partner to control one's life and to live one's life within narrow limits. This is a type of person who is complaint type, who says that if I give in, I shall not be hurt. This type of person needs to be liked, wanted, desired, loved, welcomed, approved, appreciated, to be helped, to be protected, to be taken care of and to be guided. This type of person is friendly, most of the time and represses his aggression.

2-Moving Against People

In this adjustment mode, the neurotic need for power for exploitation of others is for prestige and for personal achievements are to be fulfilled, when an individual moves against people. This is a hostile type of a person who thinks that if he has power, no one can hurt him.

3-Moving Away from People

In this adjustment mode, the neurotic need for self-sufficiency, perfection, independence and UN-assail ability are classified. This person is a detached type, who says that if I withdraw, nothing can hurt me. These three adjustment patterns are basically are incompatible, for example, one cannot move against, towards and away from people at the same time. The normal person has greater flexibility he uses one adjustment mode to another as conditions and situations demand. **The neurotic person cannot easily move from one adjustment mode to another, rather he is less flexible and ineffective in moving from one adjustment mode to another.**

Relationship between Real Self and Ideal Self

The real self represents all those things that are true about an individual, the ideal self reflects what one would like to become. So the real self is the actual you and the ideal self is that what you aspire to become.

The relationship between real self and ideal self is important. The real self and the ideals self actually are the two sides of the same coin. For the normal person, the real self and the ideal self are closely related and not far apart. **Whereas for the neurotic persons, the real self and the ideal self are far away and the ideal self is un-realistic,** un-reachable more of a dream. So ideal self is like an illusion that does not reflect a reality and that needs to be changed and modified. For the normal person, the ideal self is realist, changeable and reachable.

5- Adjustment Techniques

Freud's ego defense mechanisms and Karen Horney's adjustment techniques are the same.

However, Karen Horney has added few new and usable techniques of adjustment which are:

- Blind Spots
- Rationalization
- Excessive self-control
- Compartmentalization
- Externalization
- Arbitrary Rightness
- Elusiveness
- Cynicism

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LESSON 12

ADJUSTMENT TO BASIC ANXIETY

Adjustment Techniques

Freud's ego defense mechanisms and Karen Horney's adjustment techniques are the same. However, Karen

Horney has added few new and usable techniques of adjustment which are:

1-Blind Spots

Let us take an example, you are extremely intelligent student and you responded to your teacher's question very stupidly, so this experience hurts your ego. Therefore, you are going to deny it and ignore it because it is not in accordance with your idealized self-image of an intelligent person. Now this experience is a disowned one and it will reappear as a blind spot in your personality. You will not accept it and it will reappear as a problem in your personality. This is similar to Sigmund Freud's repression.

2-Rationalization

It is giving good reasons or making good excuses to protect your ego. So rationalization by Freud and Horney are the same. Let's take an example: A student works very hard for CSS but fails in it. He says, "I don't want to be a civil servant, all civil servants are corrupt since I am an honest person I do not want to be a civil servant". The story of the fox and the grapes is another example of rationalization.

3-Excessive Self-Control

Excessive self-control is actually rigid self-control at all costs. Guarding one's self against anxiety by controlling any expression of emotion. In real life a puritan character has been created who maintains tight emotional control under all circumstances.

Example

An individual under extreme grief and depression expresses no emotion.

An individual under state of extreme happiness shows no emotion.

4-Compartmentalization

It means dividing your life in to various compartments, one set of rules controls one compartment and another set of rules controls another compartment. For example, a teacher does not permit his students to cheat in the class, but the same teacher while playing a game of cards cheats with his colleagues. So there is one set of rules which applies to one compartment and another set of rules which applies to another compartment of his personality.

5 - Externalization

Externalization is similar to Freud's projection. In projection, individual blames others for his own shortcoming. For example, a student did not prepare for his exams properly, and after getting a low grade, would say, the teacher was against me or the question paper was out of the course, instead of seeing the fact that the preparation was insufficient. Our team lost the match, because the umpire was against us while the fact is that our penalty corner conversion was poor.

6- Arbitrary Rightness

To the person utilizing this adjustment technique, the worst thing a person can be is indecisive or ambiguous. When issues arise that have no clear solution one way or the other, the person arbitrarily chooses one solution, thereby ending debate. An example would be when a mother says "You're not going out Friday night and that's the end of it" A person using this adjustment will arrive at a position and when doing so all debate ends. The position the person takes becomes the truth and therefore cannot be challenged. The person no longer needs to worry about what is right and wrong or what is certain and uncertain.

7 - Elusiveness

This technique is the opposite of arbitrary rightness. The elusive person never makes a decision about anything. If one is never committed to anything, one can never be wrong, and if one is never wrong, one can never be criticized. If a person decides to go to college and fails, there is no excuse. If, however, the decision to go to college is delayed, because of lack of money, or any other reason, this technique is called elusiveness, where the person never makes a decision about anything.

8 - Cynicism

Cynics are individuals who do not believe in the value of anything rather they try to make every individual realize the meaninglessness of their goals and objectives. Karen Horney believed that Cynics

are individuals who derive pleasure by making an individual realize that **he is worthless and his goals and aims in life are meaningless.**

Comparison of Freud and Karen Horney:

FREUD	KAREN HORNEY
For Freud, early childhood experiences are extremely important because personality development takes place in the early years of childhood.	For Karen Horney, child's relationship to his parents is very important and that determines whether or not the child would develop the basic anxiety.
Freud emphasized the importance of unconscious motivation in the development of personality.	For Karen Horney, basic anxiety leads to development of neurosis and causes basic hostility, which is unconscious
For Freud, all conflicts attempted to satisfy biological drives. His emphasis on sex and aggression as the primary biological motive	Karen Horney deemphasized the biological motives and focused on a need for a feeling of security in the child is important.
For Freud, males are superior and he discussed the Electra complex and Oedipus complex in detail	Karen Horney totally rejected this concept and said that anatomy is not destiny. Males are not superior. They are equal to females.
For Freud, personality changed rarely takes place in adult life.	While for Karen Horney all of us have capacity to change in fundamental ways.

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Lesson 13 ERIK ERIKSON

Biographical Sketch

Eric Erikson was born of Danish parents in Germany in 1902. Erikson's personal feelings of not belonging to his family were related to the fact that both his mother and step father were Jewish. In school he was referred to as a Jew. So we can say that even as a boy, he was working on his concept on identity crisis.

The year 1927, is the turning point in his life. He was first hired as an artist, then as a teacher and finally, **Anna Freud if he would like to be trained as a child analyst.** Erikson accepted her offer. Erikson was impressed by her and in **1964 he dedicated his book *Insight and Responsibility* to her.** From then he become aware about personality development and began developing his personal theory of personality. Erikson made several contributions to Psychology; **one application of his theory of development to study of major historical figures is labeled as psychohistory.** He analyzed historical figures such as Adolf Hitler, Martin Luther, and Mahatma Gandhi and tried to study these historical figures through the great events of history.

Erikson summarized his research on 10 to 12 years old boys and girls in California, **the children were asked by Erikson to construct on the table an exciting scene out of an imaginary moving picture.** The children were allowed to use various toys, figures and various shaped blocks. One fifty children constructed 450 scenes and only six or seven scenes with toys and dolls were given names of actress or actresses, rest of the scenes were created by imagination. Secondly, there were common themes and elements in the scenes created by boys which differed markedly from the scenes created by the girls. For example, girls created static and peaceful scenes whereas, boys created scenes with animals and dangerous men. The scenes created by boys had high walls, high towers and cannons. This tendency

surprised Erikson and made him very easy, for Erikson biology was never the only factor that determined how a person perceives and acts upon the world, social factors are also very important. So, according to Erikson, the biologically determined differences of behavior between the two genders can better be explained as a result of social and cultural expectations.

Another important point in his theory is that males are neither better than females nor vice versa. The only important difference between males and females is that both complement each other or there are cultures such as ours where the male role has been glorified which the female finds very unfortunate.

1-Anatomy and Destiny

- 1- According to Erickson biology or genetics is one strong determinant of personality but culture is another important determinant
- 2- Thus biologically determined differences between the two sexes can be explained as result of social expectations or cultural expectations.

2- Ego Psychology

For Freud, the real job of the ego is to find realistic ways to satisfy all the impulses of the id while not offending or developing a conflict with super ego. So for Freud, ego is the master control and its tries to establish a balance between id and super ego. The ego according to Erikson is in the service of the Id but in this process of serving id, it develops its own functions. **It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment**, since Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as ego psychology. His entire theory is a description of how the ego gains or loses strength in the developmental process. He has given the descriptions of eight developmental stages, through which, all individuals pass and what happens to the ego during each of these stages is important.

Lesson 14 ERIK ERIKSON

Goal of Psychotherapy

According to Erikson, **the patient's ego should be strengthen to such a level at which it can cope with life's** problems. Rehabilitation can be more effective and economical if the clinician focuses on patient's life plan and advise him to strengthen the elements of his ego identity.

Evaluation

It is a psychosocial theory.

For Erikson, it is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy of ego; we call his theory as ego psychology.

For Erikson, the conscious does not neglect the unconscious and it takes into account the social experience as well.

For Erikson, healthy people successfully pass through the eight stages of development and acquire hope, will, competence, fidelity, love, care and wisdom.

For Erikson, religion is something that people need and human use religion to make the events of their lives more understandable and less threatening.

Application

His theory had made important contributions to the areas of

- 1- Psychotherapy,
- 2- Education,
- 3- Child rearing and development
- 4- One application of his theory is study of major historical figures which is labeled as psychohistory.

He analyzed historical figures such as Adolph Hitler, Martin Luther, and Mahatma Gandhi and tried to study these historical figures through the great events of history.

Human Development

According to Erikson, every individual passes through eight stages of development and sequence of the eight stages is genetically determined and it is un-changeable. This is labeled as epigenetic principle. According to this principle, everything that grows has a ground plan and that out of this ground plan, the parts arise and each part grows up until all parts have grown to form a whole.

Each stage of development is characterized by crisis. The crisis at each stage of development has a positive and a negative resolution. A positive resolution strengthen the ego makes it stronger and helps the individual in the adaptation process. On the other hand a negative resolution weakens the ego and hinders inhibits the adaptation process. A negative resolution lowers the likelihood that the next crisis will be resolved effectively. It is the social environment that determines whether or not the crisis associated with any stage is resolved positively it is therefore labeled as psychosocial stages of development as compared to Freud's psycho-sexual stages of development.

- 1- Basic Trust versus basic mistrust (from birth to one year).
- 2- Autonomy versus shame and doubt (from one to three years).
- 3- Initiative versus Guilt (four to five years).
- 4- Industry versus inferiority (six to eleven years).
- 5- Identity versus role confusions (From twelve to twenty years).
- 6- Intimacy versus isolation (from twenty to twenty four years).
- 7- Generativity versus stagnation (from twenty five to sixty five).
- 8- Ego integrity versus despair (sixty five to death).

1 Basic Trust versus basic mistrust (from birth to one year).

If crisis is successfully resolved hope emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, fear emerges.

2 Autonomy versus shame and doubt (from one to three years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, self-control, will power emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, self- doubt emerges.

3 Initiative versus Guilt (four to five years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, director and purpose emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, feelings of unworthiness emerge.

4 Industry versus inferiority (six to eleven years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, competence emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, incompetence emerges.

5 Identity versus role confusions (From twelve to twenty years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, fidelity emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, uncertainty emerges.

6 Intimacy versus isolation (from twenty to twenty four years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, capacity for love emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, hatred and disgust emerges.

7 Generativity versus stagnation (from twenty five to sixty five).

If crisis is successfully resolved, care emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, selfishness emerges.

8 Ego integrity versus despair (sixty five to death).

If crisis is successfully resolved, wisdom emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, feeling despair and meaninglessness emerges.

In these eight stages of development, there are useful traits that emerge if each crisis is resolved successfully.

Comparison of Erikson and Freud:

FREUD	ERIKSON
For Freud, there is a psycho-sexual theory of development.	For Erikson, there is a psycho-social theory of development.
For Freud, ego is important. It is the master control. It maintains a balance between the id and super ego.	For Erikson, The ego is in the service of the Id but in this process of serving id, it develops its own functions. It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as ego psychology
For Freud, the unconscious mind, the unconscious conflicts are important.	For Erikson, the conscious does not neglect the unconscious and it takes into account the social experience as well.
For Freud, psycho-therapy helps in the understanding of unconscious mechanisms using the techniques such as dream analysis and free association.	For Erikson, healthy people successfully pass through the eight stages of development and acquire hope, will, competence, fidelity, love, care and wisdom
For Freud, he took a very dim view of religion and said that it was nearly a collective neurosis based on fears and desires.	For Erikson, religion is something that people need and human use religion to make the events of their lives more understandable and less threatening

Lesson 15

SULLIVAN'S INTERPERSONAL THEORY

Harry Stack Sullivan: Biographical sketch

Harry Stack Sullivan was born in 1892 in Norwich, near New York and died in 1949 in Paris.

He received his medical degree in 1917 and served with the armed forces in World War I.

In 1922 he met William Alanson White, a leader in American Neuropsychiatry.

Then he conducted investigations in Schizophrenia that established his reputation as a clinician.

Sullivan sees the individual as the object of study because the individual does not and cannot exist apart from his or her relations with other people. From the first day of life, the baby is a part of an interpersonal situation, and throughout the rest of its life it remains a member of a social field.

Even a wild cat who has resigned from society carries with him into the wilderness memories of former personal relationships that continue to influence his thinking and acting.

Sullivan does not deny the importance of heredity and maturation in shaping the organism; **he feels that human is the product of social interactions.** Moreover, the interpersonal experiences of a person may alter his or her purely physiological functioning, so that even the organism loses its status as a biological entity and becomes a social organism with its own socialized ways of breathing, digesting, eliminating, circulating, and so forth.

Sullivan insists repeatedly that personality is a purely hypothetical entity, “an illusion,” which cannot be observed apart from interpersonal situations.

Dynamism is the smallest unit that can be employed in the study of the individual. It is defined as “the relatively enduring pattern of energy transformations, which recurrently characterize the organism in its duration as a living organism” An energy transformation is any form of behavior. It may be overt and public like talking, or covert and private like thinking and fantasizing.

Because dynamism is a pattern of behavior that endures and recurs, **it is about the same thing as a habit.** This means that a new feature may be added to a pattern without changing the pattern just as long as it is not significantly different from the other contents of the envelope. It is significantly different it changes the pattern into a new pattern.

For example, two apples may be quite different in appearance and yet be identified as apples because their differences are not important. However, an apple and a banana are different in significant respects and consequently form two different patterns.

1-The Self-System

Anxiety is a product of interpersonal relations, being transmitted originally from the mother to the infant and later in life by threats to one’s security. To avoid or minimize actual or potential anxiety, people adopt various types of protective measures and supervisory controls over their behavior. One learns, for example, that one can avoid punishment by conforming to parents’ wishes. These security measures form the self-system that sanctions certain forms of behavior (the good-me self) and forbids other forms (the bad-me self).

The self-system as the guardian of one’s security tends to become isolated from the rest of the personality; it excludes information that is incongruous with its present organization and fails thereby to profit from experience. **Since the self-guards the person from anxiety, it is held in high esteem and is protected from criticism.** As the self-system grows in complexity and independence, it prevents the person from making objective judgments of his or her own behavior and it glosses over obvious contradictions between what the person really is and what the self-system says he or she is. In general, the more experiences people have with anxiety, the more exaggerated their self-system becomes and the more it becomes dissociated from the rest of the personality. **Although the self-system serves the useful purpose of reducing anxiety, it interferes with one’s ability to live constructively with others.**

2-Personifications

A personification is an image that an individual has of him or herself or of another person. It is a complex of feelings, attitudes, and conceptions that grows out of experiences with need satisfaction and anxiety.

For example, the baby develops a personification of a good mother by being nursed and cared for by her. Any interpersonal relationship that involves satisfaction tends to build up a favorable picture of the satisfying agent. On the other hand, the baby’s personification of a bad mother results from experiences with her that evokes anxiety. The anxious mother becomes personified as the bad mother. Ultimately these two personifications of the mother along with any others that

may be formed, such as the overprotective mother, fuse together to form a complex personification.

Lesson 16

SULLIVAN'S INTERPERSONAL THEORY

3-Cognitive Process

Sullivan's unique contribution regarding the place of cognition in the affairs of personality is his threefold classification of experience.

Experience, he says, occurs in three modes; these are

- Prototaxic,
- Parataxic,
- Syntactic.

1-Prototaxic experience consists of primitive experience of infant. This type of experience is similar to the "stream of consciousness," the raw sensations, images, and feelings that flow through the mind of a sensate being. They have no necessary connection" among themselves and possess no meaning for the experiencing person.

Example

The prototaxic mode of experience is found in its purest form during the early months of life and is the necessary precondition for the appearance of the other two modes.

2-The Parataxic mode of thinking consists of pre-logical and completely impossible to accurately communicate with others. Whenever a black cat comes my way I face disaster, we see causal connections between experiences that have nothing to do with one another.

Example

All superstitions, for instance, are examples of parataxic thinking.

3-The third and highest mode of thinking is the syntactic, that can be accurately communicated to others. A consensually validated symbol is one which has been agreed upon by a group of people as having a standard meaning. Words and numbers are the best examples of such symbols. The syntactic mode produces logical order among experiences and enables people to communicate with one another.

In addition to this Sullivan emphasizes the importance of foresight in cognitive functioning.

"Man, the person, lives with his past, the present and the neighboring future all clearly relevant in explaining his thought and action" Far-sightedness depends upon one's memory of the past and interpretation of the present.

4-The Dynamics of Personality

Sullivan, in common with many other personality theorists, conceives of personality as an energy system whose chief work consists of activities that will reduce tension.

a-Tension

Sullivan begins with the familiar conception of the organism as a tension system that theoretically can vary between the limits of absolute relaxation, or euphoria as Sullivan prefers to call it, and absolute tension as exemplified by extreme terror.

There are two main sources of tension:

- (1) Tensions that arise from the needs of the organism, and
- (2) Tensions that result from an anxiety.

Needs are connected with the physiochemical requirements of life; they are such conditions as lack of food or water or oxygen that produce a disequilibrium in the economy of the organism.

Needs may be general in character, such as hunger, or they may be more specifically related to a zone of the body, such as the infant's need to suck.

Needs arrange themselves in a hierarchical order; those lower down on the ladder must be satisfied before those higher on the ladder can be accommodated. One result of need reduction is an experience of satisfaction. The typical consequence of prolonged failure to satisfy the needs is a feeling of indifference that produces a general lowering of the tensions.

b- Anxiety

Anxiety is the experience of tension that results from real or imaginary threats to one's security.

In large amounts, it reduces the efficiency of the individuals in satisfying their needs, disturbs interpersonal relations, and produces confusion in thinking. Anxiety varies in intensity depending upon the seriousness of the threat and the effectiveness of the security operations that the persons have at their command.

Severe anxiety is like a blow on the head; it conveys no information to the person but instead produces utter confusion and even amnesia. Less severe forms of anxiety can be informative. **In fact, Sullivan believes that anxiety is the first great educative influence in living.**

5-The Development of Personality

Sullivan spells out the sequence of interpersonal situations to which the person is exposed in passing from infancy to adulthood, and the ways in which these situations contribute to the formation of personality.

Stages of Development

Sullivan spells six stages in the development of personality. They are

- (1) infancy,**
- (2) childhood,**
- (3) the juvenile era,**
- (4) preadolescence,**
- (5) early adolescence, and**
- (6) late adolescence.**

1) Infancy

The period of infancy extends from birth to the appearance of articulate speech. It is the period in which the oral zone is the primary zone of interaction between the baby and its environment.

Nursing provides the baby with its first interpersonal experience.

The other characteristic features of the stage are

- (1) transition from a prototaxic to a parataxic mode of cognition,
- (2) the organization of personifications such as the bad, anxious, rejecting, frustrating mother and the good, relaxed, accepting, satisfying mother,
- (3) the differentiation of the baby's own body so that the baby learns to satisfy its tensions independently of the mothering one, for example, by thumb sucking, and
- (4) the learning of coordinated movements involving hand and eye, hand and mouth, and ear and voice.

2) Childhood

The transition from infancy to childhood is made possible by the learning of language and the organization of experience in the syntactic mode. Childhood extends from the emergence of articulate speech to the appearance of the need for playmates.

The development of language permits, among other things, the fusion of different personifications, for instance, the good and bad mother, and the integration of the self-system into a more coherent structure.

3- Juvenile Era

- It extends throughout the most of the school years.
- One acquires social subordination to authority figures outside of family .
- one becomes competitive and cooperative.

4- Preadolescence

The self-system begins to develop the conception of gender: the little boy identifies with the masculine role as prescribed by society, the little girl with the feminine role. The growth of symbolic ability enables the child to play at being a grownup- Sullivan calls these as-if performances dramatizations-and to become concerned with various activities both overt and covert that serve the purpose of warding off punishment and anxiety- Sullivan calls these preoccupations.

5- Early Adolescence

The main problem of the period of early adolescence is the development of a pattern of heterosexual activity. The physiological changes of puberty are experienced by the youth as feelings of lust; out of these feelings the lust dynamism emerges and begins to assert itself in the personality. The lust dynamism involves primarily the genital zone, but other zones of interaction such as the mouth and the hands also participate in sexual behavior. There is a separation of erotic need from the need for intimacy; the erotic need takes as its object a member of the opposite sex while the need for intimacy remains fixated upon a member of the same sex. If these two needs do not become divorced, the young person displays a homosexual rather than a heterosexual orientation. Sullivan points out that many of the conflicts of adolescence arise out of the opposing needs for sexual gratification, security, and intimacy.

6-Late adolescence

The period of late adolescence constitutes a rather prolonged initiation into the privileges, duties, satisfactions, and responsibilities of social living and citizenship. The full complement of interpersonal relations gradually takes form and there is a growth of experience in the syntactic mode that permits a widening of the symbolic horizons. The self-system becomes stabilized, more effective sublimations of tensions are learned, and stronger security measures against anxiety are instituted.

When the individual has ascended all of these steps and reached the final stage of adulthood, he or she has been transformed largely by means of their interpersonal relations from an animal organism into a human person. One is not an animal, coated by civilization and humanity, but an animal that has been so drastically altered that one is no longer an animal but a human being—or, if one prefers, a human animal.

6-Characteristic Research and Research Methods

As a young psychiatrist, Sullivan discovered that the method of free association did not work satisfactorily with schizophrenics because it aroused too much anxiety. Other methods were tried but these also proved to provoke anxiety that interfered with the communication process between patient and therapist. Sullivan became interested in studying the forces that impede and facilitate communication between two people. In so doing, he found that the psychiatrist was much more than an observer; he or she was also a vital participant in an interpersonal situation. The psychiatrist had his or her own apprehensions, such a professional competence and personal problems, to deal with. As a result of this discovery Sullivan developed his conception of the therapist as a participant observer.

a-The Interview

The psychiatric interview is Sullivan's term for the type of interpersonal, face to face situation that takes place between the patient and the therapist. There may be only one interview or there may be a sequence of interviews with a patient extending over a long period of time. Sullivan defines the interview as "a system, or series of systems, of interpersonal processes, arising from participant observation in which the interviewer derives certain conclusions about the interviewee". How the interview is conducted and the ways in which the interviewer reaches conclusions regarding the patient form the subject matter of Sullivan's book, the psychiatric interview (1954).

Sullivan divides the interview into four stages:

- 1 The formal inception,
- 2 Reconnaissance,
- 3 Detailed inquiry, and
- 4 The termination.

The interview is primarily a vocal communication between two people. Not only what the person says but how he or she says it, rate of speech, and other expressive behavior- are the chief sources of information for the interviewer. The interviewer should be alert to subtle changes in the patient's vocalizations (e.g., changes in volume) because these clues often reveal vital evidence regarding the patient's focal problems and attitudinal changes towards the therapist. In the inception, the interviewer should avoid asking too many questions but should maintain an attitude of quiet observation. The interviewer should try to determine the reasons for the patient's coming and something about the nature of the patient's problems.

b-Research on Schizophrenia

In his association with the Sheppard and Enoch Pratt Hospital in Maryland, during the years 1924 to 1931, reveal Sullivan's great talents for making contact with and understanding the mind of the psychotic. Empathy was a highly developed trait in Sullivan's personality, and he used it to be excellent advantage in studying and treating the victims of schizophrenia.

Lesson 17

CONSTITUTIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The constitutional psychologist is one who looks to the biological substratum of the individual for factors that are important to the explanation of human behavior.

William H. Sheldon

Sheldon was born in the year 1899 in Warwick, Rhode Island, where he grew up in a farm setting.

The rural atmosphere of his early life and his close relationship with his father, who was a naturalist and animal breeder, had a lasting effect upon his values and upon his view of human behavior.

Sheldon's professional writings follow a remarkably consistent main stream. With only two interesting excursions, they represent an attempt to identify and describe the major structural components of the human body (The varieties of human physique, 1940), the major components of temperament (The varieties of temperament, 1942), and the application of these findings to the area of delinquency (Varieties of delinquent youth, 1949). Sheldon returned to the problem of description of physique in his Atlas of men (1954) and several other publications. Up until the time of his death Sheldon was actively working on an "Atlas of Women," an "Atlas of Children," and a volume concerned with physique and organic disease.

In Sheldon's theory we find a clear and vigorous exposition of the crucial importance of the physical structure of the body as a primary determinant of behavior. Moreover, he identifies a set of objective variables that can be used as a bridgehead for describing physique and behavior. Furthermore, his techniques for assessing the structural characteristics of the body involve the use of standard photographs and a much more carefully specified and reproducible procedure than that of his predecessors.

1-The Structure of Physique

One of the fascinations of Sheldon's theory of personality lies in its simplicity and specificity. Sheldon defines a discrete number of physical and temperamental variables that he considers of primary importance in representing human behavior.

Dimensions of Physique

Primary Components of Physique

After a considerable period of carefully examining and judging these pictures Sheldon and his associates concluded that, with a list of three, they had exhausted the possibilities of discovering new components. These three dimensions became the core of the technique for assessing the physical structure of the body.

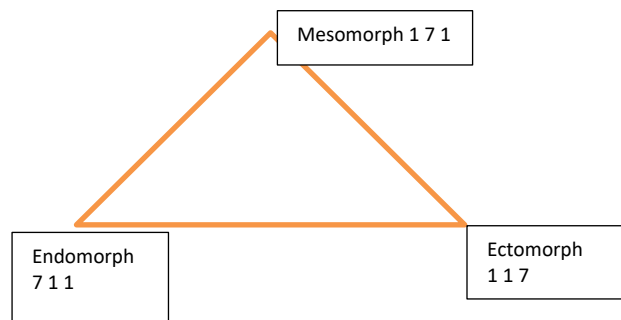
Sheldon's Somatotype	Character	Shape	Sample Picture
Endomorph [viscerotonic]	relaxed, sociable, tolerant, comfort- loving, peaceful	plump, buxom, developed visceral structure	
Mesomorph [somatotonic]	active, assertive, vigorous, combative	muscular	
Ectomorph [cerebrotonic]	quiet, fragile, restrained, non- assertive, sensitive	lean, delicate, poor muscles	

The physical measurements not only lead to an over-all score for each of the components; they also provide *ratings for* these components for **five different areas of the body: head-neck, chest-trunk, arms, stomach-trunk, and legs**. A complete description of the process of somatotyping the male body is contained in Sheldon's *Atlas of men* (1954) which includes representative somatotype photographs of over one thousand men derived from a total sample of 46,000 photographs.

In his major publication of recent years, Sheldon has presented (Sheldon, Lewis, and Tenney, 1969) a full discussion of these basic somatotype variables together with a series of tables (The Basic Tables for Objective Somatotyping) that permit one to establish the correct somatotype given scores on the three variables. An abbreviated version of this monograph (Sheldon, 1971) provides the historical context of this work and a brief summary of the new procedure.

The *somatotype* of the individual is the patterning of the primary components of physique as expressed by three numerals derived from the seventeen measures mentioned above, or some

equivalent set of operations, viewed against an adequate history of the individual. The first of these numerals always refers to endomorphy, the second to mesomorphy, and the third to ectomorphy. The numerals range from 1 to 7 with 1 representing the absolute minimum of the component and 7 the highest possible amount. Thus, an individual rated 7-1-1 is extremely high in endomorphy and very low in mesomorphy and very low in ectomorphy. An individual rated 4-6-1 is about average in endomorphy and very high in mesomorphy but markedly deficient in ectomorphy.



2-The Secondary Components

One of the most important of the secondary components is dysplasia. Borrowing the term from Kretschmer, Sheldon uses it to refer to “any inconsistent or uneven mixture of the three primary components in different regions of the body” (1940, p. 68). Thus, it is a measure of disharmony between different areas of the physique, for example, head and neck of one somatotype and legs of another. The measure of dysplasia is arrived at by taking the separate somatotype ratings for the five regions of the body and summing the differences for each of the components among the five areas of the body. In other words, it represents the amount of discrepancy in the somatotype as computed for each of the five areas of the body. One can derive separate dysplasia scores for each of the three components as well as a total score. Preliminary findings indicate that there is more dysplasia associated with the ectomorphic component than with either of the other two components, and also more dysplasia observed in the female physique than in the male physique. Sheldon (1940) also reports that there is more dysplasia among psychotics than among college students.

Female Somatotyping

The bulk of the initial work that was done with Sheldon’s physical dimensions was carried out with males.

In his first volume on physique Sheldon (1940) states that the evidence then available indicates that the same seventy-six somatotypes seemed to occur among women as had been observed among men, although probably with different frequencies. He also suggests that endomorphy, and endomorph, combined with ectomorphy, are more common among women; while mesomorphy, and mesomorphy combined with endomorphy, are more common among men.

Lesson 18

SHELDON’S SOMATOTYPE THEORY

Factors Mediating the Physique- Temperament Association

We accept here the existence of a marked relation between measures of physique and measures of important behavioral attributes, and inquire into what has led to this striking congruence. One may reason that an individual who is endowed with a particular type of physique is likely to find

certain kinds of responses particularly effective while an individual with another type of physique will find it necessary to adopt other modes of response.

The individual with a frail ectomorphic body cannot successfully adopt an aggressive, domineering manner in relation to most people, whereas it may be perfectly possible for the oversized mesomorph to do so. Further, the child with a small stomach, or low thresholds for pain, may be exposed to characteristic experiences that are strikingly different from those typical for individuals of different physical characteristics. Given a particular physique and a normal environment, the individual finds certain kinds of responses are relatively often rewarded and certain other kinds of responses are usually punished. This implies that the individual will develop patterns of behavior that will show similarity to the behavior of other people, who because of sharing the same kind of physiques have had similar sets of experiences.

Another possibility is that the relation between physique and temperament is mediated by commonly accepted stereotypes or the social-stimulus value within the culture in regard to the sort of behavior to be expected of individuals with different kinds of physique.

Biological and Genetic Orientation

Many personality theorists have chosen to place a heavy emphasis upon the psychobiological nature of human behavior (Murray, Murphy, and Freud)

In many respects the details of Sheldon's position may be considered to stem from a conviction that biological factors are of overwhelming importance in accounting for human behavior and his consequent decision to attempt the measurement of important elements of this biological foundation of behavior. As we have seen from his distinction between the **somatotype and the morphogenotype**, the measurement of physique is merely a means of estimating the underlying biological factors that have such a heavy influence upon the course of life. All things considered, it seems safe to say that Sheldon's position revolves more closely about biological determinants of behavior than does that of any other contemporary personality theorist.

Unconscious Processes

The importance of unconscious determinants of behavior is accepted by Sheldon but he is inclined to equate these determinants to underlying biological factors. Presumably if the individual knew more about the structure of his body and the biological factors at work within it, he would be more conscious of the forces that impel his behavior.

5-Characteristic Research and Research Methods

More than most personality theorists Sheldon's formulations are embedded in empirical studies. We have already gained a rather representative view of his investigations in the process of noting how he set about the formulation and measurement of physique and temperament. Let us deal briefly with two further studies in which he investigated mental disorder and delinquency against the background offered by somatotype measurement.

1-Physique and Mental Disorder

Constitutional psychology not only gives promise of providing new vistas of understanding in the study of normal human behavior; it also offers the possibility of understanding better, and perhaps alleviating or preventing, various psychological and social abnormalities.

After examining the state of psychiatric diagnosis he concluded that it would not be possible to approach the study of physique in relation to mental disorder.

2-Physique and Delinquency

Sheldon's eight-year study of delinquent youth was conducted to provide a kind of background against which to compare his findings from the study of normal college youth. The investigation was carried out at the Hayden Goodwill Inn, a resident rehabilitation home for boys in Boston,

Massachusetts. During the three years from 1939 to 1942 approximately four hundred young men were studied by Sheldon and his collaborators and, from this sample, two hundred were selected for a follow-up study after the war on the basis of completeness of information and clear evidence of delinquency. All of the subjects were examined by means of the **Somatotype Performance Test** and assigned somatotype ratings as well as ratings on the secondary components of physique.

Even though some personality theorists have chosen to dwell upon these factors, they have, in general, shown little inclination to implement the crucial biological factors. Thus we may largely credit Sheldon with reminding psychologists that the behaving human has physique, and further that this physique provides valuable clues to an underlying set of determinants, which in the end may prove quite as collaboration between biological and behavioral scientists and the growing awareness on the part of psychologists of the importance of biological factors has served to make Sheldon's position far more acceptable today than it was a decade or so ago.

6-Evaluation

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- In any final evaluation of Sheldon's theory it is important to consider the wealth of empirical studies that have been conducted by Sheldon and stimulated by his writings.
- Ultimately the value of a theory can best be measured by its empirical impact and no one can deny that Sheldon's findings and formulations have provoked dozens or perhaps hundreds of related studies.
- Sheldon's work is of assured interest to psychologists whatever its shortcomings may be it has led to findings with which the future must reckon.

Lesson 19

MASLOW'S THEORY

Biographical Sketch

Abraham Harold Maslow was born April 1, 1908, in Brooklyn, New York. His parents were uneducated

Jewish immigrants from Russia who dreamed of a better life for their son than theirs had been. Maslow, the

eldest of seven children, was strongly encouraged by his parents to be academically successful.

Maslow's decision to study psychology at Wisconsin was largely affected by the behaviorism of John

Watson. Maslow's enthusiasm for behaviorism literally vanished when the first of two daughters was born.

Evidently, the complex behavior displayed by Maslow's own children convinced him that Behaviorist

Psychology was more relevant to understanding animals than humans.

As a member of the American Psychological Association he was president of the Division of Personality and Social Psychology, and was elected president of the entire association for 1967-1968. Maslow was also a founding editor of both the Journal of Humanistic Psychology and the

Journal of Transpersonal Psychology, and he served as consulting editor of numerous other scholarly periodicals. Maslow was vitally interested in growth psychology.

Basic Tenets of Humanistic Psychology

The term "humanistic psychology" refers to third force in psychology. Although proponents of this movement represent a wide range of views, they do share certain fundamental conceptions of human nature.

Existential philosophy is concerned with man as an individual and the unique problems of human existence.

Man is literally one who exists as being-in-the-world, consciously and painfully aware of his own existence and eventual nonexistence (death).

1-The Individual as an Integrated Whole

One of the most fundamental aspects of humanistic psychology- and Maslow's version of it- is that each individual must be studied as an integrated, unique, organized whole. In fact, Maslow's theory was primarily developed as a revolt against those theories (especially behaviorism) that deal in bits and pieces of behavior while ignoring the person as a unified whole.

2-Irrelevance of Animal Research

Advocates of humanistic psychology recognize a profound difference between human and animal behavior.

For them, human beings are more than just animals; they are special kinds of animal. Highly significant from a humanistic perspective, then, is the fact that there are no rat, pigeon, monkey, or even dolphin personologists- only humans have the capacity to theorize about humans.

3-Man's Inner Nature

Freud's theory implicitly assumed that man basically has an evil character, human impulses, if not controlled, will lead to the destruction of others as well as the self. One might not be able to appreciate this view while being mugged in Central Park; however, from the humanistic perspective, the evil, destructive, and violent forces in people arise from a **bad environment rather than from any inherent rottenness on their part.**

4-Human Creative Potential

The primacy of human creativity is perhaps the most significant concept of humanistic psychology.

Maslow (1950) merits the distinction of being the first to call attention to the fact that the most universal characteristic of the people he studied or observed was creativeness. One need not write books, compose music, or produce art objects to be creative. Comparatively few people do. **Creativity is a universal human function and leads to all forms of self-expression. Thus, for example, there can be creative homemakers, disc jockeys, shoe salespersons, business executives, and even college professors!**

5-Emphasis on Psychological Health

Maslow consistently argued that none of the available psychological approaches to the study of behavior does justice to the healthy human being's functioning, mode of living, or life goals. **In particular, he strongly criticized Freud's preoccupation with the study of neurotic and psychotic individuals.** For example, the nature of graduate students would hardly become evident by studying high school dropouts exclusively.

In fact, such a study would be much more likely to discover what graduate students are not like than what they are like.

Maslow's Hierarchical Theory of Motivation

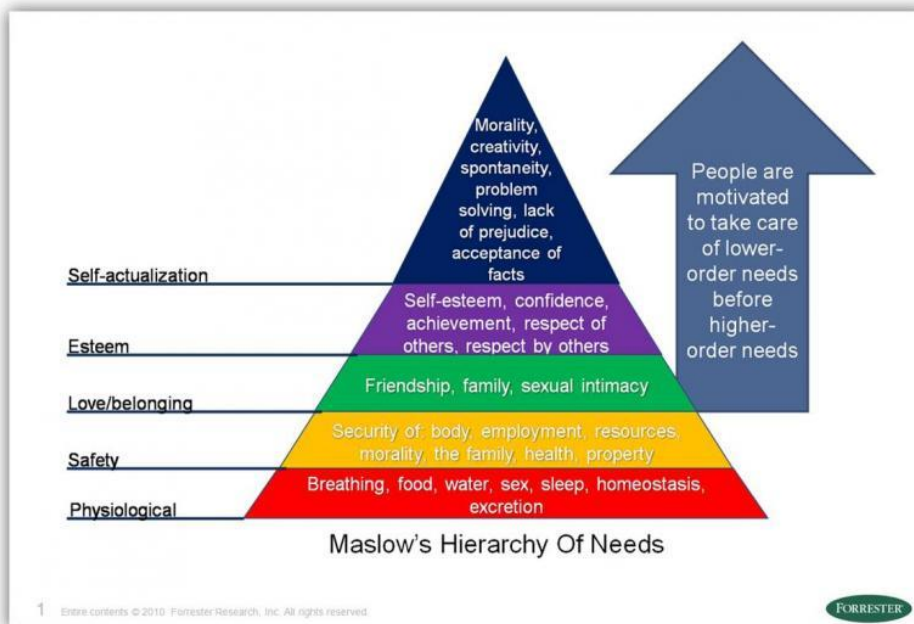
Maslow believed that much of human behavior can be explained by the individual's tendency to seek personal goal states that make life rewarding and meaningful. In fact, **motivational processes** are the heart of his personality theory. Maslow (1970) depicted the human being as a "wanting animal" who rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction. If nirvana exists, it is temporary. In Maslow's system, as one personal desire is satisfied, another surfaces to take its place. When a person satisfies this one, still another clamors for satisfaction. It is characteristic of human life that people, are almost always desiring something. Maslow proposed that human desires (i.e., motives) are innate and that they are arranged in an ascending hierarchy of priority or potency. In this need-hierarchy conception of human motivation. The needs are, in order of potency:

- 1) Basic physiological needs
- 2) Safety needs
- 3) Belongingness and love needs
- 4) Self-esteem needs
- 5) Self-actualization

Underlying this scheme is the assumption that needs must be at least somewhat satisfied before an individual can become aware of or motivated by higher-order needs.

For instance, he noted that some creative people have pursued the development and expression of their special talents despite serious hardships and social ridicule. There are also people whose values and ideals are so strong that they are willing to suffer hunger or thirst or even die rather than reject them. For example, social reformers have continued their struggles despite harassment, jail sentences, physical deprivation, and, often, certain death. In general, however, the lower the need in the hierarchy, the greater its strength or priority tends to be.

Let's examine each of Maslow's need categories.



1-Physiological Needs: The most basic, powerful, and obvious of all human needs is the need for physical survival. Included in this group are the needs for food, drink, oxygen, activity and sleep, sex, protection from extreme temperatures, and sensory stimulation. These physiological

drives are directly concerned with the biological maintenance of the organism and must be gratified at some minimal level before the individual is motivated by higher-order needs.

2-Safety needs: Once the physiological needs have been satisfied, an individual becomes concerned with a new set, often called the safety or security needs. The primary motivating force here is to ensure a reasonable degree of certainty, order, structure, and predictability in one's environment. Maslow suggested that the safety needs are most readily observed in infants and young children because of their relative helplessness and dependence on adults. Infants, for instance, respond fearfully if they are suddenly dropped or startled by loud noises or flashing lights. Experience and education eventually neutralize such apparent dangers, e.g., "I am not afraid of thunder and lightning because I know something about them." The urgency of safety needs is also evident when a child experiences bodily illnesses of various kinds. A child with a broken leg will temporarily experience fears, have nightmares, and manifest a need for protection and reassurance not evident before the accident.

3-Belongingness and Love Needs: The belongingness and love needs constitute the third hierarchical level. These needs emerge primarily when the physiological and safety needs have been met. An individual motivated on this level longs for affectionate relationships with others, for a place in his or her family and / or reference groups. Group membership becomes a dominant goal for the individual. Accordingly, a person will feel keenly the pangs of loneliness, friendlessness, and rejection, especially when induced by the absence of friends, relatives, a spouse, or children. Students who attend college far from home fall prey to the effects of belongingness needs, striving with great intensity to be recognized within a group regardless of its size.

4-Self-Esteem Needs: When one's needs for being loved and for loving others have been reasonably gratified, their motivating force diminishes, paving the way for self-esteem needs. Maslow divided these into two subsidiary sets: self-respect and esteem from others. The former includes such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence, and freedom. An individual needs to know that he or she is worthwhile- capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life.

Esteem from others includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, fame, reputation, and appreciation. In this case people need to be appreciated for what they can do, i.e., they must experience feelings of worth because their competence is recognized and valued by significant others.

5-Self-Actualization Needs: Finally, if all the foregoing needs are sufficiently satisfied, the need for self-actualization comes to the fore. Maslow characterized self-actualization as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming. The person who has achieved this highest level presses toward the full use and exploitation of his or her talents, capacities, and potentialities. Self-actualization is a person's desire for self-improvement, his or her drive to make actual what he or she is potentially. In short, to self-actualize is to become the kind of person one wants to become-to reach the peak of one's potential: "A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. He must be true to his own nature".

In other words, self-actualization generates fulfillment, but it also generates fear of responsibilities and the unknown.

Why can't all people achieve self-actualization?

According to Maslow; most, if not all, of mankind needs and seeks inner fulfillment. His own research led him to conclude that the impulse toward realizing one's potentialities is both natural

and necessary. Yet only a few—usually the gifted—ever achieve it (less than 1 percent of the population Maslow estimated). In part, he believed that this extremely unfortunate state of affairs exists because many people are simply blind to their potential; they neither know that it exists nor understand the rewards of self-enhancement.

Rather, they tend to doubt and even fear their own abilities, thereby diminishing their chances of becoming self-actualized. In addition, the social environment often stifles self-fulfillment.

Maslow's meta-motivational theory

He has given a meta-motivational theory which differentiates between basic needs and meta-needs. The basic needs are hunger, thirst, affection, and security, self-esteem while the meta-needs include justice, goodness, beauty, and order.

The basic needs have a hierarchy but meta-needs do not have a hierarchy rather they are instinctual just like basic needs when they are not fulfilled individual becomes sick.

Lesson 20

MASLOW'S THEORY

Empirical Validation of HUMANISTIC THEORY CONCEPTS

To date, efforts aimed at verifying Maslow's humanistic conceptions of personality have focused primarily on two areas: (1) the hierarchy of needs and (2) the concept of self-actualization.

Empirical attention has

been given to only these two areas because they constitute the greater part of Maslow's contributions to personology. Regrettably, other aspects of Maslow's theory have received virtually no empirical support. In particular, there is no evidence to substantiate the notion that the various meta needs emerge or become dominant once the basic needs have been gratified. At the same time, however, it should be emphasized that Maslow's meta-motivational theory has had a decided impact on the thinking of many investigators in a variety of disciplines.

What Are Self-Actualizers Like?

All Self-Actualizing individuals' possess the following characteristics

1. Efficient Perception of Reality

Perhaps the most universal characteristic of these superior people is their unusual ability to perceive other people correctly and efficiently, to see reality as it is rather than as they wish it to be. They have a better perception of reality and more comfortable relations with it. They are less emotional and more objective about their perceptions; they do not allow their desires and hopes to distort their observations.

2. Acceptance of Self, Others, and Nature

The healthy person displays a sense of respect for self and others. Without feeling undue concern, he or she accepts his or her own nature in a stoic style, with all its shortcomings, frailties, and weaknesses. There is also freedom from overriding guilt, crippling shame, and debilitating anxiety.

3. Spontaneity, Simplicity, Naturalness

The behavior of self-actualizing people is marked by spontaneity and simplicity, by an absence of artificiality or straining for effect. This does not imply consistently unconventional behavior. It is the person's inner life (thoughts, impulses, etc.) that is unconventional, natural, and spontaneous.

4. Problem Centering

Without exception, Maslow found his subjects to be committed to some task, duty, vocation, or beloved job which they regarded as important. That is, they are not ego-centered but rather oriented toward problems beyond their immediate needs, problems to which they are dedicated in the sense of "a mission in life."

5. Detachment: Need for Privacy

This kind of individual prefers solitude and privacy and even seeks it to a greater extent than the average person. In social encounters he or she is often viewed by "normal" people as aloof, reserved, snobbish, and cold. This is because self-actualizers do not need other people in the usual sense of friendship. They rely completely upon their inner resources and remain unruffled by that which produces turmoil in others.

This quality of detachment encompasses other aspects of behavior as well. For instance, since they are able to concentrate more intensely than ordinary people, they may become absentminded and oblivious to outer surroundings. They remain calm and serene during periods of personal misfortune. Maslow explained that this comes in part from the self-actualizer's tendency to stand by his or her own interpretation of situations instead of relying upon what other people think or feel about matters.

6. Autonomy: Independence of Culture and Environment

As characteristics already discussed would suggest, self-actualizing people are not dependent for their main satisfactions on the physical and social environment. Rather, they rely on their own potentialities and latent resources for growth and development. For example, truly self-actualizing college students do not really need the "right" academic atmosphere on campus to learn. They can learn anywhere because they have themselves of course, some campus "atmospheres" may be better than others in this respect; the point here is that the self-actualizer does not require a particular type of environment before he or she can learn, or, for that matter, do almost anything else. In this sense, the self-actualizer is a self-contained unit.

Healthy people also have a high degree of self-direction and "free will." They regard themselves as selfgoverned, active, responsible, and self-disciplined agents in determining their own destinies. They are strong enough to be oblivious to others' opinions and affection; thus, they shun honors, status, prestige, and popularity. Such extrinsic satisfactions are perceived as less significant than self-development and inner growth. Of course, attaining this point of relative independence depends upon having been loved and respected in the past, e.g., satisfying lower-level needs.

7. Continued Freshness of Appreciation

Maslow discovered that healthy, mature adults exhibit a capacity to appreciate even the most ordinary events in their lives with a sense of newness, awe, pleasure, and even ecstasy. They seldom become bored with life experiences:

8. Peak or Mystic Experiences

Maslow observed that self-actualizing individuals commonly had what he called peak experiences (also termed "oceanic feeling"). This term refers to moments of intense excitement and high tension as well as to those of relaxation, peacefulness, blissfulness, and stillness. Representing the most ecstatic moments of life, such occurrences usually come from love and sexual climax, bursts of creativity, insight, discovery, and fusion with nature. These people can "turn on" without artificial stimulants. Just being alive turns them on.

9. Social Interest

Even though self-actualizers are sometimes troubled, saddened, and even enraged by the shortcomings of the human race, they experience a deep feeling of kinship with humanity. Consequently, they have a genuine desire to help improve the lot of their fellows. This nurturant attitude is evidenced by a feeling of compassion, sympathy, and affection for all humanity.

10. Interpersonal Relations

Self-actualizing people tend to form deeper and closer personal relationships than those of the "average" adult. Similarly, those with whom they associate are likely to be healthier and closer to self-actualization than the average person. That is, self-actualizers are more inclined to associate closely with others of similar character, talent, and capacity ("birds of a feather").

11. Democratic Character Structure

Maslow described his subjects as being "democratic" in the deepest sense. Since they are free of prejudice, they tend basically to respect all persons. Further, they are willing to learn from anybody who is able to teach them, irrespective of class, education, age, race, or political beliefs.

12. Discrimination between Means and Ends.

In their day-to-day living, self-actualizing individuals show less confusion, inconsistency, and conflict than the average person about what is right or wrong, good or bad. They have definite moral and ethical standards, although very few of them are religious in the orthodox sense of the term.

13. Sense of Philosophical Humor.

Another characteristic common to Maslow's subjects was a distinct preference for philosophical or cosmic humor. Whereas the average person may enjoy humor that pokes fun at another's inferiority, that hurts or ridicules someone, or that is "off-color," the healthy person typically finds humor expressing the foolishness of humanity in general most appealing. Lincoln's humor serves as a relevant example.

14. Creativeness

Not surprisingly, Maslow found that, without exception, creativity was more prominent in self-actualizers than in others. However, the creativeness manifested by his subjects was different from unusual talent or genius as reflected in poetry, art, music, or science. Maslow likened it to the natural creativeness found in children.

15 Resistances to Enculturation

Finally, Maslow observed that his superior subjects are in harmony with their culture and yet maintain a certain inner detachment from it. Essentially autonomous beings, they make their own decisions, even if they are at odds with popular opinion. This resistance to enculturation does not mean that self-actualizers are unconventional in all realms of behavior. For instance, they remain well within the limits of conformity concerning choice of clothes, speech, food, and the manner of doing things, which are not really important enough to prompt objection.

Self-Actualizers Aren't Angels

As imperfect human beings, self-actualizers are just as susceptible to silly, non-constructive, and wasteful habits as the rest of humanity. They, too, can be obstinate, irritable, boring, petulant, selfish, or depressed, and they are by no means immune from superficial vanity, undue pride, and partiality to their own friends, family, and children. Temper outbursts are not unusual.

What is goal of psychotherapy?

Any means of any kind that can help to restore the person to path of self actualization and development along the lines that his inner nature dictates.

Lesson 21

ROGERS PERSON CENTERED APPROACH

Biographical Sketch

Carl Ransom Rogers was born January 8, 1902, in Oak Park, Illinois, a suburb of Chicago. He was the fourth of six children five of whom were boys. His father was a civil engineer and contractor who achieved financial success in his profession, so the family was economically secure throughout Rogers' childhood and early youth.

Rogers (1957a) agrees that people occasionally express a variety of bitter and murderous feelings, abnormal impulses, and bizarre and antisocial actions. Thus, when people are functioning fully, when they are free to experience and to satisfy their inner natures, they show themselves to be positive and rational creatures those can be trusted to live in harmony with themselves and others. Aware that his view of human nature, may be considered to be nothing more, than naive optimism.

In sum, Rogers has a profound (almost religious) sense of respect for human nature. He posits that the human organism has a natural tendency to move in the direction of differentiation, self-responsibility, cooperation, and maturity. The expression of this basic nature, according to Rogers, allows for the continuation and enhancement of the individual and the species.

Rogers' Phenomenological Position

It has already been noted that Rogers' theory is **illustrative of the phenomenological approach to personality**. A phenomenological position holds that what is real to an individual (i.e., what reality is thought, understood, or felt to be) is that which exists within that person's internal frame of reference, or subjective world, including everything in his or her awareness at any point in time. It follows that an individual's perceptions and experiences not only constitute that person's reality but also form the basis for his or her actions; one responds to events in accordance with how one perceives and interprets them. For example, a thirsty man stranded in the desert will run as eagerly to a pool of water that is a mirage as to a real pool. Similarly, two people observing an identical set of circumstances may later recall two very different outcomes, which is often the case with "eyewitness" accounts of unidentified flying objects, traffic accidents, and other unexpected events.

One important implication of a phenomenological perspective for a theory of personality is that the best understanding of a person's behavior is obtained through observation of his or her internal frame of reference. To explain why an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in a given way, **it is necessary to know how that person perceives and interprets the world. Subjective experience is thus the key to understanding behavior**. This means that the most important object of psychological study is a person's subjective experiences, because these experiences alone are the ultimate causal agents of behavior.

Finally, Rogers' choice of a phenomenological approach to personality theory reflects his belief that the complexity of behavior can only be understood by reference to the entire person. In other words, Rogers espouses a holistic view of personality, the view that a person behaves as an integrated organism and that his or her unity cannot be derived from atomistic (i.e., reductionistic) approaches to behavior. As will become evident in the ensuing discussion, Rogers' commitment to a holistic point of view is manifest in practically every facet of his thought.

Concept of Self: Who am I anyway?

The self is the most important construct in Rogers' theory of personality; indeed, the concept of self is indispensable to an appreciation of Rogers' view of human behavior. The conscious perceptions, and values of the concept "I" or "me." The self-concept denotes the individual's conception of the kind of person he or she is. **The self-concept is one's image of oneself. Especially included are awareness of being (what I am) and awareness of function (what I can do).**

The self-concept includes not only one's perceptions of what one is like but also what one thinks one ought to be and would like to be. **This latter component of the self is called the ideal self.** The ideal self represents the self-concept that the individual would most like to possess. It is basically equivalent to the superego in Freudian theory.

Rogers postulates that when the self is first formed, it is governed by the organismic valuing process alone.

In other words, the infant or child evaluates each new experience in terms of whether it facilitates or impedes his or her innate actualizing tendency. For instance, hunger, thirst, cold, pain, and sudden loud noises are negatively valued, since they interfere with the maintenance of biological integrity. Food, water, security, and love are positively valued; they favor the enhancement of the organismic tendency. In a sense, the organismic valuing process is a monitoring system that keeps the human infant on the proper course of need, satisfaction. Infants evaluate their experiences according to whether or not they like them, whether they are pleasing or displeasing, and so on. Such evaluations result from their spontaneous responses to direct experiences, i.e., they are completely "natural."

Need for Positive Regard

Rogers contends that all persons possess a basic desire to experience attitudes such as warmth, respect, admiration, love, and acceptance from significant people in their lives. This need for positive regard develops as the awareness of self emerges, and it is pervasive and persistent. It is first seen in the infant's need to be loved and cared for, and is subsequently reflected in the person's satisfaction when approved by others and frustration when disapproved. Roger indicates that positive regard may be either learned or innately given to all persons, and although he prefers the former explanation (i.e., that it is a secondary learned motive), its origin is irrelevant to his theory.

Conditions of Worth

Given the fact that a child has a compelling need for Positive regard, she becomes increasingly sensitive to or influenced by the attitudes. For example, such is the case when a father tells his son that bringing home a straight "A" report card will not only earn him an increase in his weekly allowance but also excuse him from having to wash the family car and mow the grass. Conditional positive regard is also manifest in many other types of human relationships involving the giving or withholding of approval and support.

Rogers states rather forcefully that conditions of worth imposed on a child are detrimental to his or her becoming a fully functioning person. This is because the child tries to attain standards set by others rather than to identify and attain what she or he really is or wants to be. Thus, he comes to evaluate himself and his worth as an individual (what is valuable and what is not valuable about himself) in terms of only those of his actions, thoughts, and feelings that received approval and support.

Unconditional Positive Regard

While it is obvious that no person is completely devoid of conditions of worth, Rogers feels that it is possible to give or (receive positive regard irrespective of the worth placed on specific aspects of a person's behavior. This means that a person is accepted and respected for what he or she is without any ifs, ands, or buts.' Such unconditional positive regard is strikingly evident in a mother's love for her child when regardless of the child's actions, thoughts, and feelings- he or she is genuinely loved and respected. She loves the child because it is her child, not because the child has fulfilled any specific condition or lived up to a **Specific Expectation**

It can be seen, then, that Rogers' emphasis on unconditional positive regard as the ideal approach to child rearing does not imply an absence of discipline, social constraints, or other forms of behavioral control. What it does mean is providing an atmosphere in which a child is valued and loved for exactly what he or she is- a precious human being. When children perceive themselves in such a way that no self-experience is more or less worthy of positive regard than any other, they are experiencing unconditional positive self-regard.

Lesson 22

ROGERS PERSON CENTERED APPROACH

Roger's Person Centered Approach

Experience of Threat and the Process of Defense

In Rogers' theory, threat exists when a person recognizes an incongruity between his or her self-concept (and its incorporated conditions of worth) and actual experience. Experiences incongruent with the self-concept

are perceived as threatening; they are kept from entering awareness because the individual's personality is no longer a unified whole. Thus, if an individual views himself as an honest person and he behaves dishonestly, he is in a state of threat.

Anxiety is thus an emotional response to threat which signals that the organized self-structure is in danger of becoming disorganized if the discrepancy between it and the threatening experience reaches awareness.

The anxiety-ridden individual is one who dimly perceives that the recognition or symbolization of certain experiences would force a drastic change in his or her current self-image.

Rogers (1959) defines the process of defense as the behavioral response of the organism to threat; the

goal of defense is the maintenance of the current self-structure: "This goal is achieved by the perceptual distortion of the experiences in awareness, in such a way as to reduce the incongruity between the experience and the structure of the self, or by the denial of any experience thus denying any threat to the self" (Rogers, 1959, pp. 204-205).

The Defense Mechanisms

Grade "F" on an examination. The Student can maintain her self-concept intact by saying "The professor has unfair grading practices" or "I just had bad luck." Rogers occasionally refers to such selective perceptions or distortions as rationalization.

Rogers' View of The Good Life

The Fully Functioning Person

"Fully functioning" is a term used by Rogers to designate individuals who are using their capacities and talents, realizing their potentials, and moving toward complete knowledge of themselves and their full range of experiences. Rogers specifies five major personality characteristics common to people who are fully functioning. They briefly discussed

- 1- The first and foremost characteristic of the fully functioning person is openness to experience. To be open to experience is the polar opposite of defensiveness. Individuals who are completely open to experience are able to listen to themselves, to experience what is going on within themselves without threat. They are acutely aware of their own feelings (but not self-consciously), they do not try to suppress them; they often act upon them, and even if they do not act upon them, they are able admit them to awareness.
- 2- The second characteristic of the optimally functioning person listed by Rogers involves what he terms existential living. This is the global quality of living fully in each and every moment of one's existence. By doing so, each moment of one's life is perceived as new- different from all that existed before. Thus, as Rogers (1961) describes it, what a person is or will be in the next moment grows out of that moment and cannot be predicted in advance by the person or others (the correspondence with existential philosophy is quite clear here).
- 3- Still another attribute of a fully functioning person is what Rogers calls organismic trusting. This dimension of the good life is best illustrated in the context of decision making. Specifically, in choosing the course of action to take in any situation, many people rely upon a code of social norms laid down by some group or institution (e.g., the church), upon the judgment of others (from spouse and friends to Ann Landers).
- 4- The fourth characteristic of the fully functioning person noted by Rogers is experiential freedom. This facet of the good life involves the sense that one is free to live one's life in any way one chooses. It is subjective freedom, a feeling that of one's own volition one is able to play a responsible part in shaping one's world. At the same time, Rogers does not deny that a person's

behavior is heavily influenced by his or her biological makeup, social forces, and past experiences, which, in fact, determine the choices that are made.

- 5- The final characteristic associated with optimal psychological maturity is creativity. For Rogers, the person who is involved in the good life would be the type from whom creative product (ideas, projects, actions) and creative living would emerge. Rogers' View of Science and Research Rogers is strongly committed to phenomenology as a basis for developing a science of persons and as a method of examining the empirical validity of theoretical concepts. It will be recalled that phenomenology refers to a disciplined effort to understand the essence of a person's subjective experience- specifically, how people come to know and understand their world and themselves.

Measuring the Self-Concept: The Q Sort

William Stephenson (1953), a colleague of Rogers' at the University of Chicago, developed a general methodology, called the Q technique, for investigation an individual's self-concept.

Accordingly, they adopted the Q sort, a specific rating procedure devised by Stephenson, as one of their basic research tools in gathering data about therapeutic improvement.

What is the Q sort?

Essentially it is a method of studying systematically one's views about oneself and one's relationships with others. The subject is given a deck of cards, each containing a printed statement or adjective concerning some personality characteristic. The cards may contain such self-referent statements as "I am an aggressive person," "I like to be with other people," "I am emotionally mature." Or the items might be "methodical," "inventive," "sincere," "quick-witted." The subject's task is to sort the cards into a series of categories (usually seven in number), each corresponding to a point along a continuum ranging from those attributes which are most like to those which are least like him or her. The chief feature of the method is that the subject must sort the cards according to some prearranged or forced distribution. Research-oriented Rogerians generally have their subjects Q-sort the statements twice: once for selfdescription and once for ideal self-description. For the self-sort, subjects are instructed to sort the cards to describe themselves as they see themselves at the present time. This self-sort depicts the subject's experience of herself as she is. Following completion of the self-sort, the subject then is instructed to use the same cards to describe the kind of person she would most like to be-her ideal person. This second sort is called the ideal-sort.

Q-sort data can be analyzed in several ways. However, the product-moment correlation coefficient is the most commonly used statistic for indicating the degree to which an individual's self-concept and ideal selfconcepts are congruent or divergent.

Personality Disorganization and Psychopathology

Thus, personality disorganization and psychopathology occur when the self is unable to defend against threatening experiences. Persons undergoing such disorganization are commonly tagged "psychotic." They manifest behaviors which are to an objective observer bizarre, irrational, or "crazy." Rogers posits that psychotic behavior is often congruent with the denied aspects of experience, rather than with the self-concept.

For example, a person who has kept his sexual impulses under rigid control, denying that they were a part of his self-image, may make obvious sexual moves toward those whom he encounters.

Rogers' person-centered therapy attempts to reestablish a more harmonious relationship between the self-concept and the total organism and to facilitate a greater degree of congruence between the self-concept and the phenomenal field of experience.

Evolution of Rogerian-- Therapy : From Techniques to Relationships

With the publication in 1951 of his book Client-Centered Therapy, Rogers' approach progressed further and came to be known primarily by this label as it still is today in some circles. While still retaining his nondirective techniques, Rogers at this time was emphasizing the importance of the clients' perceptions, of therapeutically entering the clients' world of subjective experience and focusing upon the clients'

perceptions of themselves, their lives, and their problems. Hence the term “client-centered”. Since that time, however, Rogers’ approach has evolved to still another level. He has become more concerned with the issue of precisely what conditions must be met before the client can begin to resolve his or her problems. As stated earlier, he discovered that the relationship between therapist and client is the most important aspect underlying personality change; consequently, he funneled all his efforts on this in the late

1950s (Rogers, 1957b, 1958, 1959) and continues to do so today. again, it should be stressed that Rogers’ changes in thinking in this regard represent a progressive evolution to a more comprehensive and meaningful level rather than an abandonment of old, outmoded concepts. At present, the “label” which best captures the essence of the newer developments is “person-centered therapy (Rogers, 1977). This newer term more accurately reflects the evolution of Rogers’ thought-from techniques to relationships. Audio and Video Recording of therapy sessions was by Rogers started so that students and trainees can benefit in training.

Psychotherapy and Gardening

So Rogers’ person-centered therapy (supported by empirical research) reflects his image of human nature in general and the role of the therapist in particular. Upon reflection, one is tempted to draw an analogy between person-centered therapy and gardening. When one recalls Rogers’ background in agriculture, the analogy becomes even more compelling. Concluding his acceptance speech for the 1973 APA Distinguished Professional Contribution Award, Rogers drew the analogy for us:

And then I garden. Those mornings when I cannot find time to inspect my flowers, water the young shoots

I am propagating, pull a few weeds, spray some destructive insects, and pour just the proper fertilizer on some budding plants, I feel cheated. My garden supplies the same intriguing question I have been trying to meet all my professional life: What are the effective conditions for growth? But in my garden, though the frustrations are just as immediate, the results, whether success or failure, are more quickly evident. And when, through patient, intelligent, and understanding care I have provided the conditions that result in the production of a rare or glorious bloom, I feel the same kind of satisfaction that I have felt in the facilitation of growth in a person or in a group of persons.

Student Centered Teaching

Rogers is of the view that education system is based on faulty assumptions about the learner

- 1- who must be given huge information,
- 2- without any active participation on part of the learner

. Teacher is a facilitator of education who creates an atmosphere conducive to learning.

Lesson 23

CULTURE AND CHANGE (continued)

Acculturation

Acculturation is a specialized form of cultural diffusion that is a result of sustained contact between two cultures, one of which is subordinate to another. (power play)

Whereas diffusion involves a single or complex of traits, acculturation involves widespread cultural reorganization over a shorter period of time. There are events in history, like colonization, which have caused acculturation to occur in many parts of the world.

Some anthropologists have described situations of acculturation in which the non-dominant culture has voluntarily chosen the changes. Other anthropologists claim that acculturation always involves some measure of coercion and force.

Cultural Interrelations

Because the parts of a culture are interrelated, a change in one part of a culture is likely to bring about changes in other parts of the given culture. This is the reason why people are often reluctant to accept change since its consequences cannot be exactly predicted nor controlled.

This insight of cultural anthropology should be kept in mind by applied anthropologists, who are involved in planned programs of cultural change.

Reaction to Change

In every culture there are two sets of opposing forces; those interested in preserving the status quo as it is and others desiring change. The desire for prestige, economic gain and more efficient ways of solving a problem are reasons why people embrace change but the threat of loss of these can lead other people to oppose change as well.

Barriers to Cultural Change

Some societies can maintain their cultural boundaries through the exclusive use of language, food, and clothing. Some societies can resist change in their culture because the proposed change is not compatible with their existing value systems.

Barriers to Cultural Change

Societies resist change because it disrupts existing social and economic relationships. The functional interrelatedness of cultures serves as a conservative force discouraging change. Cultural boundaries include relative values, customs, language and eating tastes.

Change Agents

Change agents including development workers for example facilitate change in modern times. Change agents sometimes fail to understand why some people are resistant to change and should realize cultural relativity and barriers to change.

Useful Terms

Facilitate: to make easier or to promote

Functional: useful or practical aspects

Cultural relativity: the realization that cultural traits fit in logically within their own cultural environments and that since circumstances around the world differ, cultures are also different

Status Quo: The existing conditions or circumstances. There are always those who are interested in maintaining the status quo since they are doing well due to it and others who oppose the status quo since it tends to exploit them or puts them in a disadvantaged position

Coercion: An act of force rather than that based on the need or desire of a particular individual or society

Interrelations: interconnections

Subordinate: in an inferior or subordinated position

Dominant: in a position of power over others

Lesson 24

CULTURE AND CHANGE (continued)

The Complex Process of Change

Accepting change in one part of a culture is likely to bring about changes to other parts of a culture. To understand socio-cultural aspects of urbanization, it is important to view the rural area, the urban areas, and the people who move between them as parts of a complex system of change.

Until some decades ago, anthropologists made differentiations between the **mechanical solidarity (independence) of rural areas and the organic solidarity (dependence) of cities**. Recent research notes that there is not a simple flow of migrants from rural areas to urban areas but rather a circulation of people between these areas.

Urbanization or the process of rural development therefore needs to take into account the fact that there is a constant **criss-crossing** of people, ideas and resources from urban to rural areas.

Rural migrants rely on kinsmen for land purchase, dispute resolution or general household management, while they go to the cities in search for cash based employment. Conversely rural kinsmen may in turn obtain economic support from a urban wage earner, or seek his support in finding work or a place to stay in the city for other kinsmen.

Planned Change

Planned programs of change have been introduced into developing countries for decades under the assumption that they benefit the local people. Yet, a number of studies have shown that although some segments of the local population may benefit, many more do not.

Globalization

Globalization is a broad-based term which is used to describe the intensification of the flow of money, goods, and information across the world, which is seen to be taking place since the 1980s. Globalization has made the study of culture change more complex due to its varied effects on various cultural processes including that of change.

In some cases, globalization is responsible for an accelerated pace of change in world cultures. In other situations, the forces of globalization may stimulate traditional cultures to redefine themselves. Developing countries in the attempt to better deal with the forces of globalization, such as trade liberalization, have begun to revamp their own economic systems in order to make them more competitive internationally. This economic revamping has tremendous cultural impacts as well.

Globalization has resulted in diffusion of technology but also compounded existing inequalities. There are human and environmental costs associated with globalization.

For example, increased productivity has led to pollution and there are many theorists who argue that globalization has also increased the gap between the rich and the poor, with those with wealth doing even better and those without it, experiencing even worse poverty than before.

Useful Terms

Globalization: intensification of the flow of money, goods, and information across the world

Urbanization: the process of people moving from rural areas into the cities. This phenomenon is taking place in both developed and developing countries and cultural anthropologists are very interested in studying why and how urbanization takes place and the cultural changes it brings

Revamping: reforming or changing

Competitive: the process of trying to do better than those engaging in the same activity

Environmental Costs: the impact of a particular activity on land, water or air and on various other species which inhabit the Earth alongside human beings

Impacts: results or effects

Lesson 25

POLITICAL ORGANIZATION

Need for Political Organization

All societies have political systems that function to manage public affairs, maintain social order, and resolve conflict. Yet the forms of these political systems are diverse, sometimes embedded in other social structures.

Studying Political Organization

Political organization involves issues like allocation of political roles, levels of political integration, concentrations of power and authority, mechanisms of social control and resolving conflicts.

Anthropologists recognize four types of political organization based on levels of political integration, concentration, specialization. Political organization is found within bands, tribes, chiefdoms, and states.

Nowadays, non-state forms of political organization have state systems superimposed on them.

Types of Political Systems

Bands

Societies based on bands have the least amount of political integration and role specialization (no such leaders) (Kung in Kalahari).

Bands are most often found in foraging societies and are associated with low population densities, distribution systems based on reciprocity, and open social relations (equal financial condition).

Tribal Organizations

Tribal organizations are most commonly found among horticulturists and pastoralists (Neur in Sudan).

With larger and more sedentary populations than are found in band societies, tribal organizations do also lack centralized political leadership and are egalitarian. Tribally based societies have certain pan-tribal mechanisms that integrate clan members to face external threats.

Clan elders do not hold formal political offices but usually manage affairs of their clans (settling disputes, representing clan in negotiation with other clans etc.).

Chiefdoms

Chiefdoms involve a more formal and permanent political structure than is found in tribal societies.

Political authority in chiefdoms rests with individuals, who acts alone or with advice of a council. Most chiefdom tends to have quite distinct social ranks, rely on feasting and tribute as a major way of distributing goods.

In the late nineteenth and twentieth century, many societies had chiefdoms imposed on them by colonial powers for administrative convenience (for e.g. British impositions in Nigeria, Kenya and Australia). The pre-colonial Hawaiian political system of the 18th century was a typical chiefdom.

Useful Terms

Public Affairs: issues concerning the public at large instead of specific individuals only

Social Order: the state of being where society functions as per the expectations of people and can provide them with a sense of security

Sedentary: settled

Colonial powers: at different phases of history, different nations have been powerful enough to colonize other nations. In the 19th century Britain was a colonial power which was able to colonize many other countries located on the African and the Asian continents

Pre-colonial: the period in history when a particular nation had not yet been colonized

Allocation: distribution

Integration: tied together or linked in a particular manner

Lesson 26

POLITICAL ORGANIZATION (continued)

State Systems

State systems have the greatest amount of political integration, specialized political roles and maintain authority on the basis of an ideology. States are associated with intensive agriculture market economies, urbanization, and complex forms of social stratification.

States began to be formed 5,500 years ago with the Greek city-states and the Roman Empire providing impressive examples of state based political organization.

States have a monopoly on the use of force and can make and enforce laws, collect taxes, and recruit labor for military service and public works, which differentiates them from other forms of political organization.

States are now the most prominent form of political organization found around the world today.

Nation-States

A nation is a group of people sharing a common symbolic identity, culture history and religion. A state is a distinct political structure like bands, tribes and chiefdoms.

Nation-state refers to a group of people sharing a common cultural background and unified by a political structure that they consider to be legitimate. Few of the world's 200 nation-states have homogenous populations to fit the description of a nation state.

Political Organization Theories

Theories explaining the rise of state systems of government have centered on the question of why people surrender some of their autonomy to the power and authority of the state.

There are theorists who argue that political organization is influenced by self interest and other theorists argue that self-interest is not enough to give shape to political systems and that such organization often involves a certain amount of coercion.

1. Voluntaristic State Formation

Some theorists suggest that those engaging in specialized labor voluntarily gave up their autonomy in exchange for perceived benefits.

Political integration can mediate between and protect interests of varied groups and provide them an economic superstructure required for specialization (Chide, 1936).

2. Hydraulic Theory of State Formation

Small-scale farmers in arid or semi-arid areas also voluntarily merged into larger political entities due to the economic advantage of large-scale irrigation (Karl Wittfogel, 1957)

3. Coercive Theory of State Formation

Another explanation for state based political organization is that offered by Carneiro, hold that states developed as a result of warfare and coercion rather than due to voluntary self-interest.

Useful Terms

Coercion: use of force

Arid: dry

Small-scale farmers: farmers possessing a little amount of land

Irrigation: the channeling of water from its natural route for the purposes of agriculture

Monopoly: dominating the production of a particular product

Hydraulic: water-based

Homogenous: identical to others, opposite of heterogeneous

Recruit: to include or to involve

Lesson 27

POLITICAL ORGANIZATION (continued)

Need for Social Control

All forms of political organization must provide means for social control. Every culture has defined what are considered to be normal, proper or expected ways of behaving in society. These expected ways of behaving are referred to as social norms.

Social norms range from etiquette to laws and imply different forms of enforcement and sanctions.

Breaking some social norms does not result in serious consequences whereas others can result in severe punishment. Consider for example the consequence of taking another person's life or of stealing something.

Social Norms

All social norms are sanctioned to varying degrees according to the values held by different cultures. Positive social norms reward people for behaving in socially expectable ways (ranging from praise or social approval to awards or medals). Negative social norms punish people for violating the norms (ranging from disapproval to corporal punishment).

Maintaining Social Control

Band and tribal societies (Inuit and Kung) maintain social control by means of informal mechanisms such as socialization, public opinion, lineage obligations, age organizations and sanctions.

Societies control behavior by more formal mechanisms, such as through laws and law enforcement agencies, whose major function is maintaining social order and resolving conflicts.

Social Control

Band and tribal societies (Inuit and Kung) maintain social control by means of informal mechanisms such as socialization, public opinion, lineage obligations, age organizations and sanctions. Societies control behavior by more formal mechanisms whose major function is maintaining social order and resolving conflicts.

Informal Mechanisms

Socialization ensures that people are taught what their social norms are. Public opinion or social pressure often serves as an effective mechanism to avoid censure and rejection. Age organization provides distinct age categories with defined sets of social roles.

Formal Mechanisms

Song Duets: amongst the **Inuits** eskimos to settle disputes

Social Intermediaries: like the Leopard-skin Chief of the **Neur in southern Sudan** settles murder disputes by property settlements

Moots: are formal airings of disputes involving kinsmen and friends of litigants and the adjudicating bodies are ad hoc

Courts and Codified Laws: forbid individual use of force and provides legal frameworks established by legislative bodies, interpreted by judicial bodies and implemented by administrative systems like law enforcement agencies

Useful Terms

Administrative systems: the system of government officials/bureaucrats who are responsible for running public affairs

Judicial systems: the system of courts which interprets the laws

Legislative systems: systems which provide the laws for a particular society, often legislatures or legislative assemblies are elected by the people of a particular locality, i.e. province or a state

Law enforcement agencies: agencies which enforce the law, like the police for example

Litigants: aggrieved parties involved in a legal dispute

Ad Hoc: arbitrary, not following any established procedure

Lesson 28

PSYCHOLOGY AND CULTURE

Psychological Development

Anthropologists are interested in the psychological differences and similarities between societies and cultures of the world Cultural Anthropologists reject stereotypes based on hasty ethnocentric judgments

Anthropological Queries in Psychology

The major questions of relevance to cultural anthropologists attempting to understand the linkage between different cultures and what they can reveal about the human personality are:

- Do all human beings develop psychologically in the same way?
- What explains the psychological differences in personality characteristics from one society to another?
- How do people in different societies conceive of personality and psychological development?
- What types of cultural variations may be explained due to cultural factors?

Emotional Development

Early research in anthropology was concerned mainly with supposedly universal stages of emotional development which seems to be affected by cultural differences.

Margaret Mead found Samoan girls were much less rebellious or emotional turmoil than those in western societies. In western societies, adolescence is a time of confusion that helps prepare emotionally for independence.

Psychological Universals

The ability to make binary contrasts, order phenomenon, plan for the future, and have an understanding of the world are universal psychological traits. All people have a concept of the self, they can empathize with others and feel and recognize emotions in others.

Cognition and Culture

Recent research on psychological universals focuses on cognitive, or intellectual, development. For example, it considers how different cultures acquire thinking habits such as formal-operation notions, which enable a person to think of the possible outcomes of a hypothetical situation

In looking for universals, many researchers have discovered some apparent differences. Yet most tests used in anthropological research favors thinking patterns taught in formal schools in Western cultures.

Cross-Cultural Variations

Instead of focusing on uniqueness, anthropologists look at psychological differences found within and between different cultures. Researchers focus on child rearing practices to account for observable personality differences. Some anthropologists believe that child rearing practices are adaptive and societies produce personalities according to their requirements (obedience, self reliance, etc.)

Lesson 29

PSYCHOLOGY AND CULTURE (continued)

Socialization

Socialization is the term that psychologists and anthropologists use to describe the development of, through the influence of parents and others, of patterns of behavior in children that conform to cultural expectations.

Direct and Indirect Socialization

Socialization takes place both directly and indirectly. Indirectly, the degree to which parents like children, the kinds of work children are asked to do and whether children go to school may at least partially influence how children develop psychologically.

Origin of Customs

Anthropologists not only seek to understand the link between personality traits and customs, but also how customs were themselves developed. Some anthropologists believe that societies produce the kind of customs best suited for undertaking activities necessary for the survival of society

Personality Types

Several anthropologists have tried to describe the influence of culture on personality. In the early 1950's, for example, David Riesman proposed that there are three common types of personalities around the world.

1. The **tradition-oriented** personality places a strong emphasis on doing things the same way that they have always been done. Individuals with this sort of personality are less likely to try new things and to seek new experiences.
2. Those who have **inner-directed** personalities are guilt oriented. That is to say, their behavior is strongly controlled by their conscience. As a result, there is little need for police to make sure that they obey the law. These individuals monitor themselves. If they break the law, they are likely to turn themselves in for punishment.
3. In contrast, people with **other-directed personalities** have ambiguous feelings about right and wrong. When they deviate from a societal norm, they usually don't feel guilty. However, if they are caught in the act or exposed publicly, they are likely to feel shame.

Abnormal Behavior

Just as there are cross-cultural variations in 'normal behavior', there are also variations in 'abnormal behavior'. Abnormality is relative to a degree and a culture's ideas about mental illness and how to deal with it can also vary.

Applied Perspective

Anthropologists are interested in understanding the possible cause of psychological differences and the possible consequences of psychological variation.

Anthropologists are particularly interested in how psychological characteristics may help explain statistical associations between various aspects of culture.

Projective Testing

People tend to project their feelings, ideas and concerns onto ambiguous realities.

In Thematic Appreciation Tests subjects are shown vague drawings and asked to interpret them by projecting their own personalities. An aggressive person may see a weapon in a vague drawing, whereas a more industrious person may visualize a more productive tool in the same vague drawing.

Lesson 30

IDEOLOGY AND CULTURE

Ideology

An ideology is a collection of ideas. An ideology can be thought of as a comprehensive vision, as a way of looking at things. Ideology can also be seen as a set of ideas proposed by the dominant class of a society to all members of this society.

For example, different types of gender ideologies would describe what roles are expected of women and men in a society. The ideology of economic liberalization could be seen to particularly promote the interests of the business classes.

Ideology in Everyday Life

Every society has an ideology that forms the basis of the public opinion or common sense, a basis that usually remains invisible to most people within the society. This dominant ideology appears as 'neutral' while all others that differ from the norm are often seen as fundamental, no matter what the actual circumstances may be.

Influencing Ideology

Organizations that strive for power influence the ideology of a society to provide a favorable environment for them. Political organizations (governments included) and other groups (e.g. lobbyists) try to influence people by broadcasting their opinions, which is the reason why so often many people in a society seem to think alike.

A certain ethic usually forms the basis of an ideology. Ideology studied as ideology (rather than examples of specific ideologies) has been carried out under the name systematic ideology. There are many different kinds of ideology: political, social, epistemological, ethical.

The popularity of an ideology is in part due to the influence of moral entrepreneurs, who sometimes act in their own interests. A political ideology is the body of ideals, principles, doctrine, myth or symbols of a social movement, institution, class, or large group that references some political and cultural plan. It can be a construct of political thought, often defining political parties and their policy.

Hegemony

When most people in a society think alike about certain matters, or even forget that there are alternatives to the current state of affairs, we arrive at the concept of Hegemony, about which the

philosopher Antonio Gramsci wrote. The much smaller-scale concept of groupthink also owes something to his work.

The ideologies of the dominant class of a society are proposed to all members of that society in order to make the ruling class' interests appear to be the interests of all, and thereby achieve hegemony. To reach this goal, ideology makes use of a special type of discourse: the lacunar discourse.

A number of propositions, which are never untrue, suggest a number of other propositions, which are. In this way, the essence of the lacunar discourse is what is not told (but is suggested).

Epistemological ideologies

Even when the challenging of existing beliefs is encouraged, as in science, the dominant paradigm or mindset can prevent certain challenges, theories or experiments from being advanced.

The philosophy of science mostly concerns itself with reducing the impact of these prior ideologies so that science can proceed with its primary task, which is (according to science) to create knowledge.

There are critics who view science as an ideology itself, called scientism. Some scientists respond that, while the scientific method is itself an ideology, as it is a collection of ideas, there is nothing particularly wrong or bad about it.

Other critics point out that while science itself is not a misleading ideology, there are some fields of study within science that are misleading. Two examples discussed here are in the fields of ecology and economics.

Lesson 31

IDEOLOGY AND CULTURE (Continued)

Political ideologies

In social studies, a political ideology is a set of ideas and principles that explain how the society should work, and offer the blueprint for a certain social order. A political ideology largely concerns itself with how to allocate power and to what ends it should be used.

For example, one of the most influential and well-defined political ideologies of the 20th century was communism, based on the original formulations of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels.

Communism is a term that can refer to one of several things: a certain social system, an ideology which supports that system, or a political movement that wishes to implement that system. (give power to those who does not have power)

As a social system, communism is a type of egalitarian society with no state, no private property and no social classes. In communism, all property is owned by the community as a whole, and all people enjoy equal social and economic status. Perhaps the best known principle of a communist society is "From each according to his ability, to each according to his need".

As an ideology, communism is synonymous for Marxism and its various derivatives (most notably Marxism-Leninism). Among other things, Marxism claims that human society has gone through various stages of development throughout its history, and that capitalism is the current stage we are going through. The next stage will be socialism, and the one after that will be communism.

Therefore, it should be noted that communists do not seek to establish communism right away; they seek to establish socialism first, which is to be followed by communism at some point in the future.

Other examples of ideologies include: anarchism, capitalism, corporate liberalism, fascism, monarchism, nationalism, fascism, conservatism and social-democracy.

Economic Ideology

Karl Marx proposed a *base/superstructure* model of society. The *base* refers to the means of production of society. The *superstructure* is formed on top of the base, and comprises that society's ideology, as well as its legal system, political system, and religions.

Marx proposed that the base determines the superstructure. It is the ruling class that controls the society's means of production - and thus the superstructure of society, including its ideology, will be determined according to what is in the ruling class' best interests. On the other hand, critics of the Marxist approach feel that it attributes too much importance to economic factors in influencing society.

This is far from the only theory of economics to be raised to ideology status - some notable economically based ideologies include mercantilism, Social Darwinism, communism, laissez-faire economics, and "free trade".

There are also current theories of safe trade and fair trade calling for a revision in terms of trade which can be seen as ideologies. These ideologies call for a revision of rules based on which trade between developed and developing countries takes place.

Interaction between Legal and Economic Ideologies

Ideologies often interact with, and influence, each other in the real world. Consider for example, the statement 'All are equal before the law', which is a theory behind current legal systems, suggests that all people may be of equal worth or have equal 'opportunities'. This is not true, because the concept of *private property* over the *means of production* results in some people being able to own more (*much* more) than others, and their property brings power and influence (the rich can afford better lawyers, among other things, and this puts in question the principle of equality before the law).

Lesson 32

ASSOCIATIONS, CULTURES AND SOCIETIES

What Are Associations?

Associations are non-kin and non-territorial groups found among all types of societies and cultures around the world. Associations possess some kind of formal, organizational structure and their members also have common interests and a sense of purpose which binds the varied types of societies together. Cultural anthropologists are interested in examining how different cultures give shape to different types of associations and in turn what functions different types of associations perform within particular cultures.

Variation in Associations

Associations can vary from society to society. They vary according to whether or not they are charitable and whether the qualities of members are universally ascribed, variably attributed or achieved.

Qualifications for Associations

Achieved qualities or skills are those acquired through one's own efforts, there may be hurdles in acquiring necessary skills, but by and large skills have to be learnt through personal effort as they are not biologically transferable.

Ascribed qualities are determined at birth because of gender or ethnicity or family background. A person does not need to make an effort to acquire ascribed qualities nor can effort do much in changing ascribed status since it is largely determined by forces beyond the control of individuals.

Universally ascribed qualities are found in all societies. Gender is an example of an ascribed quality.

Variably ascribed qualities are unique and thus vary across cultures, like ethnicity, social class differences etc.

Non-Voluntary Associations

In relatively non-stratified societies, associations tend to be based on universally ascribed characteristics like gender and age. An age set is a common form of non-voluntary associations, evidenced around the world, even today.

Age Sets

An age grade includes a category of people who fall into a culturally distinguished age category. An age set on the other hand is a group of people of similar age and the same sex who move through some or all of life's stages together.

Entry into an age set is usually through an initiation ceremony and transitions to new stages are marked by succession rituals.

In non-commercial societies, age sets crosscut kinship ties and form strong supplemental bonds. Age sets are prominent amongst the **Nadi of Kenya for example**. Young warriors were given spears and shields in the past and told to bring back wealth to the community, now they're given pens and paper by their elders and told to go out and do the same.

The Karimojong are predominantly cattle herders and number 60,000 people living in northeastern Uganda, who are organized via age and generation sets, including 5 age-sets covering 25 years.

The retired generation passes on the mantle of authority to the senior generation and the junior generation recruits members until ready to assume authority and thus the society continues to function in a seamless manner.

Lesson 33

ASSOCIATIONS, CULTURES AND SOCIETIES (continued)

Regional and Ethnic Associations

Regional and ethnic organizations are voluntary associations whose members possess variably ascribed characteristics.

Both forms of associations are usually found in societies where technological advance is accelerating, bringing with it numerous forms of economic and social complexities as well.

Regional and Ethnic Associations

Despite a variety of types, regional and ethnic associations commonly emphasize helping members adapt to new conditions, particularly if they are migrants.

Many rural migrants keep members in touch with home area traditions by the help of regional associations.

These associations promote improved living conditions for members who have recently migrated to urban areas in several countries where urbanization is taking place at a fast pace.

Examples of Regional Associations

Regional associations (serranos) help rural migrants adapt to urban life and Lima, Peru. The serranos have been seen to actively lobby the government on community issues, assist members with enculturation, organize fiestas, and act as clearing house for flow of information.

Chinatowns in major cities of the world have associations performing a similar function for Chinese immigrants.

Ethnic Associations

Ethnic Associations are based on ethnic ties. **Such associations are particularly prominent in urban centers of West Africa. Even tribal unions are commonly found in Ghana and Nigeria which superimpose the notion of ethnicity with that of tribal ties.**

Rotating Credit Associations

Such associations are based on the principle of mutual aid. Each group member contributes regularly to a fund, which is handed over to one member on a rotation basis.

Such associations are common in East, South and southeastern Asia, in western Africa and the West Indies.

Default is rare in rotating credit associations due to social pressure and the incentive is reasonable since membership ranges from 10 to 30 contributors. Since no collateral is needed, trustworthiness is considered essential when letting people become members of such groups.

Multi-ethnic Associations

Associations with a common purpose of economic or socio-political empowerment are often multi-ethnic.

Savings and loan associations in New Guinea often link women from different tribal areas.

Formation of Associations

Age sets arise in societies which have frequent warfare breaking out among them, or it is found amongst groups with varying populations, due to which kinship systems are not sufficient for alliance purposes. Urbanization and economic compulsions (lack of access to credit) also form associations due to the need to cooperate out of self-interest.

Lesson 34

RACE, ETHNICITY AND CULTURE

Ethnicity (common characteristics)

Ethnicity refers to selected cultural and sometimes physical characteristics used to classify people into (ethnic) groups or categories considered to be significantly different from others. Commonly recognized American ethnic groups include American Indians, Latinos, Chinese, African Americans, European Americans, etc.

In some cases, ethnicity involves merely a loose group identity with little or no cultural traditions in common. This is the case with many Irish and German Americans. In contrast, some ethnic groups are coherent subcultures with a shared language and body of tradition. Newly arrived immigrant groups often fit this pattern.

Minority versus Ethnic Group

It is important not to confuse the term minority with ethnic group. Ethnic groups may be either a minority or a majority in a population.

Whether a group is a minority or a majority also is not an absolute fact but depends on the perspective. For instance, in some towns along the southern border of the U.S., people of Mexican ancestry are the overwhelming majority population and control most of the important social and political institutions but are still defined by state and national governments as a minority. In small homogenous societies, such as those of hunters and gatherers and pastoralists, there is essentially only one ethnic group and no minorities.

Ethnic Categorizations

For many people, ethnic categorization implies a connection between biological inheritance and culture. They believe that biological inheritance determines much of cultural identity. If this were true, for instance, African American cultural traits, such as "black English", would stem from genetic inheritance.

This is not true. The pioneering 19th century English anthropologist E. B. Taylor was able to demonstrate conclusively that biological race and culture is not the same thing.

It is clear that any one can be placed into another culture shortly after birth and can be thoroughly enculturated to that culture, regardless of their skin color, body shape, and other presumed racial features.

Race

A race is a biological subspecies, or variety of a species, consisting of a more or less distinct population with anatomical traits that distinguish it clearly from other races.

This biologist's definition does not fit the reality of human genetic variation today. We are biologically an extremely homogenous species. All humans today are 99.9% genetically identical, and most of the variation that does occur is in the difference between males and females and our unique personal traits. This homogeneity is very unusual in the animal kingdom. Even our closest relatives, the chimpanzees have 2-3 times more genetic variation than people. Orangutans have 8-10 times more variation.

It is now clear that our human "races" are cultural creations, not biological realities. The concept of human biological races is based on the false assumption that anatomical traits, such as skin color and specific facial characteristics, cluster together in single distinct groups of people. They do not. There are no clearly distinct "black", "white", or other races.

Similarity in Human Adaptations

The popularly held view of human races ignores the fact that anatomical traits supposedly identifying a particular race are often found extensively in other populations as well. This is due to the fact that similar natural selection factors in different parts of the world often result in the evolution of similar adaptations.

For instance, intense sunlight in tropical latitudes has selected for darker skin color as a protection from intense ultraviolet radiation. As a result, the dark brown skin color characteristic of sub-Saharan Africa is also found among unrelated populations in the Indian subcontinent, Australia, New Guinea, and elsewhere in the Southwest Pacific.

Safeguarding Against Cultural Biases

We must not let our own cultural biases get in the way of understanding the lives of other people. Avoiding cultural biases is a very difficult task given the emotionally charged feelings and deep beliefs that we have concerning race and ethnicity. However, suspending these attitudinal barriers in order to gain a better understanding of the phenomena is well worth the effort.

Lesson 35

RACE, ETHNICITY AND CULTURE (continued)

The Complex Nature of Human Variations

The actual patterns of biological variation among humans are extremely complex and constantly changing.

They can also be deceptive. All of us could be classified into a number of different "races", depending on what genetic traits are emphasized.

For example, if you divide people up on the basis of stature or blood types, the geographic groupings are clearly different from those defined on the basis of skin color. Using the B blood type for defining races,

Australian Aborigines could be taken together with most Native Americans. Some Africans would be in the same race as Europeans while others would be categorized with Asians.

Historically, human "races" have been defined on the basis of a small number of superficial anatomical characteristics that can be readily identified at a distance, thereby making discrimination easier.

However, focusing on such deceptive distinguishing traits as skin color, body shape, and hair texture causes us to magnify differences and ignore similarities between people.

It is also important to remember that these traits are no more accurate in making distinctions between human groups than any other genetically inherited characteristics. All such attempts to scientifically divide humanity into biological races have proven fruitless.

Relevance of Nurture

In the final analysis, it is clear that people, not nature, create our identities. Ethnicity and supposed "racial" groups are largely cultural and historical constructs. They are primarily social rather than biological phenomena. This does not mean that they do not exist.

To the contrary, "races" are very real in the world today. In order to understand them, however, we must look into culture and social interaction rather than biological evolution.

Inter-group Relations

How ethnic and racial groups relate to each other can be viewed as a continuum ranging from cooperation to outright exploitation and hostility.

- ❖ **Pluralism:** Two or more groups living in harmony while retaining their own heritage and identity
- ❖ **Assimilation:** when one racial or ethnic minority is absorbed into the wider society. Pacific Islander's assimilation into Hawaiian society provides a good example of assimilation.
- ❖ **Legal Protection of Minorities:** While such legislation cannot ensure that minorities have equal Rights, they provide a measure of security against blatant forms of prejudice and discrimination.
- ❖ **Population Transfer:** physical removal of minority to another location. The ethnic Tutsi fleeing Rwanda to avoid action by the Hutu government is an example of population transfer.
- ❖ **Long-termed Subjugation:** Political, social and economic suppression evident in political history. The example of the black majority's subjugation in South Africa under apartheid is a recent example from history.
- ❖ **Genocide:** Mass of groups of people in Nazi Germany or in Serbia for example.

Lesson 36

SKINNER'S THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Radical Behaviorism is the brand of Psychology that is practically synonymous with Skinner's name.

Biographical Sketch

The son of a small-town lawyer, Skinner was born in 1904 and raised in small town Pennsylvania, in a warm and stable family setting. It is interesting to note the inventor of the "Skinner box," the "baby box," and various teaching machines observe in regard to his childhood.

He found time to begin a novel, *Walden -II* (1948), which described the evolution of an experimental society based on psychological principles.

Skinner was accorded many honors including the Distinguished Scientific Award of the American Psychological Association, membership in the National Academy of Sciences, the Gold Medal Award of the American Psychological Foundation, serving as the William James Lecturer at Harvard, and received the presidents Medal of science.

Books

1. *Walden-II*

2. 2-The behavior of organisms (1938),
3. 3-science and human behavior (1953)
4. 4-Verbal behavior (1957), a collection of papers entitled Cumulative record (1961).
5. 6-The technology of teaching (1968) detailed his approach to learning in the school setting.
6. 7-Contingencies of reinforcement (1969) (Beyond freedom and dignity (1971), probably his most controversial book.)
7. 9-Skinner published a three-volume autobiography (1976, 1979, and 1983b)

Skinner's Radical Behaviorism

He rejected the use of inner states such as anxiety as the explanation of our overt / observable behavior.

Example: You are not comfortable at social gatherings, you are invited to a party so you prepare yourself for the party you begin to feel nervous, tense, so you stay at home so you avoided the party because you are anxious. For Skinner such an explanation is incorrect. The behavior does not change because you feel anxious. It changes because of the aversive possibilities which generate the condition felt as anxiety which is the inner cause

Example: You rush in to a building which is on fire to save people from dying alive , it is not because you are heroic or supreme but because you have a history of exposure to reinforcements in similar situations. **Behaviorism is a school of thought that focuses on the idea that all behavior is learned.** Behavior is basically overt and observable.

It is an association between stimulus and response.

Stimulus and response behavior is respondent or classical conditioning.

Classical Conditioning

It is credited primarily to two early leaders in the study of behavioral modification, I. P. Pavlov and Watson.

Pavlov discovered the principle at reinforcement as it applies to classical conditioning. It can be illustrated with a famous example. Suppose that on a number of occasions a bell is sounded in the presence of a hungry dog, and suppose that on each of these occasions the sound of a bell is immediately followed by the presentation of meat to the dog.

What do we observe?

On each presentation of the bell-and-meat combination the dog salivates. But at first the dog salivates only when the meat is presented and not before. Thus the presentation of the meat is a reinforcing operation. It strengthens the likelihood that the salivary response will occur when the bell is sounded on a later occasion. Furthermore, because its presentation increases the chances of salivation, it is classified as a positive reinforcer.

Conditioning is most effectively carried out when the reinforcement follows the conditioned stimulus, regardless of whether the response has occurred or not.

Reinforcement is reward which can be:

- 1- Material or Symbolic
- 2- Positive or Negative

Stimulus – response connection is similar to Dollard and Miller theory.

Our last personality theory was the one which focused on it as well.

See the connection between them.

Following the development of a strong conditioned response, an experimenter might wish to see what happens when the conditioned stimulus is consistently presented without its being followed

by the reinforcing stimulus. In the example outlined above the bell would be sounded but no meat would follow.

Extinction is the decrease in responding that occurs when the reinforcement following the response no longer occurs.

Classical conditioning begins with S-R associations.

In his experiment Pavlov used the S-R association between food and salivation.

He presented hungry dogs with meat powder (stimulus) and they salivated (response) please note this S-R association existed without any conditioning from Pavlov

So meat powder is unconditioned stimulus (UCS) and the salivation is unconditioned response (UCR) In the second step of the experiment Pavlov paired unconditioned stimulus (UCS) say meat with conditioned (CS) bell

In the third step the UCS meat was presented with CS bell on a number of occasions –salivation took place. In the fourth step CS bell was sounded and the dog salivated so conditioning or S-R connection between bell and salivation has been established.

Once when one S-R condition or association has been established it can be used to establish another S-R association

For example with the Pavlov's bell if you pair a green light with it and present it on number of trials the dog will salivate when ever green light is presented.

This process of building one conditioned S-R association on another is called second- order- conditioning.

Example:

You see a spider (stimulus) and jump and run away (response).

You see an injured man bleeding (stimulus) and feel that you might faint (response).

Research suggests that you are not aware of the many S-R associations that influence your behavior. Your preferences for food, clothing and music, books and friends are determined by S-R associations.

Operant Conditioning

The other type of learning, which was first systematically investigated by Thorndike, is called *instrumental or operant conditioning.*

Skinner noted that there are some responses that, such as painting a picture or crossing a street. These responses seem to be spontaneous and voluntary. **Skinner's use of the term "operant."**

An operant is a response that operates on the environment and changes it. The change in the environment affects the subsequent occurrence of the response.

When an operant response is conditioned, it is essential that the reinforcer be presented *after* the occurrence of the response.

Only in this way does the frequency of the response increase.

Thorndike put hungry cats in puzzle boxes and to escape from the puzzle boxes thereby to receive a piece of meat or fish they had to perform a series of actions .

The cats soon learned what they had to do in order to get reward.

These finding helped Thorndike formulate his Law of Effect

- 1- That behaviors more likely to repeated that lead to satisfying consequences-when behaviors are rewarded they are reinforced
- 2- That behaviors are less likely to repeated if they lead to unsatisfying consequences -when behaviors are punished they are not reinforced

So rewards and punishments mold the behaviors of animals as well as humans

Teachers, judges and employers rely on connection between actions and consequences to shape behavior.

The technique of shaping or successive approximations will be discussed later in detail. Operant conditioning is concerned with effect of certain kinds of consequences on the frequency of behavior.

A consequence that increases the frequency of a behavior is called reinforcement.

A consequence that decreases the frequency of a behavior is called punishment.

Example

You are hungry an ice-cream can be a reinforcement .

But if you have common cold or you do not like ice cream it can be punishment.

Lesson 37 SKINNER'S THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for increasing the frequency of behavior

- 1- Positive reinforcement the behavior increases because it is followed by reward
- 2- The frequency of a behavior can increase with the negative reinforcement or with the removal or lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

Positive Reinforcement

A student works hard and gets an “A” on a test this behavior will increase it will be followed by working hard for all tests

The hungry rat learns to press the bar to get a food pellet and the frequency of this behavior increase with the positive reinforcement that is food pellet.

The rat that can turn off an electric shock by pulling a string will quickly learn to pull the string frequency of this behavior will increase with the lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

People with severe headaches learn that when they take rest they are relaxed and their headaches are gone -the frequency of a behavior can increase with the lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

Let us take a very simple example of operant conditioning. We can teach a child to ask for candy frequently by giving candy whenever it asks for candy. We positively reinforce the response of asking for candy. We can also extinguish the response of asking for candy by simply not presenting the candy when the child asks for it. We then find that the frequency of occurrence of asking for candy declines.

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for decreasing the frequency of undesired behavior:

- 1- 1-Extinction is where we stop the reinforcement and the behavior will be extinguished.
- 2- PunishmentThe frequency of behavior is reduced when it is followed by an aversive stimulus.

Examples (Extinction)

A teacher might send the disruptive child out of the class into the hall for discipline

Example (Punishment)

The student who gets a D grade has to attend summer school and no vacations or his favorite toys are taken away.

There is another way that we can reduce the occurrence of the response. When the child asks for candy, we can punish it by slapping it.

When we perform an operation like this, of adding something to the situation that reduces the probability of responding, we have punished the response.

A *punishing stimulus* is an aversive stimulus, which, when occurring after an operant response, decreases the future likelihood of that response. **It is important to note that a punishment is not the same as a negative reinforcer.**

What is negative reinforcement?

Negative reinforcement is a method that can be used to help teach specific behaviors. With negative reinforcement, something uncomfortable or otherwise unpleasant is taken away in response to a stimulus. Over time, the target behavior should increase with the expectation that the unpleasant thing will be taken away.

Reinforcement increases the likelihood of occurrence of a behavior with which it is paired, and a punishment decreases the likelihood of a behavior.

A behavior can be reinforced by the removal of an aversive stimulus, however, in which case we refer to a negative reinforcer.

For example, a parent might reinforce a child for receiving good grades by excusing the child from doing the dishes. Similarly, a person with a phobic fear of snakes reinforces the avoidance response by turning away whenever a snake is encountered, thereby eliminating the aversive fear triggered by the snake. These are both examples of negative reinforcement.

When behavior is reinforced it may generalize to other behavior as well.

Generalization

Examples

- 1- A child is praised for performing well on a psychology test, then he may generalize this behavior to other subjects.
- 2- By learning how to deal with one angry problematic student, teacher learns how to deal with the same student in different situations and with different students with the same angry attitude.

Discrimination

It is important to discriminate among stimuli, situations, events and persons.

Example

“You look nice today.”

You has said it and in what tone of voice

Is it a friend or an enemy, either with love or with sarcastic tone. schedules of reinforcement

What are schedules of reinforcement ?

Skinner demonstrated that particular patterns (schedules) of reinforcement lead to changes in both rate of responding and extinction.

- 1- If reinforcement is presented on each occasion this is referred to as a **continuous reinforcement schedule.**
- 2- Candy machines are examples of continuous reinforcement because every time we put money in (behavior), we receive candy in return (positive reinforcement).

Every time the desired response is made it is reinforced

Every time a good grade is achieved it is rewarded.

2-If the reinforcement is contingent on an interval of time, it is referred to as **interval reinforcement;**

3-if this interval is unchanging (e.g. every five or ten minutes), we have a **fixed-interval** reinforcement schedule. Instead of providing reinforcement following a constant interval of time,

4- The investigator may wish to reinforce according to an intermittent or **variable-interval** schedule. Here, although the reinforcement may be available on the average at five minute intervals, the actual interval will vary randomly around this average.

5- A **ratio reinforcement** schedule here the reinforcement is determined by the number of responses that have been emitted since the last reinforcement.

6- It is a simple only every tenth response is reinforced or every twentieth or any other number. This would be referred to as *fixed-ratio* reinforcement.

On some trials the reward might follow the second or third response while on others it would follow the seventh or eighth. This would be called a *variable ratio* schedule.

These ratio schedules are analogous to the situation of a piece worker or person working on a commission where the payoff depends only on the efficiency and effort of the worker.

A variable-ratio schedule is at the heart of all gambling systems and devices.

Methods of treatments based on Operant Conditioning

- Shaping
- Successive Approximations
- Aversive Conditioning
- Assertion Training
- Behavior Modification
- Token Economy

1- Shaping or Successive Approximations Technique

We start reinforcing a behavior that is the first toward final behavior and then gradually reinforce successively closer approximations to the final behavior.

Example

- 1- Learning to drive a car.
- 2- Teaching a retarded child how to feed himself.

This method is useful when teaching complex behaviors such as reading behavior in children. Children will enjoy reading if each step along the way is reinforced. If learning the alphabet, letter sounds and short words is difficult and unpleasant, it is unlikely that the child will move on to reading sentences and stories.

Example

You are hired to work with patients at a hospital your job is to get the reluctant psychiatric patients involved in some activities in the ward.

You start with one patient your goal is get the patient into daily art therapy sessions

Positive reinforcement is the way to do it.

Every time the patient comes near the therapy room he is praised.

When he enters the class he appreciated.

He is given small assignment and he is encouraged to do it.

Once these behaviors are established he will be reinforced only when he comes to class, takes the class and gets involved in the art therapy.

Systematic desensitization

It is a technique given by Joseph Wolpe.

It is used in treatment of phobias and anxiety; it is based on classical conditioning.

First the client is relaxed and then a hierarchy is made of the fear producing stimulus

Now pair the relaxation with the fear producing stimulus and at each step the client has to relaxed otherwise the technique does not work

Now begin from stimulus of lowest intensity and then gradually move on

Suppose you afraid of lizards:

- Show pictures of lizards
- Show movies of lizards

- Go to person who lizards as pets
- Touch lizards with gloves
- Then without gloves

Aversive Conditioning

This technique is used with drug addicts when something is added in the drink or drug that they take which causes nausea, vomiting, sweating etc and it leads to decrease in the probability of the response. This technique is used with children when soap is rubbed on the tongue and the mouth is taped and the child is punished for using bad language.

Nail biting, or onychophagia, is one of the several bad habits that can be treated using the aversive conditioning technique of unlearning. In this case, a foul- or bitter-tasting liquid is applied to the nails of a habitual nail biter. So, every time the person takes his hand to his mouth, he tastes it. The unpleasant experience helps in reducing nail biting—the undesired behavior in this case.

Assertion Training

Teaching an individual to say no in a polite manner. To unjust demands that people such as colleagues, boss or friends constantly make.

Behavior Modification

It is technique based on skinner's work where

An undesirable behavior is to be replaced by a desirable behavior by using reinforcement. Such behaviors as addictions, shy and timid behavior, autism, even schizophrenia – and works with retarded children.

Token Economy

Institutions such as mental hospitals, prisons and institutions for special children demand that when individuals behave in desirable manner such as getting up in time, taking breakfast, medicines, taking a bath, making one's bed get a reward with tokens – tickets, money, but failure to perform the desirable behavior also results in withdrawal of the tokens. The tokens can be exchanged for candy, cigarettes, games, movies, time out of the institution.

Applications

1- Skinner's ideas have been used in education through:

Programmed Learning

Teaching Machines

Schools should control behavior positively instead of negatively.

2-His ideas are being used in the modification of personal behavior.

3-The treatment and care of mentally retarded children

4-His ideas are used in prison reforms.

5-His ideas are used in helping drug addicts

Summary

- 1- Skinner's theory does more than explain personality; it specifies the principles by which personality can be changed.
- 2- Behavior is under the control of reinforcement contingencies or schedules of reinforcement so if you change these contingencies or schedules of reinforcement you change behavior.
- 3- Skinner focused on overt behavior and not internal mental or physiological behavior.
- 1- So the attention is on observable behavior of the individual and not on covert or physiological.
- 4- Skinner focuses on two categories of behavior:

- Classical or respondent behavior
(Main work by Pavlov, Watson)
- Instrumental or operant behavior
(Thorndike, Skinner)

5- Skinner claims happiness as a by product of operant reinforcement
The things that bring happiness are the ones that reinforce us.
Good health, true respect by all, quality work, Status, money, power; the things that reinforce happiness.

1-Classical or Respondent Conditioning

It occurs when a new stimulus is paired with an existing stimulus –response bond.

2-Instrumental or Operant Conditioning

It occurs when a behavior is followed by either a reward or punishment.
For Skinner personality develops from the organism's behavioral Interaction with the environment.

A key concept within his system is the principle of reinforcement

Skinner's theory is labeled as **operant reinforcement theory**.

Lesson 36 CULTURE AND BELIEFS

Systems of Beliefs

Although all cultures have belief systems, the forms these beliefs take vary widely from society to society. It is often difficult to define belief systems cross-culturally because different societies have different ways of expressing faith

Anthropological Perspective on Beliefs

The anthropological study of belief systems does not attempt to determine which belief systems are right or wrong. Cultural anthropologists concentrate on describing various systems of belief, how they function, and influence human behavior across cultures.

Social Function of Religion

Belief systems fulfill social needs. They can be powerful, dynamic forces in society. Beliefs provide a basis for common purpose and values that can help maintain social solidarity. By reinforcing group norms, they help bring about social homogeneity. A uniformity of beliefs also helps bind people together to reinforce group identity. Beliefs enhance the overall well-being of the society by serving as a mechanism of social control and also reduce the stress and frustrations that often lead to social conflict, whereby helping intensify group solidarity. In most societies, beliefs play an important role in social control by defining what is right and wrong behavior. If individuals do the right things in life, they may earn moral approval. If they do the wrong things, they may suffer retribution.

Psychological Function of Beliefs

Belief systems perform certain psychological functions by providing emotional comfort by explaining the unexplainable (for e.g. to confront and explain death).
A belief system also helps a person cope with stress, fears and anxieties about the unknown. Beliefs lift the burden of decision making from our shoulders because they tell us what is right and wrong, which is of tremendous help in times of stress or crisis.
Even prayers provide psychological comfort and solace. **Moreover, beliefs help ease the stress during life crises such as birth, marriage, serious illnesses by providing appropriate guidelines and rituals.**

Politics and Beliefs

Belief systems have played an important role in global social change through liberation theology (whereby believers for social reform and justice for the poor) and religious nationalism (whereby religious beliefs are merged with government institutions).

Lesson 38

ALBERT ELLIS THEORY OF PERSONALITY

People have many irrational beliefs such as:

1. Black cat should not come your way
2. Number 13 is bad something horrible will happen
3. Broken mirror is a sign of bad luck

Examples

- At every cost I should win the Ladies club membership
- I must please my boss
- I am to be blamed for my failure

Albert Ellis is of the view that irrational beliefs are basis of all of our maladjustments.

These irrational beliefs are learned through socialization from Parents, teachers, peers, friends, religious, political leaders, books, films, media etc.

Ellis thinks that stressful life events referred as activating events (A), do not cause emotional disturbance or consequence or psychopathology (C) such as depression or anxiety, instead it is the irrational beliefs (B) or unrealistic interpretations or superstitions that lead to depression or anxiety.

Ellis says when we experience an unpleasant event or negative event we engage in a series of negative interpretations

Example

I have failed in my midterm examination

(Irrational or illogical reasoning)

I am dumb and stupid

I will never be able to pass my final term

I am not worthy of being in this university

(Rational or logical reasoning)

I was sick

I was not able to work hard

I must make sure to study hard for my final term

Biographical Sketch

He saw that his clients were never symptom free, so he developed REBT

Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy and began using it by 1950's

He invented the A-B-C model which is applied to the understanding of personality and factors that effect personality change.

According to Ellis individuals respond to an activating event A with emotional and behavioral consequences C now the C is not being caused by A but by the individual's belief system B

Ellis has written some 725 articles and 60 books.

- 1- Reason and Emotion in Psychotherapy (1962)
- 2- The Rational Emotive Approach (1973)
- 3- A New Guide Rational Living (1997)

In 1959 he founded the Rational Motive Therapy Institute as a nonprofit educational foundation to train professionals and to spread self-help applications to public.

Ellis's View of Human Nature

Humans have potential for both rationality (straight, positive thinking)

We can be happy, positive, loving, self-preserving and self-actualizing

Irrationality (crooked thinking)

We can superstitious, intolerant, perfectionist, involved in self blame, avoidance of self actualization.
Ellis in 1979 listed some key assumptions about humans such as

- 1- People **have biological and cultural tendency** to think irrationally and to disturb themselves
- 2- Humans are unique in the way they invent their irrational beliefs and continue to be disturbed by them
- 3- People themselves condition themselves to be disturbed rather than the environment or external factors
- 4- People have the capacity and potential to change themselves by changing their cognition, emotion and behavior to remain minimum disturbed for the rest of their lives.
- 4- Humans through constant self-talk, self-evaluation and self-assessment develop emotional and behavioral difficulties such as need or desire for love, approval and success; this hinders the self-growth and self-actualization

It seems that Ellis is being Freudian in his approach, with emphasis on biological nature of humans but he rejects Freud's

And says that humans are not completely controlled by instincts

People are unique and they have potential to change

They have power to understand their limitations

Theory of Personality

Ellis is interested in studying the biological Social and psychological factors that make humans vulnerable to disturbances that can be cognitive, emotive and behavioral in nature.

Ellis's A-B-C theory of personality focuses on the biological and social factors that cause emotional disturbance.

Biological Factors

The individuals have innate tendencies to react to events in certain ways by damning themselves when they do not get what they want

Example

I am a failure; I never get what I want

Now study every event of your life with this tendency

Certain severe mental disturbance can be partly inherited and have strong biological component such as **Schizophrenia that inhibits thinking logically.**

Social Factors

Social factors such as interpersonal relationships in families, peer groups, schools (teachers and friends) have an impact on the expectations that individuals have of themselves and others.

When individuals are accepted by others they feel worthwhile, dependable

But when they are criticized they feel bad, worthless and negative.

A-B-C Theory of Personality

1-The Rational Emotive Behavior A-B-C Theory Personality

- Refers to an activating event
- Refers to the belief system of the individual
- To the consequence

Now in this A-B-C model of Personality quite later Ellis's added D and the E component as well so it is A-B- C-D-E

Where D refers to Disputing or debating or challenging the irrational beliefs

E refers to the Effect or impact of the debate on minimizing irrationality in one's attitude.

Example

Ameren gets an A+ grade on her Psychology test (activating event-A)

Now this good grade will make her belief that she has ability for understanding Psychology (belief-B)

As a consequence she decides to become a Psychologist (consequence-C)

Example

4-D

Now Dispute part consists of three sections detecting, discriminating and debating

The therapist helps Reemit to detect, discriminate and debate her irrational belief.

5- E

The new effective philosophy can bring about more positive and productive behaviors where Reema is no longer depressed and do not feels worthless rather takes a new approach to work hard and take up her studies

Irrational Beliefs

Emotional Disturbance

Examples

- I have failed in my role as an employee
- I should be a good teacher like my father
- I do not like my behavior with my employees
- At every cost I should win the club membership
- I must control my anger
- I must please my boss
- I should fulfill my promise with my students
- I am to be blamed for my failure

(Many more)

See the focus on must, should, blame and failure

These sentences are framed by us we keep repeating them to our selves

We internalize them and we hang on

The result is that we develop a set of emotions which are irrational, illogical and

We develop neurosis and psychosis

Depression, loss of self-worth, hurt and hatred

Some of the main irrational ideas that lead to self-defeat and feelings of worthlessness are following:

- 1- We must have love from all people
- 2- We must be always competent, adequate and achieving
- 3- When people do not behave according to our own liking we should blame hem and see them as wicked, bad and rotten.
- 4- We should see things as catastrophic when we are treated unfairly or rejected or frustrated
- 5- Emotional misery is part of external world and we have no control over it (we can just cry over it)
- 6- Things which appear fearsome or dangerous we should perceive them as very dangerous and should be anxious about them
- 7- It is difficult to undertake responsibilities in life it is more rewarding to avoid them
- 8- Our past is important, it determines our present and it keeps determining our current behavior (you have no control on yourself)
- 9- We should find perfect solutions to our problems
- 10- We can maximize happiness by remaining inactive and enjoy life
- 11- People and things should turnout the way I want them to be otherwise it is horrible.
- 12- My worth and self acceptance depend on my performance and degree of approval given to me by people.

These illogical, irrational, mistaken, Dogmatic, unchallenging beliefs Pushes or emotes or acts as defeating for the person.

We must learn to stop blaming ourselves.

The imperfections that one has to accept them and come out of the trap of irrationality and self blame and self-condemnation

All these irrational views are related with:

About the self or

About others or

About the world

REBT Therapeutic Process

The Therapeutic Process:

- 1- Develop relationship with the client
- 2- Point a few irrational ideas of the client
- 3- Demonstrate to the client the illogical nature of his ideas
- 4- Challenge the client to validate his illogical ideas
- 5- Use humor to confront client's beliefs
- 6- Replace irrational ideas with rational ones
- 7- Use cognitive, emotional or behavioral techniques to help the client

Techniques of REBT

REBT is an effective therapy that focuses on changing individual's irrational and dogmatic cognitions by using technique

Which are of three types?

- Cognitive Methods
- Behavioral Methods
- Emotional Methods

Cognitive Methods

REBT says that an individual has a set of negative, irrational and disturbing set of self-statements which he has to dispute, debate, and challenge, interpret and explain.

At times the therapist even uses techniques of:

- 1- Disputing of Irrational Beliefs
- 2- Cognitive Homework
- 3- Changing One's Language (should and must)

Behavioral Methods

Behavior therapy includes techniques such as Self-Management, Systematic Desensitization, Biofeedback, Modeling, and Behavioral Homework.

Clients actually perform or act difficult things in real life so that they have insights in form of concrete actions.

Emotional Methods

Clients are not provided with sympathy nor are their long tales of woes encouraged

- 1- Rational Emotive Imagery (inappropriate feelings are changed by imagery)
- 2- Role playing (shy or fearful role)

Goals of REBT

- 1- Minimize client's self-defeating, irrational outlook and acquire realistic ideology of life
- 2- Create self-interest, social interest, self-direction, tolerance, flexibility, commitment, acceptance of uncertainty.

Applications of REBT

- 1- It can applied to treatment of anxiety, hostility, depression, marital problems, child rearing,
- 2- Self-management, social skills training

Summary

Albert Ellis is of the view that irrational beliefs are basis of all of our maladjustments.

All neurotic and psychotic disorders are the result of one's irrationality.

Once these irrational thoughts are developed an individuals repeats them again and again and lives on them.

He uses the A-B-C -D-E model to study and modify irrational beliefs of an individual.

Evaluation

A theory which is scientifically attacks the irrational or superstitious behavior of an individual

Considers that innately we are rational it is socialization that makes us irrational

Lesson 39

THE GRAND PERFECT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

- 1- Is there a perfect theory of personality?

- 2- Can a single theory answer all the relevant questions related to personality domain?
- 3- All the theories that we have studied which one is the best?
- 4- Which theory can we trust the most as a student of personality psychology?

We began by defining personality psychology, discussed personality measurement, then briefly we talked about the approaches or perspectives in personality psychology and we discussed the major theories of personality related to each and every area or domain or perspective.

After studying some of the most important Personality theories beginning from Freud, Jung, Adler, Karen , Horney, Eric Erikson, Sullivan, Sheldon, All port, Murray, Maslow, Rogers, Dollard and Miller, Albert Ellis, Bandura and Skinner.

My students ask the following questions.

1- Is there a perfect theory of personality?

No there is no perfect theory of personality.

2- Can a single theory answer all the relevant questions related to personality domain?

No single theory can fully answer all the relevant questions related to personality domain or human nature.

3- All the theories that we have studied which one is the best?

All the theories that we have studied

We cannot label one as the best and the others as bad or incomplete. Each theory has emphasis on one or another important thing related to human nature.

4- Which theory can we trust as the most representative of human nature?

One cannot blindly trust a single theory of personality to be representative of human behavior.

Is there a grand ultimate or a true theory of personality?

NO

Dear students a good theory of personality is one that fulfills three purposes in science

- 1- Provides a guideline to researchers
- 2- Organizes the known available findings
- 3- Makes predictions

1- Provide a Guideline to Researchers

Now as far as the first one is concerned theories serve as guideline or a map for researchers in directing them to important questions in the area of personality psychology.

2- Organizes the Known Findings

A useful function of a theory is to organize known findings.

In physics the theory of Gravity accounts for the facts such as why objects fall down on the earth and not remain suspended in the air or when we walk we press the ground and the force of the earth pushes us forward and in Biology the theory of evolution is the one that accounts for organizing the known facts, but in Personality we lack a theory which can account for the most of known facts of human nature.

May be Freud's theory or Maslow's theory or Allport's theory

Actually these theories point to different domains or perspectives or schools of psychology.

All the theories of personality are quite different, or that they belong to a different perspective but they try to answer questions related to the following areas

- Genes
- Stages of Development
- Motivation
- Learning
- Perception
- Traits
- Emotions
- Temperament and Body Types
- Neurosis
- Disorders and Therapies

- Conscious and Unconscious
- Therapy
- Defense Mechanisms

1- Genes and Biology

All theories of personality endorse the important role of genes and heredity in personality development. In the past there was an emphasis on whether its genes which are important or is it environment which is important the nature –nurtance controversy is now over today we know that both (genes and environment) contribute equally in personality development.

2-Stages of Development

Stages of development, as given in the theories of Freud, Jung and Erikson

3-Motivation

Motivation is central to most theories of personality.

First the biological motives need for air, water, food, pain and heat/ cold avoidance.

Second there are the social motives which develop on the biological motives, especially self-esteem that is based on such approval and self actualization.

4-Learning

Dollard and Miller's Stimulus Response learning theories as well as Skinner, Thorndike, Pavlov's and Watson who say that individual learns from his environment.

Social learning includes imitation and modeling. This kind of learning is probably significant and vital for the development of personality as advocated by Bandura.

5- Perception

Kelly, Rogers and Maslow emphasize on the fact that the way an individual perceives reality is the basis of individual differences or uniqueness of people.

6- Traits

- Allport (Cardinal Traits, Central Traits) and Cattle (Unique, Common, Surface, Source traits) focus on the traits that an individual posses
- A trait is a predisposition or way to respond in a manner to various kinds of stimuli.
- or Mental Structure.

7- Emotions

Emotions or feelings of anxiety, fear, guilt, shame, grief, depression, anger, sadness, aggression, and hostility are some of the key emotional states that the personality psychologists are concerned with and they work on these emotions.

Freud was interested in anxiety, hostility, and aggression whereas the humanistic are concerned with anger and hostility management.

The behaviorists focus on learning of faulty and negative emotions and their modification.

8- Temperament and Body Types

(William Sheldon)

Sheldon correlated specific body type with a specific temperament

- Ectomorphs: Slender, lean and tall with a mean, miserly temperament
- Mesomorphs: Muscular well build with an adventurous temperament.
- Endomorphs: Fat and plumb people who are happy go lucky type temperament.

9- Neurosis

According Karen Horney a child with loving parents, peers, and teachers may help the child to overcome abuse, neglect, sickness, parent's death, divorce or to cope with insecurity and basic anxiety.

Adler and Rogers considers unconditional positive regard, need for positive regard, love, approval, respect, attention essential for healthy growth and development otherwise it leaves the child with low self-esteem.

10- Consciousness and the Unconscious

Freud's

He talked about:

- 1- Conscious

2- Preconscious or Subconscious

3- Unconscious

Jung's

1- Personal Unconscious

2- Collective Unconscious

Archetypes

11- Therapy

It is somewhat surprising that, for all the variation in theories, there is considerable agreement regarding the concept of psychotherapy

12- Defense Mechanism

According to Anna Freud all

(1) They operate on an unconscious level and are therefore self-deceptive

(2) They distort one's perception of reality, so as to make anxiety less threatening to the individual

(3) They protect the ego

We can list a large number of defense mechanisms, as given by Freud or Karen Horney to defend the ego such as projection, displacement, rationalization, regression, blind spots, and cynicism.

An ultimate theory of personality is not possible in personality psychology which is still a developing science and it is not as scientific as biology, physics or chemistry.

Lesson 40

PERSPECTIVES OR DOMAINS OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

Personality can be approached or studied Using the six perspectives or domains. Dear students we have covered at least two to three personality theories related to each of the perspectives.

1- Dispositional

2- Biological

3- Intra-psychic

4- Cognitive/ Experiential

5- Social and Cultural

6- Adjustment

An outline of all the perspectives

1- Dispositional

It deals centrally with the ways in which individuals differ from one another.

This domain cuts across all other domains

It tries to explore how individuals differ in their emotions, self-concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their intra-psychic mechanisms

The ways in which individuals A and B differs from one another.

They differ in their feelings, emotions, and self-concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their intra-psychic mechanisms (traits, conscious, unconscious, id, ego, super ego)

Example 1

<u>Individual A</u>	<u>Individual B</u>
Shy, timid, reserved, loves to stay at home; he is calm and less talkative.	Bold, outgoing, loves to go to parties, He is moody, reactive and talkative.

Example 2

<u>Individual A</u>	<u>Individual B</u>
Hardworking, honest and completes his assignments in time.	Lazy, he is rarely honest and never completes his assignments in time.

2-Biological

Humans are first and foremost collections of biological systems and these systems provide the building blocks for behavior, thought and emotions

The biological approach refers to three areas genetics, psychophysiology and evolution.

Example

Genetics

The genes of individuals A and B differ from one another.

<u>Individual A</u>	<u>Individual B</u>
Tall, fair and plumb, with straight black hair, blue eyes	Medium tall, brown and lean, with curly red hair, green eyes.

Example

Physiology

The physiology (function) of brain or peripheral nervous system leads to differences in personalities of individuals A and B.

<u>Individual A</u>	<u>Individual B</u>
Pushy, aggressive and rude.	Calm, polite and pleasant.

The physiology leads to the development of a specific type of personality such as type A person and type B person.

The message is that if you have heart problem, blood pressure partly you yourself is responsible for it so modify your style of life (diet, exercise and relaxation or meditation.)

3- The Intra-psychic approach

This was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior.

Example 1

The personalities of individuals A and B differ due to different childhood experiences (pleasant or unpleasant) and the conflicts between basic needs and societal demands (intra-psychic conflict between Id, Ego, and Superego)

Example 2

The personalities of individuals A and B differ due to different childhood needs that emerged at different stages of development.

<u>Individual A</u>	<u>Individual B</u>
Nail biter, sucks his thumb Usually dirty and messy.	Exact opposite of individual A.

Example 3

<u>Individual A</u>	<u>Individual B</u>
Helps others, does charity work, polite, humble (controlled by instinct of Eros).	Abusive, aggressive, violent, damages things (controlled by instinct of Thanotos)

4- The Cognitive / Experiential Approach

It focuses on the cognition and subjective experiences such as conscious thoughts feelings, beliefs and desires about one self and others. The psychological mechanisms involved in subjective experience, however, differ in form and content from one another.

Example 1

Two individuals say A and B living in the same room look out of the same window in the morning, the images on their retinas is identical

Yet individual A says what a beautiful day, while individual B says what a dull and boring day.

Example 2

Two students attend the same lecture, individual A thinks it was interesting, novel and pulled his attention.

While individual B thinks it was dull, boring and nothing new to offer.

Example 3

Two individuals are asked to choose a book according to liking to read or select a movie of their choice to watch.

<u>Individual A</u>	<u>Individual B</u>
A chooses a classic tragic novel or a film	chooses a comic book or a comedy film

5- Social and Cultural

The assumption that personality not merely something that resides within the brain, nervous system and genes of individuals rather the social and cultural context also has an important role. At the cultural level it is clear that groups differ from one another

Example 1

- 1- My personality or your personality has developed as result of genes and culture.
- 2- The differences in the personalities of males and females are due to social or cultural expectations.

Example 2

The personality of Pakistani student is the result of genes, society and culture.

So parents, teacher's, peer's leaders books media molds the personality of Pakistani student.

Example 3

Personality of a University Teacher or a Student

Now the personality development of a university teacher or a student is the result of interpersonal situations or events.

6- Adjustment

This refers to the fact that personality plays a key role in how we cope, adapt, and adjust to events in our everyday live

Personality is linked with important health issues such as heart disease, sleep, diet, and the role of exercise in long live of an individual.

Personality problems can be studied in relation to personality disorders

Example 1

We have got two individuals say

Individual A and individual B

Individual A's style of life includes healthy diet no junk food regular exercise and relaxation or meditation.)

Individual B's style of life includes unhealthy diet, no exercise and no relaxation or mediation.

Example 2

We have got two individuals say

Individual A (pessimistic) and individual B (optimistic)
Are told by their doctor that they have high blood pressure and diabetes
Individual A (pessimistic) will be depressed and sad and label himself as a patient.
Individual B (optimistic) will make a diet chart, will be particular about his medicines, and take regular exercise.

Lesson 41

PERSPECTIVES OR DOMAINS OF PERSONALITY

PSYCHOLOGY

Let us talk about the first three approaches or perspectives in more detail

- 1- Dispositional
1. Biological
2. Intra-psychic

1-Dispositional

It deals centrally with the ways in which individuals differ from one another.

This domain cuts across all other domains. It tries to explore how individuals differ in their emotions, self-concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their Intra-psychic mechanisms.

The goal of the psychologist is to identify and measure the important ways in which individuals differ from one another,

The origin of these differences and how these develop and how they are maintained

The term disposition refers to an inherent tendency to behave in a specific way or traits or stable internal characteristics. So traits are the raw material of personality structure.

This Approach assumes that personality is made up of a set of stable internal characteristics that guide behavior. These characteristics are described as personality types but more often each person's unique combination of traits, factors or needs. These inherited tendencies or traits are the raw material which is molded into a unique personality by the environment.

The questions that come to our mind is

- How many personality traits exist?
- What is the best classification system of traits?
- How many personality traits exist?

A person's personality is viewed as being built out of a set of common as well as important traits. The psychologists use three strategies to identify fundamental traits, out which differences between people can be formed.

What is the best classification system of traits?

- 2- The language Approach
- 3- The Statistical Approach
- 4- The Theoretical Approach

The psychologist blend the three together to classify or identify the fundamental traits

How are traits measured?

Qualitatively as well as Quantitatively

Work is being done to develop such measures which are standardized objective reliable and valid and not easily faked.

Example is Cattle's 16PF

Traits are used in selecting people for specific careers or for specific education,

Will an aggressive person be suitable for the post of a police officer, or a kind hearted lady will be suitable for the nursing job?

- Allport's Theory and Cattell's Theory
- Kelly's Theory and Murray's Theory
- Allport's *trait* is the unit of analysis for understanding and studying personality.

Traits are predispositions to various kinds of stimuli. They may be classified under cardinal, central, or secondary according to their degree of pervasiveness within a personality.

The construct that unifies traits and provides direction for the person's life is termed the *Proprium*. This concept refers to the "self" including all aspects of personality.

For Cattell factor analysis is a method used to discover traits which he considers the building blocks of personality. An ability discovered in such a cluster is called a factor and in Cattell's theory, the term factor is equated with the term trait.

Traits

A trait is a "mental structure" that is observed to account for regularity or consistency in individual's behavior.

Types of Traits

- 1- Unique traits,
- 2- Common traits
- 3- Surface traits
- 4- Source traits

Need

A need is a construct is a force which organizes perception, apperception, interjection, conation and action.

Types of Needs

- 1- Primary and Secondary
- 2- Overt Needs and Covert Needs
- 3- Focal Needs and Diffuse Needs

The TAT was developed (Morgan & Murray, 1935) out of Murray's belief that many of the basic human motives exist outside of conscious awareness.

Murray's TAT is a projective test. If we present a person with an ambiguous picture and then ask what is in the picture, the response must be a reflection of what is important to the person or the themes the person uses to organize the world.

2-Biological

Humans are first and foremost collections of biological systems and these systems provide the building blocks for behavior, thought and emotions

The biological approach refers to three areas genetics, psychophysiology and evolution.

1- Genetics

It is concerned with the genetics of personality

Some important research questions are

Are identical twins more alike or fraternal twins in their personalities?

What happens when identical twins are reared together versus when they are reared apart?

It is behavior genetics which asks such important questions.

2-The psychophysiology of personality summarizes what is known about personality in terms nervous system functioning, neurotransmitters, cardiac reactivity, pain tolerance, circadian rhythms (whether you are a morning or night person) and links hormones and personality

3- How evolution has shaped human psychological functioning; this approach assumes that psychological mechanisms that constitute human personality have evolved over thousand of years because they were effective in solving adaptive problems.

The research study related to following areas has contributed in biological approach.

- Selective Breeding only Conducted in Animals
- Family Studies
- Twin Studies
- Adoption Studies

✚ Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory

✚ Sheldon's Theory

✚ Erikson's emphasis on biology

✚ Freud's theory is biological in nature

✚ Emphasis on sex and aggression

Stages of development are five, beginning from birth up till adolescence

Freud's account of psychosexual development is based on the premise that sexuality begins at birth and progresses thereafter through a biologically defined zones until adulthood is reached. Freud conceived of personality development as proceeding through the following stages: oral, anal, phallic, and genital.

Sheldon's Somatotype Theory

Sheldon looks at the physique or body type (soma) for the explanation of human behavior.

1- A discrete number of physical and

2- Temperamental variables that he considers of primary importance in representing human behavior.

1- According to Erickson biology or genetics is one strong determinant of personality but culture is another important determinant.

2- Thus biologically determined differences between the two sexes can be explained as result of social expectations or cultural expectations.

Karen Horney deemphasized the biological motives and focused on a need for a feeling of security in the child is important.

Karen Horney totally rejected the concept that anatomy is destiny and males are superior. Males are equal to females.

3- The Intra-psychic approach was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior.

There are other psychodynamic theorists who differed from Freud such as:

- Jung
- Adler
- Karen Horney

Freud proposed three levels of consciousness- the conscious, preconscious, and unconscious- to describe the degree to which mental events vary in accessibility to awareness. The most significant mental events take place in the unconscious.

In Freudian theory, human psychological makeup comprises three structural components- id, ego, and superego. The id, representing the instinctual core of the person, is irrational, impulsive, and obedient to the pleasure principle. The ego represents the rational component of personality and is governed by the reality principle. Its task is to provide the individual with a suitable plan

of action in order to satisfy the demands of the id within the restrictions of the social world. The superego, the final structure developed, represents the moral branch of personality.

Freud's motivational theory is based on the concept of instinct, life and death instincts

Freud recognized three **types of anxiety such as reality, neurotic, and moral**. He proposed that anxiety serves as a warning signal to the ego of impending danger from instinctual impulses. In response, the ego employs a number of defense mechanisms, including, sublimation, projection, displacement, rationalization, reaction formation, and regression.

The Personal Un-conscious consists of repressed or forgotten or not very vivid or clear memories. It consists of clusters of emotionally loaded thoughts-- complexes.

The Collective Un-conscious

It refers to our ancestral experiences, memories or all human history that we inherit from our forefathers. Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes. Fragments of all human history that we inherit from our forefathers. Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes. Which are followings:

- Persona
- Anima
- Animus
- Shadow
- Self

For Karen Horney, child's relationship to his parents is very important and that determines whether or not the child would develop the basic anxiety.

For Karen Horney, basic anxiety leads to development of neurosis and causes basic hostility, which is unconscious.

Lesson 42

PERSPECTIVES OR DOMAINS OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

The Cognitive/ Experiential Approach:

It focuses on the cognition and subjective experiences such as conscious thoughts feelings, beliefs and desires about one and others. The psychological mechanisms involved in subjective experience, however, differ in form and content from one another

- 1- The focus is on differences in cognitions, perceptions, emotions and self.
- 2- The focus is on understanding experience from the person's point of view.

So we differ from each other in these two ways.

So we will deal with

- 1- Cognitive experiences,
- 1- Emotional experiences (intelligence) and
- 2- Experiences of the self
 - Self Esteem,
 - Self-Actualization
 - Self-Identity,
 - Positive and Negative Identity

Cognitive experiences are what people perceive and pay attention to, how they interpret the events in their lives and their goals and plans and strategies.

Now all these kinds of experiences refer to how people process information or let's say how we perceive events, people and our-selves.

Humans are not like computers who process information objectively and accurately.

We perceive and experience reality using a set of personal cognitive constructs.

An event has happened so we process information by our own personal cognitive style

Why did it happen?

Whose fault is it?

Personality psychologists focus on how people make attributions of responsibility and a tendency to blame one-self for all the bad events.

The second category of experience is emotion which is important.

- Are you usually happy or sad?
- What makes you angry?
- What makes a person anxious?
- Can you control your temper or mood?

Emotional experiences are thought of states or as traits

The frequency of emotional experiential states is low while emotional experience traits refer to the tendency to be frequently.

The emotions as traits can be divided into two areas

- Content (it refers to kinds of emotions)
Pleasant - Unpleasant
- Style of emotional life (how these emotions are experienced)
High or low Emotion Intensity

The content relates to pleasant or unpleasant emotion such as happiness or joy or success while unpleasant emotion relate to depression, anxiety, anger, hostility, aggression.

The style of emotional life refer to the fact that some people experience at a higher intensity than others For such high affect intensity persons an ordinary pleasant event will make them very happy event and an ordinary unpleasant event will make them very sad, depress and anxious.

The experiences of the self are unlike the experiences of cognition and emotion.

- 1- Self can be studied in the context of real and ideal self
- 2- Self as Identity
- 3- Introverts or Extroverts
- 4-Self Esteem and Self Actualization
- 1- Self - Real and Ideal Self is a Description
- 2- Self as Identity – Refers to Role Assigned
- 3- Introverts or Extroverts –Refers to Type
- 4- Self Esteem and Self Actualization - Refers to Force or Strength

Theories Related to Self Concept

- 1- Self- real and ideal self (Karen Horney, Rogers)
- 2- Self as identity (Erickson)
- 3- Introverts or Extroverts (Carl Jung)
- 4- Self-esteem and Self-actualization (Maslow, Rogers)

Theories of personality included in this perspective are Kelly's, Karen Horney, Erickson, Maslow and Rogers.

5- Social and Cultural

The assumption that personality not merely something that resides within the brain, nervous system and genes of individuals rather the social and cultural context has an important role.

At the cultural level it is clear that groups differ from one another

In this domain the emphasis is on personality as is affected by:

- 1- Social Institutions
 - Social Roles
 - Social expectations and relationships with people
- 2- Social Institutions Refer to Home, School, and Neighborhood.
 - Social Roles Peer, Sibling, Student
 - Social Expectations and Relationships with people Friendly, Enemy or
 - Culture and society makes up the rules that influence:
- 1- Social Institutions
- 2- Social Roles
- 3- Social Expectations and Relationships with People

People from different cultures have different personalities because different cultural forces shape their personality. It is interesting to note that there are more similarities than differences in individuals from diverse cultures Related to dress, style of living and food preferences.

People raised in American culture tend to describe themselves in abstract concepts

I am honest and trustworthy.

I am straight forward and polite.

People raised in Asian culture tend to describe themselves through social relations

I am Mr. A's daughter

I am Mr. B's sister

The concept of gender and different rules related originates from culture

John Gary's book men are from Mars and women are from Venus says that men and women are different species and rules and norms for both genders are different

The culture of growing up as a boy or as a girl is different.

The way people interact with boys or with girls are different

Men are more aggressive in all cultures

Personality psychologists have looked for similarities between cultures.

People from all cultures smile when they are happy and frown when they are sad and bare teeth is a sign of anger.

Theories of Allport, Cattle, Maslow, Erickson, Rogers and Kelly.

6 - Adjustment

This refers to the fact that personality plays a key role in how we cope, adapt, and adjust to events in our everyday live Personality is linked with important health issues such as heart disease, sleep, diet, and the role of exercise in long life of an individual. The personality to help us adjust to the challenges and demands of life, in a unique way for all of us.

We will focus on Physical health and Mental health

We face stress every day and react to it as well.

How we feel and interpret stress varies from person to person.

Personality plays a key role in how we appraise and interpret stress.

Now some of us appraise, interpret, cope, adapt and adjust to stress well.

While some of us display patterns of emotions, behaviors and interpersonal relations that create problems for themselves as well as those around them.

So coping with stress and disorders of personality define the adjustment domain fully.

Personality is linked with health outcomes such as heart problem, diabetes, ulcers and even some cancers are the result of stress.

Personality is also related to certain behaviors such as smoking, drinking and risk taking.

Old age problems and retirement problems are also related to stress.

Lesson 43

THE GRAND THEORY OF PERSONALITY

A question posed by one of the students is that I have used the term first, second and the third force in psychology.

What do we mean by it?

Can we classify all the 17 theories of personality under the banner of first, second and third force of personality psychology?

Some 17 Theories of Personality

- 1- Freud
- 2- Jung
- 3- Adler
- 4- Karen Horney
- 5- Erickson
- 6- Maslow
- 7- Rogers
- 8- Murray
- 9- Sheldon
- 10- Sullivan
- 11- Allport
- 12- Cattle
- 13- Dollard and Miller
- 14- Bandura
- 15- Skinner
- 16- Ellis
- 17- Kelly

There are three forces in Psychology.

- 1- The first force is Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic or intra-psychic
- 2- The second force is Behaviorism
- 3- The third force is Phenomenology or Humanistic Psychology.

There are a number of theories of personality that come under each banner.

- 1- The first force is Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic it includes:
 - Freud's theory
 - Jung's theory
 - Adler's theory
 - Karen Horney's theory
 - Erikson's theory
- 2- The second force is Behaviorism. It includes:
 - Dollard and Miller's theory
 - Skinner's theory
 - Bandura's theory
 - Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike work
- 3- The third force is Phenomenology or Humanistic Psychology. It includes:
 - Adler's theory
 - Kelly's theory
 - Murray's theory
 - Maslow's theory

- Roger's theory
- Allport's theory
- Cattle's theory
- Sullivan's theory

Freud's theory includes the following:

- Levels of Consciousness
 - Analysis of Mental Structures
 - Psychosexual Stages of Development.
 - Defense Mechanisms
 - Means of Tapping the Unconscious
 - Instinct is an Inherited Condition that gives our Behavior Direction
- 1) Two kinds of Instincts:
- Life instinct or Eros: bodily needs, survival, pleasure (libido)
 - Death instinct or Thanatos: aggression, self-destructiveness

Psychosexual Stages of Development

Each stage has typical problem.

At each stage, the "right amount" of libidinal satisfaction must occur. Danger of fixation or regression.

Basis of Character Types

Major event is Oedipal Complex

- Anxiety = threat
- Reality: danger in external world
- Neurotic: fear of id out of control
- Moral: fear of conscience

Ego defends against anxiety--often unconscious, more and less mature/primitive

Jung's Theory

The Personal Un-conscious consists of repressed or forgotten or not very vivid or clear memories. It consists of clusters of emotionally loaded thoughts which Jung labeled as complexes.

A complex is a cluster of ideas connected together by a common feelings or emotions.

The Collective Un-conscious It refers to our ancestral experiences, memories from untold millions of years, so it is fragments of all human history that we inherit from our forefathers.

Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes.

- Persona
- Anima
- Animus
- Shadow
- Self

The Psychological Types

Psychological Types refer to orientation or the way an individual interacts with other people.

Introverts

Extroverts

Stages of Development

- Childhood
- Young Adulthood
- Middle Ages

- Life after Retirement

Individual Psychology

Adler's theory

The term individual psychology refers to the fact that individuals are unique, they are characterized by inner harmony and a striving force to cooperate with fellow humans. It does not mean that human beings are selfish, aggressive and motivated to satisfy their own biological motives.

1. 1-Adler proposed feelings of inferiority as the driving force behind personality
2. 2-and he developed birth order theory.

Karen Horney's theory

Horney developed a theory based on two concepts

- 1- Basic Anxiety
- 2- Neurotic Personality

In 1937, Karen Horney wrote a book called "The Neurotic Personality of our Time" in this book, Karen

Horney tried to discuss that a child has two basic needs, which are safety and satisfaction.

In 1945, Karen Horney in her book "Our Inner Conflicts" classified ten neurotic needs in three categories.

- 1- Moving Towards People
- 2- Moving Against People
- 3- Moving Away from People

Relationship between Real Self and Ideal Self

The real self represents all those things that are true about an individual, the ideal self reflects what one would like to become.

Erikson's theory

- 1- According to Erickson biology or genetics is one strong determinant of personality but culture is another important determinant.
- 2- Thus biologically determined differences between the two sexes can be explained as result of social expectations or cultural expectations.

Ego Psychology

It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment. Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as Ego psychology.

Psychosocial Stages of Development

According to Erikson, every individual passes through eight stages of development and sequence of the eight stages is genetically determined and it is unchangeable.

Each stage of development is characterized by crisis which can have a positive or a negative resolution. A positive resolution strengthen the ego makes it stronger and helps the individual in the adaptation process.

On the other hand a negative resolution weakens the ego and hinders or inhibits the adaptation process.

Identity crises the crises in fifth stage of development where an individual gains either positive or negative identity.

Negative identity an identity that is contrary to the goals of society.

All those thing that child is warned not to become.

- 3- The second force is Behaviorism

It includes:

- Dollard and Miller's theory
- Skinner's theory
- Bandura's theory
- Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike work

The Stimulus Response Theory Of Dollard and Miller

- 2) 1-Habit is the key concept in the theory by Dollard and Miller.
- 3) 2-A habit is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response.

For learning (desired behavior) to take place within the subject:

- 1- One must want something (Drive)
- 2- Notice something (Cue-Stimulus)
- 3- Do something (Response)
- 4- Get something (Reward)

Skinner's Theory of Personality

Radical Behaviorism is the brand of Psychology that is practically synonymous with Skinner's name.

Skinner's Radical Behaviorism

He rejected the use of inner states such as anxiety as the explanation of our overt / observable behavior. Skinner's Use of the Term "Operant."

An operant is a response that operates on the environment and changes it. The change in the environment affects the occurrence of the response.

When an operant response is conditioned, it is essential that the reinforcement be presented after the occurrence of the response. Only in this way does the frequency of the response increase.

So rewards and punishments mold the behaviors of animals as well as humans

Teachers, judges and employers rely on connection between actions and consequences to shape behavior.

Operant conditioning is concerned with effect of certain kinds of consequences on the frequency of behavior.

A consequence that increases the frequency of a behavior is called reinforcement.

A consequence that decreases the frequency of a behavior is called punishment.

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for increasing the frequency of behavior

- 1- Positive reinforcement the behavior increases because it is followed by reward
- 2- The frequency of a behavior can increase with the negative reinforcement or with the removal or lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for decreasing the frequency of undesired behavior

1. Extinction is where we stop the reinforcement and the behavior will be extinguished.
2. Punishment

The frequency of behavior is reduced when it is followed by an aversive stimulus

Bandura's Theory

1- Bandura suggests most human behavior is learned by observation. In Modeling we observe the behavior of others and use this information as a guide for our own behavior.

2- Bandura and his colleagues have demonstrated that subjects allowed to observe a set of responses performed by another individual (the model) tend to exhibit these same responses (observed model) when placed in a similar setting.

Example

All films, Television dramas and cartoons where models behave aggressive they are teaching observers to be aggressive and violent.

Albert Ellis is of the view that irrational beliefs are basis of all of our maladjustments.

These irrational beliefs are learned through socialization from

Parents, teachers, peers, friends, religious, political leaders,

Books, films, media etc.

1- The Rational Emotive Behavior A-B-C Theory Personality

“A” refers to an activating event.

“B” refers to the belief system of the individual.

“C” refers to the consequence.

Now in this A-B-C model of Personality quite later Ellis’s added D and the E component as well so it is AB-C-D-E.

Where “D” refers to Disputing or debating or challenging the irrational beliefs

“E” refers to the Effect or impact of the debate on minimizing irrationality in one’s attitude.

There are three forces in Psychology

3- The third force is Phenomenology or Humanistic Psychology.

- Adler’s theory
- Kelly’s theory
- Murray’s theory
- Maslow’s theory
- Roger’s theory
- Allport’s theory
- Cattle’s theory

Maslow’s theory

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) postulated a hierarchy of needs beginning with physiological needs at the bottom and self actualization at the top. An individual must meet the basic needs before trying to meet the higher needs.

The triangle or pyramid has a broad base and narrow top, so majority of individuals are involved at fulfilling basic needs and only few reach the top i.e. self actualization means that we can reach our highest potential in all areas of functioning if we have freedom to grow. Majority of the people are involved in fulfilling the needs at the lower level and it is very few who reach the top.

Examples

Quaid-e-Azam,

Javed Miandad,

Imran Khan,

Adur Satter Edhi.

Roger’s theory

1- Phenomenological theory of personality is that a person’s behavior is obtained through observation of his internal frame of reference. why an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in a given way, it is necessary to know how that person perceives and interprets the world.

He puts the emphasis on positive aspects of life, free choices and personal growth experiences.

Actualizing Tendency

An innate need to survive, grow and enhance one’s self.

4- Fully Functioning Person

It is a term used by Rogers to designate individuals who are using their capacities and talents, realizing their potentials.

Kelly's theory

Kelly argued that personality is by its very nature embedded in a person's interpersonal relationships. For Kelly's an individual's personality is nothing more or less than his or her construct system.

Sullivan's theory

For Sullivan personality is embedded in a person's interpersonal relationships.

The personality develops as result of interpersonal situations and events.

Cattell's theory

For Cattell factor analysis is a method used to discover traits which he considers the building blocks of personality. An ability discovered in such a cluster is called a factor and in Cattell's theory, the term factor is equated with the term trait.

Murray's theory

Personality reflects novel, unique, recurrent and enduring patterns of behaviors.

Personality functions are to reduce conflicts, satisfy individual needs and to make plans for attainment of future goals.

Lesson 45

PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY: NEW DIRECTIONS IN THE DISCIPLINE

There has been tremendous contribution in each area of personality psychology some things have been added in existing concepts while totally new things have also been added such as the adjustment perspective or the focus on Neurological aspect of personality study.

1-Definition of personality

2-Analysis of personality

3-criteria to evaluate a theory

4- Personality Assessment

5-Perspectives of personality

6-New Directions in Personality Research

7- A Final Word

Now let us talk about new contributions in each and above area one by one. There are several definitions of personality but the current focus is on Adaptation and Person Environment Interaction.

1-Definition of personality

Personality is a set of traits or characteristics that describe the ways in which people are different from each other.

Traits such as shy or timid

Intelligent or Dumb, Generous or Miser, Talkative or Quiet

Traits and Theories of traits have performed important functions such as:

- They help to describe people and help us to understand the dimensions difference between people.
- Traits help to explain behavior (the why component of behavior).
- 3-Traits help to predict behavior (those who will cope with stress better?)

2- Psychological Mechanisms

Psychological Mechanisms refers to the processes of personality.

Most Psychological Mechanisms involve information processing activity. Psychological Mechanisms are not activated all the time rather they are activated under particular conditions or situations.

- 1- **Within the individual** means that personality is something that a person carries with him over time and from one situation to next. So we are stable and consistent across time and situation. Example we feel as the same person we were yesterday, last week or month.
- 2- **Personality is organized** because traits and mechanisms are organized or linked to one another in a coherent fashion.

Suppose that you have two desires or needs you are hungry and you have to appear for a job interview. Our personality is organized in the sense that it contains decision rules which govern and control which needs are to be activated and which needs are to be inactive. So in the example the hunger need is to be inactive or passive and the need for the preparation for the interview is to be activated.

- 3- **Influential forces** in personality means that traits and mechanisms can act as influence how we act, how we view our selves, how we feel, how we interact with the world, how we select our environments, how we react to our circumstances so personality plays a key role in how people shape their lives.
- 4- **6- Person- environment interaction** is perhaps a difficult and complex feature of personality. Perception refers to how we see and interpret environment. Example smile of a clown and of a stranger are seen and interpreted differently one as friendly and other with suspicion.
- 5- **Adaptation** conveys the notion that central feature of personality concerns adaptive functioning such as accomplishing goals, coping, adjusting and dealing with challenges and problems we face as we go through life.

Example

People who worry a lot receive a lot of social support and encouragement as a reward therefore they adapt to the concept of worrying.

6- Different Environments:

There are three types of environments which influence our behavior, namely physical, social and intrapsychic.

Now let us talk about them one by one

- The physical environment often poses challenges for people some of these are direct threats to the survival, such as extreme temperatures, snakes, spiders, heights etc.
- Social environment also poses challenges such as we desire friends, mates, love, belongingness and unconditional positive regard.
- Intra-psychic environment We have memories, dreams, desires, fantasies, and a collection of private experiences we live every day. The three physical, social and Intra- psychic are the ones which are equally important for the survival of individual.

Three levels of Personality analysis

Now every individual is similar to others in all respects while in certain respects the individual is similar to others and different from others as well so let us take each level one by one

1-Like all others (the human nature level)

2-Like some others (the level of individual and group differences)

3-Like no others (the individual uniqueness level)

(Kluckhohn & Murray, 1948)

1- Like all others (the human nature level)

The traits or mechanisms possessed by all of us.

For example nearly every human being has language skills which allow him or her to learn and use language, so spoken language is a universal human nature.

At the psychological level all humans possess fundamental psychological mechanism for example to live in harmony and to belong to social groups. So there are many ways in which each person is like every other person.

2- Like some others (the level of individual and group differences)

This second level pertains to individual and group differences.

Individual differences there are people who love to go out, have parties and socialize, while we have people who want to be alone, read a book or listen to music, so there are ways or dimensions in which each person is like some others (introverts, extroverts)

Group differences

People in one group may have certain personality features in common and these common features make them different from other groups

Examples

Different cultures, different age groups, different genders, different political parties.

3- Like no others (the individual uniqueness level)

There are no two individuals not even identical twins raised by the same parents in the same home, country and culture have exactly the same personalities. Personality psychology focuses on the uniqueness of individual differences.

Criteria for Evaluation of Personality Theory

1. Verifiability
- 7- Heuristic Values
2. Internal Consistency
3. Parsimony
4. Comprehensiveness
5. Functional Significance

Some seventeen theories of personality covered in the course of personality psychology

Is there a grand ultimate or a true theory of personality?

No! There is no grand ultimate or a true theory of personality we can say that Freud's theory or Roger's theory or Maslow's theory.

A good theory of personality is one that fulfills three purposes in science which are given below

- 1- Provides a guideline to researchers
- 2- Organizes the known available findings
- 3- Makes predictions

Now all the three are equally important.

Personality can be approached or studied using the six perspectives or domains which are following .The first five domains are there in each and every book on Personality Psychology but it is the Adjustment perspective which was added later and it reflects the latest trend in Personality Psychology.

- 1- Dispositional
- 2- Biological
- 3- Intra-psychic
- 4- Cognitive / Experiential
- 5- Social and Cultural
- 6- Adjustment

Personality Measurement

It includes Personality Assessment and Personality Measurement is an important area where many new concepts have emerged let us look at them closely. Now keep in your mind that Personality Assessment deals with methods of data collection such as Self Report Data (S-Data), Observer Report Data (O-Data), Test Data (T-Data) and Life Outcome Data (L- Data). While Personality Measurement psychological tests definitely personality tests **MMPI-I CPI, EPPS AND 16PF** these are objective tests where as there are Projective personality test as well such **RISB, TAT, WAT** and many more.

1- Personality Assessment

Sources of Personality Data

- 1- Self Report Data (S-Data)
- 2- Observer Report Data (O-Data)
- 3- Test Data (T-Data)
- 4- Life Outcome Data (L- Data)

2- Issues in Personality Assessment

Links in data sources and the Pitfalls in different methods

3- Personality Measurement

- 1- Personality tests
 - Objective-MMPI I
 - Projective (subjective)

2- Evaluation of Personality Measures

- Reliability
- Validity
- Generalizability

3-Research Design used in personality

- Experimental Studies
- Correlational Studies
- Case Studies

Each design has its advantages and limitations.

New Frontiers in Personality Research

1- Study of cognitive processes and their relationship to other aspects of psychological functioning:

With the exceptions of Kelly and Bandura, the personality theorists discussed have almost totally disregarded the role of cognitive processes in understanding human functioning. Freud, for instance” viewed human nature primarily in terms of early childhood experiences and unconscious motivation. Skinner, on the other hand, treats personality as if it involves only the relationship between overt behavior and environmental reinforcement contingencies.

2- Study of especially productive, talented, and creative persons:

For all practical purposes, the formal study of personality had its beginnings in Freud’s concern with the causes and treatment of pathological behavior. The history of personological inquiry, therefore, reflects a strong emphasis on behavioral phenomena observed most readily in psychotherapeutic situations. Even today the study of personality remains closely tied to the investigation of psychologically disturbed persons. But times are changing, and so are the concerns and interests of personologists. In recent years, there has been a growing awareness that personology should not be exclusively preoccupied with pathological or defensive aspects of human functioning.

3- Study of the physiological and neurological determinants and bases of Personality:

In all likelihood, the contemporary scientific era will be recorded as the age of biology- and as a period in which advances in behavior genetics, biochemistry, psychopharmacology, and neurophysiology produced remarkable and decisive changes in the constructs and methods that guide inquiry in psychology in general.

Yet, with the exceptions of Freud and Murray (the only two theorists in this text who truly acknowledge and stress the biological bases of behavior), personologists have almost totally ignored the need to study the neuro-physiological and biochemical components of human personality.

4- Study of personality development in middle and old age:

About one quarter of our lives is spent growing up and three-quarters growing old. It is ironic, therefore, that psychologists have devoted so much of their efforts to the study of childhood and adolescence. Two major assumptions underlie and partially explain this one-sided emphasis on the study of child and adolescent development: (1) selected adult behavior patterns are firmly established at an early age and (2) parental treatment during the initial years of life is a significant determinant of personality formation.

5- Study of self-regulatory processes and plans

The ability of human beings to control their own personal world has intrigued not only philosophers and psychologists but most laypersons as well. This presumed ability has taken on added importance in the context of today’s chaotic world in which increasing numbers of people feel unable to shape the direction of their lives (Seligman, 1975). Accordingly, future study in personology will need to systematically examine the extent to which humans are capable of regulating their own behavior through self imposed goals and self-produced consequences. Some progress in this direction has already been achieved as a result of Bandura’s theoretical and research contributions. His effort to delineate the ways in which we regulate our behavior by imposing goals or standards on ourselves and then reacting to our performances with self-praise or self-criticism promises to greatly enrich our understanding of self-control. Future study will especially need to consider the kinds of “priority rules” a person uses to select behavioral strategies that will lead to salient goals. That is, personality investigators will need to study the kinds of plans an individual makes to control the complicated sequences of steps leading to the attainment of long-range goal, e.g., how do people plan and organize their behavior so as to become doctors, lawyers, teachers, or

senators? Attention will also be focused on the psychological processes that enable people to construct for themselves outlines of intended sequences of activity.

6- Study of the interaction of situational factors and personality variables and their relative contribution to behavior:

As the individual lectures on each theorist made clear, it is customary for most personologists (Skinner and Bandura excluded) to assume that personality variables (i.e., intra-psychic factors) are responsible for and can adequately explain a person's behavior as it varies from one situation to another. Freud's psychoanalytic theory and Allport's trait theory are by far the most thorough in their development of this person-oriented view. These two theorists have unequivocally assumed that personality is composed of broad and stable characteristics that operate regularly across a wide variety of situations that is traits underlie the observed consistencies in each person's behavior.

7- Study of problems relevant to the practical world of human affairs:

As we have repeatedly noted, the history of personological inquiry is intimately bound up with the study of psychopathology and personal adjustment. Efforts aimed at improving the human condition were defined largely in terms of what could be done to diagnose and treat disturbed individuals so that they could regain their mental health and live more productive lives. This orientation especially characterizes the theories of Freud, Adler, Rogers, Kelly, and to some extent, Erikson. Individual effectiveness and proper psychological functioning are also emphasized in the theories of Allport and Maslow.

Personality psychology is a very young field of inquiry. With comparatively few exceptions, it is only during the past four decades that personality theories have emerged. Personology has nevertheless come of age by establishing itself as a viable area of study. The flourishing activity in personology is a function of the growing realization that people's most vital problems concern themselves and their relations to others.