Schools of Psychology
## Block 2

### SCHOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGY

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BLOCK 2  INTRODUCTION

Block 2 of MPC-052 deals with the different schools of thoughts of Psychology. In order to explain the human behaviour (regarding what, when and how and individual behaves in reaction to situations encountered) several schools emerged and tried to find out ways to explain human behaviour. This Block will help you to understand the various theoretical framework and different factors that govern and regulate behaviour. Further, you will also learn about mental health issues in specific areas, if fixation occurs in early stages of development.

Thus, Block 2 of MPC-051, will focus on various schools of Psychology.

Unit 1 deals with “Behavioural Theories”. It was the school of Behaviourism that emerged out to explain the process and concept of ‘learning’. The theories of behavioural approach explain that learning implies to a fairly permanent change in behaviour or performance. It is needless to say that behavioural theories were propounded by the Psychologists who had a belief that learning and behaviour are inter related and these psychologists were the followers of School of Behaviourism.

Unit 2 describes “Biological theories”. It deals with the concept of behaviour which occurs as a result of biological processes. Biological psychology is the study of physiological, evolutionary and developmental mechanisms of behaviour.

Unit 3 is on “Humanistic and Existential Psychology”. In this Unit you will understand the various humanistic and existential theories. The theorists of this school focus on human growth and the value of life.

Unit 4 deals with “Psychoanalytical and related theories”. It talks about the school of Psychoanalysis, which tries to explain human behaviour from a different perspective. With the help of this unit, you will be able to comprehend the basic concepts of psychoanalytic theory and explicate the stages of psychosexual development. Fixation at any stage may lead to psychological disorders.
UNIT 1 BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES

Structure

1.0 Introduction
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1.2 Behavioural Theories
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This block will help you understand the concept of ‘learning’. The behavioural theories have differently tried to explain the process and concept of ‘learning’. Predominantly, all the theories of behavioural approach explain that learning implies to a fairly permanent change in behaviour or performance. It is needless to say that behavioural theories were propounded by the Psychologists who had a belief that learning and behaviour are inter related and these psychologists were the followers of School of Behaviourism. They opined that learning cannot be directly observed but can be inferred from observable behaviour. From change in a person’s performance in any task at one time point to another time point, it can be inferred that some learning has taken place during the passage of time. If this change in performance occurs on more than one occasion then there is more strength in the inference that learning has taken place. The question of how these changes occur and what mechanisms are involved is described by behavioural theorists. There are major behavioural theories that explain the learning process. In this unit, the theories of classical conditioning, operant conditioning, observational learning and cognitive learning will be presented under the umbrella of behavioural theories.
1.1 OBJECTIVES

The present Unit will help you to:

- understand the basic concepts of behavioural theories;
- comprehend the theory of Classical conditioning;
- comprehend the theory of Operant conditioning; and
- comprehend the theory of Social learning and cognitive theories.

1.2 BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES

Behaviourism was introduced in 1913 by John B Watson, an American psychologist and is characterized by the study of behaviour i.e. the observable activities of the people. He believed that in contrast to observable behaviour, inner experiences are not observable and therefore unreliable. Those who supported this school were called behaviourists. As per behaviourism, any behaviour can be learned, relearned and unlearned and environment has significant role in shaping individual’s behaviour.

Behavioural school of thought led to development of behavioural therapy which is widely used now-a-days. Behaviour therapy is based on the principles of learning theories. Learning is defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour resulting from repeated practice or experience. The basic assumption of learning theory is that both the environment and behaviour interact to produce a learned change. The concept of learning (and its relation to behaviour) has been explained by different theories of learning (Theory of Classical Conditioning, Theory of Instrumental Conditioning, Social Learning theory and Cognitive Based theory) which has been dealt one by one.

1.3 THEORY OF CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

This is also called respondent conditioning. The theory explains that the process of learning takes place when a response becomes associated with a new stimulus and this process of a response to a new stimulus is known as conditioning. The idea of classical conditioning developed after Ivan Pavlov’s experiment. Pavlov was a physiologist who was interested in observing the process of digestion in dogs. In the course of his physiological investigations, he noticed that dogs salivate even before any food was given to them. It would salivate when it looked at food, or the feeding bucket or even the footsteps of the person who fed it. These observations led to the study of what is now called classical or respondent conditioning. In his experiment, Pavlov paired sound of the bell with presentation of food shortly afterwards for few times. After some trials, the dog salivated at the sound of bell even when it was not followed by food. The amount of saliva increased with training i.e. with more number of trials. In other words, he conditioned the dog to salivate in response to sound of bell. In this method of classical conditioning, the stimulus which naturally evokes a reflex-like response is called the unconditioned stimulus (UCS) (food). The reflex-like response produced by the unconditioned stimulus is called the unconditioned response (UCR) (salivation). The stimulus which is neutral (bell) in the beginning and
begins to evoke a response (salivation) after being paired with unconditioned stimulus a number of times, is called the conditioned stimulus (CS). The response (salivation) produced by the originally neutral conditioned stimulus (bell) is called the conditioned response (CR). The acquisition of CR is gradual and its frequency and strength increases with number of trials. This basic procedure can be used with a variety of conditioned stimuli e.g. buzzers, lights, geometric figures etc. The relationship between the conditioned stimulus and the unconditioned stimulus can also be varied. For example, the CS can be given before the UCS to elicit a CR. This is called forward or delayed conditioning. The CS can be given after the presentation of UCS and this is called backward conditioning. Simultaneous conditioning occurs when CS and UCS are given together. CS can be presented and removed before the UCS, so only a ‘memory trace’ of the CS remains. This is called trace conditioning. Extinction occurs when CS is presented alone without the US for a number of trials.

1.3.1 Higher Order Conditioning

As mentioned earlier also that an association formed in between response and stimulus is called conditioning. The First order conditioning occurs when CS produces CR. After first order conditioning has occurred and the CS and UCS are strongly associated such that CS produces the CR easily. Now, if a new stimulus can be introduced just before a CS is presented, then the CR is associated even with the new stimulus, although to a lesser degree. For example, a black square is presented using delayed conditioning with a bell, and then the dog salivates even to the sight of the black square. This is called second or higher order conditioning.

1.3.2 Generalization and Discrimination

The process of conditioning can further lead to generalisation and discrimination of response or behaviour to various stimuli. In generalization, the CR transfers spontaneously to stimuli which is somewhat similar to the original conditioned stimulus. For example, the dog will salivate to the sound of bell of any pitch or a buzzer. The discrimination is the ability to make response to one stimulus and a different or no response to another stimulus. However, when dogs are continuously presented with bells of pitch that differs widely from the original, then the CR weakens.

Watson and other behaviourists realized that human behaviour could also be changed by conditioning. Watson demonstrated this on little Albert who was an 11 month old baby. While Albert was playing with a rat (unconditional response), a loud noise was introduced (conditional stimulus). Eventually Albert developed fear (conditioned response) of rats. He also demonstrated that the boy could learn to develop a fear to similar objects like rabbits and eventually to anything that is furry. This was because of generalization whereby conditioned response (fear) occurred with stimuli (rabbit and furry objects) that were somewhat similar to the original conditioned stimulus (rat). Watson’s work helped explain the development of phobias in humans.

1.3.3 Systematic Desensitisation

If fear, as in the example of little Albert, could be deliberately induced, then it can also be removed as was demonstrated by Dr Watson and his colleagues by a technique called systematic desensitization. They demonstrated that the
learned behaviour (fear) could be unlearnt through classical conditioning. This
could be done by a process of weakening the association between the CS
and UCS. The strength of the stimulus to be conditioned is presented with
decreasing or increasing intensity while engaging in a task that is relaxing and
inhibiting to fearful responses.

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<th>Self Assessment Questions 1</th>
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<td>Fill in the blanks:</td>
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<tr>
<td>1) Behaviourism was introduced by ............................................... .</td>
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<td>2) The behaviourists believed that learning cannot be directly observed but ................................................................. .</td>
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<tr>
<td>3) When the CR is spontaneously transferred to stimuli that is somewhat similar to the original conditioned stimulus, the process is known as ......................................... .</td>
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<td>4) Systematic Desensitization is a process of ........................................ ............................................. .</td>
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1.4 THEORY OF OPERANT CONDITIONING

In early twentieth century, B. F. Skinner, an American psychologist put forth his views on human behaviour. He is associated with instrumental conditioning. He described how the principles of conditioning might be applied in learning behaviour.

The instrumental conditioning is called instrumental as behaviour of learner is instrumental in bringing about a change in the environment that makes the behaviour likely to occur again and again. Instrumental conditioning is also called operant conditioning. The term operant refers to how an organism operates on the environment, and hence, operant conditioning comes from how we respond to what is presented to us in our environment. It can be thought of as learning due to the natural consequences of our actions. In operant conditioning, the likelihood of a response is increased or decreased by virtue of its consequences. Therefore, in respondent behaviour, the past experience is important and it depends on the reinforcement by the environment.

The term reinforce means to strengthen, and is used in psychology to refer to any stimulus which strengthens or increases the probability of a specific response.

Reinforcement is the process by which events in the environment increase the probability of the behaviour that preceded it. A behaviour that is associated with a positive consequence or desirable outcome in the past will increase the chances of the behaviour to occur again. This is called positive reinforcement. Learning can also take place if an undesirable consequence is avoided because of an action taken. This is called negative reinforcement. A negative reinforcer (for example electric shock) is a stimulus whose termination is contingent on a response and increases the chances of response occurring again. These are generally noxious or painful stimuli. It involves removal of an aversive consequence. For example, if a student does not prepare for exams and gets
fail marks (painful) and understands that by preparing for the next exam he can avoid getting fail marks, then we can say he is negatively reinforced to study.

There are primary reinforcers and conditioned or secondary reinforcers. Primary reinforcers are those which bring about a reaction that is instinctive. For example, food is a primary reinforcer when we are hungry.

A secondary reinforcer is a stimulus to which we have learnt to respond because of past learning by association of the stimulus with a primary reinforcer. An example is money, as it is associated with primary reinforcers like it is used to get food when we are hungry.

*Punishment* is a consequence that suppresses behaviour. Punishment is a process by which behaviour frequency is decreased because of aversive consequences. A punisher is a stimulus whose onset is contingent on a response and decreases the chances that the response will occur again. Therefore, a basic differentiation between negative reinforcement and punishment should be made. While both are often noxious stimuli, it is ending of the stimulus which is contingent on response in negative reinforcement while it is onset of event which is contingent on the response in punishment. The punishment decreases the probability of behaviour while negative reinforcement increases the probability of behaviour.

### 1.4.1 Types of Reinforcement

There are various schedules of reinforcing behaviour and can be continuous or intermittent.

**Continuous Schedule:** When reinforcement is presented every time the behaviour occurs, it is called continuous reinforcement. A continuous schedule is observed to be best for initial teaching of behaviour. This is because behaviour is reinforced each time it occurs. Once the behaviour is established, it is preferable to decrease the ratio of reinforcers to responses or desired behaviour. This is because there might be a satiation to the reinforcers in the long run and that may eventually lead to decreased motivation to perform the desired behaviour.

When an undesirable behaviour needs to be changed and when punishment is used as a method of choice, it is best to apply continuous reinforcement. This is because inconsistent punishment, might lead to confusion or resentment towards the person applying the method. A problem with this schedule is that we are not always present when behaviour occurs or may not be able to apply the punishment.

**Intermittent schedules:** Four types of intermittent schedules of reinforcements have been used to change behaviour in experimental conditions. Each schedule is observed to have different impact on the behaviour. However, all the four schedules are known to result in stronger responses and changes in behaviour.

A *fixed ratio schedule* refers to applying reinforcement after a specific number of behaviours or responses.

A *fixed interval schedule* refers to applying reinforcement after a specific and fixed amount of time.
Variable ratio schedule refers to applying reinforcement after a variable number of responses. It has been found to work best under many circumstances. One of the best examples for this is gambling behaviour.

Variable interval schedule refers to applying reinforcement after a variable amount of time. The variable schedules are more powerful and result in more consistent behaviours because of element of uncertainty and unexpectedness which lead to maintaining a steady and consistent behaviour pattern.

1.5 SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

This theory was proposed by Albert Bandura which states that people also learn through social context. According to this view, people behave in certain ways because of the environmental influences and psychological processes. This theory essentially encompasses the concepts of classical conditioning and operant conditioning. He put forth the view that learning also takes place by observation, imitation and modelling of other’s behaviour and cognition plays a significant role in learning behaviour. The theory states that for effective learning through modelling, observation and imitation of behaviour to occur, attention, retention, reproduction and motivation is essential.

Observational learning takes place when a person observes the rewards and punishments that another person receives for his/her behaviour and behaves accordingly. This is called vicarious reinforcement. He also put forth the concept of self-efficacy, that is, the belief that one can successfully execute behaviour necessary to control desired outcome. Self-efficacy is found to be related to motivation, self-esteem, interpersonal relationships, health behaviour, addictions, etc.

Self Assessment Questions 2

State whether the statements are true or false:

1) Observational learning takes place when a person observes the rewards and punishments that another person receives for his/her behaviour. ( )

2) Variable ratio schedule refers to applying reinforcement after a specific number of responses. ( )

3) Punishment is a consequence that reinforces behaviour. ( )

4) The instrumental conditioning is also called operant conditioning. ( )

1.6 COGNITION BASED THEORIES

The cognition based theories propose that our cognition is responsible for shaping our behaviour. Cognition refers to the processing of information that is received through senses. Cognitive learning is a change in the way information is processed as a result of experience a person had.

Aaron Beck and Albert Ellis are two well-known cognitive theorists who have contributed to the understanding of several psychological disorders, like depression.
Aaron Beck proposed cognitive therapy and emphasized the role of automatic thoughts, ideas that are so deep-rooted that the individual is often not aware of them, which come to mind spontaneously and cannot be neglected. For example, if one student fails in a test he might think “how irresponsible am I”, or he or she may think “I am so dumb”, etc. These automatic thoughts are usually of a self-defeating nature and are followed by the experience of negative emotions.

Albert Ellis gave rational emotive therapy and proposed A-B-C model which suggests that how one feels is determined by the way one thinks about the events in his or her life.

A refers to the activating event

B to the beliefs

C is the consequences

According to him, irrational beliefs which are not realistic based or unrealistic and inflated views about self and the world are the major cause of several psychological disorders. Conforming rigidly to these irrational beliefs using ‘should/must/ought’ makes one feel miserable and results in emotional disturbances.

David Barlow gave a model that explains the impact of a combination of physiological, cognitive and behavioural factors on the development of anxiety disorders. For example, a panic attack may be triggered when a person who hyperventilates (physiological factor) after climbing up stairs, misinterprets (cognitive factor) the physiological signs as an indication of an impending heart attack and forms associations between some stimuli and the experience of panic, consequently avoiding that situation (behavioural factor).

1.6.1 Cognitive Therapies

According to the cognitive and cognitive-behavioural therapies, our way of thinking is determined by the way it is felt to us. Based on this principle is the technique of cognitive restructuring in which the therapist helps the client change the way he thinks about himself, others and the future. The therapist does this by encouraging the client to identify maladaptive attitudes and irrational beliefs, challenge them and replace them with ideas that can be checked in real life.

Panic control therapy is a form of cognitive-behavioural therapy that is used to treat panic disorder which is a type of anxiety disorder in which the person experiences recurrent and unexpected panic attacks. It combines cognitive restructuring, exposing the client to the bodily sensations associated with panic attacks and breathing retraining. Here, the client is taught to identify how faulty cognitive judgments are contributing to the experience of anxiety, examine their reactions and change them with appropriate breathing techniques. With the help of this therapy they are also encouraged to realise and identify those places, persons and behaviours which make them feel safe.

Acceptance and commitment therapy is also a type of cognitive therapy in which the client is encouraged to acknowledge and accept all the distressing thoughts, feelings and behaviours and thereby gain a sense of control that helps them in their commitment to overcome them.
1.7 EVALUATION OF BEHAVIOURAL AND COGNITIVELY BASED PERSPECTIVE

The cognitive-behavioural perspective is credited for its simple approach that emphasises on the use of objective/empirical procedures. According to the humanists, the behavioural perspective limits the scope of psychology because it does not take into account the active choices that individuals make (free will) in dealing with the environment. The psychoanalysts have criticised the behaviourists for ignoring the fascinating unconscious influences on behaviour. However, the cognitive theories acknowledge that thought processes need to be studied and that implicit ideas about the self do influence behaviours.

Behavioural and cognitive theories have a wide application and are useful in explaining and treating a variety of disorders including anxiety disorders, mood disorders, eating disorders, sexual dysfunctions, etc.

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<td>1) What is Panic control therapy?</td>
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<td>2) What are the applications of behavioural and cognitive theories?</td>
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<td>3) What is the meaning of ‘A’, ‘B’, and ‘C’ in the ABC model?</td>
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1.8 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed from the above discussion that the school of behaviourism emphasized on the process of learning. The emphasis is on conditioned responses as the elements or the building blocks of behaviour. The emphasis is on learned behaviour. It also emphasized the study of animal behaviour as a means of studying human behaviour. Cognitive theory gives importance to the role of thoughts and beliefs in human behaviour and aims at changing negative irrational beliefs into rational beliefs.

1.9 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

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<td>1) John B Watson</td>
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2) Learning cannot be directly observed but can be inferred from observable behaviour.

3) Generalization.

4) Unlearning a learnt behavior with the help of Classical Conditioning.

**Self Assessment Questions 2**

1) True

2) False

3) False

4) True

**Self Assessment Questions 3**

1) Panic control therapy is a form of cognitive-behavioural therapy that is used to treat panic disorder.

2) Behavioural and cognitive theories are useful in explaining and treating a variety of disorders including anxiety disorders, mood disorders, eating disorders, sexual dysfunctions, etc.

3) Albert Ellis gave rational emotive therapy and proposed A-B-C model which suggests that how one feels is determined by the way one thinks about the events in his or her life. In the model, ‘A’ refers to the activating event; ‘B’ to the beliefs and ‘C’ is the consequences.

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**1.10 UNIT END QUESTIONS**

1) What is classical conditioning?

2) What is respondent or instrumental conditioning?

3) Explain how classical conditioning can occur in behavioural disturbances such as phobias.

4) What is stimulus generalization?

5) What is positive and negative reinforcement?

6) How is negative reinforcement different from punishment?

7) Explain social learning theory.

8) Write briefly about the concept of Beck and Ellis.

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**1.11 REFERENCES**


UNIT 2 BIOLOGICAL THEORIES

Structure
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   2.3.1 The Brain Structure
   2.3.2 The Neurons
   2.3.3 Functions of the Neurons
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2.0 INTRODUCTION

By now, you must be clear about the thoughts and concepts explained by the school of behaviourism. The behavioural theories explained how behaviour can be shaped, modified and terminated with the help of learning. In this unit, you will come to know about several biological theories that explain human behaviour, that means the concept of behaviour will be explained with the help of biological processes. Biological psychology is the study of physiological, evolutionary and developmental mechanisms of behaviour. It is a sub-discipline of psychology that seeks to explain behaviour in terms of biological mechanisms. It not only acknowledges that biology influences behaviour, it also considers how behaviour and environment can influence biology. For example, the process of evolution demonstrates that an environmental influence over a long period of time can produce change in biology and consequently in behaviour.

All psychobiological accounts of behaviour use ‘reductionism’. Reductionism permits explanation of behaviour at the biological level. There are different levels of investigation even within the biological area. For example, it investigates the functions of the two hemispheres and also more specific areas (e.g. hippocampus) to explain behaviour. The discipline of biological psychology uses a wide range of information from other subjects to explain behaviour, such as, physiological psychology, behavioural genetics, neuropsychology etc. Therefore, it is a meeting place of many different schools of thought and diverse scientific research, all of which are used to provide an explanation for behaviour.
The knowledge base of the disciplines that contribute to biological psychology is dynamic and ever changing. Technological advances has permitted substantial amount of new research. Use of functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and positron emission tomography (PET) to examine the processes of the brain in action are some of the examples.

In brief, biological psychology contributes to our understanding of behaviour much like a jigsaw puzzle. It puts pieces of information together from all other disciplines.

### 2.1 OBJECTIVES

This unit enable you:

- to understand the basic concepts of biological psychology;
- to recognize the role of genetics in human behaviour;
- to understand the role of evolution in human behaviour; and
- to explain the role of the brain in human behaviour.

### 2.2 BIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

This field of psychology analyses the biological aspects of human behaviour. The nervous system controls the behaviour and the patterns of behaviour can be understood from the functioning of the brain. The technological advances in the field of neuroscience have shown that the brain is a continually changing organ. Its structure as well as its function keeps on changing. There is a constant flow and processing of information from the endogenous (originate from within the species) activity or sensory events (environmental). The information affects the neurons resulting in release of neurotransmitters which activates the receptors. This in turn activates the genes resulting in synthesis of new proteins, receptors and other membrane components and finally affects the morphological and physiological changes of neurons.

Perceptions, emotions, thought, consciousness and self consciousness are concerned with intimate and subjective entities of the mind that are elusive and difficult to grasp or measure. The field of Neuro sciences and cognitive neuro-sciences have tried to bridge the gap between brain and mind.

Since brain is a vital organ of human body, it is important for you to understand its function (neuroanatomy), brain activity, and genetics. Its structure needs to be studied in order to recognise the role of biological processes in human behaviour and psychological disorders. Let us deal first with the neuroanatomy.

### 2.3 NEURO ANATOMY

As mentioned earlier also that neuroanatomy refers to the different structures of brain and their functions which help out in the proper functioning and response amongst individuals. In a nut shell, the human brain looks like a walnut from inside. It has several lobes, knots, fluids and neurons

#### 2.3.1 The Brain Structure

Basically, the brain is divided into the forebrain, the mid brain and the hind brain. The higher functions of human beings such as thought, speech and emotions are performed in the forebrain. The mid-brain controls sleep, alertness and pain. The hind brain takes care of respiration and heart rate. The spinal
cord receives sensory information from the rest of the body and sends commands to the muscles, controls balance and sense of physical space. The cerebellum helps in controlling body movements.

Further, the cerebrum is divided into the left and the right hemispheres and each hemisphere is divided into four lobes— the frontal, parietal, occipital and temporal lobes. The frontal lobe is related to functions of thinking, feeling, imagining and decision making. The parietal lobe controls information about bodily sensations, movement and spatial orientation. The occipital lobe controls visual information. The temporal lobe controls auditory information, memory and language. The limbic system comprises of the thalamus, striatum, hippocampus and amygdala and it lies underneath and deep within the forebrain. The limbic system plays a role in the processes of cognition, emotion, learning, memory and motivation. The orbito-frontal cortex and medial frontal cortex are involved in social cognitions, empathy (capacity to recognise feelings that are being experienced by other person), and theory of mind (ability to attribute mental states, dogmas, intents, needs for one’s own self and for others).

The ventricular system is composed of four cavities that are filled with cerebral spinal fluid and projects into the cerebral cortex. When there is damage to the brain, the ventricles may enlarge and fill the space. Therefore enlargement of the ventricles is an indicator of damage to the brain.

The nervous system is made up of nerve cells (the neurons), glial cells, synapses (connections between neurons), and chemical messengers communicating information between neurons (neurotransmitters), multiple inter-neuronal connections and circuits.

Computerised tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans are the imaging techniques used to see brain structure. Electro-encephalography (EEG), positron emission tomography (PET) and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) are used for visualizing brain functioning.

## 2.3.2 The Neurons

The nervous system is made up of nerve cells called neurons. The neurons are specialised cells for receiving, moving and processing information and relay messages from different parts of the body to and back from the higher centres of the nervous system. The neuron has a cell body and two types of fibres, dendrites and axon. The axon conducts nerve impulses to other neurones. The dendrites are shorter and have many branches.

![Fig. 2.1: Structure of a Neuron. (Source: http://the-works.net/tag/diagram-of-neuron)](http://the-works.net/tag/diagram-of-neuron)
Self Assessment Questions 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1) The ventricular system is composed of four cavities that are filled with cerebral spinal fluid. ( )

2) Neuroanatomy refers to the different structures of neuron and their functions. ( )

3) Reductionism helps in explanation of behaviour at the Psychological level. ( )

4) Computerised tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans are the imaging techniques used to see brain structure. ( )

2.3.3 Functions of the Neurons

Neurons carry messages between the brain and the body. They form an interconnected pathway and pass the messages through neural transmission and synaptic transmission. In neural transmission the information within the neuron moves in the form of an electrochemical impulse in an axon and is called an action potential, while synaptic transmission is the process by which information is transmitted from one neuron to another neuron through a synapse.

2.3.4 Synapse

Neurons are arranged in the form of chains and they do not touch each other. The space between the axon tips of a neuron and the dendrite or cell body of another neuron is called the synapse. When the neuron is stimulated, an electrical impulse travels along the axon to its tip called the synaptic knobs. The synaptic knobs contain tiny vessels called synaptic vesicles that contain neurotransmitters.

Fig. 2.2: Synapse. (Source: http://the-works.net/tag/synapse-diagram)
2.3.5 Neurotransmitters

The neurotransmitters are chemical substances which are stored in the synaptic vesicles and get released into synapse when electric signal reaches the synaptic knob. The neurotransmitters carry information across the synapse and have inhibitory (turn off) or excitatory (turn on) effect on the receiving neuron. If the effect is excitatory in nature then there is a change in the resting potential of the receiving neuron and the process of neural transmission occurs in this neuron. On the other hand, if the effect of the neurotransmitter is inhibitory, no action potential is generated in the receiving neuron and the message is not transmitted.

Some neurotransmitters are reabsorbed by the synaptic terminals from which they were released, this process is called reuptake. Reuptake prevents action and further production of the neurotransmitter. Whether a neuron will generate an action potential and pass the message to other neurons in its pathway depends on the balance between the excitatory and inhibitory synapses.
2.3.5.1 Neurotransmitters and Brain Functions

There are several types of neurotransmitters which operate in the brain and carry out different functions. Synaptic transmission in the brain can be altered through the use of drugs that increase or decrease the effectiveness of specific neurotransmitter. Some of the neurotransmitter can be mentioned as follows:

- Acetylcholine (ACh) usually has excitatory effect and is present mainly in the hippocampus. It plays an important role in the formation of new memories. Decreased ACh levels, caused by degeneration of the neurons that produce it, are associated with Alzheimer’s disease.

- Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) is a major inhibitory neurotransmitter. Anti-anxiety drugs work by activating the action of GABA.

- Serotonin plays a crucial role in the regulation of mood, appetite and sleep. Low levels of serotonin are associated with depression. Antidepressants work by inhibiting the reuptake of serotonin that increases the amount of serotonin in the brain.

- Norepinephrine is an excitatory neurotransmitter and influences mood states. Drugs like cocaine/amphetamines have their psychological effects by prolonging the action of norepinephrine and slowing its reuptake. Its deficiency causes depression.

- Dopamine when released in the brain produces intense feelings of pleasure. An excess of dopamine is thought to cause schizophrenia while its deficit leads to Parkinson’s disease.

2.3.6 The Neural Network

The neurons (grey matter) are connected to other neurons through axons and dendrites (white matter) and communicate with each other by electrical, chemical and molecular exchanges. These exchanges are conceptualised as the biological substrate of thought, emotion, memory, judgements and feelings; these processes are affected in psychiatric disorders. Instructions are coded in the DNA of neurons for the synthesis and metabolism of these chemicals, molecular messengers and complex proteins. The dysfunction in neural command system may result in disruption of connections resulting in malfunction of the chemical balances and feedback loops. There may be mutations of implicated genes or abnormal regulation of their expression.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self Assessment Questions 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fill in the Blanks:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) The neurons (grey matter) are connected to other neurons through ............... and ................................. .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) is a major ................................. neurotransmitter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Neurotransmitters: are ............................................................... which are stored in the ............................................................. and get released into synapase when electric signal reaches the synaptic knob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) When the neuron is stimulated, an .............................................. travels along the axon to its tip.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Humans have 46 chromosomes, made up of 23 pairs in their body cells. There are 44 chromosomes called autosomes that are numbered from 1 to 22 according to size from the smallest to the largest as well as the two sex chromosomes: X and Y. Women’s chromosomes are described as 46, XX. Men’s chromosomes are described as 46, XY. A mother passes 23 chromosomes to her child through her egg and a father passes 23 chromosomes through his sperm.

The chromosomes are made up of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA). Each chromosome consists of two very long thin strands of DNA chains twisted into the shape of a double helix and are located in the nucleus (the ‘control centre’) of our body cells. The chromosomes can be conceptualized as long strings of genes. Since the chromosomes in the cell’s nucleus come in pairs, the genes in the nucleus also come in pairs. Each gene in the cell contains a piece of genetic information which guides our growth, development and health. The genetic information contained in the DNA is in the form of a chemical code, called the genetic code.

The DNA’s genetic code is virtually identical across all living organisms and is like a recipe book for the body to make proteins and control how the genes work. We all have variations in the genetic code which is why we are all unique. Most variations are harmless. However, variations in the genetic information can sometimes make the gene faulty which means that a particular protein is not produced properly, produced in the wrong amounts or not produced at all. Variations that make the gene faulty are called mutations. These faulty genetic variations or mutations can result in genetic disorders, affecting growth, development and functioning of the body. In other cases, the variation in the genetic code may make a person more susceptible for developing a genetic disorder.

Different cell types, tissues and organs have specific roles and so produce specific proteins for that role. The genes are expressed or not expressed depends on whether they are turned on or off. The genes that contain the information to make the necessary proteins are therefore ‘switched on’ in these cells while the remaining genes are ‘switched off’. For example, the genes that are ‘switched on’ in liver cells are different to those that are ‘switched on’ in brain cells because the cells have different roles and make different proteins.

The basic unit of genetics is the genome which is the complete set of instructions for the development of every cell in the body. The human genome is present in the nucleus of the trillions of cells in human body and consists of long molecules of DNA. Phenotype refers to the expression of the genes as a result of their interaction with the environment.

Strands of the DNA have the information needed by the cells to produce the protein which is the primary component of all organisms. An important function of the DNA is to replicate itself before cell division begins, so that every new cell has a copy of the instructions required for manufacturing the protein.

There are thirty two thousand genes in the human body, which are functional units of the DNA and carry the precise instructions for manufacturing a specific protein. Genes are microscopic bags of chemicals found on the chromosomes.
Genes are transferred/passed on through mutations, that is, alterations or changes caused from incorrect copying of instructions during cell replication and this may be inherited or acquired. Inherited mutations are caused due to mutations in the DNA of the reproductive cells (sperm and ovum) - when these mutated cells get passed to the child, the mutations would be found in all the cells in the child’s body. Acquired mutations are changes in the DNA that occur throughout life due to sunlight or carcinogens. Inherited mutations play a role in diseases such as cystic fibrosis and sickle cell anemia and may predispose a person to cancer, mental illnesses, etc. However, our cells have the ability to repair many of these mutations. If the cells fail to do so, the mutations are passed to the future copies of the affected cell.

2.4.1 Models of Genetic Transmission

The chromosomes operate in pairs and each set has the same genes on it but in different combinations called alleles. Alleles refer to whether the combination of genes is dominant or recessive. The hair colour, texture, eye colour, etc., are decided by the combination of alleles inherited by the individual. A dominant allele always shows its effect irrespective of what the other allele in the pair is whereas a recessive allele expresses its effect only if it is paired with another allele of its own kind.

Genetic disorders have a dominant-recessive pattern of transmission. In dominant pattern of disease inheritance, if the person has a normal allele and a disease allele, he is likely to develop the disease because the disease allele is dominant. Since, this person carries a normal and a disease allele, his/her child has a 50 percent chance of inheriting the disease allele and thus a 50 percent chance of having the disease. In recessive pattern of disease inheritance where both parents carry one normal allele (N) and one disease allele (D), neither of them have the disease but both are carriers of it. The combination of alleles that they are likely to pass on to their children are NN, ND, DN or DD. Thus, each of their children has 1/4th chance of being normal (NN), 1/4th chance of developed the disease (DD) and 1/2 chance of being carriers of the disease (ND, DN).

Disease inheritance, sometimes, is complex and may not be explained by the dominant-recessive pattern of transmission. In such cases, the pattern is likely to be polygenic, that is, multiple genes may play a role in the expression of a characteristic. Diabetes, coronary heart disease, epilepsy, etc., are a result of such polygenic processes.

It has been suggested that genetic factors are involved in the manifestation of several traits such as subjective well being, political views, job satisfaction, religiosity etc.

2.4.2 Genes, Environment and Psychological Disorders

Researchers believe that an important aspect of genetic transmission is that what is inherited is only the predisposition and not the inevitability of having the disorder. It is the mutual influences of nature (biology) and the nurture (environment) on each other that determine expression of most of the psychological traits and disorders. For instance, the trait of extraversion is thought to be partially inherited. A child born with extraversion genes may generate positive reactions in people in his/her environment, which further strengthen this personality trait. It is also suggested that people tend to select
environments that are consistent with their inherited interests and capabilities and these environments in turn facilitate the expression of these characteristics.

The diathesis-stress model suggests that a person may carry some vulnerability or inherent risk to develop a particular disorder. This vulnerability can be biological - inheriting disordered genes, it may be psychological - a faulty personality trait, or may be social - a history of abuse or poor interpersonal relations. In addition to this, for the disorder to develop, one must experience some kind of stress or trigger. This stress could be biological - an accident or illness that changes the neurotransmitter balance, psychological - perceived loss of control, or social - a traumatic event. The full-blown disorder can develop only when the vulnerability to develop disorder combines with the stress.

A large study which demonstrates the diathesis-stress model involved biological parents with and without psychiatric disorders and their children. They were interviewed and ratings were obtained to determine the child’s chances of developing psychiatric disorders. A significant factor here was the presence of maladaptive parental behaviour. It was found that children who developed psychiatric disorders tended to come from homes with maladaptive parental behaviours, irrespective of whether their parents had psychiatric disorders or not. Similarly, children of parents who had psychiatric disorders were found to develop the disorders only when there was a history of disturbed parental behaviour. Thus, the diathesis of parental psychiatric disorders produced a full blown illness only when combined with the stress of living with parents having maladaptive behaviours. Thus, a genome may not always express itself in the phenotype. Incomplete penetrance occurs when the genotype that predisposes a person to a disorder doesn’t get manifested.

According to the multifactorial polygenic threshold model, several genes of varying influence are involved in the transmission of a disorder or characteristic. The specific combination of inherited genes decides whether the vulnerability or risk is high, low or moderate. The symptoms of the disorder are thought to develop when the combined effect of genetic and environmental factors exceeds a certain threshold. This model is more popular than the single-gene explanations of genetic transmission.

2.5 Evolution of Adaptive Mechanisms

Human beings enter the world with biologically based mechanisms that predispose them to behave, to feel, and to think in certain ways. This allows them to learn, remember, speak a language, perceive certain aspects of their environment at birth, respond with universal emotions, and bond with other human beings.

Evolution is a change over time in frequency with which particular genes together with the characteristics they produce, occur within an inbreeding population. Genetic variations arise due to mutations and thereby result in changes in specific characteristics.

Natural Selection: The principle of natural selection was postulated by Charles Darwin. According to the theory, any characteristic that increases the likelihood of survival of the organism and has the ability to reproduce within a particular environment will more likely be preserved in the population and therefore become more common in the species over time. Environmental demands result in development of new characteristics that contribute to survival of the individual and race.
Evolutionary Adaptations: Physical or behavioural changes that allow organisms to meet with recurring environmental challenges to their survival, and thereby increasing their reproductive ability.

Brain Evolution: An early human ancestor (4 million years ago) also known as the *Australopithecus*, had a brain capacity of only 450 to 650 cubic centimeters, *Homo erectus* (1.6 million years ago) had 900 cc, the *Neandertal* (14500 cc), and *Homosapiens* (tripled in size). The series reflect that there has been tremendous growth of higher mental processes such as attention, memory, language and thought with time, situation and environment.

Therefore, it can be seen that from an evolutionary perspective, environment and culture provides an important inputs to evolutionary mechanism. The creation of new environments through our own behaviour is another important part of the evolutionary equation. Modern evolutionary theorist acknowledge the role of past evolutionary pressures that led to natural selection process and also to recent causes such as cultural learning and immediate environment in determining or influencing current behaviour.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self Assessment Questions 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Choose the correct alternative:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) The multifactorial polygenic threshold model says that for the transmission of a disorder or characteristic there is an involvement of-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) several genes of varying influence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) several genes of similar influence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) single gene of varied influence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Which of them shows the correct series of human development?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) <em>Australopithecus</em>-Neandertal- <em>Homosapiens</em>-Homo erectus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) <em>Australopithecus</em>-Homo erectus-Neandertal- <em>Homosapiens</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) <em>Homo erectus</em>-Neandertal-. <em>Australopithecus</em>- <em>Homosapiens</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Genetic disorders have a ........................................................ of transmission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) recessive-recessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) recessive-dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) dominant-recessive pattern</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.6 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the above discussion that basically there are three aspects of biological foundations of behaviour. The first is the structures and functions of the nervous system, the second is the genetic factors that determine not only the characteristics which humans have in common, but also show the mental, emotional and behavioural aspects of our individual identities. The third are evolutionary factors that underlie human capabilities and behavioural tendencies. Understanding the nature and the extent of biological and
environmental factors that affect one another is important as they influence the development of behaviour.

2.7 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1
1) True
2) False
3) False
4) True

Self Assessment Questions 2
1) Axons and dendrites
2) Inhibitory
3) Chemical substances, synaptic vesicles
4) Electrical impulse

Self Assessment Questions 3
1) a) several genes of varying influence
2) b) Australopithecus-Homo erectus-Neandertal-Homosapiens.
3) c) dominant-recessive pattern

2.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS
1) Write about the structure of brain.
2) What is synapse?
3) What are the functions of neurons?
4) Explain the process of neuronal communication
5) Describe genetic transmission.
6) What is the role of genes in psychological disorders?

2.9 REFERENCES
Kalat, J. W., Biological Psychology, 10th edn., (2009), USA; Wadsworth Cengage Learning.


Websites:
UNIT 3  HUMANISTIC AND EXISTENTIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Structure

3.0  Introduction
3.1  Objectives
3.2  Humanistic Psychology
3.3  Person Centered Theory
   3.3.1  Roger’s Theory – Important Concepts
   3.3.2  The Fully-functioning Person
   3.3.3  Therapy
3.4  Maslow’s Theory
   3.4.1  Motivation Psychology and Abnormal Psychology
3.5  Criticism of the Humanistic Model
3.6  Existentialism
3.7  Let Us Sum Up
3.8  Answers to Self Assessment Questions
3.9  Unit End Questionnaires
3.10 References

3.0  INTRODUCTION

In the former Unit, you were informed about the biological theories of psychology, the present unit will try to explain the humanistic and existential theories. Unlike the biological theories, the humanistic and existential theories focus on human growth and the value of life. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers are the two important proponents of humanistic approach. In this section, the major concepts of humanistic and existential theories will be dealt in detail.

3.1  OBJECTIVES

With the help of this Unit, you will be able:

- to understand the concept and framework of Humaistic theories;
- to explain the Rogers’ person centered theory;
- to elucidate the Maslow’s theory of hierarchy of needs; and
- to describe the concept of existentialism.
3.2 HUMANISTIC PSYCHOLOGY

The school of humanistic psychology developed as an alternative to behaviourism and psychoanalysis. Humanistic psychologists considered that individuals are governed by their own values and choices, not entirely by the environment, as behaviourists think, or by unconscious drives, as psychoanalysts believe. The goal of humanistic psychology is to help people function effectively and fulfil their own unique potential. The proponents of this approach include American psychologists- Carl R. Rogers and Abraham H. Maslow. The theories propounded by Rogers and Maslow under the vicinity of the school of Humanistic psychology will be explained to you sequentially.

3.3 PERSON CENTERED THEORY

This theory was developed by Carl Rogers. The basic assumption of his theory is that every human being is naturally inclined to fulfil his/her own needs. All human beings have the natural potential for love, creativity and meaning.

The theorist deliberated upon the uniqueness of every human being. He believed that every human being has a subjective perception about oneself. This is termed as the self-concept. There are basically two concepts of self. One is what the person believes himself to be. The second one what he would aspire to be or the ideal-self. When there is congruence between the real (self image and experiences) and the ideal self, then the person is well-adjusted and functional and psychological disorders occur when there is a mismatch between the two.

He also believed that all human behaviour is motivated by one single positive force and termed it as self-actualization. This is the tendency to preserve and enhance oneself. Childhood experiences are important in determining this process. As soon as a child becomes aware of him/herself, he/she automatically develops the need for positive regard. This positive regard is based on the affection and approval from important people in the child’s life, particularly the parents. The positive regard received from parents or an important person is based on the conditions that the parents or environment impose on the child. These conditions are termed as conditions of worth. They determine which of the child’s experiences are “good” or “bad”. If the conditions of worth are few and reasonable then child will be open to new experiences and learn. If these are unreasonable and too many, then it will impede the child’s personal growth and affect self-actualization. This has been suggested as being the cause of abnormal behaviour. He utilised his thought in to a therapy. He suggested the concept of unconditional positive regard. This involves a warm and accepting atmosphere with respect and approval of the client’s needs and imposing no conditions of worth. Keeping the concept of unconditional positive regard as a major factor, he proposed a ‘Client Centred Therapy’.

3.3.1 Roger’s Theory – Important Concepts

It is worthy to mention the facts proposed by Rogers towards people whom he believed are basically good or healthy; he perceived mental health as the
normal progression of life, and mental illness, criminality, and other human problems, as distortions of that natural tendency. The entire theory is built on a single force of life which he calls actualizing tendency. It can be defined as the built-in motivation present in every life-form to develop its potentials to the fullest. The human beings strive to make the very best of their existence.

Rogers opined that organisms know what is good for them. Evolution has provided them with the senses, the tastes, the discriminations they need. When an organism is hungry, it finds food – not just any food, but food that tastes good. This is called organismic valuing.

Among the many things that a person instinctively values is positive regard, which has been termed for things like love, affection, attention, and nurturance, and so on by Rogers. Babies need love and attention and may fail to thrive without it. By the term-conditional positive regard, Rogers meant that an individual gets positive regard “on condition.” He further stated that a person values positive self-regard (self-esteem, self-worth, a positive self-image) and this is achieved by experiencing the positive regard others show over years of growing up.

Incongruity: The aspect of a person’s being that is founded in the actualizing tendency, follows organismic valuing needs and receives positive regard and self-regard, Rogers calls the real self. When he/she is forced to live with conditions of worth that are out of step with organismic valuing, and receive only conditional positive regard and self-regard, he/she develops an ideal self. By ideal, Rogers suggested something which is not real, something that is always out of a person’s reach, the standard he/she can not meet.

This gap between the real self and the ideal self, the “I am” and the “I should” is called incongruity. The greater the gap between the real and ideal self, the more is the incongruity. This increase in incongruity increases the suffering of the concerned person. In fact, incongruity is essentially what Rogers means by neurosis.

Rogers further explained the concept of defenses. According to him when a person is in a situation where there is an incongruity between his/her image of him/herself and his/her immediate experience (i.e. between the ideal and the real self), that person is in a threatening situation. For example, if a person has been taught to feel unworthy on not getting A’s on all tests, and he/she is not really a very good student, then the tests will bring that incongruity to light – tests will be very threatening. When a threatening situation is expected, person will feel anxiety. Anxiety is a signal indicating that there is trouble ahead and that situation should be avoided. One way to avoid the situation, of course, is to run away from the situation. Since that is not usually an option in life, instead of running physically, a person runs psychologically, by using defenses.

He also explained concept of perceptual distortion which is reinterpretation of the situation so that it appears less threatening. It is very similar to Freud’s rationalization. For example, a student threatened by tests and grades may, for example, blame the professor for poor teaching, trick questions, and bad attitude.

Rogers also has a partial explanation for psychosis. Psychosis occurs when a person’s defenses are overwhelmed, and his/her sense of self becomes
shattered into little disconnected pieces. His/her behaviour likewise shows little consistency to it and has psychotic breaks, episodes of bizarre behaviour. His/her words may make little sense, emotions may be inappropriate and may lose the ability to differentiate between self and non-self.

3.3.2 The Fully-functioning Person

Rogers describes a healthy person as *fully-functioning*, and has following qualities:

- **Openness to experience.** This is the opposite of defensiveness. It is the accurate perception of one’s experiences in the world. It also means being able to accept reality, including one’s feelings. Feelings are an important part of openness and convey organismic valuing.

- **Existential living.** It is living in the here-and-now. Rogers insists that the present is the only reality a person has. However, this does not mean that he/she should not learn from the past and not plan or daydream about the future. The focus should be on recognizing the memories and dreams as experienced in the moment and reflect on them.

- **Organismic trusting.** A person should allow him/herself to be guided by the organismic valuing process and should trust him/herself, do what he/she feels right, what comes naturally. In other words, organismic trusting shows that a person is in contact with the actualizing tendency.

- **Experiential freedom.** Rogers proposes that it is irrelevant whether or not people really have free will. The fully-functioning person acknowledges that feeling of freedom, and takes responsibility for his/her choices.

- **Creativity.** If a person feels free and responsible, he/she will act accordingly, and participate in the world. A fully functioning person, in touch with actualization, will feel obliged by his/her nature to contribute to the actualization of others, even life itself. This can be through creativity in the arts or sciences, through social concern and parental love, or simply by doing one’s best at one’s job. Creativity as Rogers uses it is very close to Erikson’s generativity.

3.3.3 Therapy

Carl Rogers made tremendous contributions to therapy. His therapy has gone through a couple of name changes along the way. He originally called it non-directive, because he felt that the therapist should not lead the client, but rather be there for the client while the client directs the progress of the therapy. As he became more experienced, he realized that, as non-directive as he was, he still influenced his client. In other words, clients look to therapists for guidance, and will find it even when the therapist is trying not to guide.

So he changed the name to client-centered. He still felt that the client was the one who should be saying what is wrong, find ways of improving, and determine the conclusion of therapy.

Nowadays, though the terms non-directive and client-centered are still used, most people just call it Rogerian therapy. One of the phrases used by Rogers to describe his therapy is “supportive, not reconstructive,” and he uses the analogy of learning to ride a bicycle to explain. When you help a child to learn
to ride a bike, you cannot just tell him/her how. He/she has to try it for him/herself. And you cannot hold the child up the whole time either. There comes a point when you have to let him/her go. If the child falls, he/she falls, but if you continue to hang on, he/she will never learn. It is the same way in therapy. If therapist is helping the client to achieve independence (autonomy, freedom with responsibility), then it will not be achieved till he/she remains dependent on the therapist. The client has to try his/her own insights in real life beyond the therapist’s office. An authoritarian approach to therapy may seem to work marvellously at first, but ultimately it only creates a dependent person.

In Rogerian therapy, technique of reflection is used. Reflection is the mirroring of emotional communication e.g. if client says “I feel upset!” the therapist may reflect this back to the client by saying something like “So, life’s getting you down?” By doing this, the therapist is communicating to him/her that he/she is indeed listening and cares enough to understand. The therapist is also letting him/her know what the client is trying to communicate. However, reflection must be used carefully. Many beginning therapists use it without thinking (or feeling), and just repeat every other phrase that comes out of the client’s mouth. Reflection must come from the heart – it must be genuine and congruent.

Rogers believed very firmly that a therapist, in order to be effective, must have three qualities:

*Congruence* – genuineness, honesty with the client.

*Empathy* – the ability to feel what the client feels.

*Respect* – acceptance, unconditional positive regard towards the client.

According to him, these qualities are necessary and sufficient. If the therapist shows these three qualities, the client will improve, even if no other special techniques are used. If the therapist does not show these qualities, the client’s improvement will be minimal, no matter how many techniques are used.

Self Assessment Questions 1

Fill in the blanks:

1) *Non-directive* refers to a process in which the therapist leads the client and directs the progress of the therapy ..............

2) Rogers insists that the present is the only reality a person has..........

3) Rogers’ therapy is supportive and not reconstructive................

4) The gap between the real self and the ideal self is called congruity......

3.4 MASLOW’S THEORY

Maslow’s theory is based on similar premise as Roger’s theory. He considered all human beings as basically good, rational and social. His focus is on the optimistic and positive side of human nature, in contrast to the earlier

Humanistic and Existential Psychology
deterministic and pessimistic approaches. He considered human behaviour as voluntary and purposeful activity. All human behaviour is powered by the basic drive or motivation for self-actualization.

Maslow’s contribution is the concept of hierarchy of needs. He proposed that there are five levels of needs that must be met in the process of development and self-actualization. He explained human motives or needs by arranging them in a hierarchy. This hierarchical arrangement of needs is made in ascending order according to potency and priority of unsatisfied human needs and has different levels.

However, an individual’s stand in this hierarchy is determined by either deficiency-oriented (D behaviour) or growth-oriented behaviour (G behaviour). The person who is deficiency-oriented is one whose basic needs have not yet been satisfied and who is oriented towards achieving satisfaction and eliminating deficiency. The person who is growth-oriented is the one whose basic needs have been satisfied and who is motivated towards self-actualisation.

At the first level are the physiological needs. They are the most basic aspects of human motivation. The first level is the need to satisfy biological needs such as hunger, thirst, sex, physical comfort and survival. These needs pertain to conditions which are essential for maintaining life. Once these needs are satisfied the second level needs emerge and gain importance. The second level is of the safety needs, which looks for a stable and predictable environment. It constitutes desire for security, protection and freedom from danger. On the whole these feelings pertain to the individual’s desires to attain a stable and secure environment.
When these needs are satisfied, the third level needs emerge; they are love and the feeling of belonging. These needs motivate the individual to have friends, companions, a family and identification with different groups. As these needs are satisfied, self-esteem need emerges. This involves the desire for respect, confidence and admiration from others as well as oneself.

At the highest level, it is the desire to utilise one’s personal capacities, to develop one’s potential to the fullest and to engage in activities for which one is well suited. This level is called ‘self-actualisation’.

Table 3.1: Demonstration of Needs at different hierarchical level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial No.</th>
<th>Needs</th>
<th>Characteristic Features</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1)</td>
<td>Biological and Physiological needs</td>
<td>Desire for comfort and survival of human beings.</td>
<td>air, food, water, shelter, warmth, sex and sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2)</td>
<td>Safety needs</td>
<td>Desire for security, protection and seclusion of human beings.</td>
<td>protection, privacy, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3)</td>
<td>Love and belongingness needs</td>
<td>Desire for gaining acceptance in family, group and society.</td>
<td>friendship, intimacy, affection and love, - from work group, family, friends, romantic relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4)</td>
<td>Esteem needs</td>
<td>Desire for gaining expertise, self respect and respect in society.</td>
<td>achievement, mastery, independence, status, dominance, prestige, self-respect, respect from others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5)</td>
<td>Self-Actualization needs</td>
<td>A stage of seeking personal growth and desire to be part of the surrounding world and appreciate it.</td>
<td>realizing one’s own potential, self-fulfillment, and peak experiences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.1 Motivation Psychology and Abnormal Psychology

In this hierarchy, it is assumed that the lower level need dominates a person until that level is fairly satisfied; then the next one emerges and then the next one and so on. However, Maslow explains that every individual does not ascend this hierarchy step-by-step; exceptions do arise. An individual sometimes risks his life to save someone else or to save a valued object by defying his own safety needs. Sometimes individuals reject love, family, friends, another by committing suicide, thus defying the needs of love and the sense of belonging. Often people remain at a certain level, being content without moving up in the hierarchy.

The hierarchy, however, does not imply that needs at lower level become dormant once they are satisfied and the needs at higher level become active. In any individual at any time, all the needs are active. The changes, which occur, refer to the potency or capacity of the different kinds of needs to motivate behaviour. Thus, basic needs like hunger and thirst cease to be powerful motivators of behaviour once they have been satisfied to a certain degree. This means, from a practical point of view, every category of needs has a limited capacity to motivate behaviour. Beyond this point of limitation, it is necessary for us to involve needs at higher level to motivate action.
3.5 CRITICISM OF THE HUMANISTIC MODEL

Since each coin has two sides, the other side of the theories of humanistic psychology has its critics. The humanistic theories have been criticised for being overly optimistic about mankind in general. The humanists display immense faith in the inherent goodness of man. If behaviourism is considered too cold and psychoanalysis too pessimistic, then the humanism is too unrealistic. Maslow’s theory has been accused of being too idealistic, looking at only the healthy side of man and totally ignoring the unhealthy side. Also, it is not necessary that the series of the hierarchy be felt or followed by every individual of this world. Human behaviour is a combination of healthy and unhealthy behaviour and unhealthy behaviour needs to be explained.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Self Assessment Questions 2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fill in the blanks:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) The first level is the need to satisfy biological needs such .......... ................................................................. .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) In this hierarchy, it is assumed that ................................................................. .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Self actualisation is a stage ................................................................. .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) The humanistic theories have been criticised for being.......................... ........................................ .</td>
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3.6 EXISTENTIALISM

The starting point of existential philosophy can be traced back to the nineteenth century in the works of Kierkegaard and Nietzsche. Both were in conflict with the predominant ideologies of their time and committed themselves to the exploration of reality as it can be experienced in a passionate and personal manner. Existentialism believes that although humans are essentially alone in the world, they always desire to be connected to others. People want to have meaning in one another’s lives, but ultimately they must realize that they cannot depend on others for validation, and with that realization they finally acknowledge and understand that they are fundamentally alone. The result of this revelation is anxiety due to the knowledge that our validation must come from within and not from others.

There is no existential personality theory which divides humanity into types or reduces people to part components. Instead there is a description of the different levels of experience and existence with which people are inevitably confronted. The way in which a person is in the world at a particular stage can be charted on this general map of human existence. One can distinguish four basic dimensions of human existence: the physical, the social, the psychological and the spiritual. On each of these dimensions, people encounter the world and shape their attitude out of their particular understanding of their experience. Their orientation towards the world defines their reality. The four dimensions are interwoven and provide a complex four-dimensional force field for their existence. Individuals are stretched between a positive pole of what they aspire to on each dimension and a negative pole of what they fear.
3.7 LET US SUM UP

In a nut shell, we can sum up from the above discussion that according to the humanistic model, a person is not a mere combination of different systems but a single entity consisting of many part functions. Further, the humanistic theories have been accepted in our modern world because it attempts to view man as a man and not as an animal or machine. It is also to be mentioned that, the Humanistic theories believe that human beings are good and therefore optimistic in its views. Existentialism uses a philosophical approach to explain about the consciousness within an individual such as the relationships, acts, memories, feelings, thoughts, fantasies, images, and events and so on, which we experience in our everyday lives.

3.8 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1
1) False
2) True
3) True
4) False

Self Assessment Questions 2
1) Hunger, thirst, sex, physical comfort and survival.
2) The lower level dominates a person until that level is fairly satisfied.
3) Of seeking personal growth and desire to be part of the surrounding world and appreciate it.
4) Overoptimistic about mankind in general.

3.9 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) What is the basic premise of person centered theory?
2) What is positive self regard?
3) What is the basic assumption underlying Maslow’s theory?
4) What is self actualization?
5) Explain the term fully functioning person.
6) Describe existentialism.

3.10 REFERENCES


Websites:
http://www.simplypsychology.org/maslow.html accessed on 30/4/15
UNIT 4 PSYCHOANALYTICAL AND RELATED THEORIES

Structure

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4.0 INTRODUCTION

This is the last Unit of this block. In the previous units of this block we have been discussing about the various schools and their theoretical frame work in the field of Psychology. In this block, you will come to know about another important school, the school of Psychoanalysis, which tries to explain human behaviour from a different perspective. Freud, Jung, Adler and Fromm are some of the significant contributors of this school. You will be explained about their views and theories propounded by them accordingly.
4.1 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this Unit, you will be able to:

- to comprehend the basic concepts of psychoanalytic theory;
- to explicate the stages of psychosexual development;
- to explain the theories related to psychoanalysis;
- to discuss the Adler’s individual psychology;
- to elucidate Jung’s analytical psychology and the concept of archetype;
- to describe the neurotic needs of Karen Horney’s theory; and
- to enlighten upon the theory of Erich Fromm.

4.2 PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY

Freud’s psychoanalytic theory is one of the significant theory in the field of study of human behaviour. It assumes that human behaviour is determined by powerful inner forces. Most of these forces are buried deep within the unconscious mind and there is dynamic interaction which determines behaviour.

Freud developed a method for the investigation of mental processes that are inaccessible by other means. This method was called psychoanalysis. Psychoanalysis was founded during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

4.3 THREE BASIC CONSTRUCTS OF MENTAL LIFE OR PSYCHE

Freud opined that human personality consists of three basic constructs, which he called as the constructs of mental life or psyche called id, ego and superego. Out of these three constructs, the id is made up of uncoordinated instinctual needs, the ego is the organized part dealing with reality and the superego deals with rules and standards of good behaviour. According to Freud, these forces continually interact with each other and are often in conflict and govern human behaviour.

The id is the foundation of the psychic structure and is the source of energy for the mind. It is present from birth and comprises of basic primitive needs like to eat, drink, eliminate and to be sexually stimulated. According to Freud, these needs are sexual and aggressive in nature. The energy underlying these needs is termed as libido. The id acts according to the pleasure principle, seeking satisfaction of its primitive needs immediately as they arose with no regard for rules of behaviour, morals or realities. The Ego is an outgrowth of id and it acts on the reality principle. The ego finds a safe and effective way to satisfy the needs of the id. This part of the psyche develops functions such as memory, judgment, planning, language, perception to do this. The super ego develops because of the moral standards of the external world, which constantly tell what is right and what is wrong. Therefore, the ego state tries to make a balance between the needs of the id, the demands of the superego and the reality of the situation.

Freud believed that most of the problems that adults face today has its root or basis in childhood. From early childhood, people repress desires or needs
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(Originating from the id) that are unacceptable to them or to society. These repressed feelings cause personality disturbances, self-destructive behaviour or even physical symptoms.

4.4 FREUDIAN STAGES OF PSYCHOSEXUAL DEVELOPMENT

Freud put forth the concept of psychosexual development. He proposed that human personality is formed with the experiences of individuals, as he/she passes through a series of stages from childhood to adulthood. Freud proposed that from birth onwards, the human beings have an innate tendency to seek pleasure, especially through stimulation of body parts which are sensitive to touch like mouth, anus and genitals. For babies, the most sensitive area is mouth. As the age advances, other areas become sensitive to stimulation. In parallel to change in areas of stimulation, there is change in psychological issues faced by a person. Each successive stage with its focus on specific area of the body and psychological issues is called psychosexual stage. In each stage, the events that are related to how one copes with basic unacceptable sexual impulses, are significant in personality formation and coping styles. According to Freud, there are two forms of disturbances which emerge if there are problems. One way of dealing with disturbance is by regression. This is mechanism in which a person reverts to a previous level of development. Another way is to remain fixed in a stage and this is called fixation. The person continues to show behavioural pattern associated with that stage even in the adulthood. The Psycho sexual stages can be represented as follows:

- The first stage is the oral stage. This stage is primarily related to activities that are related to the oral zone of an infant like mouth, lips and other parts. This stage starts from birth till 18 months of age. To form a successful resolution of this phase, a child has to develop trust with parents and others. Disturbances occur when excessive oral gratification or deprivation occurs. Fixation or regression in this stage leads to problems such as overeating, cigarette smoking etc.

- The second stage is the anal stage which revolves around the voluntary control of retention and expulsion of faeces. This stage begins at about 18 months and ends around 3 years of age. Successful resolution of the conflicts in this phase, results in the development of a capacity for independence and personal initiative. Disturbances during this phase result in excessive orderliness, obstinacy, stubbornness etc. Hoarding tendency, rigidity in thinking and other traits in obsessive compulsive disorder are explained as being unsuccessful resolution of this phase.

- The third stage is the phallic stage of sexual development. This lasts from 3 to 5 years of age. The primary focus of this stage is on sexual interests, stimulation and excitement in the genital area. According to Freud, the male child in this stage has an unconscious sexual interest towards mother (Oedipus complex) and the girl child towards the father (Electra complex). This causes guilt feelings and disturbances. If issues are resolved in this stage, there emerges a healthy sexual identity and interests. It also involves a sense of mastery of internal processes and impulses.
The fourth stage is the *latency stage*. This lasts from 5-6 to 11-13 years of age. This is a period of inactivity of sexual impulses or drive. A consolidation of sex identity and sex role takes place. The child develops a sense of mastery and industry, and becomes increasingly autonomous.

The last stage is the *genital stage*, which lasts from ages 11-13 years to adulthood. The physiological maturation of genital systems and sexual functioning leads to intensification of drives. The objective of this phase is to become independent of parental influence. Successful resolution leads to a fully mature individual who has the capacity for satisfactory interpersonal and sexual relationships.

Freud developed several techniques to bring repressed feelings to the level of conscious awareness. He used a technique called, *free association*, in which the person (who seeks help) is said to relax and talk about anything that comes to mind while the therapist listen for clues to his/her inner feelings. Psychoanalysts also interpret dreams which are regarded as reflection of unconscious drives and conflicts. The goal is to help the person to understand and accept the repressed feelings and find ways to deal with them.

Freud considered human behaviour as motivated by the drives or instincts, which in turn are the neurological representations of physical needs. At first, he referred to them as the *life instincts*. These instincts perpetuate the life of the individual by motivating him/her to seek food and water and the life of the species by motivating him/her to have sex. The other instinct Freud spoke about is *death instinct*. He believed that every person has an unconscious wish to die.

### 4.5 THE DEFENSE MECHANISMS

According to Freud, the *ego* deals and tries to maintain balance between the demands of reality, the *id*, and the *superego* as best as it can. But when anxiety becomes overwhelming, the ego must defend itself. It does so by unconsciously blocking the impulses or distorting them into a more acceptable, less threatening form. This way of dealing with socially or morally unaccepted principles/impulses are called the *ego defense mechanisms*. Freud, his daughter Anna, and his other disciples proposed following ways of defense mechanisms:

- **Denial** – It is a type of defense in which an individual blocks the impulses of present situation or external events from awareness. If some situation is too much to handle, the person just refuses to experience it.

- **Repression** – Repression involves an active mental process in which a person pushes any unwanted or threatening situation, person, or event by pushing it down into unconscious, and trying not to recall them, thereby experiencing no anxiety.

- **Isolation** – This defense involves stripping the emotion from a difficult memory or threatening impulse.

- **Displacement** – It is a kind of mechanism in which an individual redirects an unwanted impulse into a substitute or alternative suitable target.
- **Projection** – It comprises the tendency of an individual to see one’s own socially unacceptable desires in other people. In other words, the desires are still there, but they are as others’ desires.

- **Altruistic surrender** is a form of projection that at first glance looks like its opposite. The person attempts to fulfil his or her own needs vicariously, through other people.

- **Reaction formation** – This defense was described by Anna Freud who referred to reaction formation as “believing the opposite.” It is a way in which an individual changes an unacceptable impulse into its opposite.

- **Undoing** – This involves magical gestures or rituals that are meant to cancel out unpleasant thoughts or feelings after they have already occurred.

- **Introjection** – This mechanism is sometimes called identification, in which an individual replicates or copies the personality characteristics of someone else as their own because doing so solves some emotional difficulty.

- **Regression** – It is a movement back in psychological time when one is faced with stress. When a person is troubled or frightened, his/her behaviours often become more childish or primitive.

- **Rationalization** is an acceptable conscious motive which substitutes the unacceptable unconscious desire.

- **Intellectualization** involves reasoning. Anxiety is reduced by detached, unemotional and abstract language.

- **Sublimation** is the transforming of an unacceptable impulse into a socially acceptable, even productive form of impulse.

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### Self Assessment Questions 1

**Answer the following questions in one word:**

1) A mechanism in which an individual redirects an unwanted impulse into a substitute or alternative suitable target..............................................................

2) The foundation of the psychic structure and is the source of energy for the mind ............................................

3) A stage which is primarily related to activities that are related to the oral zone of an infant like mouth, lips and other parts................................. ........................................

4) The instincts that perpetuate the life of the individual by motivating him/her to seek food and water ........................................

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### 4.6 ALFRED ADLER’S INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY

At an earlier stage, Alfred Adler was a follower of Freud, he was strongly influenced by some of early conceptions of psychoanalysis. However, he later disagreed on other aspects of Freud’s concepts and distanced himself from Freud’s work. He began his own school called the *individual psychology*. His emphasis was on the ego and not on the id or the libido as Freud had
suggested. He proposed that people were motivated mostly by social influences and were continually striving for superiority or success.

He believed that the *feelings of inferiority* were the basic urge that lead to development of problems. He contended that these basic intolerable feelings of inferiority and an urge for dominance made people strive towards goal directed behaviour. Unlike Freud, he regarded the self-assertive impulse, instead of the basic impulse (repressed need from the *id*), as the positive driving force in life. If this self-assertive impulse is subjected to frustrations from the environment and from the individual's own sensitiveness then misconduct and maladjustment may occur. He considered feelings of inferiority fundamental as neurosis. He demonstrated certain basic components through the school of individual Psychology which can be explained in the following sub sections:

### 4.6.1 Striving for Success or Superiority

According to Adler, any kind of motivation that occurs in to individual is result of a single drive which is *the striving for success or superiority*. Individual psychology holds that everyone begins life with physical deficiencies that activate feelings of inferiority and these feelings motivate a person to strive for either superiority or success. Psychologically unhealthy individuals strive for personal superiority, whereas psychologically healthy people seek success for all humanity. The term *striving for success* is used to describe actions of people who are motivated by highly developed social interest. Regardless of the motivation for striving, each individual is guided by a final goal.

### 4.6.2 The Final Goal

According to Adler, people strive towards a final goal of either personal superiority or the goal of success for all humankind. In either case, the final goal is fictional and has no objective existence. The final goal has great significance because it unifies personality and renders all behaviour comprehensible. In striving for their final goal, people create and pursue many preliminary goals which are often conscious. The connection among many preliminary goals and between the final goal and them usually remains unknown. However, they fit together in a self-consistent pattern when considered from the point of view of the final goal.

### 4.6.3 Subjective Perceptions

He opined that undoubtedly, people strive for superiority or success in order to compensate the feelings of inferiority, but the manner in which they strive is not shaped by reality but by their subjective perceptions of reality, that is, by their *fictions*, or expectations of the future. The most important fiction is the goal of superiority or success that is created early in life and may not be clearly understood. This subjective, fictional and final goal guides their style of life and gives unity to their personality. He believed that fictions are ideas that have no real existence, yet they influence people *as if* they really existed. One example of a fiction might be: “Men are superior to women.” Although this notion is a fiction, many people, both men and women, act as if it were a reality. Adler’s emphasis on fictions is consistent with his strongly held teleological view of motivation. He explained *Teleology* as an action or behaviour in terms of its final purpose or aim. His view of teleology goes against the concept of causality, which considers behaviour is a result of a specific cause. Teleology is usually concerned with future goals or ends, whereas causality ordinarily deals with past experiences that lead to the present effect.
It should be noted that Freud explained motivation as causal; he believed that people are driven by past events that activate or lead to the present behaviour. In contrast, Adler adopted a teleological view, which says that people are motivated by perceptions of the future but in a present state. As fictions, these perceptions need not be conscious or understood. Nevertheless, both of them believed that there is a purpose on all actions of people and are responsible for a consistent pattern that runs throughout their life.

4.6.4 Unity and Self-Consistency of Personality

Adler believed that each person is unique and indivisible. Thus, individual psychology insists on the fundamental unity of personality and the notion that inconsistent behaviour does not exist. Thoughts, feelings, and actions are all directed towards a single goal and serve a single purpose. When people behave erratically or unpredictably, their behaviour forces other people to be on the defensive, to be watchful so as not to be confused by capricious actions. Although behaviours may appear inconsistent, when they are viewed from the perspective of a final goal, they appear as clever but probably are unconscious attempts to confuse and subordinate other people.

4.6.5 Organ Dialect

According to Adler, the whole person strives in a self-consistent fashion toward a single goal, and all separate actions and functions can be understood only as parts of this goal. The disturbance of one part of the body cannot be viewed in isolation; it affects the entire person. In fact, the deficient organ expresses the direction of the individual’s goal, a condition known as organ dialect.

4.6.6 Social Interest

Social interest can be defined as an attitude of relatedness with humanity in general as well as empathy for each member of the human community. It manifests itself as cooperation with others for social advancement rather than for personal gain. Social interest is the natural condition of the human species and act as adhesive that binds society together. The natural inferiority of individuals necessitates their joining together to form a society. Without protection and nourishment from a father or mother, a baby would perish. Without protection from the family or clan, our ancestors would have been destroyed by animals that were stronger, more ferocious, or endowed with keener senses. Social interest, therefore, is a necessity for perpetuating the human species.

4.6.7 Style of Life

The term Style of life includes a person’s goal, self-concept, feelings for others, and attitude toward the world. It is the product of the interaction of heredity, environment, and his/her creative power. Adler used a musical analogy to elucidate style of life. The separate notes of a composition are meaningless without the entire melody, but the melody takes on added significance when recognize the composer’s style or unique manner of expression is recognized.

By the age range of 4 to 5 years an individual’s style of life is fairly well established. After that time, all our actions revolve around our unified style of life. Although the final goal is singular, style of life need not be narrow or rigid.
Psychologically unhealthy individuals often lead inflexible lives that are marked by an inability to choose new ways of reacting to their environment. In contrast, psychologically healthy people behave in diverse and flexible ways with styles of life that are complex, enriched, and changing. Healthy people see many ways of striving for success and continually seek to create new options for themselves. Even though their final goal remains constant, the way, in which they perceive it, continually changes. Thus, they can choose new options at any point in life.

People with a healthy, socially useful style of life express their social interest through action. They actively struggle to solve what Adler regarded as the three major problems of life—neighbourly love, sexual love, and occupation — and they do so through cooperation, personal courage, and willingness to make contribution to the welfare of another. Adler believed that people with a socially useful style of life represent the highest form of humanity in the evolutionary process and are likely to populate the world of the future.

4.6.8 Creative Power

Each person, Adler believed, is empowered with the freedom to create his/her own style of life. Ultimately, all people are responsible for who they are and how they behave. Their creative power places them in control of their own lives and is responsible for their final goal. It determines their method of striving for that goal and contributes to the development of social interest. In short, creative power makes each person a free individual. Creative power is a dynamic concept implying movement, and this movement is the most salient characteristic of life. All psychic life involves movement towards a goal, movement with a direction.

4.7 JUNG’S ANALYTIC PSYCHOLOGY

C. G. Jung was a practicing psychoanalyst and recognized Freud’s conceptions as being valuable and revolutionary. But, he also believed that it needed improvements. He proposed the analytical psychology which has contributed to the understanding of neurotic behaviour and the role of the libido. In his theory of personality, he places emphasis on the unconscious process but his emphasis differs from Freud’s in major aspects.

The prominent and distinctive feature is that he combines teleology with causality. He explained human behaviour as being conditioned not only by a person’s past history (cause), but also by aims and aspirations (teleology) of that person. That is, both past and future guide a person’s behaviour. This emphasis on role of destiny or purpose makes his theory unique. Jung believed that we have within us not only our thoughts but also a collective unconscious, which includes accumulated memories and urgings of the human race. Jung proposed that the psyche is divided into three parts. The first is the ego, which Jung identifies with the conscious mind. The second is the personal unconscious, which includes anything which is not presently conscious, but can be made conscious. The personal unconscious is like most people’s understanding of the unconscious in that it includes both memories that are easily brought to mind and those that have been suppressed for some reason. The third is the collective unconscious and is also called as psychic inheritance. This is an important concept that makes his theory stands out
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from all others. It comprises of one’s experiences of the past generations which may extend back to origin of humans. He emphasised on the racial origins of humans that influenced the personality of a person. The collective unconscious is an innate knowledge structure that we may not be totally conscious of, that influences all of our experiences and behaviours, specifically the emotional experiences. One can understand that these experiences influence our lives only indirectly. The contents of the collective unconscious, like images, impressions and predispositions, are called archetype. The archetype does not have a real concrete content and is not like memories. It is an unlearned tendency to experience things in a certain way. The archetype has no form of its own, but it acts as an organizing principle of the things we see or do. For example a mother archetype is the built-in ability to recognize a relationship of mothering. According to Jung, these archetypes are projected out into the world and maybe onto another person. Even in the absence of person, these are projected onto a mythological character. This character symbolizes the archetype.

4.7.1 Other Important Concepts of Jung’s Archetypes

- **Shadow:** Sex and the life instincts in general are a part of an archetype called the shadow. According to Jung it derives from our pre-human, animal past, when our concerns were limited to survival and reproduction. It is the dark side of the ego, and the evil that we are capable of is often stored there. The shadow, just like animals is amoral – neither good nor bad. An animal is capable of tender care for its young and killing viciously for food, but it doesn’t choose to do either. It just does what it has to do. It is innocent. But from human perspective, the animal world looks rather brutal, inhuman, so the shadow becomes something of a garbage can for the parts of ourselves that we can’t quite admit to.

- **The persona:** This archetype presents one’s public image. The word comes from a Latin word for mask. So the persona is the mask one puts on before one shows oneself to the outside world. In other words it is the impression one wants to make in front of others.

- **Anima and animus:** Jung believed that masculine and feminine characteristics are found in both the sexes. The anima is, the female aspect present in the collective unconscious of men, and the animus is, the male aspect present in the collective unconscious of women. The anima may be personified as a young girl, very spontaneous and intuitive, or as a witch, or as the earth mother. It is likely to be associated with deep emotionality and the force of life itself. The animus may be personified as a wise old man, a sorcerer, or often a number of males, and tends to be logical, often rationalistic, and even argumentative.

- **The self:** The goal of life is to realize the self. The self is an archetype that represents the transcendence of all opposites, so that every aspect of your personality is expressed equally. Like the other archetypes it motivates behaviour and causes a person to search for wholeness.

- **Attitudes:** Two major attitudes or orientations of personality have been identified, the concepts of introversion and extraversion. This is an important contribution of Jung’s theory. Introverts are people who prefer their internal world of thoughts, feelings, fantasies, dreams, and so on,
while extroverts prefer the external world of things and people and activities. These two words have become synonymous with ideas like shyness and sociability, partially because introverts tend to be shy and extroverts tend to be sociable. But Jung intended for them to refer more to whether a person (ego) more often faces towards the persona and outer reality, or towards the collective unconscious and its archetypes.

The functions

Whether a person is introvert or extrovert, one has to deal with world, inner and outer. Everyone has his/her preferred ways of dealing with it, the ways he/she is comfortable with and good at. Jung suggests there are four basic ways, or functions:

The first function is sensing i.e. getting information by means of the senses. A sensing person is good at looking, listening and generally getting to know the world. Jung called this function irrational as it involves perception rather than judging of information. The second function is thinking i.e. evaluating information or ideas rationally, logically. It is rational function, as it involves decision making or judging, rather than simple intake of information. The third function is intuiting. Intuiting is a kind of perception that works outside of the usual conscious processes. It is irrational or perceptual, like sensing, but comes from the complex integration of large amounts of information, rather than simple seeing or hearing. Jung said it was like seeing around corners. The fourth function is feeling. Feeling, like thinking, is a matter of evaluating information, this time by weighing one’s overall emotional response. Jung calls it rational, obviously not in the usual sense of the word.

Every person has all these functions but in different proportions. His/her best developed and preferred way of function is called superior function. He/she is aware of secondary function and is used in support of superior function. Tertiary function is only slightly less developed but is not conscious. Inferior function is poorly developed and is so unconscious that a person may even deny its existence in him/herself.

According to Jung, most people develop one or two of these functions, but the ideal would be to develop all functions. He also believes that bringing together the opposing parts of personality defines a successful person.

Self Assessment Questions 2

Fill in the blanks:

1) The ........................................ is the female aspect present in the collective unconscious of men, and the ........................................ is the male aspect present in the collective unconscious of women.

2) Psychologically ................................... individuals strive for personal superiority, whereas psychologically ..................................... people seek success for all humanity.

3) Collective unconscious is also known as........................................

4) Two major attitudes or orientations of personality are known as......


4.8 KAREN HORNEY’S THEORY

It is interesting for you to know that Horney’s theory is one of the best known theories of neurosis. First, she offered a different way of viewing neurosis. Unlike previous theorists, she saw it as much more continuous with normal life. Specifically, she saw neurosis as an attempt to make life bearable, as a way of interpersonal control and coping.

In her clinical experience, she discerned ten particular patterns of neurotic needs. These are based on normal needs, but have become distorted in several ways by the problems of some people’s lives. These needs may become almost permanent part of one’s personality and are acquired as a consequence of trying to find solutions for problems like disturbed interpersonal relationships.

4.8.1 The Neurotic Needs

The neurotic needs that she opined are as follows:

1) The neurotic need for affection and approval is the indiscriminate need to please others and be liked by them.

2) The neurotic need for a partner, for someone who will take over one’s life. This includes the idea that love will solve all of one’s problems. Again, everyone has a need for a partner to share life with, but the neurotic goes a step or two too far.

3) The neurotic need to restrict one’s life to narrow borders, to be undemanding, satisfied with little, to be inconspicuous. Even though at times this could be a normal reaction in people, it becomes more pronounced with the neurotic person.

4) The neurotic need for power, for control over others, for a facade of omnipotence. We all seek strength, but the neurotic may be desperate for it. This is dominance for its own sake, often accompanied by contempt for the weak and a strong belief in one’s own rational powers.

5) The neurotic need to exploit others and get the better of them. In the ordinary person, this might be the need to have an effect, to have impact, to be heard. In the neurotic, it can become manipulation and the belief that people are there to be used. It may also involve a fear of being used or of looking stupid.

6) The neurotic need for social recognition or prestige: Human beings are social creatures, and sexual ones, and like to be appreciated. But these people are overwhelmingly concerned with appearances and popularity. They fear being ignored, considered plain, ordinary or common place.

7) The neurotic need for personal admiration: Every person has need to be admired for inner qualities as well as outer ones, to feel important and be valued. But some people are more desperate, and need to remind everyone of their importance. Their fear is of being considered unimportant and meaningless.

8) The neurotic need for personal achievement: Although, there is nothing intrinsically wrong with achievement, some people are obsessed with it.
They have to be number one at everything they do. Since this is quite a difficult task, they tend to devalue everything else. Their goal becomes central to everything else.

9) The neurotic need for self-sufficiency and independence. Everyone should cultivate some autonomy, but some people feel that they shouldn’t ever need anybody. They tend to refuse help and are often reluctant to commit to a relationship.

10) The neurotic need for perfection and unassailability. To become better and better at life and special interests is hardly neurotic, but some people are driven to be perfect and scared of being flawed. They can not be caught making a mistake and need to be in control at all times.

As Horney investigated these neurotic needs, she began to recognize that they can be clustered into three broad coping strategies:

- **Compliance**, which includes first to third needs. She also referred to this as the *moving-toward strategy* and the *self-effacing solution*.

- **Aggression** includes fourth to eight needs. This was referred to as *moving-against* and the *expansive solution*. It is the same as Alder’s ruling or dominant type, or the choleric personality.

- **Withdrawal** includes ninth, tenth, and third need. She added third need here because it is crucial to the illusion of total independence and perfection that the breadth of life is narrowed and limited. She called this as *moving-away-from* and the *resigning solution*.

### 4.8.2 Development

It is true that some people who are abused or neglected as children suffer from neurosis as adults. At the same time, there are others who are able to cope with traumatic childhood. The question, of why only some people develop these neurotic needs, has been addressed by Horney. Her view is that these people experience *parental indifference* which she called *basic evil*. She believes that all negative experiences could be faced if the child felt basically wanted and loved.

The key to understanding parental indifference is that it is a matter of the child’s perception, and not the parents’ intentions. A well intentioned parent may easily communicate indifference to children with such things as showing preference for one child over another, blaming the child for what he/she may not have done, overindulging one moment and rejecting another, neglecting to fulfil promises, disturbing child’s friendships, making fun of child’s thinking, and so on. Sometimes, the parents, even good ones, find themselves doing these things because of the many pressures they may be under. Other parents do these things because they themselves are neurotic, and place their own needs ahead of their children’s. Horney noticed that, in contrast to our stereotypes of children as weak and passive, their first reaction to parental indifference is anger, a response she calls *basic hostility*. To be frustrated first leads to an effort at protesting the injustice.

Some children find this hostility effective, and over time it becomes a habitual response to life’s difficulties. In other words, they develop an aggressive coping strategy. They say to themselves, “If I have power, no one can hurt
me. Most children, however, find themselves overwhelmed by basic anxiety, which means fear of helplessness and abandonment for children. For survival’s sake, basic hostility must be suppressed and the parents be won over. If this seems to work better for the child, it may become the preferred coping strategy, the compliance. They tell themselves, “If I can make you love me, you will not hurt me.”

Some children find that neither aggression nor compliance eliminates the perceived parental indifference. They solve the problem by withdrawing from family involvement into themselves, eventually becoming sufficient unto themselves, the third coping strategy. They say, “If I withdraw, nothing can hurt me.”

4.8.3 Self Theory

Horney had one more way of looking at neurosis – in terms of self images. For Horney, the self is the core of a person’s being and his/her potential. If a person is healthy, he/she will have an accurate conception of who he/she is and is then free to realize that potential (self-realization).

The neurotic has a different view of things. The neurotic’s self is split into a despised self and an ideal self. Generally, people with neurotic traits tend to give more importance to how others see them rather than concentrating on their real self. If they find themselves lacking in fulfilling that, they tend to develop an ideal self. The ideal self is not a positive goal; it is unrealistic and ultimately impossible. So the neurotic swings back and forth between hating themselves and pretending to be perfect. Horney described this stretching between the despised and ideal selves as the tyranny of the shoulds and neurotic striving for glory:

The compliant person believes “I should be sweet, self-sacrificing, and saintly.”

The aggressive person says “I should be powerful, recognized, and a winner.”

The withdrawing person believes “I should be independent, aloof, and perfect.”

And while vacillating between these two impossible selves, the neurotic persons are alienated from their true core and prevented from actualizing their potential

4.9 ERICH FROMM

Fromm’s theory is unique blend of ideas of Freud and Karl Marx. Freud emphasized the unconscious, biological drives, repression, and so on. Marx, on the other hand, saw people as determined by their society, and especially by their economic systems. Fromm added to this mix of two deterministic systems something quite foreign to them: the idea of freedom. He allows people to transcend the determinisms that Freud and Marx attribute to them. In fact, Fromm makes freedom as the central characteristic of human nature.

Over a mere 500 years, the idea of individuality, with individual thoughts, feelings, moral conscience, freedom, and responsibility, came into being. But with individuality came isolation, alienation, and bewilderment. Freedom is a difficult thing to have and when we can, we tend to flee from it.

Fromm describes three ways in which we escape from freedom:
Authoritarianism. The people seek to avoid freedom by fusing themselves with others, by becoming a part of an authoritarian system like the society of the middle ages. There are two ways to approach this. One is to submit to the power of others, becoming passive and compliant. The other is to become an authority itself, a person who applies structure to others. Either way, one escapes separate identity. Fromm referred to the extreme version of authoritarianism as masochism and sadism, and points out that both feel compelled to play their separate roles, so that even the sadist, with all his/her apparent power over the masochist, is not free to choose his/her actions. Milder versions of authoritarianism are seen everywhere.

Destructiveness: Authoritarians respond to a painful existence by, in a sense, eliminating themselves. But others respond to pain by striking out against the world. It is this escape from freedom that accounts for much of the indiscriminate nastiness of life – brutality, vandalism, humiliation, crime and terrorism. Fromm adds that, if a person’s desire to destroy is blocked by circumstances, he/she may redirect it inward. The most obvious kind of self-destructiveness is, of course, suicide. It is also present in drug addiction, alcoholism, even in the joys of passive entertainment.

Automaton conformity. The person who uses automaton conformity is like a social chameleon; he/she takes on the colouring of his/her surroundings. Since he/she looks like a million other people, he/she no longer feels alone. He/she is not alone, perhaps, but he/she is not him/herself either. The automaton conformist experiences a split between his/her genuine feelings and the colours he/she shows to the world, very much along the lines of Horney’s theory.

4.9.1 Families
Fromm attributes these needs for escape from freedom to have come from the nature of the family one has grown up in. He outlines two kinds of unproductive families. They are:

Symbiotic families. Symbiosis is the relationship between two organisms who cannot live without each other. In a symbiotic family, some members of the family are swallowed up by other members, so that they do not fully develop personalities of their own. The more obvious example is the case where the parent swallows the child, so that the child’s personality is merely a reflection of the parent’s wishes. In many traditional societies, this is the case with many children, especially girls.

Withdrawing families. In fact, the main alternative is most notable for its cool indifference, if not cold, hatefulfulness. Although withdrawal as a family style has always been around, it has come to dominate some societies only in the last few hundred years. Parents are very demanding of their children, who are expected to live up to high, well-defined standards. Punishment is not a matter of a slap upside the head in full anger and in the middle of dinner; it is instead a formal affair, a full-fledged ritual, possibly involving cutting switches and meeting in the woodshed. Punishment is cold-blooded, done for your own good. Alternatively, a culture may use guilt and withdrawal of affection as punishment. Either way, children in these cultures become rather strongly driven to succeed in whatever their culture defines as success. This
puritanical style of family encourages the destructive escape from freedom, which is internalized until circumstances (such as war) allow its release.

### 4.9.2 The Social Unconscious

The families reflect our society and culture. The society is one of an infinite number of ways of dealing with the issues of life. Most of people often think that their way of doing things is the only way, the natural way. It has been learned so well that it becomes unconscious, the *social unconscious*, to be precise. So, many times people believe that they are acting according to their own free will, but they are only following orders they are so used to that they no longer notice them.

Fromm believes that social unconscious is best understood by examining the economic systems. In fact, he defines, and even names, five personality types, which he calls *orientations*, in economic terms.

- **The receptive orientation.** These are the people who expect to get what they need. If they do not get it immediately, they wait for it. They believe that all goods and satisfactions come from outside themselves. This orientation is associated with symbiotic families, especially where children are *swallowed* by parents, and with the masochistic (passive) form of authoritarianism.

- **The exploitative orientation.** These people expect to have to take what they need. In fact, things increase in value to the extent that they are taken from others, wealth is preferably stolen, ideas plagiarized, love achieved by coercion.

- **The hoarding orientation.** Hoarding people expect to keep, to maintain. They see the world as possessions and potential possessions. Even loved ones are things to possess, to keep, or to buy. Hoarding is associated with the cold form of withdrawing family, and with destructiveness. Freud would call it the anal retentive type, Adler (to some extent) the avoiding type, and Horney (a little more clearly) the withdrawing type. In its pure form, it means a person is stubborn, stingy, and unimaginative. In is a milder version of hoarding, person might be steadfast, economical, and practical.

- **The marketing orientation.** The marketing orientation expects to sell. This modern type comes out of the cool withdrawing family, and tends to use automaton conformity as its escape from freedom. Adler and Horney do not have an equivalent, but Freud has, this is at least half of the vague phallic personality, the type that lives life as flirtation. In extreme, the marketing person is opportunistic, childish, and tactless. In milder form, he/she is purposeful, youthful, and social.

- **The productive orientation.** There is a healthy personality as well, which Fromm occasionally refers to as the person without a mask. This is the person who, without disapproving his/her biological and social nature, nevertheless does not shirk away from freedom and responsibility. This person comes out of a family that loves without being overwhelmed, prefers reason to rules, and freedom to conformity. The society that gives rise to the productive type (on more than a chance basis) does not exist yet, according to Fromm. He has some ideas about what it will be like and calls it *humanistic communitarian socialism*.
4.9.3 Five Human Needs given by Erich Fromm

Fromm says that the first four orientations (which others might call neurotic) are living in the having mode. They focus on consuming, obtaining, possessing. They are defined by what they have. The productive orientation, on the other hand, lives in the being mode.

Erich Fromm lists five human needs:

- **Relatedness:** Human beings are aware of their separateness from each other, and seek to overcome it. Fromm calls this the need for relatedness, and views it as love in the broadest sense. It allows us to transcend our separateness without denying us our uniqueness.

  The need is so powerful that sometimes it is sought in unhealthy ways. For example, some seek to eliminate their isolation by submitting themselves to another person, to a group, or to their conception of a God. Others look to eliminate their isolation by dominating others. Either way, these are not satisfying, as separateness is not overcome. Another way, some attempt to overcome this need, is by denying it. The opposite of relatedness is what Fromm calls narcissism. Narcissism, the love of self, is natural in infants, in that they don’t perceive themselves as separate from the world and others to begin with. But in adults, it is a source of pathology. The narcissistic person has only one reality, the world of his own thoughts, feelings, and needs. His world becomes what he wants it to be, and he loses contact with reality.

- **Creativity:** Fromm believes that human beings desire to overcome, to transcend their sense of being passive creatures and want to be creators.

  There are many ways to be creative, such as giving birth, painting pictures, and writing books. Creativity is, in fact, considered an expression of love. Unfortunately, some persons do not find an avenue for creativity. Frustrated, they attempt to transcend their passivity by becoming destroyers instead. Destroying puts them above the things or people, they destroy and this makes them feel powerful.

- **Rootedness:** We need roots and feel at home in the universe, even though, as human beings, we are somewhat alienated from the natural world. The simplest version is to maintain our ties to our mothers. But to grow up means we have to leave the warmth of our mothers’ love. To stay would be what Fromm calls a kind of psychological incest. In order to manage in the difficult world of adulthood, we need to find new, broader roots. We need to discover our brotherhood (and sisterhood) with humanity. This, too has its pathological side, for example, the schizophrenic tries to retreat into a womb-like existence, one where the umbilical cord has never been cut. There is also the neurotic who is afraid to leave his home, even to get the mail. And there’s the fanatic who sees his tribe, his country, his church as the only good one, the only real one. Everyone else is a dangerous outsider, to be avoided or even destroyed.

- **A sense of identity:** Fromm believes that we need to have a sense of identity, of individuality, in order to stay sane. This need is so powerful that we are sometimes driven to find it, for example by doing anything
for signs of status, or by trying desperately to conform. We sometimes will even give up our lives in order to remain a part of our group. But this is only pretend identity, an identity we take from others, instead of one we develop ourselves, and it fails to satisfy our need.

- **A frame of orientation:** Finally, we need to understand the world and our place in it. Again, our society – and especially the religious aspects of our culture – often attempts to provide us with this understanding. Things like our myths, our philosophies, and our sciences provide us with structure. Fromm says this is really two needs, first, we need a frame of orientation, and almost anything will do. Even a bad one is better than none! And so people are generally quite gullible. We want to believe, sometimes even desperately. If we don’t have an explanation handy, we will make one up, via rationalization. The second aspect is that we want to have a good frame of orientation, one that is useful, accurate. This is where reason comes in. It is nice that our parents and others provide us with explanations for the world and our lives, but if they don’t hold up, what good are they? A frame of orientation needs to be rational. Fromm adds one more thing that we don’t just want a cold philosophy or material science. We want a frame of orientation that provides us with meaning. We want understanding, but we want a warm, human understanding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self Assessment Questions 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>State whether the statements are true or false:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1) Authoritarians respond to a painful existence by striking out against the world. ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) The person who uses automaton conformity is like a social chameleon; he/she takes on the colouring of his/her surroundings. ( )</td>
</tr>
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<td>3) The people seek to avoid freedom by fusing themselves with others, by becoming a part of an authoritarian system like the society of the middle ages. ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Hoarding does not mean a person being stubborn, stingy, and unimaginative attitude ( )</td>
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### 4.10 LET US SUM UP

It can be concluded from the above discussion that like other schools, the school of Psychoanalysis tried to explain human behaviour in various ways. They also explained the concept of Psychodynamics which refers to the study of the interrelationship of various parts of the mind as they relate to mental, emotional, motivational forces especially at the unconscious level. It is the connection between the energy and the dynamics of the emotional states in the id, ego and super ego and the outside world. The theory of Psychodynamics further attempts to explain or interpret behaviour or mental states in terms of innate emotional forces or processes. The most important contribution of
psychodynamic theory is its focus on early childhood experiences. It is worth to mention the uniqueness of psychosexual stages of development mentioned by Freud and the disturbances in human behaviour if he or she is fixed on any one of the stage during the early stages of development. He also explained about the coping in terms of defense mechanisms. Adler focussed more on the ego and people being motivated mostly by social influences such as striving for success, goal directed behaviour, etc. Jung’s Analytical Psychology strongly supported Freud’s concept of unconscious process, however he gave more importance to the individuals experiences of past generations and he also emphasized on the aims and aspirations that motivates a person. Karen Horney has given one of the best known theories of neurosis that acquire as a consequence of coping with problems stemming from disturbed human life. Fromm’s unique contribution was the idea of freedom and idea of escape from freedom. Psychodynamic concepts are useful in many ways of understanding human personality and behaviour.

4.11 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1

1) Displacement
2) Id
3) Oral
4) Life Instincts

Self Assessment Questions 2

1) Anima, Animus
2) Unhealthy, Healthy
3) Psychic inheritance
4) Introversion and extraversion

Self Assessment Questions 3

1) False
2) True
3) True
4) False

4.12 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) What are the two major distributions that are assumed to take place in the process of psychosexual development?
2) What are major constructs of the mind according to Freud?
3) What is the method used by Freud to study psychoanalysis?

4) In what major way did Adler differ from Freud?

5) Explain the concept of strivig for superiority.

6) Write briefly about basic concepts of Adler’s theory.

7) In what major way did Jung differ from Freud?

8) What are the neurotic traits given by Karen Horney?

9) Explain ‘self theory’.

10) Describe the categories of family given by Fromm.

11) What are the five human needs given by Erich Froom?

4.13 REFERENCES

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