1.   Details of Module and its structure

Module Detail	
Subject Name	Psychology
Course Name	Psychology 03 (Class XII, Semester - 1)
Module Name/Title	Psychodynamic, Behavioural & Humanistic Approaches to Personality - Part 2
Module Id	lepy_10202
Pre-requisites	A basic understanding of what is psychology and methods of enquiry
Objectives	After going through this lesson, the learners will be able to understand the following: • Differentiate between various approaches to the study of personality • Develop insight into the psychodynamic, behavioural & humanistic theory of personality development
Keywords	Id Ego, Super Ego, Unconscious, Pre-conscious, conscious, Oral, Anal, Phallic, Latency, Genital Stages, Repression, Projection, Denial, Reaction formation, Rationalisation, basic anxiety, collective unconsciousness, inferiority complex, identity crisis. Ocdipus and Electra complex

2.   Development Team

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Table of Contents :

Psychodynamic Approach (Sigmund Freud)

Levels of Consciousness

The first level is <u>conscious</u>, which includes the thoughts, feelings and actions of which people are aware. The second level is <u>preconscious</u>, which includes mental activity of which people may become aware only if they attend to it closely. The third level is <u>unconscious</u>, which includes mental activity that people are unaware of.

Structure of Personality

According to Freud's theory, the primary structural elements of personality are

- Id
- Ego
- Superego.
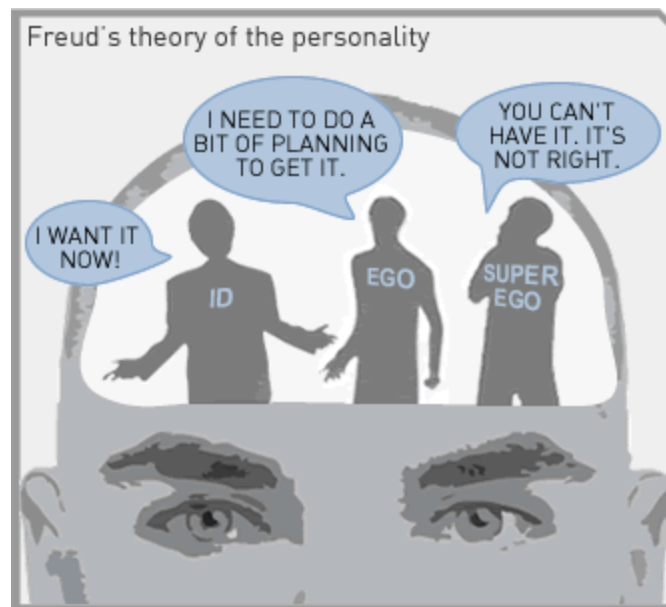
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They reside in the unconscious as forces and can be inferred from the ways people behave. _Id:_ It is the source of a person's instinctual energy and deals with immediate gratification of primi-

tive needs, sexual desires and aggressive impulses. It works on the pleasure principle, which assumes that people seek pleasure and try to avoid pain. Id does not care for moral values, society, or other individuals.

Ego: It grows out of id, and seeks to satisfy an individual's instinctual needs in accordance with reality, working by the reality principle, and often directs the id towards more appropriate ways of behaving.

Superego: The best way to characterize the superego is to think of it as the moral branch of mental functioning. It helps control the id by internalizing the parental authority through the process of socialization.

Thus, in terms of individual functioning Freud thought of the unconscious as being composed of three competing forces. In some people, the id is stronger than the superego; in others, it is the superego. The relative strength of the id, ego and superego determines each person's stability. Freud assumed that id is energized by two instinctual forces, called life instinct and death instinct. He paid less attention to death instinct and focused more on life (or sexual) instinct. *The instinctual life force that energises the id is called libido.*

Ego Defense Mechanisms

Defense mechanism is a way of reducing anxiety by distorting reality. Although some defense against anxiety is normal and adaptive, people who use these to such an extent that reality is truly distorted develop various forms of maladjustment.

The defense mechanisms described by Freud are:

1. Repression: In this, anxiety-provoking behaviours or thoughts are totally dismissed by the unconscious. People become totally unaware of that wish or desire when they have repressed it. When a person says, "I do not know why I did that", some repressed feeling or desire is expressing itself.

2. Projection: Here people attribute their own traits to others. A person who has strong aggressive tendencies may see other people as acting in an excessively aggressive wayes towards him.

3. Denial: A person totally refuses to accept the reality. Someone suffering frm HIV/AIDS may altogether deny her/his illness.

4. Reaction formation: In this a person defends against anxiety by adopting behaviours opposite to her/his true feelings. A person with strong sexual urges, who channels her/his energy into religious fervour, presents a classical example of reaction formation.

5. Rationalization: Here a person tries to make unreasonable feelings or behaviour seem resonable and acceptable. When a student buys a set of new pens after doin poorly in an examination, she/he may try to rationalize her/his behaviour by asserting, "I will do much better with these pens".

Stages of Personality Development

Freud proposed a five-stage theory of personality (also called psychosexual) development.

- **Oral Stage:** A newborn's instincts are focused on the mouth as it is the infant's pleasure seeking centre. It is during these early months that people's basic feelings about the world are established.
- **Anal Stage:** Around the ages two and three the child learns to respond to some of the demands of society. The anal area of the body becomes the focus of certain pleasurable feelings.
- **Phallic Stage:** At around ages 4 and 5, children begin to realize the differences between males and females and become aware of their sexuality and the sexual relationship between their parents. The male child experiences the Oedipus complex during this stage, which involves love for the mother, hostility towards the father For girls, the Electra complex is present in the form of love for the father.
- **Latency Stage:** It lasts from 7 years until puberty. The child continues to grow physically but sexual urges are relatively inactive.
- **Genital Stage:** The person attains maturity in psychosexual development. The sexuality, fears and repressed feelings of earlier stages are again exhibited. People learn to deal with the opposite sex in a socially and sexually mature way.

  The failure of a child to pass successfully through a stage leads to fixation to that stage- the child's development gets arrested at an earlier stage.

Post-Freudian.

A number of theorists further developed their ideas following Freud. Some had worked with him and then moved on to develop their own versions of the psychoanalytic theory. These theorists have been called *neo-analytic,* or *post-Freudian* in order to differentiate their work from Freud's. These theories are characterised by less prominent roles to sexual and aggressive tendencies of the id and expansion of the concept of ego. The human qualities of creativity, compe-

tence, and problem solving abilities are emphasised. Some of these theories are briefly described here.

Carl Jung:

Carl Jung was a Swiss psychiatrist and protégé of Freud, who later split off from Freud and developed his own theory, which he called analytical psychology. The focus of analytical psychology is on working to balance opposing forces of conscious and unconscious thought, and experience within one's personality. According to Jung, this work is a continuous learning process—mainly occurring in the second half of life of becoming aware of unconscious elements and integrating them into consciousness.

Carl Jung was interested in exploring the collective unconscious.

Jung's split from Freud was based on two major disagreements. First, Jung, like Adler and Erikson, did not accept that sexual drive was the primary motivator in a person's mental life. Second, although Jung agreed with Freud's concept of a personal unconscious, he thought it to be incomplete. In addition to the personal unconscious, Jung focused on the collective unconscious.

The collective unconscious is a universal version of the personal unconscious, holding mental patterns, or memory traces, which are common to all of us (Jung, 1928). These ancestral memories, which Jung called archetypes, are represented by universal themes in various cultures, as expressed through literature, art, and dreams (Jung). Jung said that these themes reflect common experiences of people the world over, such as facing death, becoming independent, and striving for mastery. Jung (1964) believed that through biology, each person is handed down the same themes and that the same types of symbols—such as the hero, the maiden, the sage, and the trickster—are present in the folklore and fairy tales of every culture. In Jung's view, the task of integrating these unconscious archetypal aspects of the self is part of the self-realization process in the second half of life. With this orientation toward self-realization, Jung parted ways with Freud's belief that personality is determined solely by past events and anticipated the humanistic movement with its emphasis on self-actualization and orientation toward the future.

Jung also proposed two attitudes or approaches toward life: extroversion and introversion (Jung, 1923). These ideas are considered Jung's most important contributions to the field of personality psychology, as almost all models of personality now include these concepts. If you

are an extrovert, then you are a person who is energized by being outgoing and socially oriented: You derive your energy from being around others. If you are an introvert, then you are a person who may be quiet and reserved, or you may be social, but your energy is derived from your inner psychic activity. Jung believed a balance between extroversion and introversion best served the goal of self-realization.

Karen Horney:

Karen Horney was one of the first women trained as a Freudian psychoanalyst. During the Great Depression, Horney moved from Germany to the United States, and subsequently moved away from Freud's teachings. Like Jung, Horney believed that each individual has the potential for self-realization and that the goal of psychoanalysis should be moving toward a healthy self rather than exploring early childhood patterns of dysfunction.

Horney was another disciple of Freud who developed a theory that deviated from basic Freudian principles. She adopted a more optimistic view of human life with emphasis on human growth and self actualisation. Horney's major contribution lies in her challenge to Freud's treatment of women as inferior. According to her, each sex has attributes to be admired by the other, and neither sex can be viewed as superior or inferior. She countered that women were more likely to be affected by social and cultural factors than by biological factors. She argued that psychological disorders were caused by **disturbed interpersonal relationship** during childhood. When parents' behaviour toward a child is indifferent, discouraging, and erratic, the child feels insecure and a feeling called **basic anxiety** results. Deep resentment toward parents or basic hostility occurs due to this anxiety. By showing excessive dominance or indifference, or by providing too much or too little approval, parents can generate among children feelings of isolation and helplessness which interfere with their healthy development.

Horney's theories focused on the role of unconscious anxiety. She suggested that normal growth can be blocked by basic anxiety stemming from needs not being met, such as childhood experiences of loneliness and/or isolation. How do children learn to handle this anxiety? Horney suggested three styles of coping. The **first coping style**, moving toward people, relies on affiliation and dependence. These children become dependent on their parents and other caregivers in an effort to receive attention and affection, which provides relief from anxiety. When these children grow up, they tend to use this same coping strategy to deal with relationships, expressing an intense need for love and acceptance. **The second coping style**, moving against

people, relies on aggression and assertiveness. Children with this coping style find that fighting is the best way to deal with an unhappy home situation, and they deal with their feelings of insecurity by bullying other children. As adults, people with this coping style tend to lash out with hurtful comments and exploit others. **The third coping style**, moving away from people, centers on detachment and isolation. These children handle their anxiety by withdrawing from the world. They need privacy and tend to be self-sufficient. When these children are adults, they continue to avoid such things as love and friendship, and they also tend to gravitate toward careers that require little interaction with others.

Horney's Coping Styles

Coping Style	Description	Example
Moving toward people	Affiliation and dependence	Child seeking positive attention and affection from parent; adult needing love
Moving against people	Aggression and manipulation	Child fighting or bullying other children; adult who is abrasive and verbally hurtful, or who exploits others
Moving away from people	Detachment and isolation	Child withdrawn from the world and isolated; adult loner

Horney believed these three styles are ways in which people typically cope with day-to-day problems; however, the three coping styles can become neurotic strategies if they are used rigidly and compulsively, leading a person to become alienated from others.

Alfred Adler:

Alfred Adler, a colleague of Freud's and the first president of the Vienna Psychoanalytical Society (Freud's inner circle of colleagues), was the first major theorist to break away from Freud ([link]). He subsequently founded a school of psychology called individual psychology, which focuses on our drive to compensate for feelings of inferiority. Adler (1937, 1956) proposed the concept of the inferiority complex. An inferiority complex refers to a person's feelings that they

lack worth and don't measure up to the standards of others or of society. Adler's ideas about inferiority represent a major difference between his thinking and Freud's. Freud believed that we are motivated by sexual and aggressive urges, but Adler (1930, 1961) believed that feelings of inferiority in childhood are what drive people to attempt to gain superiority and that this striving is the force behind all of our thoughts, emotions, and behaviors.

Adler also believed in the importance of social connections, seeing childhood development emerging through social development rather than the sexual stages Freud outlined. Adler noted the inter-relatedness of humanity and the need to work together for the betterment of all. He said, "The happiness of mankind lies in working together, in living as if each individual had set himself the task of contributing to the common welfare" (Adler, 1964, p. 255) with the main goal of psychology being "to recognize the equal rights and equality of others" (Adler, 1961, p. 691).

With these ideas, Adler identified three fundamental social tasks that all of us must experience: i) occupational tasks (careers), ii) societal tasks (friendship), iii) love tasks (finding an intimate partner for a long-term relationship). Rather than focus on sexual or aggressive motives for behavior as Freud did, Adler focused on social motives. He also emphasized conscious rather than unconscious motivation, since he believed that the three fundamental social tasks are explicitly known and pursued. That is not to say that Adler did not also believe in unconscious processes —he did—but he felt that conscious processes were more important.

One of Adler's major contributions to personality psychology was the idea that our birth order shapes our personality. He proposed that older siblings, who start out as the focus of their parents' attention but must share that attention once a new child joins the family, compensate by becoming overachievers. The youngest children, according to Adler, may be spoiled, leaving the middle child with the opportunity to minimize the negative dynamics of the youngest and oldest children. Despite popular attention, research has not conclusively confirmed Adler's hypotheses about birth order.

Each one of us has the capacity to choose and create. Our **personal goals** are the sources of our motivation. The goals that provide us with security and help us in overcoming the feelings of inadequacy are important in our personality development. In Adler's view, every individual suffers from the feelings of inadequacy and guilt, i.e. **inferiority complex**, which arises from childhood.

Overcoming this complex is essential for optimal personality development.

Erich Fromm:

In contrast to Freud's biological orientation, Fromm developed his theory from a social orientation. He viewed human beings as basically **social beings** who could be understood in terms of their relationship with others. He argued that psychological qualities such as growth and realisation of potentials resulted from a **desire for freedom**, and **striving for justice and truth**. Fromm holds that character traits
(personality) develop from our experiences with other individuals. While culture is shaped by the mode of existence of a given society, people's dominant character traits in a given society work as forces in shaping the social processes and the culture itself. His work recognises the value of positive qualities, such as tenderness and love in personality development.

Erik Erikson:

As an art school dropout with an uncertain future, young Erik Erikson met Freud's daughter, Anna Freud, while he was tutoring the children of an American couple undergoing psychoanalysis in Vienna. It was Anna Freud who encouraged Erikson to study psychoanalysis. Erikson received his diploma from the Vienna Psychoanalytic Institute in 1933, and as Nazism spread across Europe, he fled the country and immigrated to the United States that same year. Erikson later proposed a psychosocial theory of development, suggesting that an individual's personality develops throughout the lifespan—a departure from Freud's view that personality is fixed in early life. In his theory, Erikson emphasized the social relationships that are important at each stage of personality development, in contrast to Freud's emphasis on sex. Erikson identified eight stages, each of which represents a conflict or developmental task ([link]). The development of a healthy personality and a sense of competence depend on the successful completion of each task.

Erikson's Psychosocial Stages of Development

Stage	Age (Years)	Developmental Task	Description
1	0–1	Trust vs. mistrust	Trust (or mistrust) that basic needs, such as nourishment and affection, will be met
2	1–3	Autonomy vs. shame/doubt	Sense of independence in many tasks develops

3	3–6	Initiative vs. guilt	Take initiative on some activities, may develop guilt when success not met or boundaries overstepped
4	7–11	Industry vs. inferiority	Develop self-confidence in abilities when competent or sense of inferiority when not
5	12–18	Identity vs. confusion	Experiment with and develop identity and roles
6	19–29	Intimacy vs. isolation	Establish intimacy and relationships with others
7	30–64	Generativity vs. stagnation	Contribute to society and be part of a family
8	65–	Integrity vs. despair	Assess and make sense of life and meaning of contributions

Erikson's theory lays stress on rational, conscious ego processes in personality development. In his theory, development is viewed as a lifelong process, and ego identity is granted a central place in this

process. His concept of **identity crisis** of adolescent age has drawn considerable attention. Erikson argues that young people must generate for themselves a central perspective and a direction that can give them a meaningful sense of unity and purpose.

The major criticisms faced by Psychodynamic theories are:
1. They are largely based on case studies; they lack rigorous scientific basis.
2. They use small and atypical individuals as samples for advancing generalizations.
3. The concepts are not properly defined, and it is difficult to submit them to scientific testing
4. Freud has used males as prototype of all human personality development. He overlooked female experiences and perspectives.

Behavioural Approach

This approach does not give importance to the internal dynamics of behaviour. The behaviourists believe in data, which they feel are definable, observable, and measurable. Thus, they focus on learning of stimulus-response connections and their reinforcement. According to

them, personality can be best understood as the response of an individual to the environment. They see the development simply as a change in response characteristics, i.e. a person learns new behaviours in response to new environments and stimuli. For most behaviourists, the structural unit of personality is the **response**. Each response is a behaviour, which is emitted to satisfy a specific need. As you know, all of us eat because of hunger, but we are also very choosy about foods. For example, children do not like eating many of the vegetables (e.g., spinach, pumpkin, gourds, etc.), but gradually they learn to eat them. Why do they do so? According to the behavioural approach, children may initially learn to eat such vegetables in anticipation of appreciation (reinforcement) from their parents. Later on they may eventually learn to eat vegetables not only because their parents are pleased with this behaviour, but also because they acquire the taste of those vegetables, and find them good. Thus, the core tendency that organises behaviour is the reduction of

biological or social needs that energise behaviour. This is accomplished through responses (behaviours) that are reinforced.

From your study in Class XI, you may recall that there are several different learning principles that involve the use of stimuli, responses, and reinforcement in different ways. The theories of *classical*

conditioning (Pavlov), *instrumental conditioning* (Skinner), and *observational learning* (Bandura) are well-known to you. These theories view learning and maintenance of behaviour from different angles. The principles of these theories have been widely used in developing personality theories. For example,

observational learning theory considers thought processes extremely important in learning, but these find almost no place in classical or instrumental conditioning theories. Observational learning theory also emphasises social learning (based on observation and imitation of others) and self-regulation, which again is missed out in other theories.

Cultural Approach

- This approach attempts to understand personality in relation to the features of ecological and cultural environment.

Cultural approach considers personality as adaptation of an individual or groups to the demands of ecology and culture.

Humanistic Theory/Approach

Human beings are motivated by the desire for personal growth and self-actualisation, and an innate need to grow emotionally. When these needs are curbed by society and family, human beings experience psychological distress. Self-actualisation is defined as an innate or inborn force that moves the person to become more complex, balanced, and integrated, i.e. achieving the complexity and balance without being fragmented. Integrated means a sense of whole, being a complete person, being in essence the same person in spite of the variety of experiences that one is subjected to. Just as lack of food or water causes distress, frustration of self-actualisation also causes distress.

The two main humanistic theorists are:-

Rogers suggests that each individual has a concept of 'Ideal self'

An ideal self is the self that a person would like to be-

When there is a correspondence between the real self and ideal self, a person is generally happy.

- Discrepancy between the real self and ideal self often results in unhappiness and dissatisfaction.
- Rogers basic principles is that people have tendency to maximise self concept through self actualisation.

Rogers focuses that people love a tendency to maximize their self concept through self actualization.

Fig.2.3 : Pattern of Adjustment and Self-concept
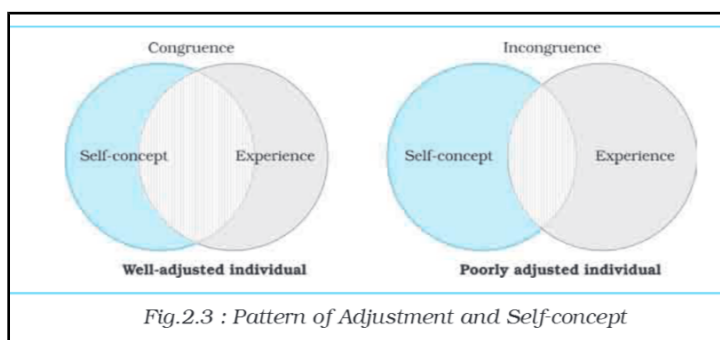
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