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GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY

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Psychology

Psychology is the study of how the human animal senses, perceives, feels, thinks, and acts. Psychologists also study the activities of the other animals and the operations of such artificial systems as computers, both with the goal of better understanding human mentality and activity.

Historically, the definition of psychology has depended on what particular psychologists or schools of psychology have said it was. One outmoded school, known as "faculty psychology" focused on what it conceived of as separate and autonomous powers, or faculties, of the mind, such as perceiving, willing, remembering, reasoning, attending, and imagining. Psychology, then, was the investigation of these neatly compartmentalized faculties. In the late 19th century, while the American philosopher William James was defining psychology as the science that studies thoughts, perceptions, and feelings, which he called the "stream of consciousness" the German psychology as the study of "immediate" experience, or sensation. Beginning in the early 20th century, American psychologists were defining psychology as the study of behavior, denying the accessibility of so-called mental events to science, and even their very existence. Only in the middle- 20th century was the definition of psychology broadened to include cognitive processes, such as learning and memory, and the physiological states and structures that seem to be the physical correlates of these processes ("neuropsychology"). Obviously the various ways in which

psychology has been defined have determined what particular psychologists and schools of psychology have looked for and "discovered". This circularity has now been largely broken, not because there still aren't particular viewpoints that selffulfill their "prophecies" but because so many of them coexist in a richly electric field broad enough to tolerate the diversity. Psychology is no longer defined according to the theory of this or that school or system but rather in terms of specialized fields, such as experimental or physiological physiology, learning, perception, motivation, emotion, personality, comparative psychology, applied psychology, and developmental psychology. Within each field there are divergent viewpoints and philosophies, but together they comprise a sufficiently broad range of theory and methodology so that psychology cannot be said to close off any of the possible approaches to the investigation of human nature.

The definition of psychology

Psychology is the study of the mind and of behavior. To study psychology is to seek to understand how we think, learn, perceive, feel, act, interact with others, and even understand ourselves.

The goals of psychology research

Psychological research has four major goals, all or just some of which a psychologist might try to reach in a particular venture.

A.Description :

Description refers to characterizing how people think, feel or act in response to various kinds of situations. For example, the psychologist might try to specify under what kinds of circumstances a bystander will help an injured motorist, and under what kinds of circumstances the bystander will fail to help.

B.Explanation :

Explanation refers to why people think, feel, or act as they do. In the case of bystander intervention. For example, a psychologist explanation would try to figure out not just when people help or do not help an injured motorist, but also why they help or do not help in the given circumstances.

C.Prediction :

Prediction refers to using data in the present to try to ascertain what will happen in the future. For example, a goal of bystander-intervention research might be o predict when people will or will not help if they should encounter an injured motorist. Similarly, psychologist sometimes try to predict academic or job success on the basis of tests that are given before the actual performance being predicted takes place.

D.Control :

Control refers to active attempts to change thoughts, attitudes, or actions. For example, the psychologist studying bystander intervention might use research on the phenomenon to help increase the chances that people will help injured motorist. Similarly, psychotherapy is sometimes used in order to help people gain better control of their own lives.

Research Methods and Designs in psychology:

Psychology use a number of difference methods in order to carry out their research.

A. Types of methods:

1. Experiments:

An experiment is a controlled investigation in which the effect of manipulating one or more variables on one or more other variables is studied. For example, one might look at the effect of word frequency (e.g., happiness is a relatively higher frequency word, alacrity a relatively lower frequency word) on a person's ability to recall a word when it is presented in a list of words to be memorized.

2. Tests and questionnaires:

A. A test is a producer used to measure an attribute at a particular time and in a particular place. For example, one might attempt to measure reading comprehension by giving a person a test containing several passages, with each passage following by questions assessing understanding of that passage. The score that a person actually receives on the test is referred to as an observed score. The score the person would receive if he or she were to take the test an infinite number of times (but not remember the items from one time to another) is referred top as a true score.

B. A questionnaire, like tests, asks a subject question, but generally there is no one right answer, or even a preferred answer. Rather, the questionnaire is used to determine a person's beliefs. For example, a questionnaire might be used to determine a person's political attitudes, or attitudes toward the death penalty.

3. Case studies:

A. Case study is an intensive investigation of one a small about behavior or its causes. For example, Howard Gruber did a case study of Charles Darwin in which he sought to understand how Darwin came up with his creative ideas. Clinical psychologists often do case studies of patients in order to understand their psychological problems better.

4. Naturalistic observation:

In naturalistic observation, a psychologist observes people (or other organisms) in their environments, usually while they are engaged in the normal everyday activities of their lives. Such observations are also referred to as field studies. The idea is to observe behavior in its natural context in order to ensure that the behavior in its natural context in order to ensure that behavior is representative of what the organism actually does in its daily life, as opposed, say, to what in might do in a laboratory but nowhere else.

SCHOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGY

Numerous schools of psychology originated in the first half of the 20th century. A school of psychology purported to explain all psychological phenomena in terms of psychoanalysis. The most famous and controversial school of psychology, psychoanalysis, was born when the Austrian physician Sigmund Freud and his associate, Josef Breuer, cured "Anna 0." of a neurosis. By, getting the subject to talk about her problems, to vent her feelings and thus experience.

A catharsis, Freud and Breuer cured her of her paralysis. Freud had learned from posthypnotic suggestion that human motivation was unconscious. Examples include slips of the tongue ("Freudian slips"), "purposive" accidents, and similar "psychopathologies of everyday life, as Freud termed them. Freud depended heavily on dream interpretation to fathom the unconscious.

Fears' and desires repressed in ordinary waking consciousness surfaced in dreams. But even here emotions assumed a disguised, "manifest" from which, like a rebus, had to be deciphered so that the "latent" meaning- could be revealed. Thus, dreams themselves were seen as having an "unconscious" substructure. Freud viewed mental illness along a continuum from normal to neurotic to psychotic. But "normality" was only an abstract ideal. No one was free from mental conflict and thus, from repression and unconscious motivation. Consequently no one was truly rational. This pessimistic view of human kind contradicted the assumptions of more than two thousand years of Western thought.

Freud's most famous disciple, the Swiss psychiatrist Carl Jung, extended the concept of the unconscious to include a second level. In addition to a personal unconscious, the product of one's history, Jung postulated a collective unconscious, one that was shared by the entire human race. In the collective or social unconscious were certain "archetypes", or motivational forces. One, for example, the anima, accounted for a man being attracted to a certain type of woman. Jung probed the unconscious not only through dream interpretation but through verbal association, a device now commonly used in the form of a test comprised of a hundred simple words. The subject had to give a rapid response to each word.

A delayed response, inability to respond, or repetition of the word indicated a "complex", an emotionally charged group of ideas in the unconscious.

Another Freudian, Alfred Adler, also developed his own system. Adler, who rejected both Freud's and Jung's emphasis on the unconscious, traced neurosis to an inferiority complex. The primary human motivation was a drive for superiority. Rather than to dreams, Adler looked to early memories as the key to behavior, motivation, and personality. Personality problems arose from a feeling social uselessness. Social feeling or interest was the essential ingredient in a wholesome mental life.

Logo therapy. Founded in the 1940's by the German psychologist Viktor Frankl, logo therapy emphasized the "will to meaning" as the principal human motivation. The infusion of meaning into life was therapeutic. The loss of it produced existential neurosis, a boredom characterized by a feeling of meaninglessness. Neurotics had to be made aware that there was meaning in everything, especially in suffering. If personal misfortune could not be changed, the victim's attitude toward it could be.

<u>Humanistic Psychology.</u> The Adlerian accent on social context moved psychoanalysis away from Freud's emphasis on strictly personal factors, especially those of early childhood, toward cultural and interpersonal explanations of personality. The American psychiatrist Karen Homey insisted that it was culture that was responsible for neurosis Another American psychiatrist, Harry Stack Sullivan, asserted that not only neurosis but psychosis was social in origin. The German psychoanalyst Erich Fromm, disenchanted with Freud's animal model of the human being, at the mercy of primal instincts and urges, developed a humanistic psychology. Fromm insisted that human beings had special needs not found in animals, which must be fulfilled to achieve mental health.

Humanistic psychology was a natural outgrowth of the cultural interpersonal emphasis of Adler, Homey, and Sullivan. By the 1960's its ranks included such influential adherents as Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, and Gordon Allport. A major tenet of this school was the importance of self-fulfillment, the need to actualize the human elements of personality. Another emphasis was on the personality as a whole ("holism") rather than as segmented. Humanistic psychologists rejected reductionism, the translation of human qualities into more "basic" elements. An example was the reduction of love to sexual chemistry or to biological instinct.

Gestalt Psychology:

The gestalt psychologists had taken a holistic approach many decades before humanistic psychology became a movement. Gestaltists traced their history back to 1912 in Germany, when Max Wertheimer discovered the "phi phenomenon", the illusion of motion that results when objects, are shown in a rapid succession of different positions but aren't actually moving from one position to another. Examples of the phi phenomenon are the on-off flashing of neon signs or electric light bulbs and the still, frames that make up a "movie". Such Phenomena demonstrate that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts because there is a quality in the whole that is not found in the parts. Movement is found in the total phenomenon, but when the parts are examined the element of movement is not among them. Wertheimer was soon joined by Wolfgang Khler and Kurt Koffka, and gestalt infiltrated every area of psychology. Kurt Goldstein applied it to Psychopathology, Fritz Perls to psychotherapy, and Abraham Maslow to personality theory. Kurt Lewin explained a variety of psychological phenomena in terms of gestalt, or "field theory"; Other gestaltists applied the theory to psychology of learning, perception, and social psychology).

Other contributions of the gestaltists include the doctrine of "psychophysical isomorphism" (each psychic element has its physical correspondence) "insightful learning" (learning is not gradual but occurs with a sudden insight, a sudden grasping of the meaning of the total situation)

"Relational theory" of meaning (not absolute or individual stimuli are grasped but relations connecting stimuli) "productive thinking" (creative thinking in contrast to rote memory); and "Pragnanz" (good form is motivating).

Factionalism and Behaviorism. From its beginning in the 1880's, psychology in the United States was mostly functional and behavioral. Whereas German psychology was largely structural, with emphasis on the mental content of experiences (sensations, for example), functionalism was concerned less with the structure of the mind than with its operation, not with what the mind was but with what it did and how it behaved. Strict behaviorism went further than functionalism in eliminating all reference to "mind", even to mental operation? . In 1913 the leading, exponent of behaviorism, John Watson, Claimed that he could take any person at random and using only conditioning make that individual a doctor, lawyer, artist, beggar, or thief regardless of "his talents, penchants, tendencies, abilities, vocations, and race of his ancestors".

Subsequent behaviorists, such as C. L. Hull, B. F. Skinner, and Neal Miller, saw no essential difference between, how rats and humans learned: both were subject to all-powerful influence of operant conditioning, the reinforcement of behavior by reward and punishment.

Cognitive:

The greatest challenge to behaviorism came from the cognitivists. By 1930 psychologists in the cognitive tradition of E. C. Tolman had successfully demonstrated that minds existed even in animal?. One experiment showed that rats in a maze operate by "cognitive maps", a perceptual representation of the layout of a maze, rather than by motor conditioning. Similar experiments indicated that Watsonian behaviorism had oversimplified matters and that considerable activity was transpiring within the organism. Neobehaviorists spoke of "intervening variables" to describe these internal phenomena. Hull and others found that animals as well as humans respond more eagerly perform better because of their incentives, their emotional needs and "drives". A major contribution of the cognitivists was the selective preparedness hypothesis. An organism must have the necessary psychological predisposition and mental equipment in order to make appropriate behavioral responses. In other words, there must be "species-specific" characteristics.

This principle holds that Watson was wrong in claiming so much for behaviorism because experimenters. Can try as they may but they will never succeed, for example, in training raccoons to drop coins in a piggy bank because the natural behavior of these animals is to store rather than to give up what they have collected.

Information Processing: Computer Simulation Theory:

An important consequence of cognitive psychology as the use of computers to simulate human learning, memory, judgments, and even neuroses. Calling their system "information processing", Allen Newell. J. C. Shaw, and Herbert A. Simon constructed digital computers to simulate human information processing and problem solving. Of course human reasoning had first to be programmed, into the computer. But then the computer was able to work out problems in chess and checkers comparable to the way the human mind operates by "memory", "judgment", and "trial and error". Having the computer simulate human mental processes aids the psychologist in tearing about how the human mind functions.

At the same time the very use of the word "simulate" is a warning that although computers produce certain results comparable to what persons achieve through processes of learning, memory, and judgment, there is a crucial distinction to be made. A person is, or can be made, aware a person can feel that he or she is applying certain faculties, or capacities, of learning, memory, and judgment. As far as we know, no machine, has any awareness of itself as a unitary, experiencing subject. The machine's automated process of "remembering" is not the same as a person's experience of remembering, which is precisely why "remembers" and other cognitive denoting words must be put into quotes when applied to machines.

The Nature of Personality

A. Personality has been defined as those relatively permanent traits, dispositions, or characteristics of an individual that give some degree of consistency to that individual's behavior.

B. A number of different frameworks have been proposed for understanding personality, six of which are discussed below.

The Nature and Characteristics of Motivation:

A. A motive is a want or a need that causes us to act. Motivation refers to motives collectively, as well as to their study.

B. Psychologists studying motivation deal with four basic questions.

1- What directions do our actions move us in?

2- What motivates us to initiate or start taking action to pursue a particular goal?

3- How intensely do we pursue these actions?

4- Why do some people persist for longer periods of time than do others in the things that motivate them?

The Nature of Sensation:

A sensation is a message that our brain receives from our senses. A sense is a physical system that collects information for the brain either from the external world or from the internal world of the body – and then translates this information into a language that the brain can understand. Certain biological properties are common to all senses.

1- Our sensory organs are stimulated at their receptor cells, which are cells specialized to detect particular kinds of energy in the receptive field, or area of the external world from which the cells receive message.
2- Sensory receptors are able to transducer incoming energy, that is, convert energy from one form that is not usable by the body to another form that is usable.
3- Every Stimulus that we sense has both an intensity, which is the amount of energy sensed (e.g.. physical amount of light), and a quality, the nature of the stimulus (e.g.. a salty versus a sweet taste).

Theories of Perception:

Perception is the set of processes by which we recognize, organize and make sense of the sensations we receive from environmental stimuli. There are two main theories of perception.

1. According to the theory of constructive perception, the perceiver constructs (builds up) the perceived stimulus, using sensory information as the foundation for the structure. This viewpoint is also known as intelligent perception because it holds that higher order thinking plays an important role in perception. This theory is associated with such as Hermann Helmholtz and Irvin Rock.

2. According to the theory of direct perception, the array of information provided by our sensory receptors – including the sensory context – is all we need to perceive anything. In other words, we do not need anything else, such as prior knowledge or thought processes, to mediate between our sensory experiences and our perceptions. This theory is most closely associated with James Gibson. According to David Marr, information provided by the retina, used in direct perception, can be organized through the use of two kinds of features: contours, which differentiate one kind of surface from another; and regions of similarity, which are areas largely undifferentiated from each other.

Attention:

Attention is the link between the enormous amount of information that assails our senses and the limited amount of information that we actually perceive.

A.Selective attention:

Selective attention refers to the fact that we often can track one message while ignoring another. Colin Cherry spoke of selective attention in terms of what he called the cocktail party phenomenon, whereby we can selectively attend to one conversation while screening out other, nearby conversation in cocktail parties.

B.**Experiments on selective attention**:

Experiments on selective attention often involve shadowing, in which each of a subject's ears is presented with a different message, and the subject is required to repeat back the message going to one ear as soon as possible after hearing it. This form of presentation, in which the two ears receive different messages, is referred to as dichotic presentation. When the two ears both receive the same message, the form of presentation is referred to as binaural presentation.

The Nature of Learning:

A. Learning is any relatively permanent change in the behavior, thoughts, and feelings of an organism human or other animal that results from past experience.

B. At one time, learning was defined in terms of changes in observable behavior rather than in terms of changes in the organisms. We now recognize, however, a distinction between learning and performance what an organism actually does. Sometimes, the organism's learning is not reflected in its performance, in which case the learning is referred to as latent learning.

Social Learning:

A. Social learning occurs when we observe the behavior of others, as well as any environmental outcomes of the behavior we observe. In social learning, we do not learn directly, but rather vicariously.

B. Albert Bandura showed social learning in studying children's responses to aggressive adult models. Children who watched an adult model be rewarded for aggressive behavior were more likely themselves to act aggressively than were children who did see the adult rewarded for such behavior.

C. Bandura has suggested that four conditions are necessary for social learning to take place.

1. Attention to the behavior on which the learning might be based.
2. Retention of the observed scene when the opportunity arises later to exploit the learning.
3. Motivation to produce the observed behavior.
4. Potential reproduction of the behavior in other words, you need to be able to do what you saw being done.

The Nature of Thinking:

A. Thinking involves the representation and processing of information in the mind.
   1) In critical thinking, we consciously direct our mental processes to find a thoughtful solution to a problem.
   2) In noncritical thinking, we routinely follow customary thought patterns. At the extreme, such thinking can be what Ellen Langer calls mindless thinking.
B. We sometimes distinguish between two relations of the parts to the whole.
   1) In analysis, we break down wholes into components.
   2) In synthesis, we put components together into wholes.
C. Thinking may also involve two different goals.
1) In divergent thinking, we attempt to generate many ideas.
2) In convergent thinking, we attempt to focus in on a single idea and reach a single solution to a problem.

Problem solving:

A. Problem solving seeks to move from a problem situation to a solution, overcoming obstacles along the way.

B. Problems are often viewed as being of two general kinds.

    1. Well-structured problems have a clear path to solution (e.g.. How do you find the area of a parallelogram?).

    2. Ill-structured problems do not have a clear solution path (e.g., How do you succeed in the career of your choice?).

Defense mechanisms:

1. There are key defense mechanisms that play an important role in protecting the ego from anxiety-provoking information and situations.

2. These defense mechanisms, shown in Table 20.1. are used when we cannot face up to unpleasant situations that confront us.

Defense Mechanisms:

Mechanism	Description
Denial	Denial occurs when our minds prevent us from thinking about unpleasant, unwanted, or threatening situations. It also screens out anxiety-providing physical sensations in our own bodies.
Repression	Repression is the internal counterpart denial; we unknowingly exclude from consciousness any unacceptable and potentially dangerous impulses.
Projection	We attribute our own unacceptable and possibly dangerous thoughts or impulses to another person. Projection allows us to be aware of the thought or impulse but to attribute it to someone else, whereas repression keeps the thought out of consciousness altogether.
Displacement	We redirect an impulse away from the person who prompts it and toward another person who is safe substitute.
Sublimation	We redirect socially unacceptable impulses, transforming the psychic energy of unacceptable impulses into acceptable and even admirable behavioral expressions.
Reaction formation	This defense mechanism transforms an unacceptable impulse or thought into its opposite. By unconsciously convincing ourselves that we think or feel exactly the

	opposite of what we actually do unconsciously think or feel, we protect our positive views of ourselves.
Rationalization	Through rationalization, we can avoid threatening thoughts and explanations of behavior by replacing them with non-threatening ones.
Regression	When we regress, we revert to thinking and behaving in ways that are characteristic of an earlier stage of Socio-emotional development. In this way, we ward off the anxiety, or pain that we are experiencing in our present stage of development.
Fixation	Fixation occurs when a person simply stops developing socio-emotionally, because something prevents the person from advancing to the next stage of socioemotional development. Note that the regressed person has temporarily returned to a previous stage, whereas a fixated person has never progressed to the next stage.

The Nature of Consciousness:

Consciousness is the complex process of keeping track of and valuating our environment, and then filtering that information through our minds.

Purpose of consciousness:

Consciousness serves four mate purposes.

1- Capriciousness aids in survival by allowing us to register, process, and use information. We make sense of the world to process. And use information. We make sense of the world to avoid danger, purpose mates, and accomplish other goals.
2- Cunseioasniess Helps us lifter out extraneous stimuli that are Mr useful to us. Such as noises in the background when we are working.
3- Consciousness allows us to plan what to do, keep track of what we are doing and remember what we've done.
4- Consciousness gives us a sense of personal identity, as noted by the seventeenth-century British philosopher, John Locke.

Levels of Consciousness:

Sigmund Freud, the great twentieth-century Austrian psychologist, and others have suggested that consciousness operates at multiple levels.

A. The conscious level:

The conscious level is we are aware of. It is what William James, the early twentieth-century Harvard psychologist, referred to as the "stream of thought".

B. The preconscious level:

1- The preconscious level comprises information that could become conscious readily, but that is not continuously available at the Conscious level. Most automatic behavior, such as dialing a familiar telephone number of deciding which muscles to move in order to stand up, occurs at this level. The tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon, which occurs when we are trying to remember something we already know but cannot quite retrieve (such as a name to go with a face), is also preconscious.

2- In subliminal perception, we detect information without being aware we are doing so. During the 1950s, advertisers tried to sell products by pacing rapidly flashed subliminal messages (such as "Buy Popcorn") on movie screens. This practice was discontinued because of negative public reaction.

C. The subconscious level:

1. Information at the subconscious level is not easily accessible in consciousness. The team is sometimes used interchangeably with the term unconscious, whereas other times, the latter term is used to refer to a level even deeper and less accessible than that represented by the subconscious.

2. Freud suggested that material we find too difficult to handle at a conscious level is repressed, that is, never admitted past the unconscious level, Freud believed slips of the tongue represent inadvertent surfacing of unconscious material (e.g., I'm glad to beat you "replacing" I'm glad to meet you).

Sleep and dreams as altered states of consciousness:

Sleep and dreams represent one of several altered states of consciousness, whereby awareness is somehow changed from that of our normal, waking state.

In such states:

1. Perceptions are typically different from those of the normal waking state.
2. Thinking is typically shallow and uncritical.
3. Bizarre ideas or images many seem real and acceptable (e.g.. flying under one's own power).
4. Inhibitions in thinking or behavior may be weakened.

The Nature of Emotion:

A. An emotion is a feeling, a tendency to respond experientially as well as physiologically and behaviorally to certain internal and external variables.
B. Emotions can be either preprogrammed or learned, and they can be manifested behaviorally in a variety of ways, such as by smiling, frowning, and crying.
C. Emotions seem to serve an important adaptive function. They enable us to respond to situations in appropriate ways. For example, anger or tear may be appropriate in the face of aggression, and lead us either to counterattack or to run away.

Definitions of Intelligence:

Intelligence is often defined as goal-directed adaptive behavior. But there have been a variety of definitions of the construct.

A. In 1921. 14 famous psychologists published articles in the Journal of Educational Psychology stating their views on intelligence. Certain common attributes emerged, namely, (a) the capacity to learn from experience and (b) the ability to adapt to the surrounding environment.

B. In 1986. A volume edited by Robert Sternberg and Douglas Detterman presented the views of 24 experts in the field on the definition of intelligence. In addition to emphasizing learning from experience and adaptation, the experts also emphasized the importance of (c) metacognition people's understating and control of their own thinking processes.

Testing of Intelligence:

A. The concept of mental age:

1. Binet introduced the concept of the mental age. Which is a person's level of intelligence expressed in terms of the performance of an average person of a given age. Thus, if you are performing at the level of a typical 12-years-old. You would have a mental age of 12, regardless of your chronological age- that is physical age.

2. The concept of mental age is rarely used today because of a variety of problems associated with its use. Such as (a) mental age

increase more slowly after about age 16, and then increase little if at all soon thereafter and (b) discontinuities appear in mental-age construct suspect.

B. The concept of the IQ:

1. William Stern, a German psychologist, suggested that intelligence test scores be expressed in terms of an intelligence quotient. or IQ, equal to the ratio:

$$IQ = \text{TM} \quad \frac{\textbf{Mental age (MA)}}{\textbf{Chronological age (CA)}} \times 100$$

For example, if an individual had a mental age of 10 and chronological age of 8, the individual's IQ would be (10/8) ×100 or, 125.

2. Such an IQ is today called a ratio IQ, because it is calculated on the basis of a ratio of MA to CA. Ratio IQs are rarely today, because of the fact that the concept of mental age has fallen into disfavor.

3. Generally, the type of IQ in use today is the deviation IQ, [which is calculated on the basis of normal distributions] (see chapter 3). The individual's percentile score is computed, and then an IQ is calculated so as to create a score with a mean of 1100 and a standard deviation of either 15 or 16.

Improving Intelligence:

A. Today, many researchers believe that intelligence is [malleable, that is, susceptible to change through environmental interventions].

B. Major intervention programs, such as Head Start, seem to have had at least some effect upon IQ. However, it is not clear how durable the effect is, Long-term follow-ups suggest that children who participated in Head Start tended to exceed non-head Start children in grade attained, as well as in scores on various tests. At the same time, if children are returned to impoverished environments after they have participated in an [intervention program, their scores on tests may well decline to what they were before].

C. Other invention programs have also ad some success in liaising IQ scores, such as Project Intelligence in Venezuela and Reuven Feuerstein's program of Instrumental Enrichment.

D. Robert Bradley and Bettye Caldwell found a number of factors in the home that seem to be related to the development of children's intelligences, such as the responsively of the primary caregiver and the care-giver's involvement with the child.

E. Although no program can reliably produce stunning gains in intelligence, a number of programs appear to produce small to moderate and potentially sustainable gains.

A number of competent authorities question whether abnormality exists at all. If abnormality is simply deviation established convention and authority is psychopathology, then, merely cultural deviation? Evidence such a relativist conclusion is that there seems to be no universal form of mental illness further, a number of disorders that in the past were designated mental illness but it is longer considered so. Homosexuality, for example, was long regarded as a form of mental illness but it is no longer ordered so by the American Psychiatric Association. The same is true for psychosomatic disorders. Relativists also point to an experiment in which a group of psychologists and psychiatrists found a normal person abnormal (though perhaps "normal person" should be put in quotes; Freud stated that none existed!). In the experiment an actor was tutored on how to behave in order to give the appearance of seeming as normal as possible because a distinguished. Psychiatrist had let slip the comment, "a very interesting, man because he looks neurotic, but actually is quite, psychotic," none of the psychiatrists present certified him normal. Equally disturbing are the results of an experiment in which eight mentally healthy subjects feigned mental Banes in order to gain admittance to psychiatric hospitals, fence-admitted, the subjects, behaved normally but nevertheless the hospital staff never questioned the diagnosis. The skepticism of "Can we recognize mental Bless?" can thus be extended to the "atheism" of "Does mental illness exist?"

The Medical Model of Mental Disease. Adherents of the Medical model believe that mental disorder is a disease comparable to physical illness and should be treated with Drugs. However, there is support for the view that mental disturbance is essentially an emotional problem of living, the only exception being organic psychosis. Adherents of this view would include schizophrenics in the category of those troubled by life's emotional problems. Reasons for being cautious of those troubled by life's emotional problems. Reasons for being cautious about calling schizophrenia a disease are that virtually no textbook schizophrenics exist universal schizophrenic symptoms cannot be found; precision concerning the definition of schizophrenia is lacking; various idiosyncracies can be and have erroneously been dubbed schizophrenic; physical diseases are cured by medication, surgery, or other physical means, yet even when schizophrenia is chemically treated it is in conjunction with psychotherapy; and if neuroses and psychoses' such as schizophrenia were true diseases then it would be possible to have both simultaneously, but in feet it's not. Another argument for schizophrenia as an emotional problem rather than a disease is that there is no animal model of it. However, supporters of the medical model can point to Evidence that certain drugs have proved effective in the treatment of schizophrenia and other mental illness. Categories of Mental Disorders. The Diagnostic and statistical Manual of Mental Disorders of the American psychiatric Association lists 18 major diagnostic categories mental disorder.

They include schizophrenia (characterized by thought disorder, delusions, and hallucinations); paranoid disorders (delusions of persecution or jealousy); schizoaffective disorders (manic or depressive states); affective disorders (mood disturbances); anxiety disorders (phobias and other anxieties not found in schizophrenia or effective disorders); factitious disorders Hysteria and other "unreal" symptoms psychologically produced because of some "voluntary" control of the individual); somatoform disorders (physical symptoms of organic explanations, including conversion disorders); dissociative disorders (psychogenic amnesia psychogenic fugue, multiple personality, and depersonalization); personality disorders (conduct disorder, shyness, introverted personality, avoidant personality, schizotypal personality, histrionic personality, narcissistic personality, antisocial personality, dependent personality, compulsive personality, and passive-aggressive personality disorders); psychosexual disorders (gender identity disorders, transsexuals, paraphilias, fetishism, transvestism, zoophilia, pedophilia, exhibitionism, voyeurism, sexual masochism, sexual sadism, and psychosexual dysfunctions); disorders usually arising in childhood or adolescence (mental retardation, infantile autism, hyperactivity, development disorders such as language and reading disorders, conduct disorders, (separation anxiety and other anxiety disorders, elective mutism, anorexia nervosa and other eating disorders, stuttering, tics, identity disorders and other disorders characteristic of adolescence); reactive disorders (stress and

adjust mental disorders); disorders of impulse control (kleptomania, pyromania, pathological gambling, impulse control and other explosive disorders); and sleep disorders. Anxiety Disorders.

Anxiety manifests itself in a variety of forms: phobia, panic, anxiety state for which there is no reasonable objective cause; and disguised anxiety. Disguised anxiety is often cloaked by hypochondria, or physically un based concern about heart attacks, cancer, and the like. Anxiety, would be minimal, if persons were equipped with warning signals for every eventuality. But individuals never know with absolute certainty when not to be afraid and are therefore susceptible to a state of more or less constant dread.

Anxiety not only takes different forms of expression including repression, but it is possible that not all anxiety is the same. It would seem that anxiety that neurotics suffer must differ from that which pains the schizophrenic because the antanxiety tranquilizers chlordiazepoxide (Librium) and diazepam (Valium) are effective in relieving neurotic anxiety but not the anxiety of the schizophrenic.

Schizophrenia Most psychoses, for example manic disorders and depressive disorders, are disturbances of mood. Schizophrenia, however, is a disorder of thought. The various forms of cognitive disorder manifested in schizophrenia include the Von Domarus principle, palelogic thinking, overinclusive thinking, loss of major sets; broken associative threads, and abstract-concrete deficit. Some of these terms overlap. The "Von Domarus principle" is the mistaken identification of two objects merely because they share a common quality.

PSYCHOLOGY AS A PROFESSION:

Prior to World –War II, most psychologists were associated with universities. Since the 1940's increasing numbers of psychologists have worked in hospitals, industry, government, military service, and community mental health centers. Many have also established private practice.

One of the most rapidly growing fields is clinical psychology, concerned with the diagnosis and treatment- of psychological problems. In most states in the United States psychologists engaged in clinical psychology are required to be certified. Graduate institutes of psychology, such as the California School of Professional Psychology and the one at Rutgers University, are structured for the special training of clinical psychologists. Some professional schools of psychology issue the Psy. D. (Doctor of Psychology) degree rather than the

Ph.D. as health providers, clinical psychologists are expected to be certified with the Council for the National Register of Health Service Providers in Psychology. Like Physicians, clinical psychologists carry malpractice insurance and can be summoned before a board of their peers for conduct unbecoming their profession. Unlike psychiatrists, however, psychologists cannot write prescriptions for drugs, in other respects the gap between psychiatrists and clinical psychologists is continually narrowing, partly due to the latter's important contributions. To psychotherapy. Most of the newer systems of psychotherapy developed in recent decades have been devised by psychologists. These include such widely used systems as Rogerian or client-centered therapy, behavior therapy, and rational-emotive therapy (Albert Ellis). Many the diagnostic and testing procedures mentioned previously were also developed by psychologists.

Closely related to and overlapping the work of clinical psychologists is that of the school psychologist and counseling psychologist, who are involved in educational guidance career planning, the administration and interpretation of aptitude tests, intelligence tests, and achievement tests. Another field related to clinical psychology is community mental health. Effective work in community mental health, however, calls for more than the efforts of psychologists, psychiatrists, and psychiatric social workers. The efforts of layperson are also needed, especially in crisis intervention, which requires the assistance of anyone who

is present during the crisis. Another distinguishing characteristic of community mental health is its concern with the environmental setting and its effect on the mental health of the community.

Organizational, engineering, and industrial psychologists serve as consultants to business and industry. They also perform research and experimentation for the business, industrial, and engineering-world. A major concern is elevating employee morale and productivity. More basically, they are concerned with the human factor as it relates to machines. Engineers, for example, may build more sophisticated airplanes and wartime fighting equipment, but it is left to the engineering psychologist to determine whether the human being, in terms of noise, fatigue, and stress, is able to cope with such advanced equipment.

APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY is the term used to describe those phases of psychology that deal with practical problems. In pure, our experimental, psychology the researcher is never asked whether his investigations have to do with useful ends. He or she may, and does, work on any problem that increases knowledge of human behavior. While his or her researches may ultimately find useful application, this is not of concern while investigations are under way. By contrast, the applied psychologist finds his or- her problems in the everyday practical affairs of people; he or she seeks constantly to aid in solving practical problems. The contrast between pure and applied psychology may be made clearer by illustration. The pure psychologist has worked on such problems as how we learn new skills, why square tables look square when the image on the eye is not square, and how people judge the lapse of time. Investigations on such topics provide the psychologist with systematic analysis of human behavior. The applied psychologist, on the other hand, has worked on such problems as how to select taxi' drivers, how long to make a line of type, and how to make airplane instruments more readable. Some of his or her work is done in the laboratory, but much of it must be done in the field. Whether he or she works, he or she is interested in useful outcomes. Thus the applied psychologist may do research in a factory on the causes of labor turnover. He or she may serve in a school as counselor on choice of vacation. He or she may be

called in to advise army or navy officials on the problem of adapting gunsights to the limitations of human eyesight. The applied psychologist may use facts and methods developed by the pure psychologist. He or she may, for example, utilize the known laws of learning in writing a manual for salespeople. Likewise, he or she may take what the pure psychologist has discovered about color vision and use it to prevent confusion between the colors of jerseys on the basketball court. On the other hand, he or she may, and often does, develop his or her own methods and discover his or her own facts. In this way it often happens that applied psychology, while receiving help from pure psychology, contributes in its own right to the overall growth of psychology, as a science concerned with the study of human behavior. See also psychology.

CHILD PSYCHOLOGY AND DEVELOPMENT

Is the study of the behavior and mental development of children. Some authorities restrict the word "child" to the ages before adolescence; others include the entire period of development. Here the broader definition will be adopted but with greater emphasis on the early years because of the rapid development changes which occur at that time.

One may investigate child behavior with either of two objectives:

1) to understand children, how they react to situations, how they feel, think, and perceive, or

2) to understand how children develop into adults, to predict that development, and to know how the events of childhood affect it.

Many different lines of investigation converge upon the study of child development; and many fields depend upon the findings of child psychology. Theoretical fashions shift from hereditary predetermines to emphasis upon childhood experiences and back again, but in current research both points of view are represented.

DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS:

The success of intelligence testing in predicting school achievement had an important effect upon die study of child psychology. It suggested strongly the possibility of plotting a psychological growth curve that resembled physical growth curves that had already been extensively studied. Research in physical growth (especially in height) had shown that such curves were remarkably stable. While they are modifiable to a minor degree by the ordinary vicissitudes of life, such as illness or poor nutrition, the child's over-all physical growth seems to unroll in a generally predetermined way. Furthermore, there are immediately after birth. These include fear, distress, anger, joy, surprise, and others. Each of these emotions are :

1) aroused in quite specific situations;

2) have specific facial expressions that go with them; and 3) are expressed by specific kinds of behavior. Anger, for example, is aroused by frustration or interference with the child's ongoing behavior; the facial expressions and the behavior that express anger are recognizable even in the young baby. These same emotional expressions are also found in many different cultures, which supports further the belief that they are innate.

The most important question about emotional development is how emotion becomes integrated into cognitive processes. Not only does the expression of different emotions change with age, but there are also changes in the situations that produce emotional reactions.

The infant is angered most frequently by the imposition of such physical routines as dressing and wasting. The preschool child can be angered for more subtle reasons, another characteristic of emotional development is that in infancy emotional behavior is directly expressive. Later, emotional behavior becomes more adaptive. Below the age of one year, for example, children's anger appears almost solely in the form of emotional outbursts. By the age of four, however, children can express their anger in the form of a direct attack upon the person or thing that made them angry.

An important aspect of maturity is emotional control. This means the suppression of the more violent displays of emotion, and also the ability to behave in an intelligent and effective way in situations that arouse strong emotional feelings. Such emotional control is riot merely a matter of preventing emotional feelings, but of using them to motivate fits one of them is also played, he prefers (i.e., looks More at) the one that matches the sound track. The importance of the sound track is seen if the infant is presented with the same two films but without a sound track at all. Now he gazes at die two different visual presentations about equally.

The visual field is not just a blur; the infant will try to bring the visual field into focus. If tile experimenter arranges things so that the infant's rapid sucking on a nipple brings the visual stimulus into focus, the infant will suck the nipple very rapidly, but if rapid sucking puts the object out of focus, the infant's rate of sucking drops.

During early mtancy, the baby's exploration cannot be well controlled or systematic, but by the age of five months, the infant can begin to reach for objects and put them in his mouth. A few months later he can begin to search for objects and before the end of the first year can actively explore his environment. When the child begins to walk, his exploration becomes much more extensive.

Motor development. Arnold Gesell and his colleagues and students at Yale University are responsible for much of the knowledge of motor development. They based their descriptions on frame-by-frame analysis of motion pictures of children's motor behavior at various age levels.

Gesell did not, however, limit his investigations to the motor sphere. He included language, adaptive, and personal-social behavior as well. On die basis of his work modem developmental scales were developed. The best known scale is the Bayley Scales of Infant Development, which includes motor, language, adaptive behavior, and social items and permits the assessment of children up to two years of age.

Sensory and perceptual development; the abilities of the newborn child are being investigated. New findings consistently demonstrate his unexpected capacities. For example, the newborn distinguishes between the language sounds (phonemes) that will be important later in learning to comprehend language. Even more surprising, the newborn seems able to perceive shape constancy. If a rectangular shape (like a book) is viewed from a 90 degree angle, the stimulus on the retina is rectangular. If the book is viewed from other angles, the retinal image varies from one trapezoidal shape to another, yet the book is perceived as rectangular. This is called shape constancy.

How do we know if the young infant sees a shape as constant when its orientation changes? When the infant is presented with the same visual, stimulus over and over again, he habituates to its shape and his visual fixations on it become shorter and shorter. This is called habituation. If the stimulus is changed, he fixates on it longer than if the old stimulus were repeated, which means he can distinguish between the old and the new stimulus. Thus, researchers can tell if a baby distinguishes between a face right side up and upside down, or a rectangle seen frontally and a rectangle seen from an angle.

Despite these early accomplishments, the infant is still relatively unskillful. There is a consistent increase in sensory discrimination as the child grows older. Accuracy of color matching, fineness of depth perception, and auditory acuity, for example, all improve with age. Some of an infant's capacities, however, are present early but disappear and then reappear several months later in a more sophisticated form. Whatever capacity the infant demonstrates, it is the rule for him to become more discriminating and accurate with age.

Emotional Development. The best hypothesis is that there are a small number of so called basic emotions that seem to be innate, although they don't all appear individual differences in these physical growth curves that can be identified relatively early in life.

Much of the child developmental research in the 1920V and 1930's was directed toward the study of the developmental process under the basic assumption that it was relatively fixed and predetermined thus, many investigations were designed to describe the sequence of development in all areas of child, psychology-motor development, perceptual development, emotional development, and so forth. There is no longer the faith that the course of development is strongly predetermined, but careful descriptions of developmental sequences are still important data on which theories of child development must be based.

Exploratory Behavior. The recent findings in the behavior of infants have generally found that they have more competence than we used to believe. One of the reasons is that many of the stimulus situations that were presented to the baby were static situations, a circle, or a colored figure, or a simple stimulus. When babies are presented with changing stimuli, and most particularly when they are allowed to explore their environment, visually or meteorically, they seem much more mature and competent.

The infant from birth on is an active exploring person especially when objects in his field of vision move or when the visual stimulus is changing in other ways. The baby visually scans his environment, although not very skillfully at first, and can visually follow a large moving object. Looking and listening are already coordinated to some degree. A sound can capture the infant's attention and provoke eye movements toward it. When a four-month-old is presented with two films of different simple events, played simultaneously side by side while a sound track that effective behavior. Effective behavior of the witness to an accident need not be unsympathetic, but his sympathy should be expressed in the form of prompt first aid and securing medical assistance rather than in loud wailing and weeping.

PREDICTION OF INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT

Investigators typically study groups of children at different age levels and contrast the behaviors found in one age group with those found in another. This is the cross – sectional approach to the study of development. It is well adapted to sketching out the general picture of development and to determining the average developmental sequence, but it is not possible by the cross – sectional procedure to study individual differences in development. In physical growth, for example, children who show a pre-adolescent spurt in their rate of growth earlier than average also tend to be the children who as adults are shorter than average.

This sort of finding can best be discovered by studying the same group of individual children over a long period of time and plotting individual curves of development. Such a study is called a longitudinal study, in contrast to the cross – sectional type. During the 1920's a number of longitudinal growth studies were initiated at Harvard University, the University of California, the Fells Research Institute, and elsewhere. Most of these growth studies had as their original objective the plotting of individual growth curves in as many aspects of development as possible. The child's physical, physiological, and psychological development was followed from birth to the end of major developmental changes. Such studies have shown that the general average features of development are predictable.

Furthermore, acceleration or retardation in one aspect of development tends to go with acceleration or retardation in other sorts of development, although there are deviations from perfect predictability.

MODIFIABILITY OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS

Part of the predictability of the child's development depends on the fact that a child's environment tends to remain constant. For many practical purposes this relative constancy of the environments is a fortunate thing. If we want to predict ahead of time whether a child will enter college, we should take into account not only the predictability of the inherent developmental sequence (like IQ), which will probably remain constant, but also the general features of the child's environment, such as the educational level 01 me parents and the availability of books in the home. For other purposes, the constancy of the environment may create the impression that the developmental sequence is less modifiable than it actually is.

If we think of introducing modifications in our educational program we need to know the limits of modifiability of development. We could start teaching children to read at the age of three. Would it be effective? Knowing merely that the average child in our society does not learn to read until the age of six or seven does not imply that he could not have learned earlier.

Much child development research in the 1920s and 1930s was carried on to determine the limits of modifiability. One strategy was to study child development in other societies where there are differences in some of the basic features of child rearing. Another strategy was to provide an experimental group of children with special treatment, usually special attempts to accelerate the development. Such a strategy is especially effective if homozygous (identical) twins are used for the study. If one member of each twin pair is given special training while the other is allowed to develop normally for children in that society, the fact that the heredity of the twins is identical allows the effect of the special training to be measured more precisely. This particular strategy is called the method of co – twin control.

Constancy of the Intelligence Quotient (IQ). One of the areas in which the modifiability of development was the subject of great controversy is that of intellectual development. To what degree is the child's intelligence modifiable by environmental circumstances? The basic undeniable fact is that intellectual ability increases as the child grows up and that this increase is general predictable. The problem of the constancy of the IQ is, however, somewhat different. (the IQ is a measure of intelligence obtained by dividing the individual's mental age, as determined by performance on certain standardized tests, by his chronological age, and multiplying the ratio by 100). Longitudinal studies of intelligence test scores show that children obtaining high scores at one age tend to have high

scores at a later age. This predictability is higher the shorter the period between the two tests, and there is more predictability when the child is older than when he is very young. There is less variability between ages seven and twelve than between ages two and seven.

On the other hand, there are substantial numbers of cases that show very great changes in test scores. Variations of 30 to 50 IQ points are found in significant numbers. The hypothesis of an absolute constancy of IQ is thus difficult to accept.

If IQ is not constant then it should be possible to systematically change it. There is considerable evidence that IQ is lowered by extreme environmental impoverishment because the usual intelligence tests depend upon a certain equality of opportunity. Groups of children, for example, who never attend school obtain lower scores than average, and their scores relative to the average child in the United States decline the cider they become because test items may depend upon information or skills usually acquired in school. Such results might reflect the unsuitability of the tests for such children – that they are somewhat like children who are required to take an intelligence test in a foreign language. Such children are, however, at a disadvantage not only in intelligence tests but in many other competitive situations in society since they too depend upon formal education.

Environmental enrichment tries to reverse the effect of earlier environmental impoverishment. The Head Start Program, tied to public education, is a good example. Early evaluations of Head Start were discouraging; the improvement in performance seemed to disappear soon after the enriched program ended. But later studies uncovered some long lasting benefits.

One strategy of environmental enrichment was to try to enrich the child's home environment by teaching parents to provide more simulation and encouragement. This strategy proved relatively successful. Some analysts feel, however, that the so-called impoverishment of homes of poor children is a fiction. Such children may be learning a great deal but not the content and skills that the educational system demands. Perhaps the educational system should adapt to the child as well as the child adapting to the system.

It is probably fair to conclude that the IQ is not unmodifiable and that it is lowered by a variety of environmental impoverishments. On the other hand there are clearly limits on the modifiability of intellectual development.

Environmental enrichment should probably be considered as something to accelerate the development of all children – as perhaps the television program Sesame Street has done. In the studies of special training of children or of one member of a homozygous twin pair, the usual finding is that the accelerated training is temporarily effective, but inefficient. It takes a long time to train a skill when die child is too young, and a few months later when the other twin has developed it there is little if any difference between die two.

The practical implication of these findings is that there is an efficient time for training skills if one is interested solely in obtaining the most effect from the least training. But it is dangerous to generalize much further. It may be that a skill is so important that it should be taught early, even if inefficiently. Furthermore, none of these studies has systematically built one skill upon another over a long period of time. Thus, learning to read early , even if it were accomplished slowly, might expose the child to so much information that he would have a long-time advantage over the child who delayed learning to read until he acquired it more readily.

One interesting finding in this area comes largely from work with animals. There is a critical period in the development of some behaviors in animals during which a particular kind of experience is necessary if the development is to proceed. Chicks normally learn to peek within a few days of hatching, and if a chick is kept in an incubator for only a few days he rapidly catches up when he is allowed free pecking opportunities. If, however, he is not given an opportunity to peek for two weeks after hatching, he will never learn the skill. Similarly, some behavior patterns seem to be learned in a very firm way through a small amount of experience at the critical period. Ducklings, for example, become inseparably attached to the object that they follow during the critical period soon after hatching. Normally this object is the mother duck, and thereafter the ducklings trail after the mother. But Konrad Lorenz showed that if the ducking is exposed to a person rather than to the mother duck during the critical period, it will follow that person just as if it were the mother duck. This phenomenon is called imprinting and represents one extreme example of a critical period.

The phenomenon of imprinting has never been clearly established in human children, but efforts to establish it have been far from exhaustive. Similarly, the hypothesis of critical periods in the child's life has been advanced frequently, but no clearly demonstrated example of a critical period has been produced. There seems no reason to suppose both phenomena cannot exist in human development.

CURRENT THEORIES AND RESEARCH

One of the factors underlying behavioral development is maturation and in all probability it is the behavioral manifestation of the process of biological growth. However, maturation is not the only factor bringing about orderliness in the development of different children. Two other factors are important. One is that the environments into which all children are born contain many common features. The child gradually adapts to the demands of the environment and thus common environments tend to bring out common adaptions. The most striking similarity in the environments of all children is the common physical world governed by common physical laws. For example, the child just beginning to walk takes a wide stance with his feet farther apart than is common among adults. The development of walking must contain many maturational factors, but this particular one may reflect merely the fact that gravity is operating and that a wide, stance provides greater stability than standing and walking with the feet close together. Adults standing on a moving subway car also adept a wider stance if they have nothing to hold onto. Such considerations as this make it difficult to say whether or not the wide stance of the toddler is inherent in the maturation process.

A second factor underlying the similar developments of different children is the common child rearing practices within a single culture. The process by which the child is oriented into the abilities, customs, and habits of his society is called socialization. No infant in any culture behaves the way that adults in that culture are expected to behave. Thus, one aspect of socialization is the requirement that the child change his behavior patterns from those that he had during infancy into those that are characteristic of the adult.

In any particular culture, therefore, the child's development is governed by inherent biological trends, by the stable demands of the environment in which the child lives, and by the socialization practices of that particular society, as well as by many factors of personal character, including family and environment and personal history.

PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY

An important influence on the research of developmental psychologists in the 1930's was psychoanalytic theory. It hardly resembled learning theory, but one of its important tenets was that the development of the child's personality could be massively changed by the influence of the interpersonal relationships within the family.

Sigmund Freud's formulation of psychoanalytic theory was a major influence not only on psychology and psychiatry, but on the development of 20th – century belief systems. Freud developed his theories from his experience… with the therapeutic treatment of neurotic patients. He first began to publish his theory before the turn of the century and continued to publish until nearly 1940. From the very beginning he emphasized that childhood experiences and attitudes could be crucial in later development. He particularly emphasized the importance of the child's sexual impulses and the accompanying development of love and aggression.

In relation to child development the central feature of psychoanalytic theory is a series of stages of emotional and personality development. Erik Erikson distinguished eight stages of development from infancy to old age. These are challenges or crises that people must face and whose resolution may affect later development. The eight stages are:

1- Trust. In early infancy babies depend solely on other people for their welfare. If they are well cared for, they establish a basic trust in the reliability of other people.

2- Autonomy. When children are able to move around and control their own behavior, they must learn to use their skills but also to control their behavior. Under favorable circumstances they develop a sense of their autonomy and independence.

3- Initiative, the vigorous child during the late preschool years must learn to enjoy yet control his intrusiveness, I such as insatiable curiosity, demands for attention, and vigorous exploration of the unknown. These abilities provide foundation for ambition and purpose in life.

4- Industry. During the school age years, the child must cope with the problems of achievements or failing to achieve.

5- Identity, the problem of adolescence is primarily to achieve a sense of personal identity, a feeling of knowing what he or she is and wants to be.

6- Intimacy. Especially acute in early adulthood is the problem of establishing a close intimate relation with another person and facing the dangers of being abandoned on the one hand or completely taken over by the other person on the other.

7- Generativity, this is a particular concern of middle age. There is the responsibility not only of guiding and encouraging one's children but also of functioning as a

mentor to other young people, often in professional or vocational areas.

8- Integrity. Out of the resolution of these problems comes a sense of integrity, a feeling of a unified, meaningful self-prepared for the inevitability of death.

From the point of view of psychoanalytic theory, the events of childhood may foster the development of each of these stages, or they may hamper their development. If the individual does not resolve any of these issues satisfactorily, that fact will influence the resolution of later challenges or may in extreme cases lead to the development of psychopathology later in life.

In earlier readings' of psychoanalytic theory, it appeared that the handling of weaning, toilet training, and childhood masturbation should have important consequences for later personality. It is clear now that the crises of childhood are not so specific. These concrete issues may be involved, but later development is more a function of general interpersonal styles of child rearing, attachments to other people, the handling of aggression, and the like.

Influence of other Childhood Events. While single dramatic events do not seem to have major effects, there is increasing evidence that the characteristics of the child's life that persist for a long time and color all his experiences do have marked effects.

Many of the factors that were studied for their effects on development are those that were first suggested by psychotherapists from their experience with older patients. If a group of adult psychiatric patients is studied to determine their childhood environments, it is typical to find that among the group there will be more than the average number of broken homes, institutionalization of the patient as a child, parental conflict, lack of sympathy between parent and child, severe methods of child rearing, and the like. Many of the same feature, will be discovered if the home backgrounds of a group of adult criminals are investigated.

Such studies can be misleading. Working backwards, they try to justify effects by finding appropriate causes. Broken homes and similar negative features are found in the backgrounds of normal people, and such difficulties in childhood may under some conditions, lead to certain valuable personality traits. It is important not only to look retrospectively at the childhood experience of maladjusted adults, but to begin with specific childhood experiences and study all the outcomes in a true sample of children exposed to such experiences.

One of the factors most consistently related to personality disturbance is the child's having been kept in an institution for a long period during his early years, particularly during the latter part of infancy. Most such institutions take good care of the child physically and given him an adequate diet, but their staffs are so limited that the children must of necessity spend a great

deal of time by themselves without adult attention. Studies have found that in such settings children develop less rapidly and often have disturbed interpersonal relations.

Even brief periods of hospitalization may cause personality problems. Hospitalized children usually cry for their parents for a while, but, -more seriously, they may withdraw and become unresponsive to other people. Such symptoms do not always occur, and, if they do, they ordinarily disappear after the child goes home. But the problem is serious enough so that many hospitals are encouraging mere mother-child contact during a hospital stay and providing material to help prepare the child for his hospital experience.

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