



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

COURSE CODE: PED420

COURSE TITLE: Social Psychology of Instruction

COURSE GUIDE**PED420 Social Psychology of Instruction**

Course Developer Ezeh, P.S.E. (Ph.D)
Department of Educational Foundations,
Faculty of Education,
Enugu State University of Science &
Technology,
Enugu.

Course Writer: Ezeh, P.S.E. (Ph.D)
Department of Educational Foundations,
Faculty of Education,
Enugu State University of Science &
Technology,
Enugu.

Course Editor: Prof. Nduka Okoh
Faculty of Education
University of Benin

Staff in charge Dr D N Ofoha
National Open University of Nigeria
Victoria Island Lagos

Course Co-ordinator: Dr D N Ofoha
National Open University of Nigeria
Victoria Island Lagos

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island
Lagos.

Abuja Annex
245 Samuel Adesujo Ademulegun Street
Central Business District
Opposite Arewa Suites
Abuja.

e-mail: centralinfo@non.edu.ng

URL: www.nou.edu.ng

First Printed 2099

ISBN:

All Rights Reserved

Printed by:

For

National Open University of Nigeria

TABLE OF CONTENTS		PAGE
1.0	Introduction	1
2.0	Objectives	
3.0	Main Content	
3.1.	Writing an Introduction to the course guide	
3.2.	A Guide through the course	
3.2.1	Course Aims and Objectives	
3.2.2	Course materials and structure	
3.2.3	How to Get the most from the course	
3.3.	Course Delivery	
3.3.1	Facilitation	
3.3.2	Tutorials	
3.3.3	Counselling	
3.4.	Assessment	
3.4.1	Self Assessment Exercise	
3.4.2	Tutor-Marked Assignment	
3.4.3	Final Examination	
4.0	Conclusion	
5.0	Summary	

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Social Psychology of Instruction is (PDE 420) is a fourth year, two (2) credit units course available to all students offering Bachelor Degree Programme in Education. PDE 420 has a minimum duration of one semester. It has 15 units and a course guide. The course has been developed to assist teachers handle the behavioural problems learners exhibit in the teaching-learning process.

Social Psychology of Instruction consists of 2 modules which are subdivided into 15 units. This course guide tells you in a nutshell what the course is all about, what course materials you will be using and how best you can use the materials for easy understanding of the course content. It also gives you guidance in respect of your Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) which you are expected to do and submit to your course facilitator in your assignment file for assessment. Your course facilitator is expected to meet with you on regular basis for tutorial classes on the course. You are advised to be in attendance and take the tutorial classes very seriously as it will prepare you for the

challenges you will be meeting in the course of discharging your duties in the teaching-learning situation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of studying this course you should be able to:

- (i) discuss man's behavioural processes and how an individual's behaviour is being influenced by those of other people.
- (ii) explain how various psychologists interpret human personality and how it can be shaped.
- (iii) determine why differences exist in human beings and its implication for the teaching-learning process.
- (iv) ascertain how best to assist the adjusted and maladjusted learner in the teaching-learning situation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Introduction to PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction

This course ó PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction is a two credit unit course offered in the fourth year to students of the undergraduate degree programme in education. There are two modules of fifteen study units in PDE 420.

This course guide is specially designed for Bachelors degree in education students of the National Open University of Nigeria. It is one of the several resource tools at your disposal to help you complete the course and your programme successfully.

This guide will provide you with all the information you need with regards to the aims and objectives of the course, what the course is all about; what course materials you will be using; services available to support your learning; information on assignments and examination. It also offers you guidelines on how to plan your time for study, the amount of time you are likely to spend on each study unit, your tutor-marked assignments. Feel free to interact with your course facilitator and staff of your study centre for further clarifications.

I wish you the best as you explore and internalize this course.

3.2. **A Guide through PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction**

3.2.1 **Course Aims and Objectives**

PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction aims at equipping the teacher with the necessary skills to understand the learner and assist him in a technical manner to face the challenges he meets in the course of discharging his duties in the teaching learning process.

Course Objectives

The course has well defined set of objectives at the beginning of each units. These objectives are meant for you to read and internalize before you study the unit. There is the dire need for you to make reference to them while studying as it will serve as a guide for you. This will assist you in ascertaining your level of attainment of the stated objectives.

Consequently, below are the comprehensive objectives of this course. By attaining these objectives, you should have achieved the aims of the course as a whole. Thus by going through this course you should be able to:

- Define the term psychology
- Identify the various areas of specialization in psychology
- State why the study of psychology is important
- Define social psychology
- Identify the closest neighbours of social psychology
- Discuss the relationship between psychology and education
- Define personality
- Discuss how the human personality is shaped.
- Define individual differences
- Explain the sources of individual difference
- Discuss the area of individual difference
- List the classroom implications of individual differences.
- Give the various definitions of adjustment
- Enumerate the characteristics of a well adjusted individual
- Define the term maladjustment
- Discuss the indices of maladjustment
- Enumerate the cause of maladjustment

- Discuss at least five implications of social maladjustment on teaching and learning
- Discuss the general strategies for the management and control of maladjusted behaviours
- Discuss the specific strategies for the modification of special undesirable behaviours
- Discuss Freud's view of human nature
- Identify the components of the personality structure
- Discuss how the human personality develops
- State the cause of anxiety in humans and how they are handled.
- Discuss the personality structure propounded by Sullivan.
- Identify the stages in the development of personality.
- Discuss Sullivan's assessment techniques
- Discuss Adler's view of human nature
- Outline the major concepts in Adler's personality theory
- List the procedures in Adler's therapeutic process.
- Discuss Erich Fromm's view of human nature
- Identify and briefly discuss the personality types based on Fromm's theory.
- Outline the therapeutic process of Fromm.
- Give a highlight of Maslow's view of human nature
- List and explain the seven potent needs that shape an individual's personality.
- Highlight the therapeutic process of Abraham Maslow.
- Give a highlight of Jung's view of human nature.
- Discuss the structure of personality as propounded by Jung.
- List the Techniques of therapy adopted by Jung.
- List at least five of the basic views of man held by Rogers
- Identify at least ten of Roger's propositions relative to personality.
- Outline the six necessary and sufficient conditions for personality change.

3.2.2 Course Materials and Structure

The main components of the course are

- The course guide
- Study Units
- Course Summary

- Course Overview
- Self Assessment exercises
- Assignments and marking scheme
- References
- Further Reading

Study Units

The course is divided into two modules that are made up of 15 units. The study units in PDE 420 Social Psychology of Instruction are as follows:

Module 1

- Unit 1 Orientation to Psychology
- Unit 2 Social Psychology
- Unit 3 Personality
- Unit 4 Individual Differences
- Unit 5 Social Adjustment
- Unit 6 Social Maladjustment
- Unit 7 Implications of Maladjustment in Teaching Learning Situations
- Unit 8 Interventional Role of the Teacher in helping the Maladjusted Children in Schools

Module 2

- Unit 1 Sigmund Freud's Personality Theory
- Unit 2 Harry Stack Sullivan's Personality Theory
- Unit 3 Alfred Adler's Personality Theory
- Unit 4 Erich Fromm's Personality Theory
- Unit 5 Abraham Maslow's need theory of personality
- Unit 6 Carl Jung's Personality Theory
- Unit 7 Carl Roger's Personality Theory

Course Summary

Module 1 introduces you to the field of psychology, social psychology, personality, individual differences, social maladjustment ó its implication to teaching and learning and how the teacher can assist the maladjusted learner. Module 2 focuses in various psychologists theories of personality.

Study Plan

This study plan is intended to assist you make out time for studying this course.

Unit	Title of Study Unit	Weekly Activity	Assignment
	Course Guide		Course Guide form
Module 1			
1	Orientation to psychology	1	Assignment
2	Social psychology	2	Assignment
3	Personality	3	Assignment
4	Individual differences	4	Assignment
5	Social adjustment	5	Assignment
6	Social maladjustment	6	Assignment
7	Implication of maladjustment in the teaching-learning situation	7	Assignment
8	Interventional role of the teacher in helping the maladjusted children in schools.	8	Assignment
Module 2			
1	Sigmund Freud's personality theory	9	Assignment
2	Harry Stack Sullivan's personality theory	10	Assignment
3	Alfred Adler's personality theory	11	Assignment
4	Erich Fromm's personality theory	12	Assignment
5	Abraham Maslow's need theory of personality	13	Assignment
6	Carl Jung's personality theory	14	Assignment
7	Carl Roger's personality theory	15	Assignment
	Revision	16	
	Examination	17	
	Total	17	

- Now, use this overview to plan your personal time table.

3.2.3 How to Get the Most from this Course

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecturer. This is one of the greatest advantages of distance learning as you can study your course materials at your own pace, time and place that is very convenient for you. Just as the university lecturer delivers his lecture in a classroom so also is your personal study of your course book.

Each study unit follows the same format of instruction, objectives, main content, conclusion, summary, TMAS and reference/further readings. It is of utmost importance that you use the stated objectives to guide your study.

On completion of the unit, you should go back to the set objectives to ascertain if they have been achieved. There are self assessment exercises at the end of each unit. Ensure that you attempt all of them. This will go a long way in putting you on the right track.

These self-assessment exercises will help you to evaluate your learning yourself. The summary at the end of each unit also helps you to recall all the main topics discussed at the end of each unit. Also at the end of each unit are the TMAS. Your TMA is exactly the same as the in course assessment conducted in any conventional university. You are to take them seriously, work on them as they will enable you achieve the set objectives and prepare you for the assignments which you will submit to your course facilitator.

It will take you about three hours to complete a study unit, the assessment exercises and the TMAS. On completion of the first study unit, take note of how long it took you to do so. Then use the information to draw up your study timetable to guide your future study. As you study, make your notes or summary on the margin of your course book which will assist you during your revision exercise. If you are able to keep to all these judiciously, success is already assured for this course.

3.3 Course Delivery

As an Open and Distant Learner (ODL) you learn through different ways for instance

- when you interact with content of your course material
- when you are guided through the course material.

As a result of the fact that you have no teacher, the delivery of this course is supported by tutorial facilitation and counseling.

3.3.1 Tutorial Sessions

There are 15 hours of tutorials provided for PDE 420. It is a part of your learning process as it gives you an opportunity to interact face to face with your course facilitator for possible clarification of your doubts and questions you noted during your private study.

Tutorial sessions are a flexible arrangement between you and your course facilitator, but you need to inform your study centre to arrange the time schedule for the session. You also need your facilitator's phone number and e-mail address. Tutorial sessions are optional but they provide you a forum for interaction and peer group discussion which will go a long way in minimizing the isolation you experience as a Distant Learner (DL).

3.3.2 Facilitation

In ODL facilitation/learning takes place both within and outside tutorial sessions. Your course facilitator guides your learning by:-

- providing answers to your questions during tutorial sessions, on phone or by e-mail
- coordinating group discussion,
- providing feedback on your assignment
- posing questions to you to confirm learning outcomes.
- coordinating, marking and recording your assignment/examination score; and
- monitoring your progress
- assisting you with the problem you encounter in the course of studying.

The language of instruction for PDE 420 is English. The course material is available in print/hard copy, CD and on NOUN's website.

To gain maximally from facilitation, you are expected to study the relevant study unit ahead of time and taking note of difficult areas. It is these difficult areas that you have to present to your course facilitator for possible clarification.

Information about the time, dates and location for facilitation will be made available at your study centre. Feel free to contact your course facilitator if you:

- do not understand any part of the study unit
- have difficulty with the Self-Assessment Exercises.
- have a question or a problem with an assignment,
- have a problem with your course facilitator's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

3.3.3 **Counselling**

As an ODL student it is very important that you utilize the counseling services provided by NOUN as it makes your learning experiences easier. Counselling is available to you at two levels ó academic and personal. The student counsellor(s) at your study centre will assist you in handling your personal issues that may affect your studies adversely. Your study centre manager and your course facilitator will assist you with questions on academic matters such as course materials, facilitation, grades and son on. Ensure that you have the phone numbers and e-mail addresses of your study centre and the staff.

3.4 **Assessment**

There are three aspects to the assessment of PDE 420. They are

- (i) Self-assessment exercises and assignment (SAEs)
- (ii) Tutor-marked assignment (TMAS)
- (iii) Written/final/end of course examination

You are advised to be sincere in attending to the exercises and tackling of the TMAS. It is important that you apply the knowledge and techniques you gathered during the course to provide clues to them.

3.4.1 **Self Assessment Exercises (SAEs)**

Each study unit has self assessment exercises and you should do them immediately after studying that unit before proceeding to another unit. You must not check the answers provided at the end of the course book before doing them. Remember that these exercises are meant to evaluate your learning although you are not to submit them.

3.4.2 Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMAs)

The TMAs accounts for 30% of the total score in PDE 420. It is at the end of each unit. You are to attempt all of them. NOUN headquarters normally sends TMAs to students also through the study centre. It is the one sent by the NOUN headquarters that you are expected to answer four questions. Your tutor will score all but the best three performances will be used for assessment. Ensure that your tutor gets your TMAs before the stipulated deadline. If for any reason, it will not be possible to keep to the deadline inform your tutor and your centre manager for an extension of time.

Guidelines for writing Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Write the following on the cover page of your assignment
 - * Course code:
 - * Course Title:
 - * Tutor-marked Assignment:
 - * Date of Submission:
 - * School and programme:
 - * Matriculation Number:
2. Endeavour to be concise and to the point in your answer. Adhere to word limit where given. Your answer must be based strictly on your course material, further readings and experience. You will be penalized if you copy these material, so you are encouraged to use your own words.
3. Use ruled foolscap sheets for your answers and keep a copy for your easy for reference.
4. Use your own hand-writing leaving a margin of 1.5inches on the left side of your foolscap sheet and about 5 lines

before answering the next question. This is to enable your course facilitator make his comments.

5. On completion, submit to your course facilitator before the deadline that was given.

3.4.3 Final Examination and Grading

The final examination of PDE 420 will be 3 hours duration and has a value of 70% of the total grade. The examination question will consist of questions which reflect the kind of self assessment exercises, and TMAs you are familiar with. All aspects of the course will be examined and assessed.

It will be helpful if you are able to internalize the course book and still make time for revision of the whole course just before the examination. To be eligible to sit for the final examinations, you must have submitted the four TMAs and registered for the course ó PDE 420.

Course Marking Scheme

Assessment	Marks
Assignment 4 questions to be answered	4 of them will be marked over 10 each. But the best 3 will be used i.e. 30%
Final examination	70% of overall course score.
Total	100% of course score

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is worthy of note at this juncture to remind you that all the features of this course guide have been specifically designed to facilitate your learning in order to assist you achieve the aims and objectives of PDE 420. They include the aims and objectives, course summary, course overview, Self Assessment Exercises and study questions. You are encouraged to make maximum use of them in your study to achieve optimum results.

5.0 SUMMARY

PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction is a course that intends to prepare you for the challenges you will meet in the teaching learning process. On completion of the course, it is expected that you will be able to handle these challenges and also go the extra mile of assisting the learners in the right direction.

I wish you success with the course and hope that you will find it interesting, useful and rewarding.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Your course book is the main text for PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction. However, you are encouraged to consult other sources from the list of references and further readings below.

References

- Agbaegbu, C. N. & Anaeke, M. C. (1996) Individual differences. In U. Dappa & G.J.M. Ahiakwo (Eds) *Psychology of Learning*. Onitsha: Noble Graphic Press.
- Azrin, H. N. Holx, W. C. (1966). In W. K. Honig (Ed) *Operant behaviour: Areas of research and application*. New York: - Century ó O.
- Calhoun, F. J. & Accocella, R. J. (1978) *Psychology of adjustment and human-relations*. New York: Randan House Inc.
- Carew, P.F.E. (1987) Alfred Adler. In A Uba (Ed) *Theories of Personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press.
- Hall, C. S. & Lindzey, G. (1978). *Theories of Personality*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Jahoda, M. (1950) Towards a social Psychology of Mental Health. In M. F. E-Senn (Ed) *Symposium on the healthy Personality*. New York: Josiah Macy, Jr. Foundation.

- Joe, A. I. (1987). Harry Stack Sullivan's Personality theory. In A. Uba (Ed) *Theories of Personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press.
- Morgan, C. T., King, R. A. & Robinson, N. M. (1979) *Introduction to Psychology*. London: McGraw Hill Publishers.
- Onyehalu, A. S. (1987) Abraham Maslow. In A. Uba (Ed) *Theories of Personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press.
- Read, N; Fordham, M & Adler G. (Eds) (1953) Jung, C. G.: Collected works. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Rogers, C. R. (1951) *Client-centred therapy: Its current practices, implication and therapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Uba, A. (1987) The Psychoanalytic approach of Sigmund Freud. In A. Uba (Ed) *Theories of Personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press.

Further Reading

- Coleman, J. C. & Boren, W. E. (1972) *Abnormal Psychology and modern life*.
- Schultz, D. (1981) *Theories of Personality* Monterey: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Shertzer, B. & Stone, S. C. (1980) *Fundamentals of Counselling*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

PED420 Social Psychology of Instruction

Course Developer Ezeh, P.S.E. (Ph.D)
Department of Educational Foundations,
Faculty of Education,
Enugu State University of Science &
Technology,
Enugu.

Course Writer: Ezeh, P.S.E. (Ph.D)
Department of Educational Foundations,
Faculty of Education,
Enugu State University of Science &
Technology,
Enugu.

Course Editor: Prof. Nduka Okoh
Faculty of Education
University of Benin

Staff in charge Dr D N Ofoha
National Open University of Nigeria
Victoria Island Lagos

Course Co-ordinator: Dr D N Ofoha
National Open University of Nigeria
Victoria Island Lagos

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island
Lagos.

Abuja Annex
245 Samuel Adesujo Ademulegun Street
Central Business District
Opposite Arewa Suites
Abuja.

e-mail: centralinfo@non.edu.ng

URL: www.nou.edu.ng

First Printed 2099

ISBN:

All Rights Reserved

Printed by:

For

National Open University of Nigeria

MODULE 1

Unit 1	Orientation to Psychology
Unit 2	Social Psychology
Unit 3	Personality
Unit 4	Individual Differences
Unit 5	Social Adjustment
Unit 6	Social Maladjustment
Unit 7	Implications of Maladjustment in Teaching Learning Situations
Unit 8	Interventional Role of the Teacher in helping the Maladjusted Children in Schools

UNIT 1 ORIENTATION TO PSYCHOLOGY**CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Definitions
3.1.1	The Meaning of Psychology
3.2	Branches of Psychology
3.3	Reasons for the study of Psychology
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor ó Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit will expose you to the meaning of psychology, its branches and rationale for studying it. Psychology touches every facet of human life. From day to day our society continues to become more complex and consequently, psychology has assumed an increasingly significant role in handling human problems. Since psychology affects so many aspects of our lives, it is important for every one to have some knowledge of the basic facts of psychology. A little orientation to psychology gives us a better understanding of why people behave the way they do and gives insight into our own attitudes and reactions. Psychologists engage in a variety of activities depending on their areas of

specialization and work locations. By the end of this unit you should be familiar with the following objectives.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- (i) Define Psychology
- (ii) Identify the various areas of specialization in Psychology
- (iii) State why the study of Psychology is important.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definitions

3.1.1 The Meaning of Psychology

Psychology has been defined in various ways. The early psychologists defined it as the study of mental activities. When behaviourism came to prominence at the beginning of the last century, and with its concern for studying only those phenomena that could be objectively measured, psychology came to be defined as "the study of behaviour". Later with the development of cognitive and humanistic psychology, most current definitions of psychology include reference to both behaviour and mental processes.

Consequently, Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975) defined psychology as the science that studies behaviour and mental processes. Morgan, King and Robinson (1979) defined psychology as the science of human and animal behaviour. They further indicated that it includes the application of this science to human problems. Clark and Miller (1979) defined psychology as the scientific study of behaviour. They further stated that the subject matter of psychology includes behavioural processes that are observable, such as gestures, speech and physiological changes and processes that can only be inferred such as thoughts and dreams. Gates (1931) stated that psychology seeks to discover the general laws which explain the behaviour of living organisms. From the various definitions cited above it is clear that psychology attempts to describe and classify the several types of activity of which the organism is capable.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What do you understand by the term, psychology?
2. What are the common features of these definitions of psychology?

BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY

Some of the major branches or fields of specialization in psychology as accepted by most authorities in that field are listed below:

1. Educational Psychology
2. Social Psychology
3. Counseling Psychology
4. Industrial Psychology
5. Experimental Psychology
6. Physiological Psychology
7. Clinical Psychology
8. Engineering Psychology
9. Community Psychology
10. Abnormal Psychology
11. Personality Psychology
12. General Psychology
13. Psychometrics

3.2.1 Description of some fields of specialization in Psychology.**1. Educational Psychology:**

According to Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975) Schools provide a wide range of opportunities for Psychologists. Since the beginnings of serious emotional problems often appear in the early years, many elementary schools employ psychologists whose training combines courses in child development, educational and clinical psychology. These school psychologists work with individual children to evaluate learning and emotional problems, administering and interpreting intelligence, achievement and personality tests is parts of their job. In consultation with parents and teachers, they plan ways of helping the child both in the classroom and at home. They also provide a valuable resource for teachers, offering suggestions for coping with classroom problems.

2. **Social Psychology:**

We all belong to many different kinds of groups ó our family, an informal clique and our social class to mention only a few (Morgan, King and Robinson (1979). The groups to which we belong influence our behaviour and shape our attitudes about many things. Social psychologists are primarily engaged in studying the effect of group membership on individual behaviour. For instance, a social psychologist might study how the decisions of a committee member are influenced by what other members do and say. Sometimes, however, the emphasis is on the way in which an individual affects a group, as in studies of leadership. Another focus of social psychology is on the ways we perceive other people and how these perceptions affect our behaviour towards them. Social psychologists are concerned also with the behaviour of groups: They do a lot of work in public opinion and attitude surveys.

3. **Counselling Psychology:**

The counseling psychologist engages in many of the same functions as the clinical psychologist, although he/she typically works with students giving advice on problems of school adjustment, vocational and educational goals. Counseling psychologists work with people who have milder emotional and personal problems. Counseling psychologists are often consulted by people with specific question, such as a choice career or educational problem. They may make extensive use of tests to measure aptitudes, interests and personality characteristics.

4. **Industrial and Personnel Psychology:**

The first application of psychology to problems of industries and organizations was the use of intelligence and aptitude tests in selecting employees (Morgan, King and Robinson, 1979). Today, many companies use modern versions of such tests in their hiring and placement programmes. Private and public organizations also apply psychology to problems of management and employee training, to improving communication within the organization, to supervision of personnel, to counseling employees, and to alleviating industrial strife. The industrial psychologists who do this work are sometimes called personnel

or organizational psychologists. Many of them work as members of consulting firms which sell their services to companies.

5. **Experimental Psychology:**

According to Hilgard, Atkinson & Atkinson (1975), the term experimental psychology is really a misnomer because psychologists in many other areas of specialization carry out experiments too. However, the category of psychologists under study usually consists of those who use experimental methods to find out how people react to sensory stimuli; perceive the world around them, learn and remember, respond emotionally, and are motivated to action, whether by hunger or other desires. Experimental psychologists also work with animals in order to compare the behaviour of different species. Whatever their interest, experimental psychologists are concerned with developing precise methods of measurement and control.

6. **Physiological Psychology:**

Closely related to experimental psychology is physiological psychology. The physiological psychologist wants to discover the relationship between bodily processes and behaviour. How do sex hormones influence behaviour? What areas of the brain control speech? How do drugs like marijuana affect coordination and memory? The physiological psychologist studies man from the neurological viewpoint (Hilgard et al, 1975).

7. **Clinical Psychology:**

Clinical psychologists engage in the application of psychological principles to the diagnosis and treatment of emotional and behavioural problems ó mental illness, juvenile delinquency, criminal behaviour, drug addiction, mental retardation, marital and family conflict and other less serious adjustment problems. A clinical psychologist may work in a mental hospital, a juvenile court or probation office, a mental health clinical psychologist may work in a mental hospital, a juvenile court or probation office, a mental health clinic, an institution for the mentally retarded, a prison or a medical school. He may also practice privately, often in association with other professional colleagues.

3.3 Reasons for the study of Psychology.

The study of psychology has been considered quite relevant for so many reasons. According to Chauhan (1978) psychology uses the scientific method to collect data about individuals and groups to analyse and predict their behaviours. Psychology deals with observable behaviours and establishes facts by objective proof or evidence. In psychological studies we attempt to know more and more about the variables that affect behaviours and present causal relationships as a system of hypothesis. Psychology as a science helps us to understand, control and predict behaviour. Psychological findings are applicable to future researches and practical life. Replication studies are used in psychology to safeguard against accepting a chance finding as typical. In psychology, we study how society influences the behaviour of an individual and vice versa. Psychology as a social science studies scientifically cultural and social problems of the society and proffers solutions. Psychology also is concerned with the study of issue of creating and maintaining good relationships between individuals.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What are the branches of psychology?
2. Give some reasons for the study of psychology.

CONCLUSION

This unit acquainted you with what psychology is all about, the various areas of specialization in psychology and the reasons for engaging in the study of psychology. This knowledge will undoubtedly lay the foundation as you proceed in this course for better understanding of the subject matter.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have been introduced to the meaning of psychology by being exposed to its various definitions. You have also been acquainted with the various branches of psychology also known as the fields of specialization in psychology. You have also learnt why it is relevant to engage in the study of psychology.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Give at least four different definitions of psychology.
2. What are the major fields of specialization in psychology?
3. Discuss five major reasons for engaging in the study of psychology.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Chauhan, S.S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishers.

Clark, K. E. & Miller, G.A. (eds) (1970). *Psychology* Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall

Gates, A. I. (1931). *Elementary Psychology*. New York: Macmillan

Hilgard, R.L., Atkinson, R.C. & Atkinson, R.L. (1975). *Introduction to Psychology*. New York; Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Morgan, C. T., King, R.A. & Robinson, N.M. (1979). *Introduction to Psychology*. London; McGraw Hill Publishers.

UNIT 2 SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**CONTENTS**

- Introduction
- Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Social Psychology
 - 3.1.1 Definitions
 - 3.1.2 Boundaries of social psychology
 - 3.1.3 Relationship between psychology and education.
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this unit is mainly on social psychology and the relationship between psychology and education. Social psychology has a variety of definitions by different authors but all these definitions point to the same direction. The relationship between psychology and Education is enormous and should be understood by teachers at all levels. At the end of this unit you will appreciate to a very great extent the scope of social psychology.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define social psychology
2. Identify the closest neighbour of social psychology
3. Discuss the relationship between psychology and education

3.0 MAIN CONTENT**3.1 Definitions****3.1.1. Meaning of Social Psychology**

Social Psychology which is a branch or an area of specialization in psychology has been defined in various ways by different authors. Morgan, King and Robinson (1979) defined social

psychology as the scientific study of ways of interaction, interdependence, and influences among persons and how they affect their behaviour and thought. This definition emphasizes that it is the interactions and interdependence among people that are the socially effective factors which influence most of what we think and do. Similarly, Feldman (2001) defines it as the scientific study of how people's thought; feelings and actions are affected by others. For him, social psychologists seek to investigate and understand the nature and causes of people's behaviour in social situations. For Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson (1975) Social Psychologists study the ways in which a person's thoughts, feelings and behaviour are influenced by other people. Finally, Lindgren (1973) opined that social psychology is concerned with the behavioural processes, causal factors, and results of interaction among persons and groups.

3.1.2 Boundaries of Social Psychology

An in-depth discussion of the wide range of social psychology may leave one wondering if the field excludes anything. Social psychology is part of the broader field of psychology which itself is situated in the general realm of social science. Within the field of psychology, social psychology is most closely related to personality psychology. Others are developmental and cognitive psychology. Outside the field of psychology, social psychology's closest cousins are Sociology and Anthropology (Feldman, 2001).

3.1.3 Relationship between Psychology and Education

Psychology is the science of behaviour. Behaviour means the activities of living organisms which can be observed and measured in an objective way (Chauhan, 1978). Education in a narrow sense is the modification of behaviour of an individual in a controlled environment. To shape the behaviour or to bring about some changes, it is necessary to study the science of behaviour. The development stages of children and their characteristics are very essential factors which the teacher must be acquainted with him to be a successful teacher. If the teacher does not know the science of behaviour, how do we expect that he would succeed in bringing about desirable changes in

children? Therefore for one to be a successful teacher, he must be thoroughly versed in the science of behaviour.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit acquainted you with the concern of social psychology as well as the various definitions proposed by different authors. This undoubtedly had put you in the right frame of mind to face the next unit.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been introduced to the meaning of social psychology. You have also known those courses that share common boundaries with social psychology. The relationship between psychology and education was also highlighted.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASIGNMENT

- (1) What is Social Psychology?
- (2) Which courses of study have common boundaries with social psychology?
- (3) Discuss the relationship between Psychology and Education.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READINGS

Chauhan, S. S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas publishers.

Feldman, R.S. (2001). *Social Psychology* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hilgard, R. L., Atkinson, R. C; & Atkinson, R. L (1975). *Introduction To psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jaanovich

Lindgren, H.C. (1969). *An Introduction to Social Psychology*. New York: John Wilay Publishers.

Morgan, C.T., King, R.A. & Robinson, N. M (1979). *Introduction to Psychology*. London: McGraw Hill Publishers.

UNIT 3 PERSONALITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Personality
 - 3.1.1 Definitions
 - 3.1.2 Shaping of Personality
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on an aspect of psychology ó personality. The units is expected to expose you to what personality is and how and individuals personality is being shaped. No subject in the field of psychology is more fascinating than personality. Tremendous research has been done on the topic but no final conclusions have been drawn as regards the nature of personality. This notwithstanding, studies on personality have continued to flourish.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- (1) Define Personality
- (2) Discuss how the human Personality is shaped.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definitions

3.1.1 Meaning of Personality

Psychologists do not agree on an exact definition of personality, hence they have come up with a plethora of definitions of his concept. Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975) defined personality as the characteristic pattern of behaviour and modes

of thinking that determine a person's adjustment to his environment. The term characteristic in this definition implies some measure of consistency in behaviour - that people have tendencies to act or think in certain ways regardless of the situation. For Lindgren (1969), Personality as used by psychologists, refers to the total behaviour of the individual, but particularly to those relatively enduring and consistent aspects that cause us to resemble others in some ways and to be totally different and unique to others.

According to Mischel (1977), personality usually refers to the distinctive patterns of behaviour (including thoughts and emotions) that characterize each individual's adaptation to the situations of his or her life. The emphasis here is on understanding normal individual variation in one's everyday setting. Guilford (1959) defined personality as an individual's unique pattern of traits. A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Allport (1961) defined personality as the dynamic organization within the individual, of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment. Drever (1952) opined that personality is the integrated and dynamic organization of the physical, mental, moral, and social qualities of the individual, as that manifests itself to other peoples in the give and take of social life.

So far we have seen that various perspectives have been adopted to define personality but there is no agreement on a single definition of personality. Though there is diversity of views, nevertheless there are common basic characteristics. One of the basic characteristics is that personality is unique. No two individuals, even the identical twins, have the same personality. The second characteristic is that personality is the product of its own functioning. What we do today depends on our accumulated experiences of the past. The experiences are accumulated day after day and they shape our personality by continuous interaction with the external environment.

3.1.2 Shaping of Personality

There has been a constant disagreement between hereditarianism and environmentalists as regards the contributions of heredity and

environment in the development of an individual's personality. According to Chauhan (1978), there are some psychologists who over-emphasize the environment influences to the exclusion of heredity in the growth and development of personality, and there is another group of psychologists who claim the superiority of heredity over environment in the development of personality. As a matter of fact, no definite line of demarcation can be drawn between the contributions of heredity and environment in human personality development. There is no doubt that man is the by-product of heredity and environment. Both factors contribute in their different ways to the development of the individual. The way an individual is like or different from other individuals in his performance and personality is due to those factors. Having said that, let us briefly discuss each of the two factors separately as it affects the shaping of personality.

Genetic/hereditary Determinations:

Like begets like. Even the lay man knows that it is a common-sense fact that a cat gives birth to kittens, lions have cubs, and human beings have babies. Children, generally, resemble their parents or relations. Thus, heredity pretty much determines what an individual will be like.

Environment (social and cultural):

Determination: Man is a social animal. He is born into a social set up. Some of these social systems include the home, the school and the teacher. They play an important role in shaping the personality pattern of an individual in early infancy. Schools play an equally important role in moulding the personality of children because a significant part of a child's life is spent in school between the age of six and twenty years. The teacher's ways of teaching equally has an important effect on future personality of children. The personality of an individual is equally shaped by the culture he is born into. Culture refers to the total life activities of a society which among others include beliefs, morals, laws, customs and knowledge. Culture leaves permanent impressions on the personality of the child.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has acquainted you with the concept of personality and how the human personality is shaped. You have learnt that

genetic /hereditary as well as environmental factors play important role in shaping the personality pattern of an individual.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have been exposed to the concept of personality and the various definitions by different authors. You have also been acquainted with the various factors that shape or determine the human personality.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- (1) What do you understand by the concept personality?
- (2) Discuss how the human personality is shaped.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURHER READINGS

Allport, G.W. (1961). *Pattern and Growth in Personality*. New York: Holt

Chauhan, S.S. (1978) *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas publishers.

Drever, J. (1952). *The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology*. New York: Penguin Books

Guilford, J.F. (1959). *Personality*. New York: McGraw Hill

Hilgard, R.L., Atkinson R.C. & Atkinson, R.L. (1965). *Introduction to Psychology* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich

Lindgren, H.C. (1969) *An Introduction to Social psychology*. New York: John Wiley publishers

Mischel, W. (1977). On the further of Psychology Measurement. *American Psychologist*. 32, 246-254

UNIT 4 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Individual Differences
 - 3.2 Sources of Individual Differences
 - 3.3 Areas of Differences among individuals
 - 3.4 Classroom Implications of Individual Differences
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses specifically on individual differences ó its meaning, sources and areas of differences among individuals. It also delves into its implications in the teaching-learning process. The concept of individual differences is synonymous with the concept of personality. Each of us is an individual because each differs somewhat from every other person. Consequently, no two human beings have the same characteristics, not even identical twins. An infant is born with certain potentialities. The development of these potentialities is a function of nature and nurture.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- (1) Define Individual Differences
- (2) Explain the sources of Individual Differences
- (3) Discuss the Areas of individual Differences
- (4) List the Classroom implications of Individual Differences

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Individual Differences

When Psychologists talk about Personality, they are concerned primarily with Individual Differences. Dreyer (1952) defined individual differences as the variation from the average of the group, with respect to mental or physical characters, occurring in the individual member of the group. According to Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1975), individual differences refer to the characteristics that distinguish one individual from another. The term characteristics in this definition implies some consistency in behaviour - that people have tendencies to act or think in certain ways regardless of the situation.

3.2 Sources of Individual Differences

Individual differences are shaped by both biological (hereditary) factors as well as environmental (socio-cultural) factors. When new-born infants are seen in a hospital, they look pretty much alike, but the physical characteristics that will later make them readily distinguishable from each other are already determined by heredity. Intelligence and certain special abilities such as physical strength, sensitivity, endurance, musical talent, also have a large hereditary component, and some differences in emotional reactivity may be there (Hilgard et al, 1975). It is a common knowledge that parents respond differently to babies with differing characteristics. In this way, a reciprocal process that may exaggerate some of the characteristics present to the potentialities with which the infant is born depends on his experiences while growing up. According to Papalis and Olds (1975) the range of individual differences increases as people grow older. Later in life, experiences and environment exert more influences and since we undergo different experiences and live in different cultures, it is natural that we should reflect these differences.

3.3 Areas of Differences among individuals

Individuals vary widely from each other. Consequently, an understanding and appreciation of the differences among individuals is fundamental to implementing a worthwhile educational programme of providing each and every child with educative experiences geared to his potentials, interest and

background. Agbegbu and Anaeke (1996) identified the following areas of differences among individuals:

- a) **Physical differences:**
Physical differences in height, weight, physical fitness, motor coordination and proficiency are very noticeable, particularly at the age of puberty.
- b) **Sex Differences:**
Generally, boys are taller and stronger than their female age mates. However, females mature earlier. Boys outplay the girls in skills that require physical strength, spatial or mechanical aptitude, hence they tend to dominate the field of Engineering and the physical science. Girls tend to perform better and usually more proficient in the language arts. Generally, girls tend to be more quiet, docile, friendly and responsive to social demands than boys of the same age.
- c) **Age Differences:**
Generally, there is a decline with age in physical competence, agility, muscular strength and sensory acuity. Learning ability also shows a decline with age.
- d) **Socio-Economic Differences:**
Socio-economic differences manifest among different individuals. These exert remarkable influences on our physical and mental health, intellectual and academic status, the kind of clothes we wear or the house we live in, the use of leisure time etc. Socio-economic differences bring about social stratification in the society.
- e) **Intellectual Differences:**
This manifests itself very well in classroom activities. Some of the learners are mentally bright, others are of average intelligence, while some may be dull. Intellectual differences among learners, to a very large extent, is responsible for their differential levels of achievement in class work.

- f) **Difference in interests:**
Different learners have different interests. A particular method of teaching, for instance may be of interest to a group of learners while it may not arouse the interest of the other group.
- g) **Emotional Differences:**
In a classroom, it is not uncommon to notice that some of the learners are introverts while others are extroverts or ambiverts. While introverts are withdrawn from class activities or decision taking; the extroverts make friends easily, are sociable, and boastful. The ambiverts exhibit circumstantial behaviours. This means that they are neither introverts nor extroverts but circumstances may warrant them to behave in any of those modes.

3.4 CLASSROOM IMPLICATION OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE

Agbaegbu and Anaekwe (1996) indicated that in the classroom, there exist as many different personalities as there are pupils. A consequence of this is that they react differently to the same content being presented in the class even by the same teacher. Individual differences in learning accounts for this instructional presentation. These differences are rooted in the biogenic and socio-cultural characteristics of the learners. Hence, the product of learning to each of the learners is different and personal (Agbaegbu and Anaekwe, 1996).

Since learning is a personal affair, the teacher should not treat the entire pupils in the class as an entity. He should introduce variety and variation in his instructional strategies, instructional materials and use of examples. This is with a view to accommodating the peculiar qualities of each individual in his class.

Some pupils in class may be introverts while others may be extroverts. That being the case, questions should be evenly distributed to both groups to avail each of them the opportunity to participate in the class activities Agbaegbu and Anaekwe (1996) stated that in a class, while some of the pupils have high intelligence quotient (IQ) others have low intelligence quotient (IQ).

This underscores the need for the teacher to present problems that demand high mental reasoning as well as lower mental reasoning ability. This is with a view to enabling the not-very óbright pupil in the class to at least attempt correctly lower order problems and have some sense of belonging in the class. Because some students perform better under competitive, cooperative or individualistic learning strategies, the teacher should endeavour to adopt a variety of these learning strategies during instructional processes.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has acquainted you with the concept of individual differences, sources and areas of differences among individuals. The classroom implications of individual differences were also highlighted.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been exposed to various definitions of the concept individual differences. You also learnt that individual differences are functions of heredity and socio-cultural (environmental) factors. The areas of differences among various individuals were highlighted. The implications of individual differences for the teaching and learning situations were discussed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define Individual Differences
2. Discuss how hereditary and environmental factor shape individual differences
3. identify and discuss at least five areas of differences among individuals
4. What are the implications of individual differences for the teaching and learning process?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Agbaegbu, C. N. & Anaekwe, M. C. (1996). Individual Differences in U. Dappa & Ahiakwo G. J M (Eds) *Psychology of Learning*. Onitsha Noble Graphic Press

Drever, J. (1952). *The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology*. New York: Penguin Books

Hilgard, R. L, Atkinson, R.C.& Atkinson, R.L. (1975) *Introduction to Psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich

Papahlia, D.E. & Olds, S.W. (1995). *Human Development* New York: McGraw Hill

UNIT 5 SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Adjustment
 - 3.1.1 Definitions
 - 3.1.2 Criteria for good Adjustment
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with social adjustment. It takes a concise look at what adjustment is and the criteria for good adjustment. Among all living beings, man has the highest capacity to adapt to new situations. Man as a social animal adapts not only to physical demands but he also adjusts to social pressures. By the end of this unit you should be very much at home with the following objectives.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- i. Give various definitions of adjustment
- ii. Enumerate the characteristics of a well adjusted individual

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definitions

3.1.1 Meaning of Adjustment

Biologists use the term adjustment strictly for physical demands of the environment, but psychologists use the term adjustment for varying conditions of social or interpersonal relations in the society. Consequently, Chauhan (1978) defined adjustment as the reaction to the demands and pressures of social environment

imposed upon the individual. Such demand may be internal or external to which the individual has to react. External demands include the urge to do certain things and avoid others, following certain beliefs and set values. Internal or physiological demands include need for food, water, oxygen, sleep etc, which if not satisfied keeps the individual uncomfortable. These two types of demands sometimes come into conflict with each other thereby making adjustment a complex process for the individual. For Shertzer and Stone (1976) adjustment is a term used to denote a general process in which the individual changes response patterns as the dimensions of the environment change. Other terms which are used interchangeably with adjustment include mental health, emotional health and psychological health. Shertzer and Stone (1976) stated that the emotionally healthy individual has been described in many ways: responsible, sensitive to others, respectful of self and others, realistic, insightful into own needs, employs problems-solving approach, possesses sense of human, to cite but a few. A frequently quoted description is that by Jahoda (1950), who calls persons psychologically healthy when they actively master their environment, show considerable unity of personality, and are able to perceive themselves and their world realistically. Such persons are independent and able to function effectively without making undue demands upon others.

3.1.2 Criteria for Good Adjustment

No universal criteria can be set for adequacy of adjustment because criteria involve value judgments which differ from culture to culture and from generation to generation within the same culture. Chauhan (1978) however identified four criteria for judging the adequacy of adjustment.

1. **Physical Health:** The individual should be free from perennial physical ailments like headache, ulcers, indigestion and impairment of appetite. These symptoms in individuals sometimes have psychological origin and may impair his physical efficiency
2. **Psychological Comfort:** One of the most important facts of adjustment is that the individual has no psychological diseases as obsession, compulsion, anxiety, depression,

etc. If these psychological diseases occur excessively, the individual will be forced to seek professional advice.

3. **Work Efficiency:** The person who makes full use of his occupation or social capacities may be termed as well adjusted in his social set up.
4. **Social Acceptance:** Everybody wants to be socially accepted by other persons. If a person obeys social norms, beliefs and set of values, we may call him well adjusted, but if he satisfies his needs by antisocial means, then he is referred to as maladjusted.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit acquainted you with the meaning of the concept of adjustment as well as the criteria for good adjustment. This has put you in the right frame of mind to understand the next unit which is on maladjustment.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been exposed to the various definitions of the term ó adjustment. You have also learnt some of the criteria for judging when one can be said to be well adjusted.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1 Define adjustment
- 2 Discuss the four criteria mapped out by Chauhan for judging good adjustment.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Chauhan, S.S (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishers

Shertzer, B. & Stone, S.C. (1976). *Fundamentals of Guidance*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Jahoda, M. (1950). Towards a social psychology of mental health, in M.F.E Senn (ed.) *Symposium on the Healthy personality*. New York: Josiah Mancy, fr., foundation

UNIT 6 SOCIAL MALADJUSTMENT**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of maladjustment
 - 3.1.1 Definitions
 - 3.2 Indices of Maladjustment
 - 3.3 Causes of maladjustment.
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is intended to acquaint you with what maladjustment is. By the end of this unit you should become familiar with the indices and causes of maladjustment. Almost everyone has periods when he feels anxious, depressed, unreasonably angry, or inadequate in dealing with the complexities of life. Each of us at times resort to self-deceptive defence mechanisms when confronted with the threatening situations. It is only when such reactions becomes habitual that we consider them unhealthy.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- i. Define the term maladjustment
- ii. Discuss the indices of maladjustment
- iii. Enumerate the causes of maladjustment

3.0 MAIN CONTENT**3.1 Definitions****3.1.1 Meaning of maladjustment**

The term maladjustment is not very easy to define. Moreover, maladjustment is used interchangeably with many other words. That notwithstanding, some attempts have been made to provide

some definitions. First of all, it should be noted that maladjustment is the opposite of adjustment which had been discussed in the previous unit. Drever (1952) defined maladjustment as the condition of a individual who is unable to adapt or adjust himself adequately to his physical, occupational or social environment, with repercussions on emotional life and behaviours. For Hornby (2000) maladjustment is the condition of an individual having mental and emotional problems that lead to unacceptable behaviours. Shertzer and Stone (1980) opined that maladjustment and behaviour disorder are used interchangeably with the term emotional disturbance. For them emotional disorder is a condition in which a disproportionate emotional reaction attends a reality situation. Morgan, King and Robinson (1979) observed that behaviour disorder, mental disorder, mental illness, emotional disturbance, and abnormal behaviour all mean much the same thing. Abnormal behaviour is the broadest since it is sometimes used to refer to a peculiar behaviour in normal people. Coleman and Boren (1972) see abnormality from the point of view of those behaviours which do not conform with social expectations of a given group. They also see abnormality as maladjustment behaviours, that is, behaviours that interfere with the ability of the individual, or the group to function as effectively as possible in a given environment at any point in time.

3.2 INDICES OF MALADJUSTMENT

Shertzer and Stone (1980) citing the administrative manual the Bureau of Educationally Handicapped, said that the disturbed child is characterized by the following:

1. An inability to learn that can not be explained by intellectual, sensory or health factors;
2. An inability to establish or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationship with peers and teacher;
3. Inappropriate types of behaviour or feelings under normal circumstance;
4. A generally pervasive mood of unhappiness or depressions, and
5. A tendency to develop physical symptoms, pairs or feel associated with personal or social problems.

It is within this type of working definition or description that most school personnel, including counsellors, operate in making day-to-day judgments about the presence, degree and effects of emotional disturbance on pupils. For Nwankwo (1997), abnormality should be understood from the following four fundamental perspectives.

- 1 **Deviation from any given society's values or norms at any given point in time:** Every society cherishes and approves certain behaviour of its members. Any behaviour which deviates from approved and cherished standards are considered abnormal.
- 2 **Time:** This is another important criterion for discussing abnormal behaviour. Time factor influences values, perception, interest and overall behaviour of individuals. In effect, what is considered abnormal behaviour at a particular time (generation) may not be seen as such at other times.
- 3 **Intensity of maladaptiveness:** There is a recognizable degree of maladaptiveness before any behaviour can be regarded as abnormal. That is to say that both the society and the victim are affected adversely by the obnoxious behaviour. Such abnormal behaviour does not foster the well-being of the victim and the society too.
- 4 **Chronicity of distress:** There is persistent personal distress in the individual manifesting some kind of abnormal behaviour. The distress usually could be in form of anxiety, depression, fear, sadness, anger and so on.

3.3 Causes of Maladjustment

There are numerous factors in the home, society and school which lead to maladjustment. Chauhan (1978) discussed the following various conditions which leads to frustration of needs which is the basic cause of maladjustment.

1. **Physique:** The physique and appearance play an important role in the social development of the child. If the child is physically weak, ugly and has some sensor handicaps, he

may be shunned by others. Comments by parents, siblings and strangers affect the behaviour of the ugly, weak, and handicapped children. They develop a number of problems resulting in maladjustment.

2. **Long Sickness and Injury:** Long sickness of a child affects his social development and academic achievement in school.
3. **Poverty:** There is a positive correlation between poverty and maladjustment in children. The crucial factor in poor homes is that parents cannot even provide the legitimate basic needs of their children. Frustration of needs leads to maladjustment.
4. **Broken Home:** Children who come from homes that have been broken by death of parents, divorce, separation, physical or mental handicaps of parents are often more maladjusted than children from more stable homes. Children from broken homes generally lack affection, love, sympathy and security. They are emotionally disturbed.
5. **Personal Inadequacies:** Parents who are ambitious and set very high goals for their children irrespective of their physical and mental abilities create frustration in their children.
6. **Parent's Attitudes:** Some parents reject their children. The rejected child develops feelings of insecurity, helplessness and loneliness. Rejection and lack of affection may lead to maladjusted behaviour. Equally, over-protection of the child may lead to lack of responsibility, lack of socialization, aggressiveness, selfishness and general infantile behaviour which may put the child into trouble in the social environment.
7. **Value placed on the sex of the Child:** Some parents discriminate between their male and female children. Sons are preferred to daughters in our society. This partial treatment given to girls may lead to maladjustment.
8. **Child Adoption:** In some cases, adopted children are maladjusted when they come to know about it.

9. **Emotional Shock:** Children who experience emotional shocks such as death, accidents, riots, flood etc may manifest maladjustment in their behaviour.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit acquainted you with the meaning of the concept maladjustment, indices of maladjustment and the causes of maladjustment. This no doubt has prepared you to follow the discussion on the educational implications of maladjustment in the next unit.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have been exposed to various definitions of maladjustment, the indices of maladjustment as well as the possible causes of that condition.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Give a definition of the concept maladjustment.
2. What are the characteristics of maladjustment?
3. Briefly discuss the various causes of maladjustment among school children.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Chauhan, S.S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishers.

Coleman, J. C. & Boren, W.E. (1972). *Abnormal Psychology and Modern Life*. London: Scott Foreman Company.

Drever, J. (1952). *The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology*. New York: Penguin Books.

Hornby, A. S. (2000). *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Morgan, C.T., King, R.A. & Robinson, N.M (1979). *Introduction to Psychology*. London: McGraw Hill Publishers.

Nwankwo, O. C. (1997). *Advanced psychology*. Enugu: Fredinco Printing Press.

Shertzer, B. & Stone, S.C. (1980). *Fundamentals of Counselling*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

UNIT 7 IMPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL MAL- ADJUSTMENT FOR THE TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Implications of social maladjustment for the teaching and learning process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on the implications of social maladjustment for the teaching and learning process. Teaching and learning are activities carried out in a formal setting called the school. The school being a social environment required the individuals within it to interact effectively for the success of the teaching and learning process. For this interaction to occur optimally, both the teachers and learners should be socially well adjusted. If this social adjustment is lacking, thereby giving way to social maladjustment, the process of teaching and learning will adversely be affected. The implications of this social maladjustment on teaching and learning is the subject of the next discussion.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Discuss at least five implications of social maladjustment on teaching and learning.

MAIN CONTENT

- 3.1 Implications of social maladjustment for the teaching and learning process.

There are many implications associated with social maladjustment in the classroom. This is so because the maladjusted learner is always in conflict with himself, his teachers and his peers. The implications of having such children in the classroom includes the following:

- The problem of actually identifying the nature of the maladjustment. If the nature is not identified, and adequately managed, the child will continue to be disadvantaged. This is because the insecurities arising from personal maladjustment generate anxiety which may lead to great liability in mood and extreme fluctuations in behaviour. Over activity, withdrawal, loneliness and preoccupation with fantasy may result.
- Due to ignorance, some teachers may over-react to the affected child's behaviour with punishment such as incessant scolding, flogging, manual labour etc. which could end up reinforcing the deviant behaviour. In this case, the teacher's action has produced a negative effect (Cronbach, 1963). At the same time the maladjusted child becomes a nuisance to the teacher. He is usually observed to be disobeying the teacher, and in some cases, the child threatens and even fights the teacher. Consequently, teachers are frightened and unhappy when they have such children in their class.
- Some maladjusted children are often ostracized by their peers mainly because of their egocentric and domineering characters that make them unpopular. This unpopularity according to Cronbach (1963) makes it difficult for the affected child to interact and learn. Moreover, a child with such behaviour disorder causes problems to his peers. He disturbs class works. He quarrels and fights his peers. Some pupils especially the younger ones are usually afraid of going to school because of the deviant activities of the maladjusted child.
- Maladjustment retards the victim's ability to learn because he lacks the motivation and self-confidence to do so. Normal children are usually easily motivated and participate in activities eagerly and with confidence that

they will succeed. But for the maladjusted children, new activities are restricted because of their learning difficulties due to their handicapping conditions. They cannot concentrate in the classroom and as such they continue to fail.

- Another problem of the maladjusted child may not always be that of failing to learn, but that of learning other things. For instance, while other learns mathematics, all he learns is that the task is beyond him; that he is a non-coper, that teachers and students find him unreceptive, stupid and inattentive (Cashdan and Williams, 1972). Thus, due to the learning difficulties encountered by the maladjusted child, he would constitute nuisance to himself and in some cases ends up in prison or commits suicide.
- A maladjusted child has the problem of being easily frustrated and may not develop task-imposed discipline necessary for learning. Ugwu (1994) asserted that emotional disturbance narrows one's perceptual field, making him to ignore relevant details in his environment and this retards his ability to solve problems and draw meaningful conclusions.
- When maladjustment results to failure at school, inability to get along with teacher, dislike for social relationships in school and the belief that school work is unrelated to individual needs, the tendency to drop out of school becomes apparent. But because the prospects for school drop-out is bleak, they are prone to delinquency.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has acquainted you with the implications of social maladjustment on the teaching and learning process. It has highlighted several ways social maladjustment can affect teaching and learning

SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been exposed to at least seven problems that social maladjustment can create in the teaching and learning

process in the classroom. These problems as the case may be affect the maladjusted individual, his peers, his teachers and the society in general.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss fully the implications of social maladjustment in the classroom as it affects:

- (i) the maladjusted child
- (ii) the peers
- (iii) the teachers
- (iv) the society

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Cashdan, A. & Williams, P(1972). *Maladjustment and Learning*. Bucks: The Open University.

Cronbach, L. J. (1963). *Educational Psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace

Ugwu, A. B.C. (1994). *Elements of special Education for Higher Education*. Awka: Christian Publisher Company

UNIT 8 INTERVENTIONAL ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN HELPING THE MAL- ADJUSTED CHILDREN IN SCHOOL

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 General strategies for the management and control of maladjusted behaviours.
 - 3.2 Specific strategies for the modification of specific undesirable behaviours
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous units you have been exposed to the concept of maladjustment as well as its implications for the teaching and learning process in the school. In this unit, the focus is on how to help the maladjusted to change and become adjusted once more. To do this effectively, the teacher has to adapt various strategies that have been tested and found effective in achieving the desired goal.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit you should be able to:

1. Discuss the general strategies for the management and control of maladjusted behaviours
2. Discuss the specific strategies for the modification of specific undesirable behaviours.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 General strategies for the management and control of maladjusted behaviours.

Nwoye (1988) outlined the following strategies for managing and controlling children with behaviour disorders

1. Convincing the behaviour disordered child that he needs to change his behaviour pattern and that if he does so, his future life will be made better.
2. Changing the child's environment (both at home and at school) in such a way that it can promote the child's emotional, cognitive life, and
3. Planning of learning experiences in such a way that the behaviour disordered child may have ample alternatives for action.

Ngwu (1994) came up with a list of strategies that a teacher can adopt to change or modify unacceptable behaviour and encourage acceptable ones in the classroom. They include the following:

1. A teacher should react calmly to misbehaviour as it places him in a better position to get at the root of the behaviour. Related to this is that too much time should not be spent on reprimand as it might reinforce the behaviour by attracting the attention which the child may be seeking.
2. Rules should be established in a democratic way in the classroom. This leads to a better appreciation of rules, why they were made and punishment for offenders.
3. Teachers should avoid threats as they may occur and where this is the case, the teachers authority is eroded. Reporting a child to the higher authority should be the last resort.
4. An average emotionally disturbed child has problem with his memory and may not be able to think and learn in abstract terms. Therefore teaching materials that are of interest to the child should be used.

These include non-projected pictorial materials like real pictures or photographs, hand made drawings, diagrams and graphs, and projected pictorial materials like films and slides of desirable behaviours.

For the child with learning disability, Omebe (2001) outlined the following strategies for helping him.

1. The use of appropriate teaching method

2. The use of individualised instruction
3. The use of reinforcement
4. Referral to the guidance counsellor

For Nwoye (1988) the following approaches should be applied in helping the learning disordered child to get over his difficulties.

1. Showing the disabled child that he (the teacher) expects him to learn. The teacher does this by bringing the child to the front seat where he would be able to give him or her special attention.
2. Preventing other children from laughing at or making caricature of him, when he fails in his attempt to answer question put to him and
3. Avoiding the temptation to label or call any disabled child any derogatory name.

Chauhan (1978) came up with the following strategies for the treatment of delinquency:

1. **Re- education.**
The child has already learned antisocial behaviours. The aim of re-education is to build his self esteem by giving him information and clarify his ideas on different problems which he faces.
2. **Abreaction.**
This involves providing opportunity to the child to express his pent up and suppressed emotional feelings by means of free expression through discussion.
3. **Persuasion**
Persuade the delinquent not to indulge in delinquency in future. It is based on an appeal to the reason of the delinquent child. Persuasion should be logical and thorough in order to appeal to the delinquent child.
4. **Suggestion and Counselling**
Everyone is suggestible and children are more suggestible than adults. Positive suggestions are given to strengthen the super ego of the child.

5. **Environmental Treatment**

This is generally done by improving the home and school environment of the child. In addition, the child may be shifted to another better environment for a temporary period. It is expected that by placing the delinquent child in a new environment, he may give up his delinquent acts and start his life a fresh again.

Ugwu (1994) came up with the following guiding principles for educating the learning disabled.

1. **Individualized Instruction**

The individual differences inherent in learning disabled children require that programmes be planned and implemented for individuals, bearing in mind their peculiarities.

2. **Continuous Assessment**

There is the need that the children be continuously assessed to establish their level of progress and definite problem areas

3. **Task Analysis**

The fact that most learning-disabled children can not pay attention for long requires that tasks be broken down into parts which sum up to produce the desired behaviour.

4. **Teaching Materials**

The learning-disabled cannot engage in abstract thinking. This necessitates the use of concrete, teaching aids. However teaching aids that are complex and over-loaded with information capable of confusing or distracting the child should not be used.

5. **The Teacher**

The teacher should adopt a more friendly, co-operation and democratic attitude rather than autocratic, domineering and frightening posture. His dressing should be moderate, neat, and free from ornaments to avoid distraction.

3.1 Specific strategies for the modification of specific undesirable behaviours.

In addition to the general methods of intervention discussions above, there are specific strategies that have been found very useful in helping to bring about desirable changes in young school children with behavior problems. These strategies belong to the broad area of study called behaviour modification/therapy. Some of these strategies are discussed below.

Modelling Methods

The term modeling, observational learning, imitation, social learning, and vicarious learning have been used interchangeably. All refer to the process by which the behaviour of an individual (the model) acts as a stimulus for similar thoughts, attitudes and behaviours on the part of observers (Corey, 1996). Through the process of observational learning, client can learn to perform desired acts themselves without trial and error. Bandura (1986) has emphasized the role of modeling in the development and modification of much of human behaviour such as fears developed through social transmission rather than through direct experience with aversive stimuli. Bandura (1986) outline these major effects of modeling, each with significant effects for practice. First is the acquisition of new responses or skills and the performance of them. This observation learning effect refers to integrating new patterns of behaviour based on watching a model or models. Examples include learning skills in sports, learning language patterns, training autistic children to speak through the use of models, learning social skills, and teaching hospital patients coping skills necessary for their return to the community.

The second effect of modeling is an inhibition of fear responses which occur when observers' behaviours are inhibited in some way. In this case the model who performs an inhibited fear response either does not suffer negative consequences, or in fact, meets with positive consequences. Examples include models who handle feared objects, and models who perform daring feats like moving into a dark room and do not get hurt.

The third effect of modeling is a facilitation of responses, in which a model provides cues for others to emulate. The effect is to increase behaviours already learned and for which there are no

inhibitions. An example is coming to school early and staying in class during lessons.

Several types of model can be used in treatment sessions. Live modeling is a vicarious form of learning in which a client who needs behaviour change is exposed to the sensory experiences of another person. Symbolic modeling employs the use of words or pictures. With written words and pictures some behaviours can be modeled for the interest of those who need to imitate such attributes. Film modeling is equally relevant because films have potential for shaping human behaviour since the behaviour to be imitated has often been reproduced in films.

On the characteristics of effective models, Bandura (1969) indicated that a model who is similar to the observer with respect to age, sex, and attitude is more likely to be imitated than the model who is unlike the observer.

Secondly, models who have a degree of prestige and status are more likely to be imitated than those who have a low level of prestige. However, the status level of the observer should not be too high that the observer sees the models behaviour as unrealistic.

Finally, models who are competent in their performances and who exhibit warmth tend to facilitate modeling effect.

Assertion/Assertive training

Wolpe and Lazarus (1966) described assertive training as a method of helping people to overcome undesirable behaviours elicited by interpersonal encounters. The rationale for assertive training was presented as follows:

When anxiety inhibits the behaviour called for in interpersonal relations, there are also undesirable consequences. The individual is almost inevitably left at an objective disadvantage vis-a-vis others. His unexpressed impulse continues to reverberate within him. In many cases these persistent discharges produce somatic symptoms and even pathological changes in predisposed organs. Although most common class of assertive responses

involved in therapeutic actions is the expression of anger and resentment, the term 'assertive behaviour' is used quite broadly to cover all socially acceptable expression of personal rights and feelings (Wolpe and Lazarus 1966, p39).

This view hypothesized that if an individual could be encouraged to express his feelings more adequately in interpersonal situations, anxiety could gradually be inhibited since it was assumed to be incompatible with assertive expression of feeling. At each developmental stage in life, important social skills must be mastered, children need to learn how to make friends, adolescents need to learn how to interact with the opposite sex, and adults must learn how to effectively relate to mates, peers and supervisors. People who lack social skills frequently experience interpersonal difficulties at home, at work, at school and during leisure time (Corey, 1996)

Assertive training can be useful for the following people:

- Those who can not express anger or irritation,
- Those who have difficulty in saying no,
- Those who are overly polite and who allow others to take advantage of them,
- Those who find it difficult to express affection and other positive responses and
- Those who feel that they do not have a right to express their thoughts, beliefs and feelings.

Most assertive training programmes focus on defeating beliefs and faulty thinking. People often behave in unassertive ways because they think that they do not have a right to state a view point or ask for what they want or deserve.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement refers to the presentation of a positive reinforcer or the removal of a negative reinforcer after a response to increase the frequency of that response. Blurb

The event (i.e. the reinforcement) that follows behaviour must be contingent upon (dependent on) that behaviour. There are two types of reinforcement namely, positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement.

Positive reinforcement

Positive reinforcement refers to an increase in the frequency of a response that is followed by a positive reinforcer (Craighead, Kazdin, and Mahoney 1976). In other words, positive reinforcement is a behaviour change process in which a positive reinforcer is made to follow the manifestation of a desired behaviour thereby increasing the frequency of that behaviour. A positive reinforcer is any pleasant stimulus which if applied after a response, increases the frequency of the behaviour.

Positive reinforcer can be in form of verbal remarks. Like praise or commendation, or material items or food, pen, pencil, exercise book, eraser, sharpener, sweets etc, or they may be in form of redeemable tokens.

Any event or stimulus that does not increase the behaviour it follows is not an effective positive reinforcer. An increase in the frequency of the preceding behaviour is the defining characteristic of a positive reinforcer. In contrast, rewards are not positive reinforcers because they are given or received in return for service, merit or achievement.

Negative Reinforcement

According to Corey (1996) negative reinforcement involves the removal of an unpleasant stimuli from a situation once a certain behaviour has occurred. Put differently, negative reinforcement refers to an increase in the frequency of a response following the removal of a negative reinforcer. Negative reinforcers are generally unpleasant, so that the individual is motivated to exhibit a desired behaviour in order to avoid the unpleasant condition. An event is a negative reinforcer only if its removal after a response increases the performance of that response. Negative reinforcement requires some aversive events such as shock, noise, isolation, which is presented before the individual responds.

The aversive event is removed or reduced immediately after the desired response. An example is a situation where a child is timed out (isolated) for noise making or any other form of class

disruption. This isolation or time-out is an aversive event which can only be removed or stopped if the child shows a willingness to be orderly in the class. The moral or termination of the time-out (isolation) is a negative reinforcer which follows a desirable behaviour or response which is being orderly in class.

Punishment

Punishment refers to the presentation of an aversive stimulus or unpleasant event or the removal of a pleasant event after an undesirable response so as to reduce the probability of that response. This definition is at variance with the lay man's view of punishment as application of corporal punishment such as whipping, slapping, manual labour, etc. Azrin and Holz (1966) defined punishment as a reduction of the future probability of a specific response as a result of the immediate delivery of a stimulus for that response. Therefore for an event to meet this technical definition of punishment, the frequency of that response must decrease. Because of the negative connotations frequently associated with punishment, it is important to dispel some stereotypic notions that do not apply to the technical definition of punishment. Punishment does not necessarily entail pain or physical coercion. Punishment is neither a means of retribution, nor a retaliation for misbehaving (Craighead, Kazdin and Mahoney, 1976). Sometimes in everyday life, punishment is employed independent of its effect on subsequent behaviour. For instance, criminals may receive penalties that do not necessarily decrease their criminal acts. In the technical sense, punishment is defined solely by its effect on behaviour. Punishment is effective only if the frequency of a response is reduced.

There are two types of punishment identified by Craighead et al (1976). The first is punishment by application whereby an aversive stimulus is applied immediately after a response. Familiar examples include being reprimanded or spanked after engaging in an undesirable behaviour, or being burned after touching a hot stove. The second type is punishment by removal whereby a positive reinforcer is removed after an undesirable response. Examples include losing privileges like not watching a favourite film after stay out late, or for failing to complete a home work; losing pocket money for misbehaving, or having one's driving licence revoked for reckless driving. Whether these examples from every day life qualify as punishment depends

upon whether they decrease the frequency of the antecedent response.

Time-out

Time-out also called social isolation is a behaviour change strategy that is used to manage certain situation - specific excess behaviour. Essuman, Nwaogu and Nwachukwu (1990) defined it as a technique which removes an individual from the source of social reinforcement that maintains his behaviour. During time-out an individual is removed for a short while from a reinforcing situation in order to eliminate or decrease an undesirable behaviour. Essuman et al (1990) recommended a screened-off area adjoining the classroom as an ideal place for time-out following a disruptive classroom behaviour. The child remains in social isolation for a minimum period of time, usually about 10 minutes. Return to the classroom is contingent upon the passage of fixed period of time or the passage of that time period plus appropriate behaviour in the last minutes of the isolated period.

The technique can be used to manage undesirable classroom behaviour like hyperactivity, aggression and other disruptive behaviour.

Counter-Conditioning

Yates (1970) defined the terms counter conditioning and reciprocal inhibition as equivalent terms referring to the procedures that strengthen alternative (or new) responses to stimuli to which maladaptive responses are attached. Counter-conditioning takes place when the behaviour change agent reinforces an incompatible alternative behaviour in order to stop the obnoxious or excess behaviour.

The first move towards counter-conditioning is to select an alternative to the disruptive behaviour being exhibited by the client. An alternative or incompatible behaviour is one that is difficult to perform simultaneously with the deviant behaviour. Essuman et al (1990) cited the following examples: A child instead of reading engages in noise making. The teacher can stop the noise making by making reading pleasant through offering the child help in his efforts at finding out the difficult words in the passage. While the child engages in the reading exercise, the teacher praises him, and with time, the child forgets his noise-

making tendency. Examples of incompatible behaviour according to them are:

- i. Crying and eating
- ii. Thumb sucking and manipulating objects
- iii. Talking and listening to a peer at the same time
- iv. Reading and noise-making
- v. Problem-solving and movement in the class.

Counter conditioning can be used to manage anxiety, stress, phobias etc.

SELF ASSESMENT EXERCISE

List the specific interventional strategies that a teacher can adopt in managing disruptive classroom behaviour.

4.0 CONCLUSION

An important function of the school is to modify behaviour towards a desired goal. In this unit, you have been exposed to the various general and specific strategies that the teacher can apply in handling undesirable behaviours in the classroom in order to attain one of the goals of being in school which is social adjustment.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has shown that various disruptive behaviours are manifested by children in the classroom. Various interventional strategies for handling such behaviours equally abound. The interventional strategies the teacher can adopt in dealing with disruptive behaviour were discussed under two headings ó general and specific.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the strategies mapped out by Nwoye (1988) for the management and control of behaviour disorders.
2. Discuss assertion/Assertive training as a technique for handling a specific undesirable behaviour.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Azrin, H. H. & Holz, W.C. (1966). In W. K. Honig, (Ed.) *Operent Behaviour: Areas of Research and Application*. New York: Appleton ó Century ó Crofth.
- Bandura, A. (1969). *Principles of behaviour Modification*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and actions: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Engleword Cliffs, N.J: Prentice hall.
- Chauhan, S.S. (1978). *Advanced Educational Psychology*. New Delhi: Vikas publishers
- Corey, G. (1996). *Theory and Practice of Counselling and Psychotherapy*. Pacific Grove CA: Brooks/Cole Publishers
- Craighead, W.E., Kazdin, A. F. & Mahoney, M.J (1976). *Behaviour modification: Principles, issues and applications*. Boston; Houghton Mifflin Company
- Essuman, J.K, Nwaogu, P.O & Nwachukwu, V.C. (1990). *Principles and techniques of behaviour Modification*. Owerri: International Universities press.
- Nwoye, A.A.(1988). *The Task and Demands of Counselling the Disabled Persons in Nigeria*. Jos: Fab Anieh Limited.
- Omebe, S.E. (2001). *Human Learning*. Enugu: Cleston Ltd.
- Ugwu, A.B.C. (1994). *Elements of Special Education for Higher Education*. Awka: Christian publishing company.
- Wolpe, J. & Lazarus, A. A. (1966). *Behaviour Therapy Techniques*. New York: Perganon.

Yates, A.J. (1970). *Behaviour Therapy*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

MODULE 2

Unit 1	Sigmund Freud's Personality Theory
Unit 2	Harry Stack Sullivan's Personality Theory
Unit 3	Alfred Adler's Personality Theory
Unit 4	Erich Fromm's Personality Theory
Unit 5	Abraham Maslow's need Theory of Personality
Unit 6	Carl Jung's Personality Theory
Unit 7	Carl Roger's Personality Theory

**UNIT 1 SIGMUND FREUD'S PSYCHOANALYTIC
THEORY OF PERSONALITY****CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	View of human nature
3.2	Definition of Educational Management
3.3	Anxiety and Defence Mechanisms
3.4	Personality Development
3.5	The Therapeutic Process
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor ó Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality. It is intended to acquaint you with the meaning of psychoanalysis; who Sigmund Freud is; his view of human nature, his different stages of personality development, and the therapeutic process employed by analysts in assisting clients.

Psychoanalysis is a method of treating individuals who have problems of psychological rather than physical nature. The originator of psychoanalysis was Sigmund Freud. Freud was born in Moravia (now Czechoslovakia) in 1856 and died in England in 1939. He studied medicine at the University of Viennand after graduating in 1881, he became interested in

psychiatry. Consequently, he went to Paris in 1885 and studied under Jean Martin Charcot. Freud's ideas permeated many contemporary theories of personality and is the basis of many counselling practices. Individuals who accepted the basic Freudian principles and somehow modernized them are called Neo-Freudians.

The major objective of the psychoanalytic therapy is to help individuals achieve an enduring understanding of their own mechanisms of adjustment and thereby help them resolve their basic problems. It is designed primarily for the treatment of neurosis but has been used successfully with a variety of psychological disorders.

It is expected that by the conclusion of this unit you should become familiar with the following objectives.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Discuss Freud's view of human nature
2. Identify the components of the personality structure
3. Discuss how the human personality develops
4. State the cause of anxiety in humans and how they are handled.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Freud's view of Human Nature

Freud believes that humans are shaped or determined by irrational forces, unconscious motivations, biological and instinctual drives as well as some psychosexual events which occur during the first five years of life. He sees man as essentially biological having been born with instinctual drives, and that behaviour is a function of these drives. These instinctual drives are a form of energy which can be described as need. When a need arises in the human being, he experiences a state of tension or pressure. These instincts in man are grouped into two – life instinct (eros) and death instincts (thanatos). The life instincts drive the individual in search of pleasure and avoidance

of pain. In other words they serve the purpose of survival of the individual by seeking to satisfy the need for food, water and sex. These life instincts, also equated with the libido, lead to growth, development and creativity. The death instincts on the other hand lead the individual to engage in aggressive drives such as the desire to destroy, conquer and kill.

Freud believes that both the life instincts (eros) and the death instincts (thanatos) are powerful determinants of why people behave or act the way they do. He sees the process of living as a continuous effort to cope with a central conflict which borders on how to satisfy the instincts (sexual and aggressive drives) without infringing on society's rules and without suffering much personal shame and guilt.

3.2 Personality Structure

Freud at various times developed different structures of the human personality but the most enduring was the last one which he developed in 1923. In this last structure, Freud saw personality as composed of three major systems: the id, the ego and the super ego. Each of these systems has its own functions, but the three interact to govern behaviour. In other words, one's personality functions as a whole rather than as three discrete segments. The id is the biological component, the ego is psychological component and the super ego is the social component (Corey, 1996).

THE ID

The id is the original source of personality, present in the newborn infant from which the ego and superego later develop. It consists of everything that is inherited, including the instinctual drives of sex and aggression. It is closely linked to the biological process and provides the energy source (libido) for the operation of all three systems. Increase in the energy level (from either internal or external stimulation) produce uncomfortable tension for the id, and the id seeks immediately to reduce the tension and return the organism to its normal state. Thus the id seeks immediate gratification of primitive, pleasure seeking impulses. The id, like the newborn infant operates on the pleasure principle;

it endeavours to avoid pain and obtain pleasure regardless of any external considerations.

One process by which the id attempts to reduce tension is to form a mental image or hallucination of the object that will remove the tension. Thus a starving man may form a mental image of a delicious meal. Freud called such attempts to satisfy needs irrationally, with no consideration of reality, primary process thinking (Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson, 1975). Thus the id lacks organization and is blind, demanding and insistent. The id is illogical, amoral and driven by one consideration, to satisfy instinctual needs. The id never matures, remaining the spoiled brat of personality. It does not think but only wishes or acts. The id is largely unconscious, or act of awareness (Corey, 1996).

THE EGO

According to Hilgard et al (1975), mental images do not satisfy needs. The starving man cannot reduce his hunger by eating visual images. Reality must be considered. And this is the role of the ego. The ego develops out of the id because of the need to deal with the real world. The hungry man has to have food if the tension of hunger is to be reduced. He may not be immediately able to satisfy his hunger pangs if food is not present in the environment. Thus, the ego obeys the reality principle, which requires it to test reality and delay discharge of tension until the appropriate environmental conditions are available. The ego, thus operates by secondary process thinking which is realistic and logical, and plans how to achieve satisfaction. The id seeks immediate tension reduction by such primary processes as direct gratification of impulses or wish fulfilling imagery. The ego takes the real world into consideration. For example, it delays the gratification of sexual impulses until conditions are appropriate. Thus, the ego is essentially the executive of the personality because it decides what actions are appropriate, which id instincts will be satisfied, and in what manner. The ego mediates between the demands of the id, the realities of the world, and the demands of the superego.

THE SUPEREGO

The third structure of personality, the superego, is the internalized representation of the values and morals of society as taught to the child by the parents and others. The superego judges whether an action is right or wrong according to the standards of the society. The id seeks pleasure, the ego tests reality, and the superego strives for perfection. The superego develops in response to parental rewards and punishment. It is composed of the conscience, which incorporates all the things the child is punished or reprimanded for doing, and the ego ideal, which includes those actions the child is rewarded for doing. The conscience punishes by making the person feel guilty, and the ego-ideal rewards by making the individual feel proud of himself (Hilgard et al, 1975). Initially, the parents control the child's behaviour directly through rewards and punishments. Through the incorporation of parental standards into the superego, behaviour is brought under self-control. The child no longer needs anyone to tell him it is wrong to steal, his superego tells him.

The main functions of the superego are:

1. To inhibit the impulses of the id, particularly those that the society prohibits, such as sex and aggression,
2. To persuade the ego to substitute moralistic goals for realistic ones, and
3. To strive for perfection.

Thus the superego is considered as the judicial branch of personality. Sometimes, however, the three components of personality are at odds: the ego postpones gratification that the id wants right away, and the superego battles with both the id and ego because behaviour often fall short of the moral code it represents. But more often in the normal person, the three work as a team, producing integrated behaviour.

3.3 Anxiety and Defence Mechanisms

Freud believes that the conflict between the id impulses of primarily sexual and aggressive instincts and the restraining influence of the ego and superego constitute the motivating source of personality. Because society condemns free expression of aggression and sexual behaviour, such impulses cannot be immediately and directly expressed. The child learns early that

he may not hit his sibling or handle the genitals in public. He eventually internalizes parental restrictions on impulse satisfaction to form the superego. The more restraints a society places on impulse expression, the greater the potential for conflict between the three parts of the personality.

The desires of the id are powerful forces that must be expressed in some way. Prohibiting them does not abolish them. A person with an urge to do something for which he will be punished becomes anxious. Anxiety is a state of uncomfortable tension that the person is motivated to reduce. One way of reducing anxiety is to express the impulse in disguised form, thereby avoiding punishment by society and condemnation by the superego. For example aggressive impulses may be displaced to sports or championing political causes. Another method of reducing anxiety, called repression, is to push the impulses out of awareness into the unconscious. These methods of anxiety reduction are called defence mechanisms. Defence mechanisms are means of defending the personality against painful anxiety. They are never totally successful in relieving tension, and the residue spills over in the form of nervousness or restlessness, which as Freud pointed out, is the price we pay for being civilized. Presumably, a society that places no restrictions on free expression of the id's instincts would produce people completely free of anxiety or tension. But such a society would probably not survive for long, all societies must place some restrictions on behaviour for the well-being of the group (Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson, 1975).

Brenner (1974) opined that defence mechanisms are generally used in clusters, rarely singly or even in pairs. A number of defence mechanisms have been postulated by Freud. Coleman (1950) gave a typical list of Ego-defence mechanisms, and their functions as follows:

Mechanism	Function
Denial of reality	Protecting self from unpleasant reality by refusal to perceive it.
Fantasy	Gratifying frustrated desires in imaginary achievements.

Compensation	Covering up weaknesses by emphasizing desirable trait or making up for frustration in one area by over-gratification in another.
Identification	Increasing feelings of worth by identifying with person or institution of illustrious standing.
Introjection	Incorporating external values and standards into ego structure so that the individual is not at their mercy as external threats.
Projection	Placing blame for difficulties upon others or attributing one's unethical desires to others.
Rationalization	Attempting to prove that one's behaviour is rational and justifiable and thus worthy of self and social approval.
Repression	Preventing painful or dangerous thoughts from entering consciousness.
Reaction formation	Preventing dangerous desires from being expressed by exaggerating opposed attitudes and types of behaviour and using them as barriers.
Displacement	Discharging pent-up feelings, usually of hostility, on objects less dangerous than those which initially aroused the emotions.
Emotional insulation	Withdrawing into passivity to protect self from harm.

Isolation	Cutting off affective charge from hurtful situations or separating incompatible attitudes by logic-tight compartments.
Regression	Retreating to earlier developmental level involving less mature responses and usually a lower level of aspiration.
Sublimation	Gratifying frustrated sexual desires in substitute for non-sexual activities.
Undoing	Atoning for and thus counteracting immoral desires.

Defence mechanisms form the basis of Freud's theory of neurotic and psychotic behaviours. Individuals differ in the balance among id, ego and superego systems and in the methods they use to defend against anxiety. The way in which a person approaches a problem situation reflects the manner in which he has learned to cope with the conflicting demands of the three parts of his personality. Hilgard et al (1975) warned that in discussing defence mechanisms, we should bear in mind that all the mechanisms are to be found in the everyday behaviour of normal people. Used in moderation, they increase satisfaction in living and are therefore helpful modes of adjustment. It is when the mechanisms become the dominant modes of problem-solving that they indicate personality maladjustment.

3.4 Personality Development

Psychosexual stages of Development: Freud believed that the personality develops largely as the result of what occurs at certain fixed stages during the first five years of life. Individual differences in adult personality reflect the manner in which the person coped with the conflicts that may have arisen during the stages of psychosexual development. The id's energy, libido, attaches itself to the different activities at each stage of development. Each stage of development during the first five years is defined in terms of the modes of reaction of a particular zone of the body. In each stage there is conflict that must be

satisfactorily resolved before the child can move on to the next stage. Sometimes an individual is reluctant or unable to move from one stage to another because the conflict has not been resolved. In such a situation, the individual is said to be "fixated" at that stage of development. The infant is said to obtain a very diffuse form of bodily pleasure, derived from the mouth, the anus, and the genitals. These are the erogenous zones of the body.

The Oral Stage: Birth – 1 Year

The baby's first contacts with the world are through his mouth. Sucking the mother's breasts satisfies the infant's need for food and pleasure. As the mouth and lips are sensitive erogenous zones, sucking produces erotic pleasure. Two activities during this developmental period are oral-incorporative behaviour and oral-aggressive behaviour. These early behaviours are considered to be prototypes of some of the character traits of childhood. First to appear is the oral-incorporative behaviour, which involves pleasurable stimulations of the mouth. Adults who exhibit excessive oral needs such as eating, chewing, talking, smoking, drinking and kissing may have had oral fixation. The oral-aggressive behaviour begins when the infant begins teething. Biting is one activity at this time. The infant for the first time views the mother with hatred as well as love. Adult characteristics, due to fixation at this stage, such as sarcasm, hostility, aggression, gossip and making "biting" comments to others are related to events of his developmental period.

Freud believed that there were two dangers at this stage of development. If the infant's relationship with the mother becomes too comfortable, the child would then fixate. This fixation would produce an overly dependent personality in adult life. On the other hand, the child who experiences a lot of anxiety in the interaction with the mother may feel insecure even in adult life (Uba, 1987).

The Anal Stage: 1-3 Years

The anal zone comes to be of great significance from the beginning of the second year up to the end of the Third year. The manner in which toilet training is conducted at this stage is

extremely important because the child begins to receive pleasure from bowel movements. The parents begin to place much emphasis on toilet training and show pleasure when the child succeeds to perform the act in the right place at the right time. The method of toilet training and the parents feelings, attitudes and reactions towards the child can have far reaching consequences on the formation of personality.

If strict toilet training methods are adopted, the child may discharge his feces at inappropriate places and times. Through this means, the child vents his anger. If he finds this a satisfactory technique for reducing frustration and uses it frequently, the child may develop what Freud called anal aggressive personality. This is the basis for all forms of hostile and sadistic behaviours in adult life, including cruelty, destructiveness, temper tantrums, etc.

Some parents might attach much attention to their children's bowel movements by giving praise whenever they defecate. This can lead to a child's exaggerated view of the importance of this activity. Such an idea may be the basis for creativity and productivity. Later adult characteristics have their roots in the experiences of this stage. For instance, certain adults develop fixations revolving around extreme orderliness, hoarding, stubbornness and stinginess. Freud described this as the anal-retentive personality.

The Phallic Stage: 3-5 Years

During this period there is a shift from the anal region and towards the genital erogenous zone. During this period, sexual activity becomes more intense, and the focus of attention is on the genital – the boy's penis and the girl's clitoris (Corey, 1996). The basic conflict of the phallic stage centres on the unconscious incestuous desire that children develop for the parent of the opposite sex. Because these feelings are of such a threatening nature, they are typically repressed; yet they are powerful determinants of later sexual development and adjustment. Along with the wish to possess the parent of the opposite sex, comes the unconscious wish of the child to –do away with– the competition – the parent of the same sex.

In the male phallic stage, the boy craves the attention of his mother, feels antagonistic towards the father, and develops fear that his father will punish him for his incestuous feeling towards the mother. This is known as the Oedipus Complex. Thus the mother becomes the love object for the boy. Both in his fantasy and his behaviour, he exhibits sexual longings for her. He soon realizes that his more powerful father is a rival for the exclusive attention he desires from her. About the time when the mother becomes the object of love for the boy, repression is already operating which prevents a conscious awareness of a part of his sexual aims.

At this time the boy typically develops specific fears related to his penis. Freud described the condition of castration anxiety, which is said to play a central role in the boy's life at this time. His ultimate fear is that his father would retaliate by cutting off his offending organ. The reality of castration is emphasized when the boy notices the absence of the penis in girls. As a result of this anxiety of losing his prized organ, the boy is said to repress his sexual desire for his mother. If the oedipal conflict is properly resolved the boy replaces his sexual desire for the mother with more acceptable forms of affections. He also develops strong identification with the father. Through this identification with the father, the boy experiences satisfaction and adopts many of his father's mannerisms.

The Electra Complex is the girl's counterpart of the Oedipus Complex. The girl's first love object is her mother, but the love is transferred to her father during this stage. She develops negative feelings towards her mother when she discovers the absence of a penis, the condition known as penis envy. This is the girl's counterpart to the boy's castration anxiety. She is said to have a desire to compete with her mother for her father's attention, and when she realizes that she cannot replace her mother, she begins an identification process of taking on some of the characteristics of her mother's behaviour and represses her love for her father. Successful resolution of the Oedipal and Electra complexes with identification with the appropriate parents, is critical for healthy development. Any condition in the family that would alter the identification process should create real problems. For instance, if the mother is more powerful within the family than the father, this should create problem for

the boy, who would then not fear his father sufficiently to lead a strong identification. The male phallic personality is seen to be self-assured, displaying a kind of 'I don't care' attitude. On the other hand, the female phallic personality exaggerates her femininity and uses her talent and charms to overwhelm and conquer men.

The Latency Stage: 5 – 12 Years

During the latency period new interests replace infantile sexual impulses. Socialization takes place and children direct their interests to the larger world. The sexual drive is sublimated to some extent, to activities in school, hobbies, sports, and friendships with members of the same sex.

The oral, anal and phallic stages taken together are known as the pregenital period. A major characteristic of this period is a narcissistic orientation, or an inward and self-centred preoccupation. During the middle childhood years, there is a turning outward towards relationship with others. Children of this age have an interest in things of the external world as well as their internal world. This period prevails until the on-set of puberty.

The Genital Stage: 12 – 18 Years and Above

The further changes in hormones and the genital organs that take place during puberty reawakens the sexual energy of the child. Adolescents typically develop interest in the opposite sex, engage in some sexual experimentation, and begin to assume adult responsibilities. Freud placed some emphasis on the fact that not everyone works through this period to a point of mature heterosexual love, if there have been no major fixations at any of the earlier stages of development. There are still many societal sanctions and taboos concerning sexual expression to which the adolescent must conform. Conflict is minimized through the use of sublimation. As the adolescents at this stage move out of adolescence and into mature adulthood, they develop intimate relationships, become free of parental influence, and develop the capacity to be interested in others. There is a trend away from narcissism and towards altruistic behaviour and concern for

others. Accordingly, working and loving, as well as deriving satisfaction from them are of paramount importance.

In conclusion, we have observed that Freud strongly emphasized the importance of the early years of childhood in determining the adult personality. Each of these stages is fraught with the potential for producing frustrations, conflicts, and threats. Freud believed that individuals deal with these tensions through identification, displacement and other defence mechanisms (Uba, 1978).

3.5 The Therapeutic Process

According to Corey (1996) the techniques of psychoanalytic therapy are aimed at increasing awareness, fostering insight into the client's behaviour, and understanding the meanings of symptoms. The basic techniques of psychoanalytic therapy are discussed.

FREE ASSOCIATION

The analyst instructs the patient to relax with his eyes closed, while clearing the mind of day-to-day thoughts and preoccupations, and as much as possible, to say whatever comes to mind, regardless of how painful, silly, trivial and irrelevant it may be. These associations will be centred around either a dream, day-dream, wish, thought or behaviour. It should be voiced aloud, and there must not be any omitting, rearranging or reconstruction of the memories.

The analyst listens, prods occasionally by asking questions when the verbal flow of the patient dries up, but does not interrupt when the patient is talking.

INTERPRETATION

Interpretation is a basic procedure used in analyzing free associations, dreams, resistances and transferences. The procedure consists of the analyst's pointing out, explaining, and even teaching the patient the meanings of behaviour that is manifested by dreams, free associations, resistances, and the therapeutic relationship itself (Corey, 1996). The functions of

interpretation are to allow the ego to assimilate new materials, and to replace superego functions with ego functions. In short, interpretation is designed to bring the patient step by step back to the world of reality, which should start from the surface and go only as deep as the patient is able to go while experiencing the situation emotionally. It is best in the process to point out a resistance or defence before interpreting the emotion or emotion that lies beneath it.

DREAM ANALYSIS

Dream analysis is an important procedure for uncovering unconscious material and giving the patient insight into some areas of unresolved problems. During sleep, defences are lowered, and repressed feelings surface. Freud sees dreams as the royal road to the unconscious, for in them one's unconscious wishes, needs, and fears are expressed in disguised symbolic form rather than being revealed directly. Dreams have two levels of content: the latent content and the manifest content. The latent content consists of hidden, symbolic and unconscious motives, wishes and fears. Because they are so painful and threatening, the unconscious sexual and aggressive impulses that make up the latent content are transformed into the more acceptable manifest content which is the dream as it appears to the dreamer. The process by which the latent content of a dream is transformed into the less threatening manifest content is called dream work. The therapist's work is to uncover disguised meanings by studying the symbols in the manifest content of the dream.

ANALYSIS OF RESISTANCE

Resistance is the client's reluctance to bring to the surface of awareness unconscious materials that have been repressed. This is because some experiences or memories are too painful to talk about, and the patient would refuse to disclose them. Freud called these moments resistance, which indicate that the treatment is going in the right direction and that the therapist should continue to probe more deeply into that area. He viewed resistance as an unconscious dynamic that attempts to defend people against intolerable anxiety, which would arise if they were to become aware of their repressed impulses and feelings.

Resistance operates specifically in psychoanalytic therapy by preventing the patient and analyst from succeeding in their joint efforts to gain insight into the dynamics of the unconscious. Part of the task of the analyst is to break down or overcome resistances by pointing it out so that the patient can face the repressed experience realistically. It is the process of assimilating insights into a meaningful composite that can be useful at the patient.

ANALYSIS OF TRANSFERENCE

According to Greenson (1967) transference reactions include the patient's experiences, feelings, drives, attitudes, fantasies and defences towards a person in the present which are inappropriate to that person, and are a repetition, a displacement of reactions originating in regard to significant persons of early childhood. Transference manifests itself in the therapeutic process at the point where the patient's past interactions with significant others cause him or her to distort the present and to react to the therapist as he or she did to his or her father or mother or to another early significant person. It makes sense that the patients react to the therapists as they did to a significant person. The transference situation is considered valuable because its manifestations provide patients with the opportunity to re-experience a variety of feelings that would otherwise be inaccessible. Through the relationship with the therapist, patients express feelings, beliefs and desires that they have buried in their unconscious. Through appropriate interpretations and working through of these current expressions early feelings, patients are able to change some of their longstanding patterns of behaviour. Transference could be positive or negative. Positive transferences are the different forms of sexual attraction including liking, loving, and respecting. Negative transferences are different forms of aggressiveness, including hate, anger, rage, dislike or argumentativeness.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. List the various techniques of therapy in psychoanalysis.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have been exposed to the general outlines of Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality. These include Freud's view of human nature, personality structures, anxiety and defence mechanisms, personality development and the techniques and processes of psychoanalytic therapy.

5.0 SUMMARY

The major concepts of Freudian psychoanalytic theory include the struggle between the life and death instincts at the heart of human nature; the tripartite structure of personality, with its systems of the id, the ego and the superego, the role of anxiety and the ego defence mechanisms, and the development of personality at various life periods, including the oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital stages. The most important techniques employed in the psychoanalytic practice include free association, interpretation, dream analysis, analysis of resistance and analysis of transference.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Id, Ego and Superego constitute the basis of human personality structure. Discuss.
2. What are the possible values of defence mechanisms?
3. What do you understand by fixation; and what factors are responsible for its development?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Brenner, C. (1974). *An elementary textbook of Psychoanalysis*. New York: Anchor Press.
- Coleman, F. C. (1950) *Abnormal psychology and modern life*. New York. Scott Foresman.
- Corey, G. (1976). *Theory and Practice of Counselling and Psychotherapy*. Pacific Grove: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

- Greenson, R. R. (1967). *The Techniques and Practice of Psychoanalysis*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Hilgard, E. R., Atkinson, R. C. & Atkinson, R. L. (1975) *Introduction to Psychology*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jevanovich.
- Uba, A. (1987). The Psychoanalytic approach of Sigmund Freud in A. Uba ed. *Theories of Personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press.

UNIT 2 HARRY STACK SULLIVAN'S INTER-PERSONAL RELATIONS THEORY OF PERSONALITY

CONTENTS

- Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Personality Structure
 - 3.2 Personality Development
 - 3.3 Assessment Techniques
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 TutoróMarked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit explains Harry Stack Sullivan's inter-personal relation theory of personality, its structure, personality development and assessment techniques.

Harry Stack Sullivan was born in Norwick in New York in 1892 and died in France in 1949. He was the only surviving child of his parents who had earlier lost two children to death. Sullivan was known to be lonely in his childhood because of the very little affection shown him by his parents.

This loneliness had a profound effect on his view on personality in later life. In school, Sullivan found it difficult to get along with other children. He had no friends and his school mates isolated him and this made him to be shy and withdrawn. Thus, he was thrown into loneliness both at home and in school. This loneliness significantly affected his personality.

These unpleasant circumstances in his early life ó inaffectionate parents, unfriendly school mates, being an only child, being a catholic in a predominantly protestant community, and being a homosexual ó had considerable influences on his formulation of interpersonal relations in psychiatry and personality.

Sullivan entered the Cornell University at the age of sixteen in 1908 but eventually dropped out as a result of academic failure later at the age of nineteen, he entered a medical school in Chicago. On graduation, he practiced as a medical officer and later acquired psychiatric experience from on- the jobs training through his wide exposure to psychiatric patients.

Although Sullivan was strongly influenced by psychoanalytic studies, he always related psychoanalytic interpretation to concepts developed by non-psychoanalytic psychiatrists. For instance, while Freud attributed sexual motives behind the early parent-child relationships, Sullivan looks at such relationship as a quest for security by the child. Here again, one sees Sullivan's early experiences influencing his theoretical stand on personality. According to Joe (1987), Sullivan strongly believes in the traits that bind human beings together than those that distinguish human beings. He rejected the psychology of individual differences because he felt they were rather subjective and difficult to study it. Sullivan was of the view that it was much easier to study the traits that are similar among men. The following objectives will be the focus on this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

1. Discuss the personality structure propounded by Sullivan.
2. Identify the stages in the development of personality.
3. Discuss Sullivan's assessment techniques

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Personality Structure

According to Joe (1987), Sullivan looked at personality as a psychological construct with a more or less enduring patterns of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize a man. To Sullivan, the basic determinant of personality is the interpersonal situation. The individual does not live in isolation but with other people in society. So man's total personality is the product of his interaction with significant people around him, Sullivan equally recognizes the role of heredity and maturation in the shaping of personality but subordinated them to the role of environmental

factors. Sullivan believes that psychological processes like perceiving, remembering, thinking, imagining etc, which made up an individual's personality are interpersonal in nature. Thus for him the structure of personality is centred majorly on the following three processes ó dynamism, personifications and cognitive processes.

Dynamisms

Sullivan described the term dynamism as the smallest unit in the study of personality. He sees dynamism as the stable pattern of energy transformations that characterize a human being as a living organism (Sullivan, 1953). An energy transformation is a form of behaviour. It could be overt like speaking, playing crying, etc, or covert like thinking, imagining, and daydreaming. Sullivan's description of dynamisms as being stable and recurring makes them similar to habits. He believes that all humans have the same basic dynamisms but their expression is a function of interpersonal relations in the environment. Dynamisms are normally centred around particular zones like the mouth, the anus and the genitals (compare with Freud's body zones).

Dynamics or units of personality are useful in satisfying the basic needs of the individual like hunger, thirst, sexual desire, etc. There is however, an important dynamism which develops out of anxiety. This Sullivan calls the "Self" or the "Self System". The individual's efforts are continually geared towards pressuring the self-system.

The Self-System

The self system originates from one's experience with anxiety. The individual continually tries to reduce anxiety which is societal in origin and this he does by:

- i Approving certain behaviour patterns that he derives satisfaction from and which also meets societal approval (the good me)
- ii Suppressing some behaviours which are threatening to the self (the bad me)
- iii Eliminating those that are totally intolerable (the not me)

If the self system becomes excessively preoccupied with reducing anxiety, it becomes separated from other parts of the personality.

This makes the person to expend most of his energy in attempting to preserve the self from anxiety which is uncomfortable. In doing this, the person may become self-centred and have an inflated idea of himself even though this may actually conflict with what he really is. The self system acts as the custodian of one's security in the society. It is a protective device and its development starts with the infant's interaction with the parents. Sullivan however believes that excessive use of the self system to reduce anxiety leads to an individual whose self system is distorted out of reality.

Personifications

Personification refers to the image that one has, first about himself and then of another person. Sullivan believes that personification grows out of interpersonal interactions: Personifications are developmental in nature. As the child grows, he first personifies himself in terms of the good and bad nature of himself. From this he notices and empathizes with the good or bad nature of others as he interprets their behaviours. If for example, he always has good and pleasant experience with people from a particular state, any body from that state was automatically regarded as good. If the experiences had been bad, any person who came from that state was regarded as bad. Personifications therefore, could become complex impressions of the individual about himself first and that of others as a result of his previous experience with people around him. Personifications may be distorted and exaggerated to protect the self against anxiety. This leads to the idea that some people are harmful and must be avoided while others are innocent and could be tolerated. According to Sullivan, the whole idea about personification is that interpersonal relations which the individual encounters daily as a result of living are full of tension and the reduction of this tension is necessary to protect the self system. This, he thought, could be done through personification.

Cognitive Processes

Cognitive processes refer to the role of cognition in the development of personality. Sullivan identified the following three types of cognitive experiences in the development of an individual's personality or prototaxic, parataxic and syntaxic models of cognitive experiences.

i Prototaxic Experiences

These are raw feelings, images and sensations that flow through the mind, the so-called "Stream of Consciousness" process, Sullivan believes that these are found in the early months of life. These prototaxic feelings, images and sensations are not coordinated in a systematic manner as such. They are rudimentary and are preconditions to the other two types of modes.

ii Parataxic Experiences

These refer to seeing causal relationships between events occurring at the same time. Although two events might coordinate highly, they may logically be unrelated. For example a person may think that because he sat at a particular area of an examination hall during an examination and performed well, he should sit at that particular area in another examination so as to do well again. This person sees a casual relationship between a sitting place and doing well in an examination. Sullivan believes that all superstitions are examples of parataxic experience. He also believes that most people thinking do not proceed beyond parataxic experience. Quite often we are tempted to see casual relationships between experiences that have nothing in common except that these may have occurred together probably by chance previously. Sullivan believes that many of the thought processes of psychotics such as hallucinations and delusions are parataxic.

iii Syntactic Experiences

Syntactic experiences refer to the use of words and numbers as symbols carrying meanings. These symbols are mutually agreed upon by groups of people (in interpersonal relations) as means of communication among themselves. Sullivan describes this mode of thinking as the higher types of cognitive process in the development of one's personality. Syntactic experience enables a person to respond to people symbolically (by means of words and numbers) unlike the infant who responds by actions. As an individual grows, the personifications of both self and others are built around symbols like words. A child who is scolded often (you are

too noisy, clumsy, troublesome etc) may develop the bad ó me personification. A child who is praised, like you are nice, good boy, excellent performance etc. now develop the good ó me image.

Syntactic mode of experiences enables interpersonal experiences to be systematically co-ordinated so that such experiences now have logical connections. The result is that people are able to communicate with one another symbolically, Sullivan believes that interpersonal communication is possible for those who can operate at this level. He is of the view that man operates daily in both syntactic and parataxic modes of experiences (Joe, 1987)

Personality Development

Sullivan believes that these are stages in the development of personality and consequently describes in detail the interpersonal situations and experiences that occur in each stages. He came up with the following seven stages of human personality development- Infancy, Childhood, Juvenile, Preadolescent, Early Adolescence, Late adolescence and Adulthood. Sullivan describes each stage under ó age, body zone (centre of dynamisms), self system, cognitive experiences and direct interpersonal experiences.

Infancy Stage

The infancy period extends from birth to about 28 months and dynamisms (units of behaviour patterns) at this stage centre on the oral zone. The self system at this stage is just emerging. Cognitive experiences of the infant are largely prototaxic (mainly actions) and personifications are centred around the nursing parents like the mother. Portrait interpersonal experiences at this stage are nursing ó breast or bottle and considerable emphasos on the nipple. The concept of the good or bad mother begins to appear as a result of the nursing interaction between the child and the mother. However, the child is still completely dependant on material and parental care. Articulate speech emerges at the end of this state.

Childhood Stage

This stage extends from about 18/20 months to 4-5 years and covers the preschooling period. This stage is characterized by the

presence of articulate speech and the need for playmates. The self system now encompasses sex-role recognition (boys doing things expected of males and girls behaving as expected of females). The cognitive experiences are largely parataxic with syntactic experience just emerging. Important interpersonal experiences include personifications, where the child plays dramatizations, where the child plays at being an adult is common at this stage as well as the emergence of malevolent transformations, the syndrome of feeling that the world is against you (one lives among enemies). If this attitude is very strong, it leads the child to become very defensive and this considerably interferes with the child's interpersonal relation or experiences leading to isolation. The malevolent transformation is an attempt to protect the self system from tension and anxiety that result from unpleasant and painful experiences the child encounters with people as a result of daily living. The child is still dependent on the parents (Joe, 1987).

Juvenile Stage

This stage extends from around 5/6 to 11 years. The stage covers the primary school period and the genital zones are dormant at this period. The self system now encompasses integrating needs like self control. Cognitive experiences here are mostly syntactic. The Juvenile is fascinated with symbols. Interpersonal experiences at this stage include socialization outside the family. The child experiences social subordination (i.e. obeying teachers and other school authorities). The child may interact with peers on cooperation and competitive bases. Learning controls by being inattentive or shutting off experiences that do not interest him and controlling his behaviour by developing more effective ways substituting threatening experiences with more accommodating experiences that are societal sanctioned. Sullivan calls this sublimation. The juvenile now orientates himself on how to live with people although he is still dependent on authority figures.

Preadolescence Stage

This stage covers the early period of secondary school -11-13 years. The genitals are now emerging from dormancy. The self - system stabilized and cognitive experiences are still mostly syntactic. The interpersonal experiences at this stage are:

- i Important need for peers of the same sex. Infact the individual's relation with a peer of the same sex can be so intimate that he could take problems to him and vice versa
- ii Genuine human relationship with others who are not authoritative and adult figure. These relationship are based on equality, mutuality and reciprocity.
- iii Self is now emerging as an independent one but a confused one. The relationship with peers at this stage is so important to the individual that if these relationships are either disturbed or inappropriately formed, the result is that the individual experiences loneliness.

Early Adolescence Stage

This stage extends from 12-17 years and covers the later part of secondary education. The genitals are fully developed and the individual is highly heterosexual. While the peer relationship of the previous stage is still strong, the individual now becomes lustful as a result of physiological changes that have occurred because of puberty. The individual at this stage has double social needs- erotic need for the opposite sex and intimacy need for same sexual peers. If the double social needs are met, the self system becomes stabilized but if confusion arises between these two social needs, homosexuality results. Sullivan believes that most of the adolescents problems arise because of the conflicts between sexual gratification on one side and intimacy and security on the other side. The individual is highly syntactic and highly independent.

Late Adolescence Stage

Late adolescence covers the period 17/19 years to the early twenties which normally coincides with the university years. The individual is fully matured and the self system is integrated and stabilized. Cognitive experiences are fully syntactic. The power of symbolization is really outstanding and fascinating at this stage. Portrait interpersonal experiences include strong security against tension and anxiety to enhance self system. The individual enters into a prolonged period of initiation into the values, privileges, duties and responsibilities of being a full member of his society. By the time the individual completes this stage of development , he has mastered how to cope with anxiety and is now prepared to play an adult role.

Adulthood Stage

Adulthood covers late twenties and the years following that period. This is parenthood stage and the individual is completely stabilized. Syntactic mode of experience is fully developed and symbolization is at its peak. After the individual has gone through all the preceding stages of personality development, he now becomes a full social animal created from a human animal as a result of interpersonal social relations. The individual at this stage is completely independent of paternal controls (Joe, 1987)

Assessment Technique

Sullivan developed his own assessment technique which he called the psychiatric Interview (Sullivan, 1954). This technique lays considerable emphasis on participant observation by the face to face contact between the patient and the therapist in an interview situation.

Sullivan (1954) held that the interview can be in one session or several sessions lasting a long time. He divided the interview into four stages as discussed below.

i. Formal Inception

This is the beginning of the contact (vocal) between the patient and the therapist. The therapist must be alert to notice every slight but important changes in the way the patient behaves during the beginning of the interview. For example, the patient could change the tone of his speech. Sullivan held that apart from getting information from what the patient says, other important clues that could aid the therapist are the ways the patient brings out the information, like his speech pattern (rate of speech, intonation, and other overt behaviour patterns). The role of the therapist is that of an expert in interpersonal relations and he must strike a very good working relationship with the patient. In doing this he would not dominate the therapy session and he must make the patient aware of his own role as the therapist. If he does this there is a greater likelihood that the patient will bring out more information about himself which the therapist would use to solve his

problems. These centre mostly on distorted parataxic mode of thinking.

ii **Reconnaissance**

This is the period in which the interviewer (therapist) allows the patient to bring out his biographical data. The patient is allowed to talk about his past, present and future. The interviewer must take interview situation serious and should not encourage irrelevant and unimportant materials during the interview. The interview can capitalize on lapses in the memory of the patient during therapy sessions to teach him how to freely associate. This is the phenomenon of allowing thoughts to come out freely without inhibition or distortion. In both stages (i) and (ii) the emphasis is on good communication which enables information to flow freely from the patient. By the end of this stage, the therapist forms series of hypotheses about the patient's problem and their sources.

iii **The Details Inquiry**

This is the period in which the therapist attempts to prove or disprove the hypotheses he has formulated. He listens and asks the individual questions about some of his problems like eating habits, ambitions, sexual relationships and attitudes towards his own body, Sullivan employed the technique of empathy in getting at the root of the patient problems. This is a technique in which the therapist identifies with the patient and therefore visualizes the way he feels.

iv **The Termination**

This is the end of the interview by which time the therapist has learned much from the patient. He now prescribes a course of action for the patient which he thinks can help solve his problems.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What are the processes upon which Sullivan's personality structure centres?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you have been exposed to Harry Stack Sullivan's Interpersonal relation Theory of Personality. In doing that, you have learnt about his concept of personality structure, the three processes in which it is described, as well as stages in personality development and assessment technique.

5.0 SUMMARY

The early life of Sullivan was not a pleasant one and this influenced his theory of personality. His structure of personality centred on three processes namely ó Dynamisms, personifications, and Cognitive processes. He came up with seven stages of personality development:- Infancy, Childhood, Juvenile, Preadolescence, Early Adolescence, late Adolescence and Adulthood. His assessment technique is called Psychiatric Interview and has the following four stages Formal Inception, Reconnaissance, Detailed inquiry and termination.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the personality structure propounded by Sullivan.
2. What are Sullivan's stages of personality development?
3. What is Sullivan's assessment technique called and what are the stages in the process of the assessment?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Joe, A. I.(1987). Harry Stack Sullivan's personality theory. In A. Uba (Ed.) *Theories of Personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press.

Sullivan, H. S. (1954) *The Psychiatric Interview* - New York: Norton.

**UNIT 3 ALFRED ADLER'S PERSONALITY
THEORY OF INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY****CONTENTS**

- Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 View of human nature
 - 3.2 Theory of Personality
 - 3.3 The Therapeutic process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor ó marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with Alfred Adler's personality theory of individual psychology, his view of human nature, his theory of personality and the therapeutic process.

Alfred Adler was born in Vienna and died in 1937 at the age of 67 years. He had the same birth place as Sigmund Freud. Both graduated in the same medical school and equally served in the Austrian Army during the first world war as physicians. Interestingly, the two did not know each other then (Carew, 1987) After working as general medical practitioner in the university of Vienna, Adler developed interest in psychiatry. He then became a student of Freud. The two worked together for some time as members of the Vienna psychoanalytic society of which Adler was the first president. They later separated and Adler founded the society for Individual psychology in 1912. Adler along with his other colleagues labeled Neo ó Freudians believed that social and cultural factors were of great significance in the shaping of personality. Thus, Adler was able to found his society and journal bearing the same name ó individual psychology ó which reached its influential peak in Europe about the early 1940's. The advent of Hitler and the rise of Nazism in Europe forced Adler and most of his colleagues to flee Europe about 1934. Adler moved to New York where he had a successful

psychiatric practice. Adler's death came on 28th May 1937 in Aberdeen Scotland as a result of heart attack.

By the end of your studying this unit, you should be very familiar with the following unit objectives

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

1. Discuss Adler's view of human nature
2. Outline the major concepts in Adler's personality theory
3. List the procedures in Adler's therapeutic process.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Personality Structure

Adler believes that what an individual becomes in adult life is largely influenced by the first six years of life, but Adler's focus was not simply on experiencing past events. Rather, he was interested in the person's perception of the past and how this interpretation of early event has a continuing influence. According to Adler, humans are motivated by social urges rather than by sexual urges. For him, behaviour is purposeful and goal directed. Consciousness, not the unconscious, is the centre of personality. Adler stresses choice and responsibility, meaning in life, and the striving for success or perfection.

Adler's theory focused on inferiority feelings, which he sees as a normal condition of all people and a source of all human striving. Rather than being considered as a sign of weakness or abnormality, feelings of inferiority can be the wellspring of creativity. They motivate us to strive for mastery, success (superiority) and even perfection. We are driven to overcome our sense of inferiority and strive for increasingly higher levels of development (Schultz & Schultz, 1994). Indeed, at around six years of age, our fictional vision of ourselves as perfect is formed into a life goal. The life goal unifies the personality and becomes the source of human motivation; every striving and every effort to overcome inferiority is now in line with this goal.

From Adler's perspective, humans are not merely determined by heredity and environment. Instead, they have the capacity to interpret, influence and create events. Adler asserts that what we are born with is not the central issue. What is crucial is what we do with the abilities we possess. Adler recognizes that biological and environmental conditions limit our capacity to choose and to create because Adler's approach is based on a growth model, Adlerians put the focus on reeducating individuals and reshaping society. Adler was the forerunner of a subjective approach to psychology, which focuses on internal determinants of behaviours such as values, beliefs, attitudes, goals interests and the individual perception of reality. He was a pioneer of an approach that is holistic, social, goal oriented and humanistic (Corey, 1996)

Theory of Personality

Adlerians attempt to view the world from the client's subjective frame of reference, an orientation described as phenomenological in that it pays attention to the individual way in which people perceive their world. This "subjective reality" includes the individual's perceptions, thoughts, feelings, values, beliefs, convictions and conclusions. Behaviour is understood from the vantage point of this subjective perspective. How life is in reality is less important than how the individual believes life to be.

Patterns of human Personality: A basic premise of the Adlerian approach, also known as "Individual psychology", is that personality can only be understood holistically and systematically, that is, the individual is seen as an indivisible whole, born, reared, and living in specific familiar, social, and cultural contexts. People are social creative, decision-making beings who have a unified purpose and can not be fully known outside of the contexts that have meaning in their lives (Sherman & Dinkmeyers, 1987).

The human personality becomes unified through the life goal. An individual's thoughts, feeling, beliefs, convictions, attitudes character and actions are expressions of his or her uniqueness, and all reflect a plan of life that allows for the movement towards a self-selected life goal. An implication of this holistic view of personality is that the client is an integral part of a social system.

There is more focus on interpersonal relationships than on the individual's internal psychodynamics.

Behaviour as purposeful and Goal-Oriented: Individual psychology assumes that every human behaviour has a purpose. Humans set goals for themselves and behaviour becomes unified in the context of these goals. Adler replaced deterministic explanations with teleological (purposive, goal oriented) ones. A basic assumption of individual psychology is that what we are striving for is crucial. Thus, Adlerians are interested in the future, without minimizing the importance of past influences. They assume that decisions are based on the person's experiences, on the present situation, and on the direction in which the person is moving.

Adlerian's uses the term "fictional finalism" to refer to an imagined central goal that is influenced by the philosopher Hans Vaihinger's view that people live by fiction (or view of how the world should be). The guiding fiction might be expressed as; "Only when I am perfect can I be secure", or "Only when I am important can I be accepted". The fictional goal represents an individual's image of a perfect position, for which he or she strives in any given situation. The term "finalism" refers to the ultimate nature of the person's goal and the ever present tendency to move in a certain direction. Because of this ultimate goal, we have the creative power to choose what we will accept as truth, how we will behave, and how we will interpret events.

The Striving for significance and superiority: Adler stresses that striving for perfection and coping with inferiority by seeking mastering are innate (Adler, 1979). To understand human behaviour, it is essential to grasp the idea of basic inferiority and compensation. According to Adler, the second we experience inferiority, we are pulled by the striving for superiority. He maintains that the goal of success pulls people forward towards mastering and enables them to overcome obstacles. The goal of superiority contributes to the development of human community. However, it is important to note that superiority as used by Adler does not mean being superior to others, but rather attaining a perceived better position in life. Superiority is a striving from a perceived lower position to a perceived higher position, from a felt minus to a felt plus. We cope with feelings of helplessness by

striving for competence, mastering, and perfection. We can seek to change a weakness into strength. The unique way in which we develop a style of striving for competence is what constitutes individuality (Corey, 1996).

Lifestyle

The term "lifestyle" refers to an individual's basic orientation to life, and includes the themes that characterize the person's experience. Synonyms for lifestyle are plan of life, life movement, strategy for living, and road map of life. It is through our lifestyle that we move towards our life goal which sees us as actors, creator, and develop a unique style of life. (Ansbachar, 1974). This concept accounts for why all our behaviours fit together so that there is some consistency in our actions. Understanding one's lifestyle is somewhat like understanding the style of a composer: "we can begin wherever we choose; every expression will lead us in the same direction towards one motive; one melody; around which the personality is built" (Adler, 1964a, 332).

No two people develop exactly the same life style. In striving for the goal of superiority, some develop their intellect, others, their artistic talent, others, athletic skills, and so on. These styles of life consist of people's view about themselves and the world and their distinctive behaviours and habits as they pursue their personal goals. Every thing we do is influenced by this unique lifestyle, which is assumed to be influenced by forces during the first six years of life. Experiences within the family and relationships between siblings contribute to development of the lifestyle (Sheman & Dinkmeyer, 1987). But it is not the childhood experiences in themselves that are crucial; rather, it is our present interpretation of these events.

Social Interest

Social interest is probably Adler's most significant and distinctive concept. The term refers to an individual's awareness of being a part of the human community and to the individual's attitudes in dealing with the social world; it includes striving for a better future for humanity. The socialization process which begins in childhood, involves finding a place in one's society and acquiring a sense of belonging and of contributing (Kefir, 1981).

Adler equated social interest with a sense of identification and empathy with others: to see with the eyes of another, to hear with the ears of another, to feel with the heart of another. The degree to which we successfully share with others and are concerned with the welfare of others is a measure of mental health (Sherman & Dinkmeyer, 1987). From the Adlerian perspective, as social interest develops, the individual's feeling of inferiority and alienation diminish, social interest will develop if it is taught, learned and used. People express social interest through shared activity and mutual respect. Those without social interest become discouraged and end up on the useless side of life.

Individual psychology rests on a central belief that our happiness and success are largely related to this social connectedness. Because we are part of society, we can not be understood in isolation from the social context. Humans seek a place in the family and in the society. There is a basic need to feel secure, accepted and worth while. Many of the problems we experience are related to the fear of not being accepted by the group we value. If our sense of belonging is unfulfilled, anxiety results. Our feelings about ourselves and our level of self- acceptance are determinants of how effectively we are able to form interpersonal relations.

Birth Order and Sibling Relationships.

The Adlerian approach is unique in giving special attention to the relationships between sibling and the position in one's family. Adler identified five psychological positions; oldest, second of only two, middle, youngest, and only. It should be noted that the actual birth order itself is less important than the individual's interpretation of his or her place in the family. Since most Adlerians view most human problems as social in nature, they emphasize interfamily relationships. Adler (1958) observed that many people wonder why children in the same family often differ widely. It is a fallacy to assume that children of the same family are formed in the same family environment. Although they share aspects in common in the family of constellation, the psychological situation of each child is different from that of others. The following description on the influence of birth order is based on Ansbacher and Ansbacher (1964), Dreikurs (1953) and Adler (1958).

1. **The Oldest Child**

She generally receives a good deal of attention, and during the time she is the only child, she is typically somewhat spoiled as the centre of attention. She tends to be dependable and hardworking and strives to keep ahead. When a new brother or sister arrives on the scene, however, she finds herself outside from her favoured position. She is no longer unique or special. She may readily believe that the new comer (intruder) will rob her of the love to which she is accustomed.

2. **The second Child**

He is in a different position. From the time he is born, he shares the attention with another child. The typical second child behaves as if he were in a race and is generally under full steam at all times. It is as though this second child were in training to suppress the older brother or sister. This competitive struggle between the two first children influences the later course of their lives. The younger child develops a knack for finding out the elder child's weak spots and proceeds to win praise from parents and teachers by achieving success where the older sibling has failed. If one is talented in a given area, the other strives for recognition by developing other abilities. The second born is often opposite to the first born.

3. **The middle Child**

She often feels squeezed out. She may become convinced of the unfairness of life and feel cheated. This person can assume a "poor me" attitude and can become a problem child. On the other hand, especially in families characterized by conflicts, the middle child will become the switch board and the peace maker, the person who holds things together.

4. **The Youngest Child.**

He is always the baby of the family, and tends to be the most pampered one. He has a special role to play, for all the other children are ahead of him. Youngest children tend to go their own way. They often develop in ways no other in the family have thought about.

5. The Only Child.

She has a problem of her own. Although she shares some of the characteristics of the oldest child (namely, high achievement drive) she may not learn to share or cooperate with other children. She will learn to deal with adults well, as they make up her original family world. Often, the only child is pampered by her parents and may become dependently tied to one or both of them. She may want to have centre stage all of the time, and if her position is challenged, she will feel it is unfair.

In summary, Adler's Individual Psychology assumes that people are motivated by social factors; are responsible for their own thoughts, feelings and actions are the creators of their own lives, as opposed to helpless victims; and are impelled by purposes and goals; looking more towards the future than to the past.

3.3 The Therapeutic Process

The Adlerian therapy rests on a collaborative arrangement between the patient (client) and the therapist. In general, the therapeutic process includes identifying and explaining "mistaken goals" and "faulty assumptions" followed by a reeducation of the patient towards more constructive goals. The main aim of therapy is to develop patients' social interest, which is accomplished by increasing their self awareness and challenging their fundamental premises, life goals and basic concepts (Dreikus, 1967).

Adlerians do not see clients as being "sick" and in need of being "cured". Rather the goal is to reeducate clients so that they can live in society as equals, both giving to society and recovering from others (Mosak, 1995) Thus the therapeutic process focused on providing information, teaching, guiding and offering encouragement to discouraged patients. Encouragement is the most powerful method for changing a person's beliefs. It helps patients build self-confidence and stimulates courage. Courage is the willingness to act "even when fearful" in ways that are consistent with social interest. Fear and courage always go hand in hand, because without fear, there would be no need for courage. The loss of courage or discouragement results in

mistakes and dysfunctional behaviour. Adlerian therapists educate patients on new ways of looking at themselves, others, and life. Through the process of providing patients with a new cognitive map, or fundamental understanding of the purpose of their behaviour, therapists assist them in changing their perceptions.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What do you understand by striving for significance and superiority?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit you have been exposed to the view of human nature as held by Adler and his followers. You also learnt about Adlers pattern of personality development. Finally the therapeutic process in Individual psychology was discussed.

5.0 SUMMARY

On the view of human nature, Adler believes that what an individual becomes later in life is shaped by the experiences in the first six years of life. He also believes that behaviour is purposeful and is influenced by social urges rather than sexual urges. He also believes that inferiority feelings motivates individuals to strive for superiority. On the pattern of personality, five principles that shape personality were discussed, Finally, the therapeutic process in individual psychology was highlighted.

6.0 TUTOR- MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss fully Adler's view of human nature.
2. What are the major principles that shape an individual personality as propounded by Adler?
3. Outline the procedures in Adler's therapeutic process.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adler, A. (1958). *What life should mean to you*_ New York: Capricorn

- Adler, A. (1964a). The individual psychology of Alfred Adler. In H.I. Ansbacher & R.R. Ansbacher (Eds.); *The Individual psychology of Alfred Adler*. New York: Harper & row.
- Adler, A. (1974). *Superiority and social interest: A collection of later writings*. New York: Norton.
- Ansbacher, H. I. (1974). Goal- oriented individual psychology: Alfred Adler's theory. In A. Burton (Ed.); *Operational theories of personality*. New York: Brunner/Mazel
- Carew, P. F. C. (1987) Alfred Adler. In A. Uba (Ed.), *Theories of personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press
- Dreikurs, R. (1953). *Fundamentals of Adlerian psychology*: Chicago: Alfred Adler Institute.
- Dreikurs, R. (1967). *Psychodynamics, psychotherapy and Counselling*. Collected papers, Chicago: Alfred Adler's Institute.
- Kefir, N. (1981). Impasse/ Priority therapy In R.J. Corsini (Ed.), *Handbook of innovative psychotherapy*. New York: Wiley.
- Mosak, H. (1995) Adlerian psychotherapy. In R. J. Corsini & Wedding (Ed.), *Current Psychotherapy*. Itasca: H.F.E. peacock.
- Schultz, D & Schultz, S. E. (1994). *Theories of Personality*. California: Brooks/Cole.
- Sherman, R. & Dinkmeyer, D. (1987). *System of family therapy: An Adlerian Integration*. New York: Brunner/Mazel.

UNIT 4 ERICH FROMM'S PERSONALITY THEORY**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - View of human nature
 - Theory of personality
 - The therapeutic process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on Erich Fromm's personality theory. The unit delved into Erich's view of human nature theory of personality and the therapeutic process. Erich Fromm was born in Frankfurt, Germany in 1900. He studied Psychology and Sociology in his undergraduate years. He obtained his Ph.D in 1922 from Heidelberg. He trained in Psychoanalysis in Munich and the Berisn Psychoanalytic Institute. He later went to the United States of America in 1933 as a lecturer at Chicago and later entered into private practice in New York City. Erich wrote so many books and *Escape from Freedom* appears to be his most popular book.

One of the basic themes of his writings is that man feels lonely and alienated because he has become separated from nature and other men. Fromm says that people have freed themselves from the old bonds of slavery and feudalism and become individuals, enjoying certain rights and liberties, but have not gained freedom in the positive sense of realizing their intellectual and artistic possibilities (Fromm, 1941). The individual has gained too much freedom from traditional controls, too little freedom to live actively and spontaneously (Shertzer and Stone, 1980) Fromm sees the root of this freedom in the nature of modern industrial civilization ó in its large scale organization, its mobility and competitiveness, its impersonality, its sheer bigness. Gone is the old framework of custom and authority, of life in small groups

and stable communities. The machine age has made people rich in material things, but in the face of today's vast problems and responsibilities, they feel insecure, helpless, isolated and powerless and lost. Individuality is an illusion. Any form of society that man developed, says Fromm, represents an attempt to resolve this feeling of isolation and insecurity. Various needs arise out of these conditions of existence, and these needs are realized in accordance with the social arrangements under which man lives.

The bridging concept between the individual and the society according to Fromm is "social character". Fromm sees social character as the nucleus of the character structure which is shared by most members of the same culture. To him, its function is to shape the energies of the members of society in such a way that their behaviour is not a matter of conscious decision as to whether or not to follow the social pattern, but one of wanting to act as they have to act, and at the same time finding gratification in acting according to the requirements of the culture, and for the purpose of the continued function of the society. Towards this end, Fromm identified five social character types found in today's society. These are receptive, exploitative, hoarding, marketing and productive character types.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

- (i) Discuss Erich Fromm's view of human nature
- (ii) Identify and briefly discuss the personality types based on Fromm's theory.
- (iii) Outline the therapeutic process of Fromm.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Fromm's view of human nature

Fromm sees human nature as being animalistic, and as an animal, one has certain physiological needs that must be satisfied. Fromm does not see man as basically evil. He feels that man has a few basic needs – hunger, thirst, sex, etc, but those drives which determine individual personality – love, hate, lust for power, yearning for submission, etc are products of social process and

not part of a fixed biological nature. Fromm believes that the two aspects of a person ó being both animal and human ó constitute the basic conditions of human existence. Animal nature according to Fromm is biochemical and psychological bases and mechanism for physical survival. While the human, certainly, has an animal nature, it is the only organism possessing a human nature as well. Man shares his biological needs with other animals, but the manner in which these needs are satisfied is culturally or social determined. That man possess certain needs is a biological fact; how he satisfies them lies in the realm of culture (Brown, 1964). Man according to Fromm, tends to move from the animal towards the human nature. This is man's quest for freedom ó freedom from nature, freedom from conformity. It is man's attempt to become himself, distinct from the world and from other. This process, Fromm calls "individuation", is irreversible.

Fromm postulates that man soon finds this freedom. He is able to assert himself, to control nature. He has gained freedom -from the world. Man, however, discovers too soon that he is an infinitesimal entity and cannot compete with the infinitude of nature. He consequently starts to develop a feeling of aloneness. He does not know what to do with his newly acquired freedom. He has gained freedom FROM the world, but freedom TO do something constructive, be what he should be is yet to come. He is overwhelmed by nature which he has gained freedom from. But he cannot go back into oneness with this former master of his. He now becomes anxious under this new feeling of powerlessness. Impulses start arising for him to give up his individuality in order to overcome the feeling of aloneness and powerlessness by submerging himself in the world outside. He wants to ESCAPE FROM FREEDOM. To Fromm, the way an individual handles this dilemma is determined by his drives and prevailing social character of his environment and determines the individual's personality type.

3.2 Fromm's theory of personality

Fromm, according to Mallum (1987) believes that the specific manifestation of needs, the actual ways in which a person realizes inner potentialities, are determined by the social arrangements under which he lives. It is obvious that one's personality

develops in accordance with the opportunities that a particular society offers one. Thus a person's adjustment to society usually represents compromise between inner needs and outer demands. He or she develops a social character in keeping the requirements of the society.

Fromm identified and described the five social characters types that are found in today's society which are regarded as Fromm's categorization of personality or character orientations.

(a) Receptive Orientation

According to Fromm, a person with a receptive orientation feels that the source of all good is to be outside, and believes that the only way to get what he wants is to receive it from that outside source. Consequently, he is a receptor and not a generator of ideas, materials, affection, knowledge, pleasure, etc. He shows a particular kind of loyalty as sign of gratitude to the hands that feed him. Unfortunately, these hands may be very many in order to satisfy all the different ramifications of his needs. Thus, in his attempt to please all these benefactors, he may find himself battling with reconciling the irreconcilable. The person with receptive personality orientation usually becomes anxious when the source is threatened and may take to excessive consumption of food and drinks as a way of coping with his anxiety and depression. Generally, the person with a receptive orientation is friendly and optimistic.

(b) The Exploitation Orientation

Like in the receptive orientation, a person with an exploitative orientation feels the source of all good is outside and that one can not produce anything by himself. He, however, does not receive things from his sources (others) as gifts but takes them away by force or cunning, whether such things be affection or ideas. A prominent feature of persons with this orientation is a biting mouth. Seducers and bullies fall into this category.

(c) The Hoarding Orientation

In this orientation, the individual is skeptical of anything new. Consequently, he gains security in hoarding and saving money,

affection, ideas, etc. he is miserly and sees spending as a threat. Hoarding individuals are possessive and jealous in love, conservative in thinking, and undisclosed in communications. Their characteristic facial feature is tight-lipped mouth. Their attitude is withdrawn, their thoughts and feelings are orderly but sterile and rigid.

(d) The Marketing Orientation

This orientation involves a feeling in the person that success depends largely on how well he sells himself. This, in turn, depends on some abstract and impersonal demands such as degree of cheerfulness, aggressiveness, ambition, type of club one belongs to, his family background, etc. these demands make him both a seller on the one hand, and the commodity to be sold, on the other hand. Thus, his esteem depends on conditions beyond his control. If he is successful, he is considered valuable, and if not, he is worthless. A person with a marketing orientation is, therefore, always seeking ways of making himself acceptable. This he may do with heavy application of cosmetics, dressing in a flashy manner, always trying to be in tune with the prevailing fashion (in dressing, thinking, etc) or going out of his way to ensure that he is in other people's good books.

(e) The Productive Orientation

To Fromm, this is the ideal character type. It refers to a mode of relatedness in all realms of human experiences and covers mental, emotional and sensory responses to others, oneself, and things. It involves man's realization and readiness to use the vast potentialities inherent in him in free creative activity independent of any external control. It is that state in human development in which man is wholly guided by reason. The truly productive person would not be predictable. Consequently no fixed characteristic traits could be found for him. Productivity does not involve sticking to a job, or acting in a repetitive way, but rather, something more like creativity, transcendence, imagination, etc.

The above types or orientations represent different ways in which individuals can relate to the world and to each other. Only the last of these is considered by Fromm to be healthy. Any given individual is a blend of these five types of orientations; although

one or two of the orientations may stand out more prominently than the others (Mallum, 1987). Therefore, according to Fromm, it is possible for a person to be either a productive or hoarding type or non-productive hoarding type. A productive hoarding type might be a person who acquires land or money in order to be more productive, while a non-productive hoarding type may be a person who hoards just for the sake of hoarding without any benefit to society (Hall, 1978).

3.3 The Therapeutic Process

Fromm's technique of investigation is a combination of different techniques. He used experimental method, philosophical method, interviews, observations and empirical method. The decision to use each of the techniques or a combination of some of them depends on the issue being handled at a point in time.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What do you understand by productive orientation as used by Fromm?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have been exposed to the personality theory of Erich Fromm. His view of human nature was described. The five categories of human orientation which are the foundations of his personality theory were fully treated. Finally, his method of investigation which comprised so many other techniques were highlighted.

5.0 SUMMARY

Fromm does not see man as evil. He sees man as being animalistic with certain needs. Fromm propounded five personality types, four of which are non-productive and one which is productive. Freud adopted a variety of techniques in his investigation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

(1) What is Erich Fromm's view of human nature?

- (2) List and briefly discuss the five personality orientations as propounded by Fromm.
- (3) What are the techniques of investigation adopted by Fromm?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Brown, J.A.C. (1964). *Freud and the Post-Freudians*. New York: Penguin Books.

Fromm, E. (1941) *Escape from Freedom*. New York: Rinehart

Mallum, M. P. (1987). Erick Fromm in A. Uba (Ed). *Theories of Personality* Ibadan: Claverianum Press

Shertzer, B. & Stone, S.C. (1980). *Fundamentals of Counselling*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

UNIT 5 ABRAHAM MASLOW'S NEED THEORY OF PERSONALITY**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 View of Human nature
 - 3.2 Need theory of personality
 - 3.3 The therapeutic process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor ó marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with Abraham Maslow's need, theory of personality. The unit concisely looked into Maslow's view of human nature, his need theory of personalities and the therapeutic process. Abraham Maslow lived between 1908 and 1970. He was born in Brooklyn, New York, of low class Jewish parents. His childhood was marked by considerable material deprivation. Added to this, he lacked friendship and company of other children because his father migrated from Russia to America. This difficult early life probably denied him of luxury and forced him into serious academic pursuits aimed at overcoming his initial deficiencies. It also probably accounted for the inclination of his personality theory which emphasized the primary of physiological and belongingness needs (Onyehalu, 1987).

Even though Maslow studied behaviourism, he later abandoned it and embraced the humanistic orientation. His dislike for inhuman treatment and the horrors of the second world war sensitized him to make serious efforts to prove that man has positive virtues and not only negative ones like cruelty, hatred, destruction and prejudice. Because of his serious academic enterprise, Maslow was able to earn his Ph.D at the age of 23 from the University of Wisconsin in 1931. He lectured in many universities and was a member of several psychological associations. He was a prolific writer and he died in 1970.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- i. Give a highlight of Maslow's view of human nature
- ii. List and explain the seven potent needs that shape an individual's personality.
- iii. Highlight the therapeutic process of Abraham Maslow.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Maslow's view of human nature

Maslow sees man as an integrated whole organism whose activities are largely goal-oriented. He emphasized even more than Rogers the positive optimistic trends in human existence. Maslow believes that each person has an essential nature, a "skeleton" of "psychological structure", part of it shared with all other human beings, some of it unique. There is a strong genetic component to each person's nature. The healthy person constantly tends to actualize his or her personality to fulfill basic potentialities - to self-actualize. Maslow thought that the study of emotionally disturbed people was bound to produce a distorted psychology. Instead, he looked for models of self-actualized people - people who had, in other words, fulfilled their basic potentialities. Schultz (1981:225) summarized Maslow's forward-looking disposition and optimism about human nature thus:

His focus is on psychological health rather than malfunction, on growth and progress rather than stagnation, and human virtues and potentials, not weaknesses and limitations. Basically, he had a strong sense of confidence, even trust in our ability to shape our own positive and constructive growth.

Maslow is a strong believer in the reality of individual differences. He equally believes that human personality is influenced and shaped by both nature and nurture. Furthermore, Maslow believes that an individual can still catch up and make progress in life despite initial setbacks and unpleasant experiences of early life.

3.2 Maslow's Need Theory of Personality

According to Onyehalu (1987), Maslow's personality theory is centred on serious consideration of motives or goals that basically precipitate observed human behaviour. His theory identifies basic 'needs' as the driving force and categorized them into a hierarchy according to their relative potency and urgency to the organism in question. Maslow's assumptions include:

- (i) that man and most organisms are permanently wanting or needy.
- (ii) that total satisfaction is almost impossible,
- (iii) that these are graded by the organism in their order of importance,
- (iv) that as soon as a more urgent and pressing need is satisfied, another higher need immediately emerges, assumes utmost importance, and automatically becomes the active determinant or organizer of behaviour, and
- (v) that a currently satisfied need becomes unimportant and under-estimated by the organism and no longer controls and dominates behaviour.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs

Maslow identified seven very potent needs in the human being. Based on their order potency and urgency, they are

1. Physiological needs
2. Safety needs
3. Love and affection needs
4. Achievement needs
5. Self-esteem needs
6. Aesthetic needs, and
7. Self-actualization needs

These are discussed below

Physiological Needs

According to Maslow, physiological needs are biological in nature and when they are in force, all other needs become relatively unimportant. Biological needs include the need for food, water, oxygen, sex, and elimination of waste products. Generally, physiological needs include all needs which are directly necessary for organic survival. Maslow emphasized that

a person who needed food, safety, and self-esteem, would in all likelihood opt for food more than for any of the other items.

Safety Needs

As soon as physiological needs are satisfied, safety needs become the next most important requirement. Safety needs are needs for protection against danger or threat of deprivation of certain comforts as is amply demonstrated during wars, famine and time of violence. It is common knowledge that human beings and other animals perpetually seek self-preservation and security. As in the case of physiological needs, all talents and resources of the organism will now be channeled towards warding off dangers and threats. In the words of Maslow, safety needs are dramatized in emergencies like wars, diseases, natural disasters, crime waves, societal disorganization, anarchy and chronically unfavourable situations. In such circumstances, safety considerations become the most dominant controller of the organism's actions.

Love Needs

As soon as the physiological and safety needs otherwise called biological needs are satisfied, attempts to satisfy social needs directs man's behaviour. In the hierarchy, the next in importance is the love and affection needs otherwise called belongingness needs. This need is manifested in our desire to make friends and to maintain cordial relationships with people generally. If for any reasons this need is obstructed or thwarted, adverse psychological reactions or pathological behaviours (maladjustment) could result. While love is not exactly the same as sex, it has to be noted that in several instances, our sexual behaviour and response is defined by our need for love, affection and intimacy.

Achievement Needs

Maslow (1943) sees achievement needs as human desires for great personal strength, for adequacy, or confidence and for independence and freedom. This need can be said to have been attained when the individual earns and enjoys respect from other people based on his demonstration of real capacity. It can be assumed that it is this need that motivates and fuels human curiosity and continuing human efforts for knowledge and technology, for exploration and for mastery of our immediate environment and even beyond.

Self-Esteem Needs

Esteem needs are of two types. The first are those needs that relate to one's self-esteem - need for self-confidence, self initiative, self respect, competence and knowledge. The second type are those needs that relate to one's reputation ó need for status, recognition, respect from others and need for appreciation. Humans naturally have a strong desire for reputation and prestige, for recognition and attention, and for feelings of being important, useful and appreciated by the society. Successful satisfaction of these needs gives rise to a positive and salutary feeling of self confidence and high self esteem. On the other hand, failure to gratify this need results in feelings of inferiority, weakness, and helplessness. According to Onyehalu (1987) most cases of bizarre traumatic behaviour (neurosis) can be traced to thwarted self-esteem needs.

Aesthetic Needs

Ideally, human beings show strong attraction towards beauty, decency orderliness and symmetry. They wish to admire and possess beautiful things. Huge investments on interior and exterior decoration of private homes and public institutions are testimonies and responses to this psychological goal (Onyehalu, 1987).

Self-Actualization Needs

Normally, human beings are always motivated by the need to find self-fulfillment and to realize their potentials. They aspire towards rare heights and to achieve distinction and eminence ó to be extra-ordinary. There is always that desire to break new grounds. Maslow observed that self-actualizing individuals are õfilled with feelings of ecstasy, wonder and aweí .ö. Leadership qualities, good reputation and eminence are pointers to self-actualization, otherwise called self-realization. According to Onyehalu (1987) individuals who have successfully developed and applied their talents and potentials effectively in any field of human endeavour are said to have actualized themselves. In other words, the concept of self-actualization according to Maslow implies õdoing what one is fitted forö. It is a unique sense of self-fulfillment. Self-actualization drive is known to take different forms in different individuals. For instance, Maslow (1943) said that in some people it may take the form of a desire to be an ideal mother, in some it may be an intention to

excel in athletics, while yet in some other person, it may be manifested in making inventions and discoveries.

3.3 Maslow's Therapeutic Process

Maslow was very inquisitive by nature and consequently turned out to be a curious observer of people and events. Consequently, he had a large collection of data through various forms of observation, personal interviews, and free association. His other source of data was by administration of personality tests such as the Rorschach Inkblot Test and Henry Murrays Thematic Apperception Test. He equally gathered a lot of information from biographies of various great and popular men. Maslow also studied both living and non-living beings as well as normal patients and psychological patients.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. List the various techniques of information collection adopted by Maslow.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt about the early life of Abraham Maslow and its effect on his later life and personality theory formulation. You have also been exposed to his optimistic view of human nature. You also learnt of the seven basic needs of man which are the pivot of his theory formulation. Finally the techniques of investigation adopted by Maslow were also highlighted.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that Maslow, just like Rogers, has an optimistic view of human nature. His need theory of personality is partly influenced by his early life experiences of deprivation and isolation. His methods of inquiry include observation, interviewing, testing and interpretation of data.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. According to Maslow, the healthy person constantly tends to self actualize. Discuss.

2. Illustrate with specific examples, Maslow's belief that higher order needs cannot appear until lower order needs are at least relatively well satisfied.
3. What are the techniques of inquiry applied by Maslow?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50, 370-396.

Onyehalu, A. S. (1987). *Abraham Maslow*. In A. Uba, (Ed). *Theories of Personality* Ibadan: Claverianum Press.

Schultz, D. (1981). *Theories of Personality*. Monterey: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

UNIT 6 CARL JUNG'S ANALYTIC THEORY OF PERSONALITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - View of human nature
 - Structure of Personality
 - The Therapeutic Process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is on Carl Gustav Jung's analytic theory of personality ó his view of human nature, structure of personality and the therapeutic process.

Carl Gustav Jung was born in July 26, 1875 in Switzerland and he grew up in Basel. After obtaining his medical degree from the University of Basel, he later turned his interest away from surgery or internal medicine in which he intended to specialize, to psychology and psychopathology. In December 1900 Jung became an assistant in the Burgholzli Mental Hospital, Zurich, and its psychiatric clinic at Zurich and thus embarked upon a career in psychiatry. He assisted and later collaborated with Evgen Bleuler, the eminent psychiatrist who developed the concept of schizophrenia, and studied briefly with Pierre Janet, Charcot's pupil and successor in Paris. In 1909 Jung gave up his work at Burgholzli and in 1913 his instructorship in psychiatry at the University of Zurich in order to devote full time to private practice, training, research, traveling and writing.

Carl Jung is acknowledged to be one of the greatest living thinkers of his time. For over a half century, he has devoted with great energy and singularity of purpose to analyzing the deep-lying processes of personality.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- (i) Give a highlight of Jung's view of human nature.
- (ii) Discuss the structure of personality as propounded by Jung.
- (iii) List the Techniques of therapy adopted by Jung.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Jung's View of Human Nature

Carl Jung's view of human nature is that of progressive positivism (Boyinbode, 1987). Jung sees man as constantly striving towards growth, development and improvement. He is of the view that human nature focuses towards achieving self actualization. The aim is to attain individuation or selfhood. This drive is inborn but is modifiable by experience and learning. Jung believes that human personality is much more influenced by mid-life experiences and expectations for the future.

Jung upholds the idea of causality (that is, that everything has its cause), and equally recognises teleology or finalism. In causality, the therapist endeavours to locate the cause of the patient's present difficulty in his past life, while in finalism, man's current behaviour is determined by the future. Human nature, Jung posited, is modified by both past and future considerations. It is no surprise then that many of Jung's ideas on the development of the psyche are finalistic because they are goals, individuation, integration and selfhood. He also proposed the principle of synchronicity as also influential on human behaviour (Boyinbode, 1987).

Jung (1953) admits the multidimensionality of human nature. Jung in Read, Fordham, and Adler (1953) spoke of 'the demonism that still clings to the human spirit'. His concept of the shadow, an archetype on the collective unconscious, as animalistic, primitive and crude possibly attests to this 'evil' that is in the psyche. Thus it appears that Jung shares Freud's idea of an inborn evil in human nature. However, in line with the principles of opposites, human nature in Jungian psychology must consist of both good and evil.

3.2 Jung's Structure of Personality.

In Jungian psychology, the personality is called *psyche*, a concept used to describe all thoughts, feelings, and behaviour, both conscious and unconscious. This Latin word, *psyche*, originally meant *spiritus* or *soul* but in contemporary times, it has come to be used as *mind*. The total personality or *psyche*, as it is called by Jung, consists of a number of separate but interacting systems. The principal ones are consciousness, the ego, the personal unconscious and its complexes, the collective unconscious and its archetypes, the persona, the anima or animus, and the shadow. In addition to these interdependent systems, there are the attitudes of introversion and extraversion, and the functions of thinking, feeling, sensing, and intuiting. Finally, there is the *self* which is the fully developed and fully unified personality.

Consciousness

Consciousness in an individual is the only part of the mind that is known directly by the individual. Right from birth, this conscious awareness is apparent in a baby in his identification of a response to his mother, toys and other strange people that come around. The consciousness grows daily through the application of the four mental functions.

Thinking consists of connecting ideas with each other in order to arrive at a general concept or a solution to a problem. Feeling is an evaluative function, which rejects an idea on the basis of whether it is pleasant or unpleasant. Sensation is sense perception which comprises all conscious experiences produced by stimulating the sense organs of sight, sound, smell, taste and touch as well as sensations originating inside the body. In intuition, there is no judgement, it is more or less a belief, a hunch or an inclination, the sources of which may be unidentifiable.

Thinking and feeling are regarded as rational functions because they involve the use of reason, judgements, evaluations, and abstraction of experience. While the feeling function evaluates in terms of likes or dislikes; the thinking function evaluates whether

an experience is true or not. The other two functions of sensing and intuiting are considered irrational because they do not utilize reason. Jung (1968:61) explains the four functions as follows:

...These four functional types correspond to the obvious means by which consciousness obtains its orientation to experience. Sensation tells us that something exists, thinking tells you what it is; feeling tells you whether it is agreeable or not, and intuition...

Ego

The Ego according to Jung is the gatekeeper of consciousness. Except it permits an idea, a feeling or a memory, such idea, feeling or memory cannot manifest into consciousness or awareness. Ego is selective and does not allow all psychic and experiences to find a place in our awareness. By the selection and elimination of psychic material, the ego maintains a balance in the individual's personality. Also, the extent of a person's individuation is related to the extent to which the ego allows external experiences to come in consciousness. Hall and Nordby (1973) summarize the factors that affect which experiences or materials the ego will accept or reject. These are

- (i) which psychological function is dominant.
- (ii) The amount of anxiety the experience arouses in the ego.
- (iii) The level of individuation reached, and
- (iv) The intensity of the experience.

The Personal Unconscious

The personal unconscious is a region adjoining the ego. It consists of experiences that were once conscious, but which have been repressed, suppressed, forgotten, or ignored and of experiences that were too weak in the first place, to make a conscious impression upon the person. The content of the personal unconscious, like those of Freud's preconscious materials, are accessible to consciousness when needed, and there is a great deal of two-way traffic between the personal unconscious and the ego. Jung also posited the concept of complexes. These are a cluster or constellation of feelings, thoughts, memories, perceptions, wishes or emotions regarding a particular theme. They are like mini personalities. They are autonomous, and can be very forceful in controlling thoughts or

behaviour. To say that a person has a complex means that he is dominated by something. That is why Jung remarked that "a person does not have a complex, the complex has him".

Complexes are in different forms. These include power complex, mother complex, beauty complex, achievement complex, inferiority complex, etc. A complex can be harmful or useful.

The Collective Unconscious

Jung's theory of personality borders on the mystical. He went beyond Freud's idea of personal unconscious and proposed a collective unconscious, which consists of all the memories and patterns of behaviour inherited from man's ancestral past. All human beings have the same collective unconscious, which predisposes them to act in certain ways.

The collective unconscious is the residue that accumulates as the result of repeated experiences over many generations. It is separate from the personal experiences of the individual. For example, since every human being has a mother, infants are born with the tendency to perceive and react to their mother in certain predetermined ways. Because of our collective unconscious, we are born with predispositions for thinking and feeling according to certain patterns. Thus, we are predisposed to be afraid of the dark, and of snakes because it may be assumed that primitive man encountered many dangers in the dark and was a victim of poisonous snakes. These latent fears may never develop in modern man unless they are strengthened by specific experiences, but nonetheless, the tendency makes one more susceptible to such experiences.

The two unconscious regions of the mind, the personal and the collective, can be of immense service to man. It (the unconscious) holds possibilities which are locked away from the conscious mind, for it has at its disposal all subliminal contents, all those things which have been forgotten or overlooked, as well as the wisdom and experience of uncounted centuries, which are laid down in its archetypal organs.

On the other hand, if the wisdom of the unconscious is ignored by the ego, the unconscious may disrupt the conscious rational processes by seizing hold of them and twisting them into

distorted forms. Symptoms, phobias, delusions, and other irrationalities stem from neglected unconscious process.

Archetypes

Archetypes refer to the collective patterns of images, called primordial images, common to all people of all times. They are universal experiences or ideas laden with emotions. They are a permanent deposit in the mind of an experience that has been constantly repeated for many generations. Having been imprinted in the human psyche, archetypes are capable of being experienced by all humans. Some archetypes are more fully developed than others, and thus influence the personality more consistently. These are the -persona, the -anima, the -shadow, and the -self.

The Persona

According to Jung, the persona is the mask or façade we put on in order to get on well in social life, in order to have a favourable public image. It may be called the conformity archetype. The persona is necessary for survival. It is the basis of social and community life. For instance, if an individual takes on a job that demands a certain peculiar or unique personal conduct or behaviour, there is a natural tendency for him to put up with the requirements or demands of his job, both to keep the job and present a good image of himself. His actual lifestyle may be inconsistent with his behaviour pattern at work. Thus he may be living a dual life ó one dominated by the persona, the other satisfying his psychic needs (Boyinbode, 1987).

The Anima and the Animus

Man is essentially a bisexual animal. On a physiological level, the male secretes both male and female sex hormones, as does the female. Masculine and feminine characteristics are found in both sexes. Homosexuality is just one of the conditions, but perhaps the most striking one, that has given rise to the concept of bisexuality. Jung ascribes the feminine side of man's personality and the masculine side of a woman's personality to archetype. The feminine archetype in a man is called the anima, the masculine archetype in a woman is called the animus. These archetypes, although they may be unconditioned by the sex chromosomes and the sex glands, are the products of racial experiences of man with woman, and woman with man. In other

words by living with woman throughout the ages, man has become feminized; by living with man, the woman has become masculinized. Not only do those archetypes cause each sex to manifest characteristics of the opposite sex, they also act as images which motivate each sex to respond and understand the opposite sex. Man apprehends the nature of the woman by virtue of his anima, and woman apprehends the nature of the man by virtue of her animus.

The Shadow

An archetype that represents one's own gender is the "shadow". It accounts for the quality of one's relationship with one's sex. It is primitive, animalistic, and very powerful. It is the source of all that is best and worst in man's relationship with people of his own sex. Because of its animalistic nature, man tends to tame the shadow or suppress it by developing a strong persona as a counter force. However, its suppression is essentially the suppression of spontaneity, creativity, vitality, vivacity, and strong emotions in one's life. It is the shadow that gives inspirations, insights and instincts. To suppress altogether may be quite unprofitable (Boyinbode, 1987). In fact Jung (1953) in reference to the shadow warned that the animal in us only becomes more beast like when it is repressed.

The Self

The self is the mid-point of personality, around which all the other systems are constellated. It holds these systems together and provides the personality with unity, equilibrium, and stability. The self is life's goal, a goal that people constantly strive for, but rarely reach. Like all archetypes, it motivates man's behaviour and causes him to search for wholeness especially through the avenues provided by religion. Before a self can emerge, it is necessary for the various components of the personality to become fully developed and individuated. For this reason, the archetype of the self does not become evident until the person has reached middle age. At this time, he begins to make a serious effort to change the center of personality from the conscious ego to one that is midway between consciousness and unconsciousness. This midway region is the province of self. Jung counsels that knowledge of the self can be reached through the study of one's dreams and through true religious experiences or spiritual development (not by supernatural phenomenon).

According to him, it is through self knowledge that the path to self-realization can be trodden. A man cannot fulfill himself without a knowledge of himself. By making conscious that which is unconscious, man would know himself more and is better able to live in harmony with himself and with others.

3.3 The Therapeutic Process

Schultz (1981) classified Jung's techniques of inquiry into four, namely

- (1) word association, (2) symptom analysis
- (3) life history reconstruction, and (4) dream analysis.

These techniques require both orthodox methods, and both scientific and supernatural or mystical approaches.

Word Association

In word association test, a list of words is read to the subject one at a time and the person is instructed to respond with the first word that comes to mind. The time taken to respond to each word is measured by a stop watch. The patient's physiological reactions to each word is also measured through laboratory procedure. These two measures then indicate evidence of the emotional effects of the stimuli, that is the words. These measures were used by Jung to unravel complexes in his patients.

Symptom Analysis

Symptom analysis requires focusing on the symptoms being experienced by the patient, with the patient made to freely associate with possible symptoms. The psychoanalyst then analyses, explains, and interprets the symptoms during which the patient would experience some relief.

Life History

Life history reconstruction involves an individual's past experiences as a means of understanding the present. This requires the application of the principle of causality in explaining the existence of present difficulties and the use of the principle of finalism in further understanding, evaluating, and in reshaping the thinking, ideas or feelings of the patient. It is more or less a case study approach (Boyinbode, 1987).

Dream Analysis

Jung sees dreams as serving prospective, retrospective, and compensatory functions. In being prospective, dreams help an individual to prepare himself from the experiences or events he anticipates in the immediate future. While the retrospective function relates to a re-enactment of past activities; the compensatory function helps to bring about a balance between opposites in the psyche by compensating for the over-development of any single psychic structure. Jung believes that dreams are more than unconscious wishes. Hall and Lindzey (1978) listed dream series method, active imagination method, and method of amplification as basic procedures Jung used in his dream analysis.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What is the difference between personal unconscious and collective unconscious.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, you have been exposed to the view of human nature held by Carl Jung, the structure of personality and the components. The three levels in the psyche were explained. The techniques of investigation used by Jung were also treated.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt that Jung's view of human nature is that of progressive positivism. He sees man as constantly striving towards personal improvement. The structure of personality is made up of three components – the conscious, the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious. Jung's techniques of investigation include word association, symptom analysis, life history reconstruction and dream analysis.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe Carl Jung's view of human nature
2. The total personality or psyche as it is called by Jung consists of a number of separate but interacting systems. Discuss.

3. What are the major techniques of investigation in Jung's theory?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Boyinbode, I. R. (1987). Carl G. Jung. In A. Uba (Ed), *Theories of Personality* Ibadan: Claveranium Press.
- Hall, C.S. & Nordby, V.J. (1973). *A Primer of Jungian psychology*. New York: New American Library.
- Hall, C.S. & Lindzey, G. (1978). *Theories of personality*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Jung, C. G. (1953). *Modern man in search of a soul*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovamovich.
- Jung, C. G. (1968). *Man and his symbols*. New York: Dell
- Read, N., Fordham, M. & Adler G. (Eds) (1953). *Jung, C. G.: Collected works*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Schultz, D. (1981). *Theories of Personality* Monterey: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

UNIT 7 CARL ROGER'S PERSON-CENTRED THEORY OF PERSONALITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Roger's view of human nature
 - 3.2 Roger's theory of personality
 - 3.3 The therapeutic process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we will study the theory of personality which was propounded by Carl Ransome Rogers. The theory has at various times been called non-directive, client-centred and, lastly, person-centred theory of personality. In this unit, we are going to look at a brief life history of Carl Rogers, his view of human nature and the therapeutic process.

Carl Ransome Rogers was born in 1902 in Winsconsin, Illinois in the United States of America. He had four brothers and a sister. His family was a highly conservative protestant Christian one, characterized by close and warm relationships. Play was discouraged and the virtues of the Protestant ethics were extolled. His boyhood was a somewhat lonely one in which he pursued scholarly interests instead of social ones.

During his college years his academic major changed from agriculture to history, then to religion, and finally to clinical psychology. Rogers received his Bachelor's Degree from the University of Wisconsin (1924) and his Masters (1928) and Ph.D (1931) from Columbia University. In 1933, Rogers became the first director of the Rochester Guidance Centre. The following year, he went to Ohio State University as Professor of Clinical Psychology by 1945. In 1957, Rogers was appointed Professor of Psychology and Psychiatry at the University of Wisconsin. By

1963, he finally left for the West Behavioural Science Institute at Lajolla in California State.

Various periods have been identified in tracing the major turning points in Rogers's approach. The first was during the 1940s, specifically 1942, when he developed what was known as "nondirective counselling" as a reaction against the directive and traditional psychoanalytic approaches. Next was in 1951 when he renamed his approach "client-centred therapy" to reflect its focus on the client rather than our nondirective methods. The last period was in the 1970s when his theory became known as person-centred approach.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit you should be able to:

- (i) List at least five of the basic views of man held by Rogers
- (ii) Identify at least ten of Rogers propositions relative to personality.
- (iii) Outline the six necessary and sufficient conditions for personality change.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Roger's View of Human Nature

The person-centred theory of personality is optimistic in its view of human nature. Rogers, the chief proponent of this theory sees man as follows:

1. Man is social, forward-moving, purposive, rational, realistic and striving to actualize himself. Man is not pushed by forces beyond his control.
2. Man is the architect of his own fortune.
3. Man can realize himself in his society because he has the power to make helpful changes in his life, though their potentials vary.
4. Man is able to make constructive decisions, survive and solve his own problems if he is given the right setting or environment free from criticism and threat, hunger, wickedness, poverty, ignorance, superstition and illiteracy.
5. Man is naturally good and bad. His bad aspect is provoked by the society and environment.

6. Man is trustworthy, constructive, and is entitled to his own opinions and beliefs (Rogers, 1961).

Seeing people in this light means that the therapist focuses on the constructive side of the human nature, on what is right with the person, and on the assets that people bring with them to therapy.

3.2 Rogers Theory of Personality

Rogers (1951) specified some conditions which constitute the premise on which the human personality can be adequately and meaningfully understood. It is only on the basis of such understanding that any effective personality change can be fostered and it is upon these that the person ó centred therapy draws its principles. To this end Rogers (1951) presented his theory of personality in the form of nineteen propositions. These are presented below.

1. Every individual exists in a changing world of experience of which he is the center.
2. The organism reacts to the field as it is experienced and perceived. This perceptual field is for the individual's "reality".
3. The organism reacts as an organized whole to his phenomenal field.
4. The organism has one basic tendency and striving to actualize, maintain and enhance the experiencing organism.
5. Behaviour is basically the goal ó directed attempt of the organism to satisfy its needs as experienced in the field as perceived.
6. Emotion accompanies and in general facilitates such goal ó directed behaviour, the kind of emotion being related to the seeking versus the consummatory aspects of the behaviour and the intensity of the emotion being related to the perceived significance of the behaviour for the maintenance and enhancement of the organism.

7. The best vantage point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself.
8. A portion of the total perceptual field gradually becomes differentiated as the self.
9. As a result of interaction with the environment and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed an organized, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perception for characteristics and relationships of the self or the self together with values attached to these concepts.
10. The value attached to experience and values introjected or taken over from others, but perceived in distorted fashion, as if they had been experienced directly.
11. As experiences occur in the life of the individual, they are either:
 - (a) symbolized, perceived and organized into some relationship to the self,
 - (b) ignored because there is no perceived relationship to the self structure,
 - (c) denied symbolization or given a distorted symbolization because the experience is inconsistent with the structure of the self.
12. Most of the ways of behaving which are adopted by the organism are those which are consistent with the concept of self.
13. Behaviour may in some instance be brought about by organic experience and needs which have not been symbolized. Such behaviour may be inconsistent with the structure of the self, but in such instances the behaviour is not owned by the individual.
14. Psychological maladjustment exists when the organism denies to awareness significant sensory and visceral experiences which consequently are not symbolized and organized into the gestalt of the self-structure; when this

situation exists, there is a basic or potential psychological tension.

15. Psychological adjustment exists when the concept of the self is such that all sensory and visceral experiences of the organisms are, or may be, assimilated on a symbolic level into a consistent relationship with the concept of self.
16. Any experience which is inconsistent with the organization or structure of self may be perceived as a threat, and the more of these perceptions there are the more rigidly the self-structure is organized to maintain itself.
17. Under certain conditions, involving primarily complete absence of any threat to the self-structure, experiences which are inconsistent with it may be perceived and examined and the structure of self revised to assimilate and include such experiences.
18. When the individual perceives and accepts into one consistent and integrated system all his sensory and visceral experience, then he is necessarily more understanding of others and is more accepting to others as separate individuals.
19. As the individual perceives and accepts into his self structure more of his organic experiences, he finds that he is replacing his present value system based so largely upon introjections which have been distorted symbolized with a continuing organismic valuing process.

Thus, self-concept is fundamental to the person ó center therapy of Rogers. It is a construct that cannot be undermined in an attempt to gain a good understanding of people and their behaviour. The self-concept affects every aspect of the individual's experiences. It is tied intimately to the three components of self ó the cognitive, affective and behavioural. Calhoun and Acocella (1978) defined self ó concept as one's own view of self.

3.3 Roger's Therapeutic Process

Rogers adopted a pragmatic attitude towards seeking a more effective approach to counselling and psychotherapy in 1941. He did not prescribe specific rules of operation that must be followed dogmatically in the process of counselling but emphasized that the counselling relationship should be entered into by both counsellor and client as people. The sole objective of therapy is to empower the client with the opportunity to realize his potentials, understand self and self-actualise. Therapy is anchored on the power of the individual to attain self actualization without impositions or suggestions from the counsellor. The counsellor's attitude in sessions is very important according to Rogers (1957) for releasing the potentials towards growth and self-actualisation. The necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change according to Rogers (1957) include:

1. genuineness, realness or congruence
2. acceptance, caring, prizing or unconditional positive regard;
3. a sensitive and accurate empathic understanding of the client;
4. the client and therapist being in psychological contact,
5. the client should be vulnerable, anxious, and in a state of incongruence and
6. the client perceives or registers the therapist of offered-conditions.

- (1) **Genuineness, Realness or Congruence:** is the feelings the counsellor is experiencing and by which he comes into a direct personal encounter with his client, meeting him on a person to person basis in responding fully to him, interacting and accepting the person regardless of his role definition as client as neurotic, as psychotic etc. the therapist must be a genuine person; one who is accurately aware and accepting of his own total experience, be it positive or negative, at any given time in his relationship with the client that is he must be himself not phony, without pretence or façade. If appropriate, the therapist should communicate this to the client. On the other hand the client must sense that the therapist is being genuine and not just taking a professional role or being polite.

- (2) **Acceptance, Caring, Prizing or Unconditional Positive Regard** implies that the counsellor accepts the client as he is, as well as valuing him as a person without being influenced by his behaviour or thoughts. The counsellor is not expected to appraise but to prize. The counsellor's attitude is to accept the client as a fallible but basically trustworthy human being. When caring blends with empathic understanding of the client, then the client's growth towards positive change is enhanced. Rogers developed the term unconditional positive regard to emphasize that there are no conditions attached to the acceptance of the person. None of the client's self-experiences are discriminated as being more or less worthy of positive regard. It is contrary to creating conditions for the acceptance of another, as when we say we like a person when he does certain things and dislike him when he does otherwise. This however does not presuppose the demonstration of likeness and acceptance in its absolute form. Rogers (1957) admits that it could vary in degree; however, the degree that could facilitate therapy is not specified. On the other hand, Rogers pointed out that the counsellor must experience the feelings behind the concept of unconditional positive regard. He must not take this attitude or operate in pretence.
- (3) **Accurate empathic understanding** – of the client's internal frame of reference by the therapist. That is to sense the client's inner world of private, personal meanings as if it were your own, but without ever losing the "as if" quality. Empathy according to Rogers is to sense the hurt or pleasure as another senses it, to perceive the causes of his problems as he perceives them but without ever losing the recognition that it is "as if" you were hurt or pleased. If the "as if" quality is missing, then it ceases to be empathy but identification. It must be noted here that for most people this kind of understanding is extremely rare. For Rogers, accurately understanding the other person is very important. But most important is being able to communicate this understanding to the client so that he senses it. It communicates to the client that much value is placed on him as an individual and that the feelings and meanings which he attaches to his

experiences are respected, worth attending to and understood.

(4) **The Client and Therapist Being in Psychological contact:**

They must come together or in contact with one another and establish a minimal relationship for sometime that could facilitate communication in order for the therapeutic process to begin. This is a precondition for the remaining conditions to be meaningful.

(5) **The Client should be vulnerable, anxious and in a state of incongruence:** The therapeutic process is more likely to get started and succeed if the client is uneasy and does not know the cause of the tension he is experiencing, that is being anxious. The client should be conscious of the discrepancy between his self-concept and the real experience of the organism. Such consciousness makes him anxious and vulnerable. This is a condition that is often characteristic of clients who come for counselling, particularly those with problems that have serious emotional undertones.

(6) **Client perceives or registers the therapist's conditions (empathic understanding of his internal frame of reference)** ó The therapist is expected to endeavour to communicate his attitude ó genuineness, unconditional positive regard and empathic understanding ó to the client in verbal and non-verbal terms. This implies that the display of the required attitudes must be obvious. If the presence of these conditions are not perceivable by the client, it is not likely that the therapeutic process would begin. All that the counsellor says or does in the counselling relationship must be geared towards the achievement of this goal.

From the above it is clear that emphasis is on a genuine person ó to ó person relationship which is crucial for therapy effectiveness.

Stages in the Counselling Process

A person enters the counselling relationship in a state of incongruence arising from the discrepancies between his self-

concept and the actual experiences of the organism. Consequent to such internal conflict, many people employ defences and shift their references point for valuations to others. Thus, they visit a counsellor with some measure of uncertainty in terms of their expectations. But given the necessary conditions as described above, the client will gradually experience freedom in expression of initially concealed feelings in verbal and non-verbal ways. He would gradually shift the reference point for valuation to himself. Progressively, he finds it easier admitting previously denied or distorted experiences to consciousness. He will in turn be able to express his feelings in relation to the discrepancies that exist between his perceived self-concept and his ideal self. Gradually, he ceases to employ defences due to his experience of continued unconditional positive regard shown by the counsellor. As the process continued, the previously distorted or denied experiences become acceptable to awareness and the true self-concept is accepted with little or no need for self-defence. There comes a gradual change in self-perception with a stronger feeling of self-regard and a better understanding of his experience in relation to his environment. He is thereby restored, once more to the normal process based on the actualizing tendency.

A critique of the trend of development in the counselling relationship of the person-centred approach shows that the different stages overlap each other in a sequential manner. These stages can be stream-lined as:

- (1) The client comes for counselling
- (2) The counselling situation is defined
- (3) The counsellor encourages free expression of feelings in regard to the problem
- (4) The counsellor accepts, recognizes and clarifies these negative feelings.
- (5) When the individual's negative feelings have been quite fully expressed, they are followed by the faint and tentative expressions of the positive impulses which make for growth.
- (6) The counsellor accepts and recognizes the positive feelings which are expressed, in same manner in which he has accepted and recognized the negative feelings.

- (7) This insight, this understanding of the self and acceptance of the self is the next important aspect of the whole process.
- (8) Intermingled with this process of insight ó and it should again be emphasized that the steps outlined are not mutually exclusive, nor do they proceed in a rigid order ó is a process of clarification of possible decisions, possible courses of actions.
- (9) Then comes one of the fascinating aspects of such therapy, the initiation of minute, but highly significant positive actions.
- (10) There is, first of all, a development of further insight ó more complete and accurate self ó understanding as the individual gains courage to see more deeply in his own actions.
- (11) There is increasing integrative positive action on the part of the client. There is less fear about making choices and more confidence in self-directed action.
- (12) There is a feeling of decreasing need for help and a recognition on the part of the client that the relationship must end.

In the person-centred approach, the person and not the problem is the focus of attention. The counsellor explores the affective rather than the cognitive aspect of the person. Counselling is based on the current experiences of the client rather than the previous. The expected outcome of the counselling relationship is emotional growth which could facilitate self-directed behaviour.

Goals of Person-Centred Approach

At the end of therapy, the client is expected to exhibit some changes according to Oladele (1987) like

1. The person comes to see himself differently
2. He accepts himself and his feelings more fully.
3. He becomes self-confident and self-directing

4. He becomes more like the person he would like to be.
5. He becomes more flexible, less rigid, in his perceptions
6. He adopts more realistic goals for himself.
7. He behaves in a more matured fashion.
8. He changes in maladjustive behaviours, even though a long established one as chronic alcoholism has been in existence.
9. He becomes more accepting of others.
10. He becomes more open to the evidence both to what is going on outside him and what is going on inside him; and
11. He changes in his basic personality characteristics in constructive ways.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify a major difference between the person-centred and the psychoanalytic theories of personality.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Carl Rogers theory of personality called Person-Centred Approach has been looked at with reference to his view of human nature, the theory proper and the therapeutic process. A major point to note is that Rogers has a positive view of human nature, stressing that man is the architect of his own fortune.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt that:

- (i) Rogers has a positive view of man and as such sees him as social, purposive and forward moving
- (ii) Rogers theory of personality was presented in form of nineteen propositions.
- (iii) Rogers presented six conditions that are necessary for personality change.
- (iv) Rogers identified twelve overlapping stages in the therapeutic process.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List at least five of the basic views of man hold by Carl Rogers.

2. Identify at least ten of Rogers's propositions on personality.
3. Give an outline of the six necessary and sufficient conditions for personality change.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Calhoun, F. J. & Accocella, R. J. (1978). *Psychology of adjustment and human relations*. New York: Random House Inc.

Oladele, J. O. (1987). *Guidance and Counselling: A functional approach. Focus on the 6-3-3-4 Educational System*. Lagos: Koservices Ltd.

Rogers, C. R. (1951). *Client-centred Therapy: Its Current Practices, Implications and Therapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Rogers, C. R. (1957). The necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 21, 95-103.

Rogers, C. R. (1961). *On becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

COURSE GUIDE

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

Course Developers

Course Writer: Ezeh, P.S.E. (Ph.D)
Department of Educational Foundations,
Faculty of Education,
Enugu State University of Science &
Technology,
Enugu.

Course Editor: Prof. Nduka Okoh

Programme Leader:

Course Co-ordinator:

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island
Lagos.

Abuja Annex
245 Samuel Adesujo Ademulegun Street
Central Business District
Opposite Arewa Suites
Abuja.

e-mail: centralinfo@non.edu.ng

URL: www.nou.edu.ng

First Printed 2099

ISBN:

All Rights Reserved

Printed by:

For

National Open University of Nigeria

TABLE OF CONTENTS		PAGE
6.0	Introduction	1
7.0	Objectives	
8.0	Main Content	
3.5.	Writing an Introduction to the course guide	
3.6.	A Guide through the course	
3.2.4	Course Aims and Objectives	
3.2.5	Course materials and structure	
3.2.6	How to Get the most from the course	
3.7.	Course Delivery	
3.3.4	Facilitation	
3.3.5	Tutorials	
3.3.6	Counselling	
3.8.	Assessment	
3.4.4	Self Assessment Exercise	
3.4.5	Tutor-Marked Assignment	
3.4.6	Final Examination	
9.0	Conclusion	
10.0	Summary	

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Social Psychology of Instruction is (PDE 420) is a fourth year, two (2) credit units course available to all students offering Bachelor Degree Programme in Education. PDE 420 has a minimum duration of one semester. It has 15 units and a course guide. The course has been developed to assist teachers handle the behavioural problems learners exhibit in the teaching-learning process.

Social Psychology of Instruction consists of 2 modules which are subdivided into 15 units. This course guide tells you in a nutshell what the course is all about, what course materials you will be using and how best you can use the materials for easy understanding of the course content. It also gives you guidance in respect of your Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) which you are expected to do and submit to your course facilitator in your assignment file for assessment. Your course facilitator is expected to meet with you on regular basis for tutorial classes on the course. You are advised to be in attendance and take the tutorial classes very seriously as it will prepare you for the

challenges you will be meeting in the course of discharging your duties in the teaching-learning situation.

4.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of studying this course you should be able to:

- (v) discuss man's behavioural processes and how an individual's behaviour is being influenced by those of other people.
- (vi) explain how various psychologists interpret human personality and how it can be shaped.
- (vii) determine why differences exist in human beings and its implication for the teaching-learning process.
- (viii) ascertain how best to assist the adjusted and maladjusted learner in the teaching-learning situation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Introduction to PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction

This course ó PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction is a two credit unit course offered in the fourth year to students of the undergraduate degree programme in education. There are two modules of fifteen study units in PDE 420.

This course guide is specially designed for Bachelors degree in education students of the National Open University of Nigeria. It is one of the several resource tools at your disposal to help you complete the course and your programme successfully.

This guide will provide you with all the information you need with regards to the aims and objectives of the course, what the course is all about; what course materials you will be using; services available to support your learning; information on assignments and examination. It also offers you guidelines on how to plan your time for study, the amount of time you are likely to spend on each study unit, your tutor-marked assignments. Feel free to interact with your course facilitator and staff of your study centre for further clarifications.

I wish you the best as you explore and internalize this course.

3.2. **A Guide through PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction**

3.4.4 **Course Aims and Objectives**

PDE 420: Social Psychology of Instruction aims at equipping the teacher with the necessary skills to understand the learner and assist him in a technical manner to face the challenges he meets in the course of discharging his duties in the teaching learning process.

Course Objectives

The course has well defined set of objectives at the beginning of each units. These objectives are meant for you to read and internalize before you study the unit. There is the dire need for you to make reference to them while studying as it will serve as a guide for you. This will assist you in ascertaining your level of attainment of the stated objectives.

Consequently, below are the comprehensive objectives of this course. By attaining these objectives, you should have achieved the aims of the course as a whole. Thus by going through this course you should be able to:

- Define the term psychology
- Identify the various areas of specialization in psychology
- State why the study of psychology is important
- Define social psychology
- Identify the closest neighbours of social psychology
- Discuss the relationship between psychology and education
- Define personality
- Discuss how the human personality is shaped.
- Define individual differences
- Explain the sources of individual difference
- Discuss the area of individual difference
- List the classroom implications of individual differences.
- Give the various definitions of adjustment
- Enumerate the characteristics of a well adjusted individual
- Define the term maladjustment
- Discuss the indices of maladjustment
- Enumerate the cause of maladjustment

- Discuss at least five implications of social maladjustment on teaching and learning
- Discuss the general strategies for the management and control of maladjusted behaviours
- Discuss the specific strategies for the modification of special undesirable behaviours
- Discuss Freud's view of human nature
- Identify the components of the personality structure
- Discuss how the human personality develops
- State the cause of anxiety in humans and how they are handled.
- Discuss the personality structure propounded by Sullivan.
- Identify the stages in the development of personality.
- Discuss Sullivan's assessment techniques
- Discuss Adler's view of human nature
- Outline the major concepts in Adler's personality theory
- List the procedures in Adler's therapeutic process.
- Discuss Erich Fromm's view of human nature
- Identify and briefly discuss the personality types based on Fromm's theory.
- Outline the therapeutic process of Fromm.
- Give a highlight of Maslow's view of human nature
- List and explain the seven potent needs that shape an individual's personality.
- Highlight the therapeutic process of Abraham Maslow.
- Give a highlight of Jung's view of human nature.
- Discuss the structure of personality as propounded by Jung.
- List the Techniques of therapy adopted by Jung.
- List at least five of the basic views of man held by Rogers
- Identify at least ten of Roger's propositions relative to personality.
- Outline the six necessary and sufficient conditions for personality change.

3.4.5 Course Materials and Structure

The main components of the course are

- The course guide
- Study Units
- Course Summary

- Course Overview
- Self Assessment exercises
- Assignments and marking scheme
- References
- Further Reading

Study Units

The course is divided into two modules that are made up of 15 units. The study units in PDE 420 Social Psychology of Instruction are as follows:

Module 1

- Unit 1 Orientation to Psychology
- Unit 2 Social Psychology
- Unit 3 Personality
- Unit 4 Individual Differences
- Unit 5 Social Adjustment
- Unit 6 Social Maladjustment
- Unit 7 Implications of Maladjustment in Teaching Learning Situations
- Unit 8 Interventional Role of the Teacher in helping the Maladjusted Children in Schools

Module 2

- Unit 1 Sigmund Freud's Personality Theory
- Unit 2 Harry Stack Sullivan's Personality Theory
- Unit 3 Alfred Adler's Personality Theory
- Unit 4 Erich Fromm's Personality Theory
- Unit 5 Abraham Maslow's need theory of personality
- Unit 6 Carl Jung's Personality Theory
- Unit 7 Carl Roger's Personality Theory

Course Summary

Module 1 introduces you to the field of psychology, social psychology, personality, individual differences, social maladjustment ó its implication to teaching and learning and how the teacher can assist the maladjusted learner. Module 2 focuses in various psychologists theories of personality.

Study Plan

This study plan is intended to assist you make out time for studying this course.

Unit	Title of Study Unit	Weekly Activity	Assignment
	Course Guide		Course Guide form
Module 1			
1	Orientation to psychology	1	Assignment
2	Social psychology	2	Assignment
3	Personality	3	Assignment
4	Individual differences	4	Assignment
5	Social adjustment	5	Assignment
6	Social maladjustment	6	Assignment
7	Implication of mal-adjustment in the teaching-learning situation	7	Assignment
8	Interventional role of the teacher in helping the maladjusted children in schools.	8	Assignment
Module 2			
1	Sigmund Freud's personality theory	9	Assignment
2	Harry Stack Sullivan's personality theory	10	Assignment
3	Alfred Adler's personality theory	11	Assignment
4	Erich Fromm's personality theory	12	Assignment
5	Abraham Maslow's need theory of personality	13	Assignment
6	Carl Jung's personality theory	14	Assignment
7	Carl Roger's personality theory	15	Assignment
	Revision	16	
	Examination	17	
	Total	17	

- Now, use this overview to plan your personal time table.