The efficiency of neuro psycho theory to study Stress predispositions in psychogenetic process -To define stress in psychogenetic way

Surya S[1], Dr. Asha Sundaram[2], Dr. Thangamayan [3]

[1]Research scholar, Saveetha school of law, SIMATS, Chennai, India

[2]Professor and Principal, Saveetha school of law, SIMATS, Chennai, India

[3]Associate Professor, Saveetha school of law, SIMATS, Chennai, India

--------------------------------***--------------------------------**Abstract**

One of the major aspect of formation of corporate human rights is employees, considering the socioeconomic aspects and profitable indicators based on employees contribution to the company, where as the corporate human rights as per constitution of india only favours employee rights in terms of productivity, but the mental health quotient is not been addressed or considered, the ratio and data related to employee stress, suicide attempts, and other related stress causing factors need some consideration at present 2025 context, from the data cited in article ALL THINGS TALENT-NAUKIRI TALENT CLOUD, stated that 60% of the employees faces stress irrespective of their age, being more specific about 70% of women at work places feel more stress than men, that indulge in questioning our corporate human rights provisions and evaluating the mental health care act in india.the stress is not a emotion that can be forgotten or erased, it has direct or indirect impact over genes, so what is the role of genes here , we shall state the genes are the identity of every human being that are heritable to stay as a evidence for generations, what if that Genes are destructed through stress in our day today life. Some of the factors that are negatively affected due to stress are the humans and their emotions through distress, so what happens in genes when stress is adhered by the human in workplace need a glance and details to enhance our mental health well-being at our work place and personal space..We are going to analyse the theoretical concept of bio and neurogenetics psychology whether these concepts has impact on stress management in epigenetic genera for all workaholic people at different management levels considering neuro science and biopsychology.

Keywords: Neuro Rights, Neurocognition, Seethaframework, Legal Psychology, Stress, Healthlaws, Neurogenetics, Corporate Human Rights.

Introduction

Understanding the Human Mind: A Simple Guide to Psychology's History and Schools of Thought

IIntroduction to Psychology: What It Is and How It Began

1.1 What is Psychology?

Defining Psychology: From Soul to Behavior

The journey of psychology, as a field of study, began with ancient Greek roots, drawing from the words 'Psyche,' meaning soul, and 'Logos,' meaning science. This etymological origin initially defined psychology as "the science of the soul".

During antiquity, Greek philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle regarded psychology as a branch of philosophy, focusing on the study of the soul. However, this early definition encountered significant challenges. The soul, being a metaphysical concept, could not be seen, observed, or touched, rendering it impervious to scientific investigation. This inherent lack of objective measurability compelled the field to seek a more concrete subject for its inquiries. As the understanding of psychology evolved, it transitioned to "the science of the mind." Emmanuel Kant, a German philosopher, and William James (1892) both contributed to this definition, viewing psychology as the study of mental processes. Nevertheless, the concept of 'mind' itself proved ambiguous, leading to considerable debate regarding its nature and functions. This ambiguity further highlighted the need for a more precise and empirically accessible definition. Subsequently, contemporary psychologists began to consider psychology as the "Science of Consciousness." James Sully (1884) coined the term "science of the inner world," while Wilhelm Wundt (1892) defined it as the scientific study of "internal experiences." Yet, this definition also faced rejection, primarily because consciousness exists on multiple levels—conscious, subliminal, and unconscious—making a comprehensive and unified scientific study difficult. In the early 20th century, a pivotal shift occurred as psychologists endeavored to establish psychology as an independent scientific discipline. This led to its eventual definition as the "science of behavior." J.B. Watson played a significant role in popularizing this term, with support from W.B. Pillsbury and William McDugall. The famous observation by R.S. Woodworth encapsulates this evolution: "Psychology initially lost its soul, subsequently its mind and finally its consciousness." He added, "Somewhat of its behaviour persists". This progression reflects a continuous quest for scientific legitimacy, as the field moved away from subjective, philosophical concepts toward more observable and quantifiable phenomena. The evolution of psychology's definition is a testament to its dynamic adaptation to methodological capabilities and prevailing scientific paradigms.

Today, psychology is broadly defined as the scientific study of the mental processes, states, and behavior of both humans and other animals. It encompasses both a large practitioner profession, such as therapy, and a growing scientific discipline focused on the mind, brain, and social behavior. Various definitions from different psychologists over time consistently emphasize this scientific study of mental processes and/or behavior. Psychologists explore a wide range of questions, including how individuals perceive, learn, think, remember, and interact with their environment. They delve into inquiries such as why some individuals acquire concepts effortlessly while others struggle, how reasoning develops through different stages, why people perceive things differently, and how personality forms. Unlike common logical reasoning, psychologists employ scientific methodology to analyze the underlying psychological mechanisms behind these behaviors, demonstrating a commitment to empirical investigation. While psychology has established "behavior" as its core observable subject, the modern definition still acknowledges the crucial role

of "mental processes and states". Mental processes, including thoughts, feelings, and motivations, are considered "covert" or internal, not directly visible. Psychologists deduce these internal processes from observable behavior, highlighting a continuous tension within the field: it strives to be a rigorous science by studying what is observable, yet recognizes the indispensable nature of unobservables for a comprehensive understanding of human existence. This approach underscores the ongoing compromise and the enduring importance of the internal world, even in the pursuit of scientific rigor.

Literature review

Different Ways to Look at Psychology (Major Approaches/Perspectives)

Psychology endeavors to explain mental processes and observable conduct through various perspectives, often referred to as approaches or concepts. At least five major approaches provide distinct lenses through which to understand human experience. The existence of these multiple approaches indicates that human behavior and mental processes are too complex to be fully understood by a single viewpoint. Each approach focuses on different causal factors, such as biological underpinnings, cognitive processes, environmental influences, unconscious drives, or personal growth, suggesting that a comprehensive understanding requires an integrative approach, drawing from diverse perspectives. This multi-faceted view foreshadows the interdisciplinarity and methodological diversity that characterize modern psychological inquiry.

1. **The Biological Approach:** This perspective centers on the intricate interplay between the environment, genetic factors, neurochemicals, hormones, and the nervous system to explain cognition and behavior. It investigates how physiology and genetics impact personality, learning, memory, emotions, impulses, and motivations. For instance, in the context of mental disorders like depression, a biological approach would consider the anatomical characteristics of specific brain structures (e.g., the amygdala), the individual's neurochemistry (e.g., dopamine and serotonin imbalances), and genetic predispositions.

2. **The Cognitive Approach:** This approach focuses on the mechanisms through which individuals acquire, retain, and apply knowledge. It explores how information influences cognitive processes and actions, and how thoughts, beliefs, emotions, perceptions, focus, memory, and behaviors impact the processing of retained information. When applied to mental health, the cognitive approach considers how maladaptive thought patterns, such as fixating on negative events (rumination) or a lack of receptivity to positive occurrences, can contribute to the development of conditions like depression.

3. **The Behavioural Approach:** This perspective examines the impact of environmental factors on behavior, utilizing antecedents (signals) and consequences (rewards and punishments) as mechanisms. It investigates how the outcomes of a behavior influence both its acquisition and manifestation. For example, behavioral theories of depression suggest that the absence of pleasurable experiences and activities may cause symptoms like dysphoria and low mood, and that increasing engagement in such activities can alleviate these symptoms.

4. **The Psychoanalytic (Psychodynamic) Approach:** Introduced by Sigmund Freud in the late 19th century, this philosophical framework centers on the examination of formative experiences. It explores how early youth experiences and relationships, alongside subliminal desires, motivations, and anxieties, significantly impact adult behaviors, thoughts, emotions, and personality. A psychoanalytic viewpoint on depression, for instance, might consider how an individual's past experiences influence their present cognitive and behavioral tendencies and their overall perception of the world.

5. **The Humanistic Approach:** This approach emphasizes the inherent capacity of every individual to progress, mature, and shape their own future. It considers individual development, intrinsic value, and self-actualization. Humanistic psychology posits that while individuals may require effort to achieve their full potential, they possess substantial agency over their future. It values positive human attributes such as creativity, the ability to form relationships, liberty, and artistic endeavors. A humanistic approach to depression might begin with the idea that individuals are "self-actualizing" and capable of influencing their own growth. This perspective uniquely emphasizes the uniqueness of each individual, thus prescribing no "one-size-fits-all" therapies.

Areas of Psychology (Branches and Types of Psychology)

Psychology is an expansive field, characterized by a wide array of specialized areas and subdisciplines. This breadth reflects the inherent complexity of human experience, which cannot be fully understood through a single lens or area of study. The field has branched out significantly to address practical problems across nearly every domain of human activity, including healthcare, education, business, and law, demonstrating its practical utility and societal relevance beyond purely academic inquiry.

Branches of Psychology (General Areas):

- **General Psychology:** This broad domain encompasses the fundamental theories, rules, and principles of psychology as they apply to the investigation of typical adult human behavior.
- **Abnormal Psychology:** This subfield focuses on elucidating and delineating the actions of individuals who exhibit atypical characteristics in response to their surroundings. It examines the causes, manifestations, syndromes, diagnosis, and management of behavioral abnormalities.
- **Clinical Psychology:** This area emerges from the application of abnormal psychology principles. It is responsible for the accurate diagnosis of mental disorders and maladies, with practicing clinical psychologists administering care to patients in clinical or hospital settings.
- **Physiological Psychology:** This field elucidates the physiological and biological underpinnings of behavior. It examines the physiological composition and internal environment of the human organism, specifically the brain, nervous system, and glandular function, in relation to cognitive, affective, and conative behavior.
- **Social Psychology:** This subfield examines human behavior in relation to its social environment. Its subject matter includes group dynamics, social relationships,

communication, interpersonal processes, and the behavior of individuals as members of a group.

Types of Psychology (More Specific Fields):

- **Behavioural Neuroscience (Biopsychology, Biological Psychology, Psychobiology):** This field investigates biological factors that may influence the brain and human behavior. Biopsychologists conduct research to determine how biological factors influence thoughts, emotions, and behaviors, and they also examine the behavioral effects of brain damage and disease to devise prevention and treatment strategies.

- **Behavioural Psychology:** This area seeks to comprehend the most fundamental types of human actions, investigating the causes of human behavior and how the psyche influences it. It may encompass strategies for modifying maladaptive behaviors, such as addictions, with practitioners often working in private practices, hospitals, or clinical environments.

- **Clinical Psychology:** This specific type encompasses the examination and management of severe aberrant behaviors and mental disorders. Clinical psychologists develop treatment programs and administer therapy, working in various environments such as private practices, mental health clinics, and institutions. They may specialize in particular demographics or subtypes of mental illness, applying psychological science to complex human concerns.

- **Cognitive Psychology:** This domain focuses on understanding how people think, including how they perceive their surroundings, form memories, retrieve information, use language, and solve problems. It may also investigate learning disabilities and provide educational assistance.

- **Community Psychology:** Community psychologists conduct research on health concerns to inform the public and develop preventative programs against widespread problems, such as political disputes or environmental issues. They are frequently employed by governmental bodies, institutions, community organizations, and charitable organizations, aiming for community betterment.

- **Comparative Psychology:** This field investigates the parallels and distinctions in behavior that exist between humans and other animal species. Comparative psychologists may use findings from observing animal responses to understand human behavior, based on the premise that laws governing behavior are universally applicable.

- **Consumer Psychology:** This discipline investigates how communication and marketing strategies are employed to sway consumer choices, providing valuable insights into target audiences, purchasing behavior motivations, and consumer sentiments.

- **Critical Psychology:** This area examines the evolution of psychology itself to identify advantageous tendencies, using a reflective and analytical approach to construct a comprehensive body of knowledge centered on social justice and equality.

- **Developmental Psychology:** Developmental psychologists study the intellectual, emotional, social, and moral development of individuals across the lifespan, from infancy to old age. They examine manifestations of disabilities, behaviors, and languages, and may concentrate on specific life phases or the entire lifespan, often working as consultants or in academia.

- **Educational Psychology:** This field investigates the process of human learning and applies its discoveries to the development of learning resources and strategies. The majority of educational psychologists are employed by colleges, universities, elementary, and secondary institutions, or by organizations providing training for personnel.

- **Environmental Psychology:** This is the study of the mental and behavioral effects of physical environments, and how human actions can influence their environments. Environmental psychologists frequently collaborate with government agencies, non-profit organizations, and businesses to address complex issues like pollution protection and urban planning.

- **Evolutionary Psychology:** This topic pertains to the examination of human evolution over time, specifically how humans have modified their psychological perspectives to accommodate the course of evolution. An evolutionary psychologist might investigate factors contributing to human species' enduring survival through adaptability.

- **Forensic Psychology:** Professional forensic psychologists provide psychological expertise to attorneys, courts, employers, insurers, and justice systems, and conduct research on criminal behavior. This entails assessing crime scenes, collaborating with child witnesses, and offering therapy to victims.

- **Health Psychology:** In various settings like universities and hospitals, health psychologists investigate the relationship between behavior and health, assisting in the development of illness prevention and promotion programs. They counsel clients on preventive measures and coping strategies.

- **Industrial and Organisational Psychology (I/O Psychology):** This field is concerned with the conduct of employees within a work environment, aiming to assist organizations in resolving work-related concerns such as employee satisfaction, performance evaluation, and incentive schemes.

- **Military Psychology:** Military psychologists offer expertise to assist servicemembers, veterans, and their families in addressing challenges like post-traumatic stress and substance misuse. They also provide leadership guidance on motivating soldiers and aiding recruitment strategies.

- **Neuropsychology:** This study focuses on the relationships between cognition, emotion, behavior, and the brain/nervous system. Neuropsychologists may collaborate with patients who have undergone brain injury or illness to ascertain behavioral implications and treatment plans.

- **Personality Psychology:** This field investigates the influence of an individual's characteristics on their conduct, attempting to comprehend biological and environmental influences on personality. They may research and treat personality disorders or administer personality evaluations for pre-employment screening.

- **Psychometric Psychology:** This area aims to aid in the development and administration of psychological assessments to individuals or groups, such as aptitude and IQ tests, for understanding personnel, clients, patients, or minors.

- **Rehabilitation Psychology:** This discipline assists individuals afflicted with chronic health conditions and disabilities, instructing clients on coping mechanisms and life-improving practices, often in long-term care or rehabilitation centers.
- **Research Psychology (Experimental Psychology):** This field studies memory, decision-making, attention, learning, perception, sensation, or emotion. Research psychologists typically publish their findings to advance industry knowledge, formulating hypotheses and designing/monitoring experiments, usually in academic institutions.
- **School Psychology:** School psychologists provide assistance to students in educational contexts, assessing and managing academic, behavioral, and social concerns. They collaborate with instructors, parents, and administrative staff to devise plans for student challenges, aiming to establish a secure and efficient learning environment.
- **Social Psychology:** This field studies how individuals perceive, influence, and interact with one another, entailing the comprehension of human behavior in specific social contexts and the examination of subjects such as prejudice, aggression, and interpersonal attraction.
- **Sport Psychology:** Sport psychology endeavors to provide athletes with techniques that can optimize their performance, surmount obstacles, and attain their objectives, emphasizing teamwork, constructive communication, anxiety reduction, and injury recovery.

1.2 Big Ideas in Psychology

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs: Understanding What Drives Us

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory proposes that human requirements are arranged in a pyramid, with the most basic needs at the bottom and higher-level, more complex needs at the top. This model suggests that individuals must satisfy lower-level needs before they can effectively pursue and fulfill higher-level ones. Maslow postulated that this hierarchical arrangement helps in comprehending human motivation.

The pyramid consists of five distinct levels:

- **1. Physiological Needs (Base):** These are the most fundamental and immediate requirements for human fulfillment and productive existence, including necessities like food, water, and shelter. Maslow emphasized that when an individual is deficient in multiple requirements, they are prone to prioritizing the fulfillment of these physiological necessities, such as a famished person finding it difficult to concentrate on anything other than food.
- **2. Safety Needs:** Once physiological needs are met, the subsequent necessity that emerges is a secure environment. This is evident even in infancy, as children require predictable and secure surroundings and often exhibit fear or anxiety when these needs are not fulfilled. For adults in developed nations, this need becomes more pronounced in emergency situations, and it also accounts for common behaviors like purchasing insurance or saving money.
- **3. Love and Belonging:** After safety needs are satisfied, the next level pertains to the experience of affection and acceptance. This encompasses companionship, friendships, familial, and romantic connections, as well as the desire to feel part of a social community.

This need includes both experiencing love and expressing affection towards others. Research indicates that social connections correlate with improved physical health, while unfulfilled belonging, leading to isolation, has adverse effects on health and well-being.

- **4. Esteem Needs:** These requirements pertain to the human yearning for self-satisfaction. Maslow argued that esteem needs comprise two distinct elements: experiencing a sense of self-assurance and positive self-perception, and experiencing a sense of worth from others, specifically the acknowledgment of one's efforts and accomplishments. When these needs are fulfilled, individuals experience confidence; if unfulfilled, they might encounter "feelings of inferiority," as described by Alfred Adler.

- **5. Self-Actualisation (Peak):** This is the highest level, representing the state of experiencing contentment or the conviction that one is conducting one's life in accordance with their full potential. A distinguishing aspect of self-actualization is that its manifestation varies among individuals; for one, it could entail acts of altruism, while for another, it could involve accomplishments in artistic or creative realms. Fundamentally, it pertains to the sense of fulfilling one's intended purpose in life, a relatively uncommon occurrence, with examples cited such as Abraham Lincoln, Albert Einstein, and Mother Teresa.

Maslow's theory is based on several assumptions: people's behavior is driven by needs, and satisfaction of these needs determines positive or negative behavior. Individuals are motivated by unmet needs; once a need is fulfilled, it no longer functions as a motivator, and a greater need takes its place. Needs progress hierarchically from fundamental to advanced, and a person can only advance to the subsequent level once their lesser requirements have been fulfilled.

The merits of Maslow's theory include its informative, brief, and easy-to-understand nature. It provides administrators with valuable insight into the significance of attending to the requirements of their employees, and it has gained universal acceptance. However, limitations exist: needs may not always follow the stated hierarchy, individuals may seek to satisfy several needs simultaneously, and it is not always possible to categorize human needs as precisely as Maslow presented.

Visual Aid: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid The theory is frequently illustrated through a pyramid, with physiological needs at the base and self-actualization at the apex. *(Image: A simple pyramid diagram illustrating Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs with each level clearly labeled, similar to the one found at https://gururo.com/maslow-extended/ or https://www.istockphoto.com/photos/maslow-hierarchy)*

Case Study 1: Life History of Genghis Khan

Temujin, later known as Genghis Khan, was born around 1162 AD. His early life was marked by hardship following his father's murder and the subsequent ostracization of his family, which led him to murder his half-brother to solidify his position as patriarch. His mother instilled in him the harsh realities of tribal society and the necessity of alliances. At sixteen, he married Borte, strengthening tribal ties. After being captured around 1177 AD, he began a gradual ascent to power, amassing an army of over 20,000 soldiers with the objective of uniting the Mongols and eradicating tribal divisions. He exacted vengeance for his father's assassination through a blend of military strategies and ruthless savagery, vanquishing former allies and leading catastrophic assaults that left cities ravaged and populations decimated. His vast empire was regulated by the

Yassa legal code, which, while promoting merit-based progress and religious tolerance in some aspects, also prohibited certain religious practices and imposed Mongol dietary habits. He faced numerous conspiracies and betrayals throughout his reign, which concluded in 1227, leaving behind an empire encompassing significant portions of Central Asia and China. When analyzed through Maslow's framework, Genghis Khan is often described as the "complete opposite" of Maslow's "exceptionally healthy individual." His actions appear to be driven primarily by immediate desires and the satisfaction of basic "security and safety" needs, rather than higher-level motivations. His life, marked by force and the elimination of obstacles, suggests he likely never progressed beyond these foundational requirements. His lack of recognition as a paragon of humanity implies he was not genuinely cherished by the populations he conquered. His character appears to manifest "metapathologies" such as mistrust, animosity, black-and-white thinking, lethargy, anarchy, insecurity, exhaustion, and lifelessness, which likely impeded his ability to achieve self-actualization. His trajectory suggests that societal conditions and early life experiences can profoundly impact an individual's capacity to ascend the hierarchy, leading to vastly different life outcomes and global impacts.

Case Study 2: Life History of Mother Teresa

Agnes Gonxha Bojaxhiu, known as Mother Teresa, was born in Macedonia on August 27, 1910. Despite her father's early death, her mother's upbringing profoundly shaped her character. At 12, she resolved to become a missionary, joining the Sisters of Loreto in India at 18, where she became Sister Mary Teresa. In 1937, she dedicated herself fully to Jesus' path, becoming Mother Teresa. She served as an educator and principal at St. Mary's, finding joy in prayer and her community. In 1946, she experienced a "call within a call" to serve the poorest, leading her to leave the convent school in 1948 to work among the destitute in Calcutta. She visited families, cared for the sick and dying, and was soon joined by former pupils. By the 1960s, her Missionaries of Charity expanded across India and, by the 1990s, to nearly all communist nations. She received numerous honors for her altruistic service. Mother Teresa passed away in 1997, leaving a legacy of steadfast faith, unwavering optimism, and extraordinary altruism, and her tomb became a site of veneration for people of all faiths.

Mother Teresa is presented as a "personification" of Maslow's "exceptionally fit person," having attained the level of "self-actualization." Her life and work demonstrate "metamotivation," indicating she went beyond merely addressing deficiencies. Her life exemplified meta-needs such as virtue, unity, vitality, individuality, simplicity, and self-sufficiency. She embodied attributes of self-actualization, including broad acceptance of others, spontaneity, a focus on external issues, independent operation, a sense of wonder, and robust interpersonal connections. Her altruistic disposition, driven by a desire for the "greater good" rather than personal benefit, elevates her status beyond individuals typically functioning on societal necessities. She is regarded as exemplifying the finest of humanity, supporting the humanistic tenet that "human beings possess more potential than they realise".

While Maslow's theory proposes a universal concept of fulfilling one's potential, the specific examples provided (Lincoln, Einstein, Mother Teresa) are figures widely celebrated in Western or global humanitarian contexts. This raises questions about how self-actualization might be defined or observed in non-Western or collectivist cultures, where individualistic pursuits might be less

emphasized. The manifestation and recognition of self-actualization could be culturally influenced, suggesting a need for broader cultural sensitivity in its application.

Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development: How Children Learn to Think

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development focuses on how children progress and acquire knowledge about their environment. His theory posits that children move through four distinct phases in their cognitive development:

- **1. Sensorimotor Stage (Birth to 2 years):** During this stage, infants and toddlers primarily gain knowledge of their environment through physical interactions, utilizing motor responses, reflexes, and their five senses. They learn to explore and interact with their surroundings, developing fundamental motor skills like grasping and crawling. They also begin to understand object permanence, recognizing that objects continue to exist even when hidden. For example, a baby might initially think a hidden toy is gone but later learns to find it by lifting a blanket.
- **2. Preoperational Stage (2 to 7 years):** In this phase, children begin to develop the ability to think symbolically, using words and images to represent objects, events, and concepts. They gain the capacity to recognize objects, engage in basic logical reasoning, and grasp the principle of cause and effect. However, they often struggle with understanding the viewpoints of others, exhibiting egocentric thinking. For instance, a child might use a banana as a pretend phone, demonstrating symbolic thinking. If asked what someone on the opposite side of a mountain would see, they might say exactly what they see, showing their egocentric perspective.
- **3. Concrete Operational Stage (7 to 11 years):** Young children in this stage begin to think logically and are capable of deriving general principles from specific data. They acquire the ability to classify objects, perform mathematical operations, and develop a heightened awareness of the viewpoints of others and the repercussions of their actions.
  For example, if the same amount of water is poured into two different shaped containers (one tall and narrow, one short and wide), a child in this stage will understand that the amount of water remains the same, despite the different shapes. They can also solve simple arithmetic problems like 7+3=10 using logical thinking.
- **4. Formal Operational Stage (12 years and up):** This stage commences at approximately 12 years of age and progresses thereafter. During this period, adolescents develop the capacity for abstract thought, hypothetical reasoning, and accurate prediction of future events. Individuals enhance their problem-solving abilities, gain a deeper understanding of the consequences of their choices, and begin to contemplate abstract concepts such as justice, morality, and societal obligation. For example, a teenager in this stage might solve algebraic equations (e.g., 2x+3=7) using abstract thinking or ponder ethical issues, such as what would happen if everyone ignored traffic laws, without needing to see it happen.

Visual Aid: Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development *(Image: A simple diagram illustrating Piaget's four stages of cognitive development, similar to the one found at*

https://www.tutorialspoint.com/case-studies-related-to-neopiagetian-theory-of-cognitive-development)

Neo-Piagetian Theory (Case's Hypothesis): The Neo-Piagetian hypothesis, formulated by Case, modifies Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development. Case argued that while Piaget's theory provides a solid foundation, it had limitations, such as not fully accounting for individual differences or overestimating the significance of information processing. Case's theory addresses these limitations by integrating principles from mental information processing theories, suggesting that cognitive development involves the interaction between two distinct categories of mental processes :

- **Automatic Processes:** These are quick and effortless, requiring little conscious effort or attention. They often become reflexive as a result of consistent effort and experience, such as reading, operating a motor vehicle along a familiar road, or typing on a keyboard. Automatic processes are indispensable for cognitive development as they enable swift task completion, thereby freeing up mental resources for more intricate endeavors that demand controlled processing. Proficiency in these procedures increases with experience, allowing individuals to allocate attention to more demanding tasks.

- **Controlled Processes:** These processes require deliberate concentration and exertion. In contrast to automatic processes, controlled activities are deliberate, slower, and demand greater mental control, examples being critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making. Controlled processes are crucial in cognitive development as they facilitate the acquisition of novel skills and adaptation to new circumstances. They enable individuals to modify their thoughts and actions in response to novel challenges, and while a new skill may initially rely on controlled processes, it gradually transitions to an automatic one with practice.

- **Domain-Specific Knowledge:** Case's methodology also underscores the importance of domain-specific knowledge in the development of the mind. This refers to expertise unique to a particular subject or field, such as mathematics or language, acquired through practical experience and education. Children with a robust foundation of domain-specific knowledge are more adept at assimilating and comprehending new information in that domain and establishing correlations between various concepts.

The progression from controlled to automatic processes highlights a key mechanism of learning efficiency: conscious effort eventually becomes effortless mastery, allowing the brain to tackle new complexities. This implies that effective education should not only align with developmental stages but also provide opportunities for deliberate practice to automate foundational skills. This dynamic interplay between innate stages and environmental interaction shapes cognitive development.

Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory: Exploring the Unconscious Mind

Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory posits that subliminal (unconscious) memories, impulses, and urges profoundly influence human behavior. This theory introduced the radical idea that a vast "unconscious mind," much like the submerged part of an iceberg, governs most human thought

and behavior. This means that human motivations are not always rational or consciously known, but often stem from hidden impulses, desires, and conflicts, which, if unresolved, can lead to mental distress. This concept revolutionized therapy by focusing on uncovering these hidden forces.

The Psyche's Structure: Freud described the human mind as composed of three primary components :

- **Id:** This is the most primal component of the psyche, operating entirely unconsciously. It is the source of all fundamental desires, including primal urges and libidinal energy, and seeks immediate pleasure without regard for reality or morality.
- **Ego:** The ego functions within the conscious mind and is concerned with reality. It acts as an intermediary, facilitating the fulfillment of the id's desires in socially acceptable, secure, and practical ways. It navigates the demands of the real world.
- **Superego:** This component of the psyche retains all morals and standards that are internally ingrained and learned from societal influences, parents, and extended family. It imparts moral principles and ideals, leading to feelings of guilt or pride. The superego operates both implicitly and consciously.

Visual Aid: Freud's Iceberg Model *(Image: Freud's Iceberg Model, showing the Id, Ego, and Superego in relation to conscious, preconscious, and unconscious levels of the mind, similar to the one found at*

https://www.shutterstock.com/image-vector/freuds-iceberg-model-unconscious-conscious-14578 13038)

Key Concepts in Freud's Theory:

- **Talk Therapy:** A significant psychological contribution made by Freud was the concept of talk therapy, which posits that venting one's concerns through conversation can effectively mitigate them. Freud became aware of this through Josef Breuer's patient, Anna O. (Bertha Pappenheim), who found solace in recounting her experiences, coining the phrase "talking cure." Although Freud never met Anna O. directly, her case profoundly influenced his subsequent theories on therapy and psychoanalysis.
- **Personality Influences:** According to Freud, personality is influenced by various factors, including:
  - **Cathexis and Anticathexis:** Libido, as the source of all psychic energy, is applied as mental effort to an individual, concept, or object (cathexis). Conversely, anticathexis involves the ego impeding the id's socially objectionable desires, often through repression, which requires substantial energy expenditure. For example, if one is hungry, they might visualize a delectable supper (cathexis); if unable to procure food, the ego might use energy to pursue related activities like perusing a recipe blog (anticathexis).
    - **Life Instincts (Eros) and Death Instincts (Thanatos):** Freud posited that human behavior is largely driven by two fundamental instincts. Life instincts (Eros) pertain to basic requirements for sustenance, procreation, and enjoyment, encompassing needs like food, shelter, affection, and sexual activity. Death instincts (Thanatos)

represent a latent desire for one's own demise, sometimes manifesting as self-destructive behavior, though typically moderated by life instincts.

- **Psychosexual Development:** Freud theorized that infants advance through a sequence of psychosexual stages as they mature, with the libido directing its pleasure-seeking energy towards distinct anatomical regions at each stage. These five stages are oral, anal, phallic, latent, and genital. Unresolved conflicts at any stage can lead to "fixations" in adulthood, such as an "oral fixation" manifesting as an unhealthy dependence on oral activities like chewing, smoking, or nail-biting.

- **Dream Analysis:** Freud regarded dream analysis as "the royal road to the unconscious," believing it provided crucial insight into hidden desires and anxieties. He categorized dream content into:
  - **Manifest Content:** The actual substance of the dream, including its thoughts, imagery, and events, essentially the dreamer's awake recollections.
    - **Latent Content:** The symbolic and concealed meanings present in the dream, representing unconscious wishes. Freud believed dreams functioned as a manifestation of wish fulfillment, transforming subliminal thoughts and desires into less menacing forms to alleviate ego anxiety.

- **Defense Mechanisms:** These are unconscious psychological strategies employed by the ego to shield itself from anxiety by manipulating, denying, or distorting reality. Common examples include denial (refusing to confront a distressing reality) and rationalization (attempting to provide logical explanations for inappropriate conduct, such as "One cigarette will not harm me"). Other well-known mechanisms include repression (pushing disturbing thoughts into the unconscious) and regression (reverting to childlike behaviors).

- **Female Psychology (Electra Complex):** This was one of Freud's most contentious ideas. He suggested that females initially have a close bond with their mothers but develop intense hatred upon realizing their mothers "mutilated" them (lacked a penis), leading to a strong attachment to their fathers. They then emulate their mothers out of fear of losing their devotion. This is considered the female equivalent of the Oedipus complex.

- **Theory of Religion:** Freud believed religious convictions are fundamentally illusory and an "unsubstantiated system of beliefs" that do not result in true pleasure or fulfillment. He argued that an individual's religious worldview is influenced by their paternal relationship, with conceptions of "God" often shaped by the characteristics of the father figure.

1.3 How Psychology Works as a Science

Goals of Psychology: Describe, Explain, Predict, Control, and Apply

The central objective of psychology is to comprehend the thoughts, personalities, and emotions of individuals. To achieve this, it employs scientific investigations, experiments, observations, and studies, aiming for specific objectives. These goals form the foundation of most psychological theories and research, ultimately helping individuals improve their lives. The goals are presented sequentially, representing a logical progression in scientific understanding:

1. **Describe:** Professional psychologists rely heavily on the capacity for description to distinguish between typical and atypical thoughts and actions. This process enhances their comprehension of thought and behavior. Descriptions can be achieved through various research techniques, including observations, case studies, surveys, and self-assessments. They also help psychologists understand how to modify an individual's thoughts and actions.

2. **Explain:** Psychologists move beyond mere description to endeavor to elucidate the reasons behind the occurrence of these thoughts and behaviors. They seek to answer inquiries concerning the motivations behind human actions. This is conducted via scientific experiments, observations, and precise evaluations. For instance, experimental studies may assess individuals' responses to specific variables, leading to hypotheses and explanations of human behavior.

3. **Predict:** The third aim of psychology is to forecast forthcoming behavioral patterns. By observing prior behavior and analyzing qualitative data, psychologists can predict when and how past behaviors will reoccur, how they will evolve, and under what conditions they will be triggered. This ability to predict is a crucial indicator of understanding the underlying causes of actions and is often considered the ultimate objective of psychology in terms of influencing behavior.

4. **Control or Change:** The fourth objective is to influence or regulate behavior to enhance behavioral outcomes and bring about positive, enduring, and significant changes in individuals' lives. This involves accurately identifying a behavioral problem, determining its underlying causes, and developing and implementing theory-based and evidence-based interventions. For example, a person may learn to control a panic attack through the application of psychological research findings.

5. **Application:** Inferences derived from research findings may subsequently be implemented in the processes of problem resolution and decision-making in real-world situations.

This sequence is not just a list but represents a logical progression in scientific understanding. One cannot explain something without describing it, nor can one predict or control it without understanding its causes. The application goal highlights that psychology is not just theoretical; its ultimate aim is to benefit society and solve real-world problems. This iterative process of observation leading to explanation, enabling prediction, and allowing for interventions, with results feeding back into new observations, is key to scientific advancement.

Visual Aid: Goals of Psychology *(Image: A simple diagram illustrating the four main goals of psychology: Describe, Explain, Predict, Control/Change, similar to the one found at https://www.verywellmind.com/what-are-the-four-major-goals-of-psychology-2795603)*

What is Research? (Definition and Key Characteristics)

Research can be simply defined as the process of supplementing the existing body of knowledge with new information. The term originates from the French verb "recherche," meaning to traverse or examine. It is considered an intricate and critical investigation aimed at discovering solutions to a given issue. Scientific research, as defined by Kerlinger, is "a methodical, controlled, empirical and critical examination of natural phenomena that is guided by hypotheses and theories regarding

the presumed relationships between said phenomena". The primary mechanism through which psychology fulfills its scientific mandate is research, moving beyond speculation to evidence-based understanding. The emphasis on systematic, objective, and critical examination highlights that not just any inquiry constitutes scientific research; it is the engine that drives the field from philosophical musings to empirical science.

Key aspects of research definitions include:

- **1. Systematic in nature:** Psychological research adheres to a pattern of scientific procedure; it is both methodical and scientific. This systematic approach is critical for establishing the reliability of research findings and instilling confidence in the researchers themselves.
- **2. Objective:** Objectivity is an essential attribute, requiring caution to prevent the introduction of subjectivity, thereby safeguarding the internal validity of the study. The researcher's subjective beliefs should not influence the research process or the final result; instead, the emphasis is placed on objective reality.
- **3. Seeks solutions to particular problems:** Psychological research is conducted with a distinct and precise objective, often to find solutions to specific challenges and concerns encountered by investigators.
- **4. Utilisation of research facilitates the development of theories and principles, as well as the formulation of generalizations:** Generalizations can be derived from research discoveries, and theories and principles can be developed in accordance with the findings.

Steps in Psychological Research

The research procedure comprises several distinct stages, which are delineated as follows. This systematic approach is designed to minimize error and bias, ensuring that the knowledge produced is reliable and valid. The process of research is as important as the findings themselves, as it lends credibility and trustworthiness to psychological knowledge, allowing it to be applied in real-world settings with confidence.

Visual Aid: Research Process *(Image: A simplified diagram showing the research process steps, often depicted as an hourglass shape, moving from a broad idea to specific variables, then back to general conclusions, similar to the one found at https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/73576/3/Unit-1.pdf)*

1. **Develop a Research Idea:** This is the initial stage, requiring the identification of a problem or issue that can be investigated. Research ideas can be generated through observation of one's surroundings or by engaging in discussions with subject matter experts. It is critical to review prior studies or literature to prevent redundant investigation and to gain the most recent information and developments in the field.
2. **State the Problem and Formulate Hypotheses:** After identifying the research idea and understanding existing literature, the researcher formulates a clear problem statement and develops testable predictions, known as hypotheses. For example, a problem statement might be "To examine the Resilience, Psychological Wellbeing and Adjustment of Carers of Chronically Ill Patients," with a corresponding hypothesis like "Carers of chronically ill

patients will experience a significant correlation between resilience and psychological wellbeing".

3. **Select an Appropriate Research Design:** Considering the problem, the researcher must choose a suitable research design, which serves as the framework or structure of the study. Research designs are created to enable researchers to answer questions in the most valid, objective, accurate, and cost-effective manner possible, facilitating variance control. Designs can be qualitative, quantitative, or mixed.

4. **Data Collection:** Once hypotheses are formulated and the research design finalized, data collection commences. This stage requires ascertaining the target population and selecting a representative sample. Instruments for data acquisition, such as observation, interviews, or psychological assessments, must also be finalized. For instance, standardized psychological tests might be used to assess adjustment, psychological wellbeing, and resilience.**Table: Sampling Techniques** | Sampling Technique |

Description | Example | | :----------------- | :---------- | | | **Probability Sampling** | Each member of the population has an equivalent opportunity of being selected for the sample, assumed to be representative of the entire population. | In a ninth-grade student population, all students have an equivalent opportunity of being selected. | | Simple Random Sampling | Participants are selected at random from the population via lotteries or similar processes. | Each student's name is inscribed on a chit, placed in a receptacle, and ten chits are selected to form the sample. | | Systematic Random Sampling | A random order is applied to a list of population members, and a sample is selected using a random integer with the sampling fraction and interval size in mind. | In a class of 50 students (N), selecting a sample of 10 (n) means an interval size (i) of 5. Starting with an arbitrary integer (e.g., 4), select the 4th, 9th, 14th, etc., student until 10 are chosen. | |

Stratified Random Sampling | The population is divided into homogeneous groups, and a random sample is selected from each group. | The population is partitioned into male and female categories, and a random sample is selected from each group. | | Cluster Sampling | The population is divided into clusters, which are selected at random, and every individual within each cluster is included. | An arbitrary sample of five classes is drawn from a school, and all students in these five classes comprise the research sample. | | Multi-Stage Random Sampling | This method is executed across various levels. | Cluster sampling is employed to select classes within a school, followed by the selection of a sample from these classes via simple or stratified random sampling. | |

Nonprobability Sampling | No random selection is conducted, so the sample may not be representative of the entire population. | The selection of a particular individual is contingent upon their availability. | | Convenient Sampling | The selection of a particular individual in the sample is contingent upon their availability. | In research on female victims of domestic violence, individuals are included based on their availability and consent. | | Voluntary Sampling | Those individuals who consent to participate in the study comprise the sample. | The sample consists of female victims of violence who have expressed their willingness to participate. | | Judgement Sampling | Sample selection is conducted by individuals who possess a comprehensive understanding of the sample. |

Students who will participate in the investigation may be selected by the teacher. || Quota Sampling | The sample selection process is governed by a predetermined quota. | A company's sample could comprise 100 senior managers and 50 subordinate managers. || Snowball Sampling | The researcher approaches an individual who possesses the specified characteristics needed for the sample and requests referrals for other individuals who share comparable attributes. | A parent referral program could be implemented whereby parents with exceptional children are contacted and requested to make additional referrals. |

5. **Data Analysis:** Following data collection, the acquired data is analyzed. Data analysis can be quantitative (e.g., statistical analysis for raw scores from standardized tests) or qualitative (for information collected through observation or interviews).

6. **Derive Conclusions and Make Generalizations:** Based on the data analysis, the researcher derives conclusions and makes generalizations. If the sample was representative, the results can be extrapolated to the entire population. A comprehensive report of the research findings is then provided for the benefit of other scholars, experts, students, and society at large.

Characteristics of Good Psychological Research

Sound psychological research is methodical and empirical, meaning it is based on evidence acquired through observation and experimentation. It must also be valid, verifiable, and replicable, ensuring that its findings are trustworthy and can be confirmed by others. The results should be logical and allow for the development of new theories or generalizations.

Key attributes of sufficient psychological research include:

- **Empirical Observation:** Research is founded upon empirical evidence obtained via observation and experimentation, rather than mere contention, personal opinion, or faith. Researchers collect data that can be analyzed to support or refute theoretical hypotheses. Meticulous documentation of experiments enables subsequent researchers to replicate and authenticate findings.

- **Objectivity:** Scholars endeavor to maintain impartiality and avoid subjective evaluations and biases when conducting investigations. This ensures the reliability and validity of findings, guaranteeing that they reflect genuine psychological phenomena and not the researchers' preconceived notions.

- **Control:** In order to establish clear cause-and-effect relationships between an independent variable (cause) and a dependent variable (effect), it is necessary to control for all extraneous variables. This minimizes the influence of unwanted factors that could otherwise affect the findings.

- **Hypothesis Testing:** Research involves formulating an initial statement or prediction (hypothesis) prior to an inquiry, which is constructed upon a theory. Hypotheses must be expressed in a testable, operationalized, and unambiguous format.

- **Replication:** Findings ought to be capable of being duplicated by other scholars under identical conditions, yielding comparable results. Replication is a fundamental principle that underpins the credibility and dependability of scientific investigations. Consistently obtaining identical outcomes under identical conditions establishes accuracy with a high

degree of certainty, building confidence in the results for incorporation into a body of knowledge or theory.

- **Predictability:** The objective of research findings should be to derive predictions of future behavior.
- **Systematic Approach and Theory:** Science utilizes observational and experimental data to comprehend phenomena, aiming to identify a finite set of principles that efficiently summarize the data. Psychology, like other scientific disciplines, adheres to a methodical process encompassing observation, data gathering, analysis, and interpretation.
- **Measurement:** Many sciences are distinguished by measurement, which involves applying numerical values to objects or events according to a set of rules. While physics is preeminent in accurate measurement, psychology also strives for it in concepts like intelligence and motivation.
- **Definition of Terms:** Accurate definition of scientific terms is vital for lucid thought. In psychology, operational definition involves establishing connections between concepts and observable behavior to define them. A concept is operationally defined when expressed in terms of observable and quantifiable operations. However, many behaviors, such as fortitude, friendship, love, and attractiveness, cannot be operationally defined, which limits psychology's ability to quantify them precisely.

Psychology as a Behavioral Science: Psychology is classified as part of the 'Social/Behavioural Sciences,' alongside disciplines such as economics and sociology. This distinguishes it from 'Physical Sciences' (like chemistry and physics) and 'Biological/Life Sciences' (like botany and zoology). Unlike physics or chemistry, which examine stable and constant phenomena, human behavior exhibits a considerably greater degree of complexity, resistance to control, and apparent unpredictability. Psychology specifically examines humans, utilizing statistical analysis, observation, interviews, psychological assessment, and laboratory experiments.

Psychology as an Art: Beyond its scientific aspects, applying psychological knowledge to practical problems is also considered an art. This proficiency or inclination is developed through diligent study, consistent practice, and specialized expertise. Psychological principles and laws are utilized to address human issues in various contexts (families, institutions, organizations, environments) and to treat behavioral disorders and emotional issues. This highlights a fundamental tension and a unique strength: psychology strives for scientific rigor but recognizes that the human element introduces complexities that require intuitive skill and adaptation, making it both a science (for discovering principles) and an art (for applying them effectively). This challenges the traditional dichotomy of "science" versus "art" by demonstrating their necessary integration in a field like psychology.

The challenge of operational definition and its impact on measurement is notable. While psychology strives for scientific measurement, some of the most profound and influential aspects of human experience remain difficult, if not impossible, to quantify objectively using current methods. This implies that the inherent complexity of human experience means psychology may never achieve the same level of precise measurement and predictability as the physical sciences,

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necessitating a reliance on diverse methodologies, such as qualitative research, that can capture these less quantifiable phenomena.

1.4 What Shapes Us? (Factors Influencing Human Behavior and Mental Processes)

Understanding the complexity of human behavior and cognitive processes necessitates the integration of various disciplinary perspectives. The sheer volume and diversity of influencing factors highlight that human behavior is never caused by a single element. Instead, these factors constantly interact and influence each other. For example, genetic risk for depression might only appear when combined with environmental stress. This implies that understanding and addressing human behavior or mental health issues requires a holistic, multi-faceted approach, considering the complex interplay of all these elements. A problem in one area, such as economic stress, can ripple through and affect psychological well-being and social interactions.

- **Biological Factors:** These factors relate to how our physical body and genes influence our thoughts, emotions, and behaviors.
  - **Genetics:** The study of heredity explores how traits and characteristics are passed down, playing a crucial role in the biological foundations of behavior, emotions, and mental processes. It examines how specific genes and genetic variations contribute to individual differences in personality, intelligence, mental health, and susceptibility to psychological disorders.
    - *Behavioral Genetics:* This branch studies how genetic differences among individuals contribute to variations in behavior, often using twin and adoption studies to disentangle the effects of nature (genetics) and nurture (environment).
    - *Genetic Predisposition to Disorders:* Certain psychological conditions, such as schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and anxiety, have a known genetic component. For instance, a person with a family history of depression might have a higher likelihood of developing depressive symptoms, especially when exposed to certain environmental stressors.
    - *Personality Traits:* Research has identified genetic influences on various personality traits, including extraversion and neuroticism, contributing to underlying temperamental tendencies that shape personality development.
    - *Gene-Environment Interaction:* This concept examines how genes interact with environmental factors to influence behavior. For example, a genetic predisposition to depression might only manifest if the individual experiences significant stress or trauma.
  - **Neuroscience:** This field focuses on understanding how the brain and nervous system influence thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. It examines the biological basis of psychological processes, including neuron communication, brain structure function, and neurotransmitter effects on mood and cognition.
    - *Brain Structures and Functions:* Neuroscience studies how specific brain regions contribute to different psychological functions. For example, the hippocampus is critical for memory formation, while the prefrontal cortex is

involved in decision-making and self-control. Dysfunction in these areas can lead to psychological issues.

■ *Neurotransmitters and Mental Health:* Imbalances in neurotransmitters like serotonin, dopamine, and norepinephrine are linked to psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety. Low serotonin levels, for instance, are associated with depression.

■ *Neuroplasticity:* The brain's ability to reorganize itself by forming new neural connections is crucial for learning, recovery from brain injury, and the impact of therapy. Cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT), for example, can lead to changes in brain activity patterns.

■ *Emotion Regulation:* Neuroscience also explores how the brain regulates emotions. The amygdala processes fear, while the prefrontal cortex helps regulate emotional responses. Dysregulation in these areas can contribute to emotional disorders. For example, during decision-making, the prefrontal cortex is highly active, whereas in situations involving fear, the amygdala shows heightened activity, potentially leading to anxiety or fight-or-flight responses.

○ **Physiology:** This area examines how the body's biological processes, including hormones and other bodily functions, influence mood, behavior, and cognitive processes.

■ *Hormonal Influences:* Hormones, released by endocrine glands, play a significant role in regulating mood and stress responses. Cortisol, the "stress hormone," can affect memory and mood, with chronic high levels associated with anxiety and depression. During puberty, for instance, increased sex hormones like testosterone and estrogen can lead to mood swings and behavioral changes.

■ *Fight-or-Flight Response:* This physiological response, triggered by the autonomic nervous system, prepares the body to confront or escape a threat, involving the release of adrenaline and noradrenaline, and increasing heart rate and energy levels.

■ *Sleep and Circadian Rhythms:* Disruptions in biological rhythms, such as those caused by shift work, can lead to mood disturbances and cognitive impairments.

● **Psychological Factors:** These factors relate to our internal mental processes and how they affect our behavior.

○ **Cognitive Processes:** These encompass perception, memory, thought, and problem-solving capabilities, all of which directly influence an individual's interpretation and response to their surroundings.

■ *Perception:* The process by which individuals organize and interpret sensory information from the environment, allowing them to make sense of the world, such as a driver perceiving a red light and knowing to stop.

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■ *Memory:* Involves encoding, storing, and retrieving information, crucial for learning and retaining knowledge, like a student recalling formulas during an exam.

■ *Thought:* Encompasses reasoning, planning, and generating ideas, enabling individuals to form concepts and make decisions, such as a chess player using strategic thinking.

■ *Problem-Solving:* The cognitive process of finding solutions to complex situations, involving analysis, generating potential solutions, and implementing the best one. For example, a software engineer uses problem-solving skills to troubleshoot computer program issues.

○ **Emotions and Motivations:** Emotions are complex psychological states involving physiological arousal, subjective feelings, and expressive behaviors. Motivations are internal processes that direct and sustain goal-directed behavior. Both play a crucial role in influencing behavior, psychological well-being, and decision-making. An athlete's desire to win, for instance, motivates rigorous training, and a student's fear of failing an exam motivates diligent study.

○ **Personality:** Refers to the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that make individuals unique, encompassing traits like extraversion and conscientiousness. Personality influences how people interact with others, cope with stress, and make decisions. An extroverted salesperson, for example, thrives by actively engaging with clients and networking.

- **Social Factors:** These factors relate to how people and groups influence our behavior and mental processes.

  o **Family and Socialization:** Play a crucial role in the early development of an individual's personality, beliefs, and behaviors. Socialization is the process through which individuals learn and internalize cultural values, primarily through family interactions.

  ■ *Parental Influence:* Parenting styles significantly impact a child's emotional and psychological development. Authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth and structure, tends to foster self-confidence, while authoritarian parenting may lead to feelings of inadequacy.

  ■ *Family Dynamics:* Communication patterns, conflict resolution strategies, and emotional support within a family significantly shape an individual's psychological well-being. A child growing up in a family valuing open communication is likely to develop a confident personality.

  ○ **Peer Influence:** Refers to the impact that individuals of similar age or status have on each other's behaviors, attitudes, and psychological development. During adolescence, it becomes a dominant force, shaping behaviors and self-identity. Teenagers, for instance, may start smoking because their friends do, even if they initially had no interest.

  ○ **Cultural and Societal Norms:** Cultural heritage and societal expectations can significantly impact values, behaviors, and mental health. In some cultures, openly

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expressing emotions like sadness is discouraged, potentially impacting mental health, whereas in cultures encouraging emotional expression, individuals may feel more comfortable seeking help.

- **Environmental Factors:** These factors relate to our surroundings and experiences.
  - o **Physical Environment:** Encompasses external surroundings and conditions, including housing, neighborhood, noise levels, pollution, and access to natural spaces. These factors can significantly impact psychological well-being, influencing stress levels, mood, and cognitive function. A person living in a noisy and crowded urban area may experience higher levels of stress and anxiety compared to someone in a quiet, rural environment.
    - ○ **Stress and Trauma:** Significant environmental factors that can profoundly impact mental health and behavior. Stress is the psychological and physiological response to perceived challenges, while trauma involves the emotional and psychological impact of distressing events. Both can have long-lasting effects. A soldier experiencing combat trauma, for example, may develop post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD).

- **Developmental Factors:** These factors relate to how individuals change through different life stages.
  - o **Life Stages:** Refer to distinct phases of psychological development from infancy to old age, each characterized by specific developmental tasks, cognitive functions, and behaviors influenced by biological maturation and environmental experiences. A toddler exploring their environment independently, for instance, exhibits behaviors typical for their developmental stage.
    - ○ **Critical Periods:** Specific times during development when the brain is particularly receptive to certain types of environmental stimuli. During these periods, certain experiences have a profound impact on skill development. For example, early childhood is a critical period for language development, where exposure to a rich linguistic environment is crucial for acquiring language skills effectively.

- **Educational and Cognitive Experiences:** These factors relate to how learning and formal education shape us.
  - o **Learning and Conditioning:** Fundamental concepts explaining how behaviors and cognitive associations are shaped through experiences, involving the interaction between stimuli and responses, influenced by rewards, punishments, and observations. A child learns to associate good behavior with rewards, such as praise, which helps cultivate desired behaviors.
    - ○ **Educational Systems:** Play a crucial role in shaping cognitive development, social skills, and knowledge acquisition. The structure, content, and methods of education significantly affect intellectual growth. Schools emphasizing critical thinking and problem-solving skills, for example, are likely to develop higher-order cognitive abilities in students.

- **Economic Factors:** These factors relate to how money and social class affect well-being. ○ **Socioeconomic Status (SES):** A measure based on income, education, and

occupation, recognized as a powerful determinant of mental health, behavior, and overall well-being. Resources and opportunities often vary significantly based on SES. Individuals from higher socioeconomic backgrounds often have access to better educational opportunities and healthcare services, which can positively impact their mental health and behavior compared to those from lower backgrounds.

- **Technological Influences:** These factors relate to the impact of media and digital technology.
    - **Media and Digital Technology:** Exposure to media and digital technology extends to psychological well-being, social interactions, and information processing. Excessive use of social media platforms, for instance, can contribute to feelings of loneliness and social isolation, affecting psychological well-being and social interactions. Constant exposure to digital information may also impact information processing and attention span.
- **Philosophical and Spiritual Perspectives:** These factors relate to our beliefs and values.
    - **Beliefs and Values:** Form the core of an individual's identity and influence their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors, guiding personal decisions, coping strategies, and life goals. For example, a person who follows the principle of "ahimsa" (non-violence) may choose to follow a vegetarian diet and advocate for animal rights, reflecting their spiritual practice and worldview.

Psychology adopts an interdisciplinary framework, integrating theories and methods from sociology, anthropology, neuroscience, and other disciplines to illuminate the intricacies of the human mind and behavior.

1.5 Psychology Today and Its Roots

Contemporary Psychology: Modern Approaches and Their Uses

Contemporary psychology is defined as the scientific study of human behavior and mental processes, utilizing modern theories, methods, and approaches. It encompasses a wide array of subfields, including cognitive psychology, social psychology, developmental psychology, clinical psychology, and neuroscience. Modern psychologists conduct research and implement principles to comprehend and resolve real-world issues, ultimately advancing mental health and well-being. Scholars investigate diverse topics such as psychopathology, perception, memory, emotions, personality, and motivation, employing empirical methods to collect data and develop evidence-supported theories and interventions.

The integration of historical perspectives is a hallmark of modern psychology. While early schools often competed for dominance, contemporary psychologists embrace a diverse and inclusive viewpoint, frequently incorporating concepts and theories from various schools of thought. This approach signifies that modern psychology is not a single, unified field but a rich tapestry woven from its historical threads, moving beyond rigid adherence to one school. This integration allows for more comprehensive and nuanced solutions to complex human problems.

Approaches in Contemporary Psychology:

- **Cognitive Psychology:** This discipline is devoted to the investigation of mental processes, including perception, reasoning, problem-solving, and information retention. Psychologists employ experimental methodologies to examine memory encoding and retrieval, attention, language processing, and decision-making. They also investigate cognitive biases and disorders like Alzheimer's disease.

- **Behavioral Psychology (Behaviorism):** Also known as behaviorism, this approach emphasizes the significance of observable behavior to comprehend human behavior. It studies how behavior is shaped, modified, and acquired through conditioning, reinforcement, and punishment, examining the impact of environmental factors.

- **Biological Psychology (Biopsychology/Neuroscience):** This field examines the connection between biology and behavior, investigating the influence of physiological processes in the nervous system, brain, and other bodily organs on behavior, emotions, and thought. Research includes brain structure, neurochemistry, genetics, and the influence of hormones.

- **Social Psychology:** This area investigates the influence of social factors on human behavior. Psychologists conduct research on human cognition, perception, and social interaction, including subjects like social influence, attitudes, prejudice, conformity, and group dynamics.

- **Developmental Psychology:** This field examines the progression and maturation of human beings throughout their entire lives, covering physical, cognitive, emotional, and social development from infancy to old age. Researchers explore motor skills, language acquisition, emotional regulation, and identity formation.

- **Humanistic Psychology:** This approach places significant emphasis on the distinctive attributes of individuals, such as their subjective experiences, self-awareness, and capacity for personal development. It focuses on individuality, self-determination, and self-actualization, underscoring the significance of human values and emotions. Applications of Contemporary Psychology: Contemporary psychology is applicable to an extensive variety of domains and facets of human existence :

- **Clinical and Counseling Psychology:** Extensively utilized to evaluate, diagnose, and treat individuals with mental health disorders, employing evidence-based methodologies and therapeutic interventions.

- **Educational Psychology:** Implemented in academic environments to comprehend learning and development processes and to enhance instructional methodologies.

- **Organizational Psychology:** Assists businesses in comprehending and optimizing human behavior in the workplace to increase employee performance and job satisfaction.

- **Sports Psychology:** Used in sports contexts to improve athletes' performance, motivation, and mental health.

- **Forensic Psychology:** Applies psychological expertise in legal and criminal justice settings to comprehend human behavior associated with criminal conduct, witness testimony, and jury verdicts.

- **Health Psychology:** Utilized in healthcare settings to comprehend the psychological determinants of physical well-being.

- **Research and Academia:** Employed to develop theories, conduct empirical research, and advance the understanding of human behavior and mental processes, with academic psychologists mentoring and instructing future psychologists.

A Quick Look at Psychology's Past (Historical Stages)

Psychology, as a distinct field, has a rich history marked by distinct phases, each contributing to its evolution. This historical progression reveals a "pendulum swing" in psychological focus, from inner experience to outer behavior and back. The field constantly grapples with the challenge of its subject matter—the human mind, which is both internally experienced and externally expressed. Each shift was driven by the limitations of the previous approach, leading to a continuous process of self-correction and refinement, balancing scientific rigor with comprehensive understanding.

1. **Philosophical Stage (Soul/Mind):** This initial stage dates back to ancient Greece (before 300 BC) and extended into the 17th century. Psychology was first described as the "science of the soul" by figures like Plato and Aristotle. Later, it evolved to the "study of the mind," influenced by thinkers like Emmanuel Kant and William James. The primary challenge during this period was the metaphysical nature of the soul and the ambiguous, debated essence of the mind, which hindered scientific investigation.

2. **Structural Stage (Consciousness):** Emerging in the 19th century and formally established in 1879, this stage was pioneered by Wilhelm Wundt, who founded the first psychology laboratory in Leipzig, Germany, earning him the title "father of experimental psychology". Edward Titchener further expanded on Wundt's work. The focus was on defining psychology as the "science of consciousness," studying internal experiences like emotions, perceptions, and beliefs through introspection. However, consciousness proved selective, personal, dynamic, and difficult to segment, and this approach overlooked unconscious processes and overt behavior.

3. **Behavioural Stage (Behaviour):** Spanning from the early 20th century (1920s) to the 1960s, this stage was championed by J. B. Watson, who was influenced by Ivan Pavlov and Charles Darwin. Watson rejected the study of internal mental processes, defining psychology as the "science of observable behavior." He believed behavior could be reduced to fundamental stimulus-response units. This approach, however, was criticized for being limited, partial, and unable to fully explain complex human behavior or internal states.

4. **Psychoanalysis:** Developed in the late 19th and early 20th centuries by Sigmund Freud. This school investigated the unconscious mind, its impulses, and desires, and their profound impact on behavior and mental disorders. Techniques like dream analysis and free association were central to its methodology. Critics, however, argued that psychoanalysis lacked scientific rigor and was based on unverifiable principles.

5. **Cognitive Revolution:** Occurring approximately from the 1950s to the 1970s, this period marked a significant shift back to studying the mind and internal mental processes such as perception, memory, language, and problem-solving. It moved away from the strict behaviorist focus and was influenced by advancements in linguistics (e.g., Noam Chomsky)

and computer science (which provided an information processing analogy for the mind). This revolution led to the rise of cognitive psychology and cognitive neuroscience.

6. **Modern Stage:** From the 1960s onward, psychology's focus shifted to its current definition: "The Science of Behaviour and Mental Processes." This stage integrates observable behavior with internal thoughts and emotions, firmly establishing psychology as an empirical science characterized by objectivity, systematic methods, measurement, and verification.

Early Schools of Psychology (Overview)

As psychology emerged as a distinct scientific discipline, separate from biology and philosophy, various "schools of thought" arose to describe and explain human cognition and behavior. These schools often competed for supremacy, with new approaches challenging established ones. This competitive dynamic, where new ideas critique and reformulate old ones, is a hallmark of scientific progress. The decline of a school, like structuralism, does not mean its ideas are entirely discarded; rather, its limitations become the fertile ground for the next wave of theoretical development, pushing the field forward. The "susceptibility to criticism" of structuralism, for instance, was a "noteworthy contribution" because it provided a target for new movements, illustrating that scientific progress is often driven by identifying and overcoming limitations in existing theories.

1. **Structuralism:** Recognized as the initial paradigm in psychology, structuralism was championed by Wilhelm Wundt, who founded the first psychology laboratory, and his student Edward Titchener. This perspective centered on deconstructing mental processes into their fundamental constituents, such as sensations, images, and feelings, to understand the "structure" of the mind. Introspection was its primary methodology.

2. **Functionalism:** Emerging as a response to structuralist beliefs, functionalism was strongly influenced by figures like William James, John Dewey, James Rowland Angell, and Harvey Carr. It focused on the *purpose* or *function* of consciousness and behavior in helping organisms adapt to their environment, rather than merely their components.

3. **Gestalt Psychology:** This psychological approach, developed in Germany and Austria by figures like Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Köhler, and Kurt Koffka, arose as a reaction to the reductionist principles of structuralism. Gestalt psychologists posited that individuals perceive and comprehend their experiences as integrated and cohesive entities, asserting that "the entirety of anything is more significant than the individual components that make it up". An example is the phi phenomenon, where rapidly alternating lights create the perception of motion.

4. **Behaviorism:** This school became a prevailing ideology in the 1950s, drawing inspiration from John B. Watson, Ivan Pavlov, and B. F. Skinner. Behaviorism centers on the study of directly observable behavior, believing that every action can be elucidated by external factors (conditioning, rewards, punishments) rather than internal influences.

5. **Psychoanalysis:** Established by Sigmund Freud, this psychological discipline emphasized the significant impact of the subconscious mind on human behavior and mental disorders. Prominent figures also included Anna Freud, Otto Rank, and neo-Freudian theorists like Erik Erikson, Alfred Adler, and Karen Horney.

6. **Humanistic Psychology:** Emerging as a reaction to both psychoanalysis and behaviorism, this school was shaped by Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, and Clark Moustakas. It advocated a constructive approach, placing significant importance on assisting individuals in realizing and maximizing their potential, focusing on self-actualization and individual independence.

7. **Cognitive Psychology:** This school studies mental processes, including how people think, perceive, remember, and learn. It emerged partly as a response to behaviorism's failure to account for how internal processes impact behavior.

8. **Biological Psychology (Biopsychology/Behavioral Neuroscience):** This field examines the impact of biological elements on mental processes and human behavior, with relevant subjects encompassing genetics, cerebral anatomy, hormones, and neurotransmitters.

Currently, most psychologists adopt a diverse and inclusive perspective, frequently incorporating concepts and theories from various schools of thought rather than adhering solely to one viewpoint.

II. Structuralism: Looking Inside the Mind

2.1 What Structuralism is About

The Subject Matter of Psychology (as viewed by Structuralists)

Structuralism, a systematic movement in psychology pioneered by Wilhelm Wundt and formalized by Edward Titchener, aimed to understand the human mind and behavior by deconstructing mental processes into their most fundamental constituents. This approach is inherently reductionist, similar to how chemistry breaks down matter into its elements, implying a belief that complex psychological phenomena can be fully understood by analyzing their simplest parts. While later criticized, this reductionist foundation was a crucial initial step in psychology's scientific journey, attempting to apply a successful scientific paradigm to the mind. For Titchener, the primary subject matter of psychology was "conscious experience," which he defined as the sum of an individual's current mental circumstances. He argued that

psychologists investigate phenomena, such as light or sound, not merely as physical processes (as physicists do), but through the lens of how humans perceive and experience them. For example, while a room's temperature can be objectively quantified (e.g., 85°F) regardless of observers, the subjective experience of feeling that temperature as "unbearably high" is contingent upon an individual's conscious presence and perception. This distinction highlighted his focus on "dependent experience" (contingent on the experiencing individual) versus "independent experience" (physical phenomena).

Titchener cautioned against what he termed "stimulus error," which occurs when observers describe an object by its common name (e.g., an "apple") instead of detailing its basic sensory attributes like shape, color, and luminosity. Structuralists sought descriptions of the raw "components of conscious experience" rather than interpretations based on prior knowledge or colloquial language.

Titchener further distinguished between "consciousness" and "mind." Consciousness referred to the cumulative or summation of mental processes occurring at any particular moment, while the "mind" encompassed the total accumulation of all an individual's experiences throughout their

entire life. The key distinction was temporal: consciousness focused on the present, while the mind included all past and present experiences.

Titchener viewed structural psychology as a "pure science," with no intention of applying psychological knowledge to societal reformation or the cure of mental illness. His objective was solely to unveil the intricacies of the mind's structure. Consequently, he opposed the advancement of juvenile psychology, animal psychology, and any other branch of psychology whose subject matter did not align with his experimental introspective psychology of conscious experience.

Structuralism: The First School of Thought

Structuralism is widely recognized as the inaugural paradigm in the field of psychology. Its primary aim was to break down mental processes into their fundamental constituents.

The core ideas and aims of structuralism were:

- **1. Describe Basic Elements:** To identify the fundamental building blocks that comprise consciousness.
- **2. Explain Combinations:** To elucidate the manner in which these basic elements amalgamate to form more intricate experiences.
- **3. Link to Physical Processes:** To define the correlations between the constituents of consciousness and physical processes of the nervous system. Titchener hypothesized that physiological processes provided the "continuous substratum" from which psychological processes derived their continuity.

Structuralism sought to achieve objectives analogous to those of the natural sciences: identifying constituent elements, demonstrating their combination into complex phenomena, and ultimately developing laws that regulate these processes.

Key Figures: Wundt and Titchener

- **Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920):** A German philosopher and physiologist, Wundt established the inaugural psychological laboratory at Leipzig University in 1879, a seminal event that earned him the designation "father of experimental psychology". Wundt liberated psychology from the confines of philosophy and physiology, recognizing it as a self-sufficient and deserving field of study. He defined psychology as the scientific study of "internal and immediate experience," or the "science of consciousness." His principal instrument for investigation was introspection, which entailed a mental and emotional examination of oneself. Wundt's establishment of the first laboratory marked psychology's formal break from philosophy, emphasizing systematic, controlled study.
- **Edward B. Titchener (1867-1927):** An ardent proponent and student of Wundt, Titchener contributed to the expansion of Wundt's work and formalized "structuralism" upon introducing these ideas to the United States. Titchener's structuralism was conceived as a "pure science," focused solely on determining the mind's structure rather than its practical application. He opposed the study of areas like child or animal psychology if their subject matter did not correspond with his experimental introspective psychology of conscious experience. Titchener was significantly influenced by a "mechanistic ethos," viewing

observers in his laboratory as "reagents" or "mechanical recording instruments" that objectively responded to stimuli. This perspective, shaped by the "Galilean-Newtonian mechanical conception of the universe," viewed humans as analogous to machines that could be disassembled and analyzed, laying groundwork for later behaviorism.

2.2 How Structuralism Tried to Understand the Mind

The Method of Introspection: Looking Within

Introspection, derived from the Latin words "intro" (within) and "specere" (to look), literally means to examine oneself. In psychology, it pertains to the analysis or observation of an individual's own mental and emotional processes.

Titchener advocated for a specific form of introspection, which he termed "systematic experimental introspection". This method required highly trained observers to provide detailed descriptions of the components of their conscious experience, rather than simply attributing familiar stimuli by name. For instance, an observer was instructed to describe an apple by its basic sensory qualities—its red color, round shape, and luminosity—instead of merely calling it an "apple," which Titchener termed a "stimulus error" because it relied on previously acquired knowledge rather than immediate conscious content. The goal was to depict the unadulterated sensory experience, devoid of subjective opinions or preconceived notions. He believed that an increased frequency of repetition of an observation would lead to clearer vision and more accurate descriptions of observed phenomena.

The features of an introspective process, as understood within structuralism, include:

- **1. The Mentality Condition:** Introspection focuses on mental occurrences, states, or procedures (e.g., thoughts, feelings) rather than external affairs.
- **2. The First-Person Condition:** It produces insights pertaining exclusively to one's own mind, not those of others.
- **3. The Temporal Proximity Condition:** It concerns present or very recently occurred mental states.
- **4. The Directness Condition:** Introspection provides relatively instantaneous or immediate insights into one's present mental processes.
- **5. The Detection Condition:** It entails perceiving a pre-existing mental state or event.
- **6. The Effort Condition:** Introspection is not automatic; it requires deliberate concentration and contemplation regarding one's mental existence.

Introspection is inherently subjective because it relies on the personal observation and self-reporting of an individual's conscious experience. Despite this intrinsic subjectivity, proponents like Wundt and Titchener emphasized a systematic methodology. They believed that by undergoing stringent training and conducting observations under controlled experimental conditions, introspection could yield impartial understandings of the mind's mechanisms, ensuring consistency and dependability in reports. The focus was on immediate, present-moment experiences, rather than recollections or abstract thought processes. Participants provided detailed, qualitative accounts of their sensations, including attributes like quality, intensity, duration, and clarity, while avoiding inferential language or interpretation. The overarching objective was to

analyze these introspective observations to comprehend the organization and interrelation of the fundamental components of consciousness, thereby unveiling the configuration of the human mind.

However, introspection's reliance on verbal reports meant it was constrained by the extent to which individuals could accurately express their thoughts and sensations. Language limitations could also hinder the comprehensive encapsulation of the subtleties of the contemplative experience. This inherent paradox of attempting to achieve scientific objectivity through a fundamentally subjective method ultimately contributed to structuralism's decline, leading to the rise of behaviorism, which sought to bypass the problem of subjectivity entirely by focusing only on observable behavior. Nevertheless, it laid foundational groundwork for later qualitative research methods that value subjective experience.

The "Elements" of Consciousness

Titchener believed that psychology had three essential objectives: to reduce cognitive processes to their most fundamental constituents, to determine the laws governing the association of these elements of consciousness, and to define the relationship between these elements and their physiological states. He aimed to achieve the same goals as natural sciences, which identify elements, demonstrate their combination, and discover governing laws. A significant portion of Titchener's research was dedicated to identifying the components of consciousness. He postulated the existence of three fundamental "states" or "elements" of consciousness :

- **1. Sensations:** These are the basic components of perception, encompassing experiences like visuals, sounds, and odors elicited by physical objects in the natural environment.
- **2. Images:** These are conceptual components that manifest through the process of reflecting upon past experiences, specifically those not presently present but existing in the mind, such as the recollection of a previous occurrence.
- **3. Affective States (Affections):** These are the constituents of emotion, including sentiments such as love, hatred, wrath, contentment, and sorrow.

Titchener enumerated an estimated 44,500 distinct sensation qualities in his book *An Outline of Psychology* (1896), with 11,600 classified as auditory and 32,820 as visual. He believed each of these constituents possessed consciousness and was distinct, their combinations generating perceptions and concepts. These fundamental, irreducible components could be classified similarly to chemical elements.

Each mental element, though simple, possessed distinct qualities. Titchener supplemented Wundt's virtues of intensity and quality with duration and clarity, considering these four characteristics foundational to all sensations:

- **Quality:** The distinct attribute that unequivocally distinguishes one element from all others (e.g., "warm" or "red").
- **Intensity:** A qualitative attribute denoting the power, feebleness, volume, or brightness of a sensation.
- **Duration:** Refers to the progression or perpetuity of a sensation.

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- **Clarity:** Pertains to the substantial influence that attention has on conscious experience, with focused experiences being more lucid.

While these four characteristics were present in images and sensations, affective states only contained quality, intensity, and duration. Titchener argued that affective states lacked clarity because it was impossible to concentrate one's attention directly on an element of emotion or sensation without altering it. Certain sensory processes, particularly vision and sensation, also possessed "extensity," the property of occupying space.

Titchener's ambition to advance the "chemistry of consciousness" and break down mental elements like chemical elements was an ambitious but ultimately flawed analogy. This perspective implied that the mind is a static collection of discrete parts that combine in predictable ways, overlooking the dynamic, holistic, and meaningful aspects of human experience that cannot be simply "summed up" from basic elements. This limitation was later emphasized by Gestalt psychology and contributed significantly to structuralism's decline.

2.3 Challenges and Contributions of Structuralism

Criticisms of Structuralism and Introspection

Structuralism faced significant criticism, particularly as other psychological movements began to emerge and challenge its established viewpoint.

Criticisms of Introspection:

- **Lack of Clear Definition:** The "introspective method" was not precisely defined. Its application varied significantly based on the characteristics of the consciousness being scrutinized, the experimental purpose, or the instructions provided, making it an umbrella term for multiple distinct methodological processes.
- **Unclear Introspector Duties and "Meaning Words":** Critics pointed to the lack of clarity regarding the intended duties of introspectors. Titchener directed his observers to disregard "meaning words" (e.g., "chair") and instead describe basic sensory components (color, shape, luminosity). This was challenging and implied the need for a specialized "introspective language" that never fully materialized. Observers in different laboratories, and even within the same laboratory, frequently failed to obtain comparable results, questioning the method's reliability despite strict experimental control.
- **Retrospection vs. Introspection:** Critics contended that introspection was often a form of "retrospection" because of the temporal lapse between the occurrence of the experience and its reporting. This delay meant that a portion of the experience might have lapsed or been modified by the time it was reported, as illustrated by Ebbinghaus's findings on forgetting. For instance, introspecting on the conscious state of wrath might diminish or alter the emotion itself.
- **Impact of the Unconscious Mind:** The advent of Sigmund Freud's concept of the unconscious mind in the early 20th century posed a major problem for introspection. If a significant portion of our cognitive processes operates unconsciously, then this aspect cannot be investigated through introspection, which relies on conscious observation. This

fundamental limitation highlighted the inadequacy of introspection for a comprehensive understanding of mental functioning.

Additional Criticisms of Titchener's System:

- **Artificial and Sterile Nature:** The structuralist movement was criticized for its artificial and antiseptic nature due to its endeavor to reduce conscious processes to elemental components. Critics argued that conveying the entirety of an experience through the summation of its fundamental components is unattainable, as experience emerges as a "unified whole," not merely discrete sensations. This artificial analysis was seen as inevitably forfeiting a portion of the real experience.

- **Limited Scope:** Structuralism's narrow definition of psychology excluded emerging psychological specializations that did not fit its conception, such as animal or infant psychology. This limited understanding hindered its appreciation and embrace of new advancements, causing psychology to rapidly progress beyond Titchener's rigid system. The criticisms collectively highlighted the inherent tension between subjectivity and scientific rigor. Structuralism's ambition to make psychology a science by analyzing the mind's structure, while relying on subjective self-reports, faced fundamental difficulties. This underscored the need for new methodologies that could either account for subjectivity or bypass it entirely, contributing to the field's evolution.

Structuralism's Lasting Impact (Contributions)

Despite the criticisms and its eventual decline, structuralism made important contributions to the field of psychology :

- **Clearly Defined Subject Matter:** Structuralism clearly defined its subject matter as "conscious experience." This explicit focus provided a starting point for systematic inquiry into the mind.

- **Scientific Methods:** Structuralism employed scientific methods such as observation, experimentation, and measurement, even if their application was imperfect. Introspection, while flawed, represented an early attempt at systematic observation of inner experience and adhered to methodological principles.

- **Enduring Use of Self-Reports:** The method of introspection, defined as the examination of one's own thoughts and emotions through verbal reports based on experience, continues to be utilized in many areas of psychology today, though not in the precise form Titchener intended. Examples include self-reports from astronauts, psychophysical researchers inquiring about tone perception, patient reports in clinical settings, attitude scales, and personality assessments. Cognitive psychology, with its renewed interest in conscious processes, also employs reasoning founded on introspection. For instance, industrial and organizational psychologists might solicit introspective feedback from employees regarding computer terminal usage to improve design.

- **Catalyst for Other Schools:** One of structuralism's most noteworthy contributions was its "susceptibility to criticism." It served as a "strong, well-established orthodox school of thought" that newly emerging psychological movements could "target and criticise." This

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intellectual opposition spurred the development of alternative, more robust approaches, driving scientific progress and enabling psychology to expand significantly beyond the predetermined limitations of its inflexible system. This illustrates that even "failed" scientific paradigms can be incredibly valuable, as their limitations provide the fertile ground for the next wave of theoretical development.

2.4 How Psychologists Study People: General Research Methods

Behavior Definition

Behavior refers to the actions or responses exhibited by an entity or organism, predominantly in response to its surroundings. It can be voluntary or involuntary, overt (observable) or covert (hidden), conscious or unconscious. Behavior is a product of both an individual's own actions and the influence of others. It is "visceral" in the sense that it is perceivable by one or more senses; without this element of sensation, it would not qualify as behavior.

Behavior encompasses various categories:
- **Conduct:** A wide variety of actions governed by social and moral standards.
- **Performance:** Activities regulated by talent repertoires.
- **Experience:** Decisions and courses of action aimed at optimizing comfort or delight while minimizing pain or distress.
- **Purposeful or Goal-Driven Behavior:** A broad category of behaviors that appear to be dictated by a sense of self and aspiration.

An analysis of life histories often reveals common behavioral patterns. For instance, most individuals progress from sluggish to excellent students, work, form relationships, and are generally law-abiding members of society. They tend to adapt to challenges and maintain inner serenity, demonstrating remarkable resilience.

Overarching attributes of human behavior, as delineated by Parameswaran and Beena, include:
- **Influenced by Many Factors:** Behavior is affected by biological, cultural, social, environmental, prior experience-related, motivational, emotive, and cognitive elements.
- **Varies in Complexity:** From basic actions like selecting a pen to exceptionally complex tasks like lunar landings.
- **Diverse Determinants:** Conduct is determined by individual factors (physiological, psychological) and environmental factors (physical surroundings, acquaintances, community, culture).
- **Individual Differences:** There is considerable variation in behavior among individuals and between different social groups, due to unique physiological states, experiences, and backgrounds.
- **Shows Similarities:** Despite individual differences, behavior also exhibits a significant degree of similarity among individuals (e.g., attempting to remove a dust particle from an eye).

- **Purposeful and Goal-Directed:** Human behavior is invariably intentional, with every action directed towards achieving a specific objective, categorized as "approach behavior" (positive goal-directed) or "avoidance behavior" (negative goal avoidance).
- **Changeable to a Large Extent:** Behavior modification is feasible through the adjustment of influencing factors, allowing for maturation, transformation, and adaptation to unfamiliar environments through learning or practical experience.
- **Shows Stability:** Despite changes, behavior also retains a degree of stability, remaining constant regardless of environmental shifts (e.g., a grandmother preferring antiquated concepts in an ultramodern society). This highlights the dynamic stability of human behavior, balancing adaptation with consistency, which is crucial for both individual functioning and social cohesion.
- **Integrated:** Behavior is organized in accordance with an individual's unique learnings, objectives, and totalizing influences, contributing to their personality (e.g., Ram is cheerful, Gobind is hostile). Higher integration leads to more effective behavior.

Experimental Method

The experimental method is a powerful tool in psychology aimed at establishing clear cause-and-effect relationships between variables. A "variable" denotes a varying stimulus or event whose values can be quantified; attributes of an object are variables, not the object itself (e.g., a person's height).

- **Independent Variable (IV):** This is the variable that the researcher manipulates or changes in order to observe its effects.
- **Dependent Variable (DV):** This is the variable whose value is influenced by the change in the independent variable; it is the measured outcome. For example, in investigating the impact of alcohol on driving capabilities, alcohol consumption would be the independent variable, and driving performance the dependent variable.

To establish an exact cause-and-effect relationship, all variables besides the independent variable, known as extraneous variables, are held constant or rendered negligible throughout the investigations.

- **Control Group and Experimental Group:** Experimental designs typically comprise multiple research groups:
    - **Experimental Group:** This cohort experiences the manipulation of the independent variable.
    - **Control Group:** This group remains unchanged with respect to all other factors or variables and does not endure the manipulation of the independent variable. It serves as a comparison group against which the effects of the independent variable are evaluated. For instance, in a study examining the impact of exams on student learning ability, students with similar learning abilities would be divided into an experimental group (taking exams) and a control group (not taking exams), with learning ability being the dependent variable.

Visual Aid: Control Group vs. Experimental Group *(Image: A diagram illustrating a control group vs. experimental group in an experiment, similar to the one found at https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)* ● **Types of Experimental Method:**

○ **1. Lab Experiments:** These are conducted under controlled conditions in laboratories or research centers, allowing for straightforward management of independent and dependent variables. While offering high control, their outcomes are sometimes criticized for limited applicability to real-world conditions. For example, studying the impact of various music genres on patient health in a controlled room eliminates extraneous variables like weather or commotion.

○ **2. Field Experiments:** Carried out in authentic settings such as hospitals, schools, or industries, field experiments possess greater "ecological validity" (results apply better to real life) compared to laboratory experiments. However, controlling unwanted or extraneous variables in these settings is extremely challenging, making it difficult to establish an exact cause-and-effect relationship. They also tend to be more time-consuming. An example would be determining whether open-environment learning or classroom learning is more effective for students.

○ **3. Quasi-Experiments:** These are conducted when ethical considerations or other limitations make it problematic to manipulate certain variables in laboratory or field experiments. Researchers investigate existing relationships between variables without direct manipulation. For example, to examine the impact of bomb explosions on children who have lost their families, researchers employ quasi-experimental methods, comparing affected children who lost families to those who did not.

The choice between these experimental methods involves a fundamental trade-off between control and real-world applicability. Lab experiments offer high control for proving causation, but their results may have limited ecological validity. Field experiments provide greater ecological validity but struggle with controlling extraneous variables, making clear cause-and-effect harder to establish. Quasi-experiments arise as a necessity when full control or manipulation is impossible, highlighting the diverse approaches needed to study complex human phenomena.

Observational Method

The observational method is a qualitative, non-experimental research approach that involves the direct observation of a subject's behavior without the use of specialized apparatus. While casual observation is common in daily life, psychological research requires systematic and careful observation to collect, analyze, and use data for research objectives. A significant limitation is the influence of observer biases, as interpretations can be subjective ("We perceive things as we perceive them, not as they truly are"). Therefore, the observer must possess expertise to produce precise observations while minimizing potential biases.

● **Types of Observations:**

○ **1. Naturalistic Observation:** This involves conducting observations in authentic or natural environments, such as homes, schools, or open spaces, without any intervention or manipulation of the phenomena being studied. This approach yields

more generalizable results due to the natural settings; however, controlling extraneous variables is difficult, and ethical concerns regarding privacy invasion and observer bias are significant drawbacks.

Visual Aid: Naturalistic Observation *(Image: A simple illustration of naturalistic observation, similar to the one found at*
https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)

○ **2. Controlled Observation:** Refers to research activities carried out in confined environments where all conditions and variables are subject to strict regulation and manipulation according to research requirements. While offering greater control over variables, the ecological validity of these observations is considerably lower than naturalistic observations. Furthermore, subjects may alter their behavior if they are aware of being observed.

○ **3. Participant Observation:** In this method, the observer or researcher becomes an active participant in the group being studied. The group may or may not be informed of the observer's presence. If participants are unaware, the collected data tends to be more reliable and ecologically valid. This method offers a comprehensive viewpoint, encompassing both the researcher's and the participant's understanding, thereby mitigating potential biases. However, it is time-consuming, and results are typically not generalizable due to the limited size of research groups.

○ **4. Non-Participant Observation:** This form of research involves the absence of the observer, who instead employs alternative methods (e.g., installing a camera) to scrutinize the impromptu actions or conduct of the subjects without alerting them. The primary advantage is the ability to observe actual behavior without interference. An instance can be observed in a school principal's office utilizing CCTV cameras to monitor classroom activities.

Visual Aid: Participant vs. Non-Participant Observation *(Image: A simple illustration comparing participant and non-participant observation, similar to the one found at* *https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)*

The "observer effect" (or Hawthorne effect) is a critical consideration: the act of observation itself can change the behavior being studied. This leads to an ethical dilemma, as obtaining natural behavior might require covert observation, raising questions about privacy and informed consent. This highlights the constant tension between methodological rigor and ethical considerations in psychological research.

Case Study Method

The case study method involves conducting qualitative research and an in-depth analysis of a particular case, which serves as the subject of investigation. This approach permits a deep examination of the psyche of individuals or occurrences that offer crucial insights into relatively unknown or novel phenomena of the human mind.

Case studies are highly valuable as pioneers of theory, despite their generalizability limits. The outcomes derived from this approach are exceptionally dependable; indeed, numerous renowned

theories, including Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory and Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development, originated from meticulously planned and executed case studies involving specific subjects. While case studies typically involve a limited number of cases or single individuals, making results generally not statistically generalizable, they are invaluable for *generating* new theories, exploring rare phenomena, and providing rich, detailed insights that can then be tested more broadly using other methods. They are crucial for the initial exploratory phase of psychological inquiry.

This method employs a variety of additional research techniques, including unstructured interviews, psychological tests, and observations, making it a multi-method approach. It is considered highly effective for critically examining and comprehending the effects of specific traumatic incidents on an individual's psychological well-being, and clinical psychologists frequently employ it to diagnose a broad range of psychological disorders in their patients.

Benefits of a Psychology Case Study:
- Allows for in-depth investigation of one person, group, or event.
- Information from one case can sometimes be generalized to others.
- Lets researchers examine something impossible to conduct via experiment.

Visual Aid: Benefits of a Psychology Case Study *(Image: A simple diagram illustrating the benefits of a psychology case study, similar to the one found at https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)*

Correlational Research

The correlational method is employed when the researcher wishes to investigate the association between two variables without manipulating them. The researcher's sole concern is to determine whether or not the two variables are related. For instance, one might use this method to ascertain the correlation between yoga and an individual's psychological well-being, without intervening in either practice.

Correlational Coefficients: These coefficients denote the strength and direction of the relationship between variables, varying between +1.0 and -1.0.

There are three distinct categories of correlation:
- **Positive Correlation:** Occurs when a change in one variable results in a corresponding increase or decrease in the value of another variable. The value of the correlation coefficient is approximately +1.0.
- **Negative Correlation:** Occurs when an increase or decrease in the value of one variable results in a corresponding increase or decrease in the value of another variable. In this case, the correlation coefficient is approximately -1.0.
- **Zero Correlation:** Occurs when changes in the values of both variables indicate no relationship between them. The correlation coefficient is near or equal to zero. **Visual Aid: Correlation Coefficient** *(Image: A diagram illustrating the range of correlation coefficients from -1.0 (strong negative) through 0.0 (zero correlation) to +1.0 (strong positive), similar to the one found at https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)*

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Content Analysis

Content analysis methods involve the examination and quantification of a wide range of content items, including articles, texts, interviews, studies, and other significant documents, to extract information pertinent to the researcher's field of study. The process includes data collection, examination and familiarization with the data, development of rules for selecting coding units, creation of coding units (the smallest portions of content analyzed), analysis of findings, and conclusion-drawing.

Generally, there are two distinct varieties of content analysis:

- **Conceptual Analyses:** This process entails the identification of a particular concept (word, phrase, sentence) and a subsequent analysis of its prevalence within the accessible research data. By dividing content into distinct categories and selecting the sample according to the research question, conceptual analyses help focus on data that provides valuable insights.
- **Relational Analyses:** Similar to conceptual analyses in preliminary stages, relational analyses differ by identifying associations or relationships between concepts. While conceptual analyses examine individual concepts, relational analyses focus on the connections between concepts present in the research data to ascertain useful information.

Survey Research Method

Survey research is a predominant method for gathering data in virtually every field within the social sciences, utilized for analyzing population rates, election poll results, and literacy rates. It enables scientists to gain an authentic understanding of real-world events through the examination of individuals' social perspectives, attitudes, conduct, and opinions.

Researchers employ various survey research methodologies:

- **1. Direct Interviews:** An interview process entails the direct exchange of information between the interviewee/respondent and the interviewer/researcher. Interviews typically yield more comprehensive and detailed results compared to alternative methods because the researcher gains direct access to the respondent's thoughts, emotions, and behavioral observations.
  - ○ Interviews can be **structured** (predetermined questions, timing, and content, often with "closed-ended" questions requiring specific answers like yes/no) or **unstructured** (interviewer has flexibility to ask questions based on circumstances, often with "open-ended" questions allowing free responses).
  - ○ Interview formats vary by the number of participants:
  - ■ **One-to-One Interview:** One interviewee and one interviewer.
    - ■ **Individual-to-Group Interview:** One interviewer interviews a group of people.
    - ■ **Group-to-Individual:** A council of interviewers conducts an interview with an individual (also called a group panel interview).
    - ■ **Group-to-Group:** A cohort of interviewers conducts interviews with a group of interviewees.

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○ The interviewer must possess strong interviewing abilities, including establishing rapport and instilling confidence for truthful responses. Sensitivity to the respondent's emotions is crucial, avoiding pressure to answer uncomfortable questions. While time-consuming for broad samples, interviews are preferred for specific populations like the blind or illiterate, where verbal verification of comprehension is necessary.

Visual Aid: Direct Interview *(Image: A simple illustration of a direct interview scenario, similar to the one found at https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)*

- **2. Telephonic or Digital Surveys:** In telephonic surveys, inquiries are posed via direct phone calls or message transmissions. Digital surveys, often conducted via "Google forms," are also prevalent. Both methods are time-efficient and simple to implement. However, they have drawbacks, including potential unreliability of results due to lack of evidence on variables (e.g., age, gender) and the possibility of manipulative or ambiguous responses from respondents.**Visual Aid: Digital Survey (Google Form)** *(Image: A simple illustration of a digital survey interface, such as a Google Form, similar to the one found at https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)*

- **3. Questionnaires:** Questionnaires comprise an orderly collection of inquiries disseminated to participants for their responses, either marked or handwritten. Questions can be open-ended or closed-ended. This is a frequently employed survey methodology due to its simplicity, time efficiency, and cost-effectiveness in gathering research data. It can be more effective than interviews for obtaining accurate responses as confidentiality is assured, increasing the likelihood of correct answers. Both paper-based and digital questionnaires (distributed via email or Google Forms) are used.**Visual Aid: Questionnaire** *(Image: A simple illustration of a questionnaire, similar to the one found at https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)*

Psychological Testing

Psychological assessment, also known as psychometrics, involves standardized, scientifically validated assessments developed by psychologists. These instruments are employed to evaluate a wide range of human attributes, including personality, intelligence quotient (IQ), attitude, aptitude, and emotional quotient (EQ). A plethora of psychological tests are accessible today, serving various objectives such as aptitude evaluations, mental health assessments, educational evaluations, and personality evaluations.

Psychological tests, often in multiple-choice questions (MCQs) format, are meticulously crafted, considering factors like gender, age, social class, and educational attainment prior to administration. They can be administered online (digital format) or offline (pen-and-paper-based), contingent on circumstances and accessibility. It is essential that subjects or participants are adequately informed about the testing procedure, including verbal instructions for marking or completion and the duration of the assessments.

The development of these assessments adheres to a methodical framework and considers three critical elements:

- **Validity:** The most evident requirement is that the test must possess validity, meaning it must assess the construct for which it was created. For example, a psychological health

assessment test ought to evaluate an individual's psychological well-being, not their physical health.

- **Reliability:** The outcomes derived from the psychological assessment ought to be dependable, denoting minimal discrepancies in test scores when the identical assessment is administered to the identical subjects subsequent to a period of time.
- **Norm:** Standard values that represent the average performance of the subject or group of subjects on the assigned tasks are established for each psychological test. The utilization of norms empowers psychologists to analyze and juxtapose the outcomes derived from psychological assessments. Various norms exist, including descriptive, percentile, grade, and age norms.

Visual Aid: Rorschach Psychological Test *(Image: An image of a Rorschach inkblot, representing a psychological test, similar to the one found at https://studiousguy.com/methods-in-psychology/)*

III. Functionalism

3.1 Concept of Functionalism

Functionalism pertains to a theoretical framework utilized by social anthropologists and sociologists to elucidate social institutions and other social phenomena, emphasizing the functions that these entities carry out. When referring to particular social phenomena, activities, or institutions, functionalism focuses on the effects they have on the functioning of other activities, institutions, or society at large.

The concept of functionalism originated from the "organic analogy," a view prevalent among 19th-century social theorists who conceptualized society as an organism. Similar to biological organisms, which comprise numerous interdependent organs functioning as a cohesive whole, society is seen as a system where various parts work together to maintain the overall stability. Herbert Spencer was a pioneer in applying this analogy, and Emile Durkheim further elucidated the functions of social institutions. In the early 20th century, British social anthropologists like B. Malinowski and A.R. Radcliffe-Brown also emphasized the study of social life through social functions.

In American sociology, the concept of structural functionalism dominated discourse, with significant contributions from Talcott Parsons and R.K. Merton in assessing contemporary social processes. Neo-functionalism represents a more recent approach that identifies and expands upon the shortcomings of earlier functionalist concepts.

Founders of Functionalism

- **Herbert Spencer (1820–1903):** This British sociologist is regarded by some historians as an extension of Auguste Comte's organist and evolutionary methodology, though his perspective diverged significantly. Spencer classified both organic and social aggregates based on their progressive growth in magnitude, arguing that they develop from undifferentiated states to differentiated, interdependent states, leading to integration. His

fundamental analysis of parts becoming interdependent and integrating laid the foundation for "structural-functional" theorizing of society as a living organism. Spencer is credited with explicitly formulating the concept of social function in the 19th century, particularly in his *Principles of Sociology*.

   ○ Spencer's fundamental concepts regarding functionalism include:

1. Society, like an organism, is a system composed of interdependent and interconnected components.
2. This system can only be comprehended through the operation of particular structures, each serving to preserve the social whole.
3. Systems have requirements that must be fulfilled for their endurance, such as ensuring societal continuity. The function of a structure is ascertained by examining the needs it fulfills. While initially controversial for comparing society to a biological organism and analyzing its evolution, functionalism in sociology persisted, with Spencer often classified more as an evolutionist than a functionalist.

- **Emile Durkheim (1858-1917):** This French sociologist is widely recognized as the progenitor of both French sociology and the discipline of sociology at large. He formulated a methodology by integrating sociological theory with empirical research, focusing on the evolution and operation of traditional and contemporary societies. Durkheim significantly advanced the notion of social functions, solidifying functionalism as a consistent and well-founded doctrine. In *The Division of Labour in Society*, he precisely defined function as "the manner in which a component (a social institution) satisfies the requirements of a system". He argued that the most essential requirement of society is the preservation of social cohesion or integration. For Durkheim, the division of labor in industrial society served the function of establishing social solidarity. In *The Elementary Forms of Religious Life*, he examined religion's role in preserving solidarity by unifying individuals under a collective consciousness. He posited that pathological manifestations like 'anomie' (a state of normlessness) could arise if the critical need for social cohesion was not met. Durkheim is regarded as the progenitor of the functional perspective in sociology, establishing it as a distinct field of study with its own methodology and subject matter.

- **Bronislaw Malinowski (1884-1942):** This British social anthropologist developed a widely recognized functionalism theory, reportedly influenced by Emile Durkheim. Malinowski emphasized meticulous and detailed description of actual behavior in particular societies, prioritizing fieldwork that required precise documentation and observation of social behavior. His methodology for studying the Trobriand Islanders primarily consisted of "participant observation," which resulted in his seminal work *Argonauts of the Western Pacific*. Malinowski vigorously opposed Evolutionary Theory and the Comparative Method, arguing that "each" cultural item satisfies a need of the culture as a whole, contributing to its maintenance. He proposed that society, or culture, could be conceptualized as a collection of interdependent components ("cultural items") that collaborate to fulfill various social requirements. Malinowski's functionalism introduced the notions of system levels

(biological, social structural, symbolic) and that each level requires distinct systems. He identified three levels of requirements:

fundamental (biological needs like sustenance), institutional (establishments fulfilling fundamental necessities), and integrative (needs contributing to societal cohesion, like religious observance). Some sociologists classify his functionalism as "individualistic functionalism" due to its emphasis on basic biological necessities.

- **A.R. Radcliffe-Brown (1881-1955):** This British social anthropologist developed theories of functionalism (structural-functionalism) that diverged somewhat from Malinowski's, reportedly influenced by Emile Durkheim. Radcliffe-Brown clarified challenges associated with organic analogizing within functionalism, acknowledging that "the notion of function is founded upon a parallel between organic and social existence". He underscored the importance of replacing Durkheim's term "needs" with "necessary conditions of existence" to avoid teleological ramifications, considering the question of which conditions are essential for survival to be an empirical one. Radcliffe-Brown refuted Malinowski's claim that every cultural item must serve a purpose and that items from distinct cultures must perform the same function. He considered his approach to be structural functional analysis, predicated on crucial assumptions: (1) A minimal integration of its parts is a prerequisite for a society's survival; (2) function pertains to mechanisms sustaining essential integration; (3) structural characteristics contribute to preserving solidarity. Similar to Durkheim, Radcliffe-Brown perceived society as an independent reality, conceptualizing cultural artifacts as explicable within the framework of social structure's requirement for unity and incorporation. His research focused on lineage systems and rituals, like wailing and dancing, which restore societal cohesion by resolving disputes. He concluded that function is the extent to which a component activity contributes to the whole activity of which it is a component, fostering "social unity". His detailed writings are in *Anthology of Structure and Function in Primitive Society*.

3.1.1 Functionalism: School of Thoughts

Functionalism, a school of thought that originated in the United States, arose from philosophy and religion. It is concerned with the function of consciousness and behavior in environmental adaptation. Its evolution can be traced through four distinct periods. Initially, psychology was integrated into curricula alongside ethics, divinity, and philosophy, reflecting the influence of British universities focused on religious beliefs. A precise definition of psychology remained elusive until the "American Enlightenment" in 1714, marked by John Locke's publications, which inspired Samuel Johnson to write on contemporary psychological subjects. The second stage, around 1776, saw psychology further differentiated from philosophy under the influence of Scottish commonsense philosophy, which asserted the reliability of senses and thoughts against Hume's skepticism. Scottish textbooks began emphasizing the individual and covering psychology-specific topics like memory and perception, which were later incorporated into American textbooks.

The third stage, in 1886 amidst the American Renaissance, witnessed psychology's development into an empirical science and an independent field of study. This period saw the emergence of functionalism, characterized by evolutionary theory, practicality, scientific emphasis, and individualism. Early American psychology reached its fourth and final stage with the formal establishment of functionalism. Its inception is often traced to either William James's *The Principles of Psychology* (1890) or John Dewey's *The Reflex Arc in Psychology* (1896). During this era, functionalism and structuralism, though remarkably dissimilar, vied for dominance. Functionalism sought to understand how the mind and behavior enable an organism to adapt to its environment, drawing from Charles Darwin's evolutionary theory, while structuralism focused on the mind's structure based on British and French empiricism. Functionalism extensively used all available information sources, whereas structuralism relied predominantly on introspection.

While functionalism lacks a single, rigid definition, it possesses generally accepted characteristics: it rejects the examination of the mind's constituent parts, aims to comprehend the operation of mental and behavioral processes,

Conclusion

Advocates for practical application, seeks to expand psychological methodology, is intrigued by motivation, is more concerned with individual variations than similarities, and is significantly impacted by telecommunications. The publications of William James significantly impacted functionalism. He advocated for exploring alternative investigation methods when a facet of human thought could not be adequately explained. James's "stream of consciousness" theory comprises five concepts: consciousness is personal and reflective of unique experiences, continuous and indivisible for analysis, constantly changing, selective, and serves a functional purpose. He vehemently opposed the notion that thought could be universally analyzed and reduced to its component parts, arguing that consciousness is a dynamic and unique personal landscape. Consensus holds that consciousness facilitates environmental adaptation, reflecting James's influence by Darwin's theory of evolution and, by extension, functionalism. James hypothesized that individual conduct is shaped by inclinations and habits formed through repeated actions. He believed determinism should be accepted in science, but free will presumed for human study. Additionally, James espoused the pragmatic principle that all ideas should be evaluated

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