Chapter 1 : Psychoanalysis and Motivation: 1st Edition (Paperback) - Routledge

Motivation is literally the desire to do things. It's the difference between waking up before dawn to pound the pavement and lazing around the house all day. It's the crucial element in setting.

Physiological , psychological , and philosophical approaches Motivation has been studied in a variety of ways. For instance, it has been analyzed at the physiological level using electrical and chemical stimulation of the brain , the recording of electrical brain-wave activity with the electroencephalograph, and lesion techniques, where a portion of the brain usually of a laboratory animal is destroyed and subsequent changes in motivation are noted. Physiological studies performed primarily on animals other than humans have demonstrated the importance of certain brain structures in the control of basic motives such as hunger, thirst, sex, aggression, and fear. Motivation may also be analyzed at the individual psychological level. Such analyses attempt to understand why people act in particular ways and seek to draw general conclusions from individual cases. Through studies of individuals, for example, it has been found that both men and women proceed through a series of identifiable stages of arousal during behaviours leading to and culminating in sexual intercourse. The finding may be applied to people in general. Motivation of an individual is also influenced by the presence of other people. Social psychologists have been active in discovering how the presence of others in a given situation influences motivation. For example, students and teachers behave in predictable ways in the classroom. Those behaviours are often quite different, however, from the way students and teachers behave outside the classroom. Studies of conformity, obedience, and helping behaviours which benefit others without reward are three areas in this field that have received considerable attention. Finally, motivation is sometimes also approached from a more philosophical direction. That is, analyses of motivation are understood, at least in part, by examining the particular philosophical point of view espoused by the theorist. For example, some motivational theorists conceive motivation to be an aversive state: Other theorists see motivation as a much more positive experience. That is, motivation can produce behaviours that lead to increases in future motivation. The American psychologist Abraham H. Debates in motivational study The nomothetic versus ideographic approach However motivation is studied, certain fundamental debates have typified the positions taken by researchers. One such debate concerns the question of whether it is better to study groups of individuals and attempt to draw general conclusions termed the nomothetic approach or to study the behaviours that make individuals unique termed the idiographic approach. Although both approaches have added to the understanding of motivational processes, the nomothetic approach has dominated motivational research. Innate versus acquired processes A second debate among theorists concerns the degree to which motivational processes are innate genetically programmed versus acquired learned. Since the s this debate has swung from one extreme to the other and then back toward the middle. Early approaches viewed motivation as largely or entirely instinctive. When the instinctive approach fell into disfavour during the s, the idea that all behaviours were learned largely replaced the instinctive approach. By the s, and continuing to the present, research indicated that the answer to the debate is that both positions are correct. Some motives, in some species, do appear to be largely innate, as, for example, in the courting behaviour of the three-spined stickleback, a small fish of the Northern Hemisphere see below Biological approaches to motivation: Other motives, such as achievement motivation, seem more closely associated with learning. Some motive states, such as extreme shyness, seem to result from an innate predisposition coupled with a particular environment where learning interacts with the predisposition. Internal needs versus external goals Another dimension along which debates concerning motivational processes have flourished is the question of whether motivation is primarily the result of internal needs or external goals. As noted earlier, this dimension describes differences between push and pull motives. Research suggests that some motive states are best classified as internal push motives while other motive states develop from goals external to the individual pull motives. Many real-life situations are undoubtedly a combination of both internal and external motives. Mechanistic versus cognitive processes Finally, researchers have tended to view motivational processes as either mechanistic or cognitive. The first of these assumes that motivational processes are automatic; that is, the organism, human or

otherwise, need not understand what it is doing in order for the processes to work. This point of view has achieved considerable popularity. Neither conscious awareness nor intent is assumed to be operative in the mechanistic approach. Researchers taking the mechanistic point of view are often interested in studying internal need states and genetically programmed behaviours. The second and newer approach, promoted by researchers more often interested in external and acquired motives, has emphasized the importance of cognition in motivational processes. The cognitive approach assumes that the way in which one interprets information influences motives. Cognitive motivational approaches assume that the active processing of information has important influences on future motivation. Given the complexity of motivational processes, most theorists feel safe in assuming that some motive states are relatively mechanistic while others are more cognitive. For example, the concept of free will as proposed by Aristotle and others was a widely accepted philosophical position until it was generally rejected in favour of determinism. Determinism, as the term is used by psychologists, holds that every behaviour has some antecedent cause. One antecedent to which particular behaviours are often attributed is motivation. Thus, if one sees a woman hurriedly eating a sandwich while continually glancing at her watch, one might infer that she is late for an appointment rather than that she is ravenously hungry. Regardless of the eventual explanation that would allow us to understand her behaviour, we do not assume that she is behaving randomly. Rather, we assume some motive is causing her to behave as she does. Aristotle, marble portrait bust, Roman copy 2nd century bc of a Greek original c. National Library of Medicine, Bethesda, Maryland British empiricist philosophers, as exemplified by John Locke , also contributed to the development of modern motivational theory. Many psychologists believe that goals become valuable to us because of the sensory experience associated with these goals. Thus, for example, the motivating properties that cause a person to drive across the city to eat a particular food are thought to result from the desirable taste, smell, and perhaps texture of the food itself. If the food tasted and smelled like cardboard, it would not motivate future trips across the city to obtain it. Locke also provided the important concept of association. As proposed by Locke, one idea can become associated, or linked, to another to produce a new, more complex idea. The concept of association provides an explanation for how nonmotivating experiences can become motivating. If one pairs a nonmotivating stimulus with a highly motivating object several times, the formerly neutral stimulus begins to motivate behaviour in a fashion similar to the original object. Research has shown that, under some circumstances, phobias and other motives may be acquired through such association. The associative mechanism can serve as an example of Pavlovian classical conditioning. Pavlov was a Russian scientist who taught dogs to associate food with the sound of a bell; the dogs learned to salivate at the sound of a bell, demonstrating what has been termed a conditioned response. Perhaps the most commonly associated stimulus in Western society that is recognized for its strong motivational properties is money. Because money is paired with many strong motivators, it often becomes strongly motivating itself. Sir Charles Bell, detail of a portrait by John Stevens, oil on canvas, c. The German psychologist Georg E. These discoveries made it clear that the nervous system could be studied and paved the way for examination of its role in the motivation of behaviour. Although phrenology has been thoroughly discredited, it indirectly contributed to the localization of motivational systems within such brain areas as the hypothalamus. Behaviourism The contributions from philosophical and physiological sources have generated several stages of evolution in motivational theory since the late 19th century. By the end of the 19th century, behavioral theorists such as the American psychologists William James and William McDougall had begun to emphasize the instinctive component of human behaviour and to de-emphasize, and in some cases eliminate from discussion, the more mentalistic concept of will. Other behaviourists, as exemplified by the American psychologist John B. Watson , rejected theories of both instinct and will and emphasized the importance of learning in behaviour. This group conceived behaviour to be a reaction or response R to changes in environmental stimulation S ; their S-R psychology subsequently gained popularity, becoming the basis for the school of behaviourism. By the s, the concept of instinct as proposed by theorists such as James and McDougall had been roundly criticized and fell into disrepute. Drive, initially proposed by the American psychologist Robert S. Woodworth , was developed most fully by Clark Hull , an American psychologist who conceived motivation to result from changed internal bodily needs, which were in turn satisfied by obtaining

specific items from the environment. Thus, hunger motivation was thought to occur as a result of a changed internal need for energy that motivated food-seeking behaviour in the environment. Researchers such as the American psychologist Edward C. These early cognitive psychologists opened the way for other researchers to examine motivation resulting from the expectation of future events, choices among alternatives , and attributions concerning outcomes. In other words, with the advent of cognitive explanations of motivated behaviour, it became possible to argue that behaviours were sometimes purposive. The cognitive approach has proved useful in the analysis of several types of motivation, among them achievement behaviour, dissonance motivation, and self-actualization see below Cognitive motivation. Changing perspectives and research on motivation have led away from large, all-encompassing theories of motivation to smaller, discrete theories that explain specific motives or specific aspects of motivation under particular conditions. These microtheories of motivation are conveniently categorized as falling within three major areas: Biological approaches to motivation The biological microtheories of motivation can be divided into three categories: Genetic contributions As indicated above, the idea that some motivated behaviours are the result of innate programs manifested in the nervous system had been proposed by James and McDougall in the late s and early s. In Europe, however, a group of biologists interested in the evolutionary significance of animal behaviours kept the concept alive and continued to study the genetic basis of behaviour. They were early entrants in the field of study known as ethology , which studies the behaviour patterns of animals in their natural habitat. Ethologists argue that the evolutionary significance of a particular behaviour can best be understood after a taxonomy of behaviours for that species has been developed as a result of observation in nature. They propose further that the significance of a behaviour is often clearer when observed in the context of other behaviours of that animal. Ethologists use naturalistic observation and field studies as their most common techniques. AP The research conducted by the ethologists showed that some behaviours of some animal species were released in an automatic and mechanical fashion when conditions were appropriate. These behaviours, known as fixed-action pattern s, have several salient characteristics: Furthermore, the stimulus that releases these genetically programmed behaviours is usually highly specific, such as a particular colour, shape, or sound. Such stimuli are termed key stimuli or sign stimuli and when provided by a conspecific organism a member of the same species are known as social releasers. One thoroughly researched example of this type of genetically programmed behaviour is the courtship behaviour of the three-spined stickleback , a small fish. During the reproductive season, male sticklebacks become territorial and defend a portion of the streambed against other intruding stickleback males. Ethological analysis of this aggressive behaviour reveals that it is a series of fixed-action patterns released by the reddish coloration of the ventral under surface of the intruding males. A female stickleback entering the territory is not attacked because she does not possess the red coloration. Instead she is courted through a complex series of movements termed the zigzag dance. This behaviour pattern performed by the male stickleback is released by the shape of the ventral surface of the female, which is distended as a result of the eggs she carries. Although the largest number of studies conducted by ethologists has been on nonhuman animals, some ethological researchers have applied the same kinds of analyses to human behaviour.

Chapter 2 : Motivation - Psychology of Motivation

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This is an important concept in psychology as well as in business, schools, and other areas. For example, we want our children to behave and do their homework. Businesses want to get the population to buy their products. Adults may want to change the behaviors of romantic others. All of these situations are examples of times that we may want to motivate someone else to do what we want them to do. Motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. A person is intrinsically motivated if the desire for change comes from within the individual. The person may want to learn something because he or she is interested. Another person may want to accomplish a goal or task because it is something he or she feels competent at and enjoys doing. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation comes from outside the person. They are bribed to do something or they earn a prize or reward. Paychecks are extrinsic motivators. Fear of punishment and coercion are also extrinsic motivators. The needs he identified were physiological, security, needs of belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. Respect, self-esteem, recognition Self-actualization: Maslow believed all people had an innate desire or drive to become self-actualized; however, people met their needs according to a particular order or hierarchy. The most important needs for life are those that are physically sustaining such as food, water, and shelter. Maslow stated that people had to fulfill these basic needs before other needs such as esteem and belonging could be met. His theory is also referred to as the motivation-hygiene theory. The motivation piece of his theory states that people are motivated towards behaviors that offer growth and personal satisfaction. Hygiene refers to physical and emotional comforts. Herzberg believed that people are motivated to avoid deprivation. For example, people work to avoid being fired or losing pay. You may notice that his two-factor theory sounds familiar to the intrinsic versus extrinsic model. Motivation would be considered intrinsic while hygiene corresponds to extrinsic motivation. In terms of motivation, people may have higher satisfaction at their jobs if they feel competent and are given appropriately challenging tasks. Relatedness needs are the need to have relationships with other people. Some people place more priority on "higher needs" than "lower needs," e. A final point on the ERG theory is the idea of frustration-regression. If a higher order need such as growth is not being met, an individual will regress to an easier need and focus more energy on meeting that need. People who meet the criteria for theory x are not ambitious, they want to do the minimum of work required, and they only complete tasks for job security. On the other hand, "Theory Y" refers to people who are creative and want responsibility. These people are usually ambitious and gain satisfaction from work. McGregor believed that if the motives behind work were understood, managers could meet workers on their level and use the correct strategies to motivate each type. Therefore, I would need to use tactics such as performance reviews that you would need to score highly on to keep your job. David McClelland David McClelland proposed the theory that people not only have needs, but they develop more needs as they mature. His theory, the acquired needs theory, consisted of 3 specific needs; achievement, affiliation, and power. Achievement is the need to master tasks and be successful. Affiliation is the need to form positive relationships. And lastly, power is the need to be in control or have authority over others. McClelland hypothesized that our experiences, particularly our early experiences as children, determined which of these three needs would develop and to what degree. Therefore, I as an adult have a need to control others power then power and control were things that were reinforced as a child or something happened that made me want to control others. Victor Vroom Victor Vroom was responsible for the expectancy theory. This theory states that if an individual believes he or she can do something then he or she is more likely to accomplish it. Thoughts and effort are vital to this theory because if someone does not think they are able to do a task, he or she is not likely to put forth much effort. Therefore, motivation is decreased. Failure does not motivate a person to try harder. Successes, even if they are small, motivate people to improve. She believed that people were motivated if they felt they were receiving compensation that was equal to what others received. A common plot of high school depictions on television is the situation in which one student is discriminated to the point that he or she always receives low scores no

matter what homework is turned in. In this plot, no one believes the student so he or she switches homework with a fellow classmate known for getting high grades. In the end, the student still gets a low grade and the A student does well despite the fact that they switched homework. This is an example of how inequality would result in a decrease of motivation for both students. The "A" student would not feel validated for his or her effort and the other student would possibly quit. Skinner Skinner believed that people are motivated by rewards. Reinforcement is a stimulus that is given immediately after a behavior that will increase the likelihood that the target behavior will be repeated. Punishment is a stimulus that is given immediately after a behavior that will decrease the likelihood that the target behavior will be repeated. Reinforcement and Punishment are also further divided into 2 types, positive and negative. Positive is something that is added while negative means something has been taken away. These types are outlined in the following table:

Learn how Sigmund Freud's theories helped shape our modern understanding of human motivation and personality development. Review key terms and take a quiz at the end of the lesson to test your.

But with the emergence of psychoanalysis as a distinct clinical practice, both terms came to describe that. Although both are still used, today, the normal adjective is psychoanalytic. Psychoanalytic theorists believe that human behavior is deterministic. It is governed by irrational forces, and the unconscious, as well as instinctual and biological drives. Due to this deterministic nature, psychoanalytic theorists do not believe in free will. Josef Breuer , especially when it came to the study on Anna O. Today, Breuer can be considered the grandfather of psychoanalysis. The research and ideas behind the study on Anna O. These observations led Freud to theorize that the problems faced by hysterical patients could be associated with painful childhood experiences that could not be recalled. The influence of these lost memories shaped the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of patients. These studies contributed to the development of the psychoanalytic theory. The id is the aspect of personality that is driven by internal and basic drives and needs. These are typically instinctual, such as hunger, thirst, and the drive for sex, or libido. The id acts in accordance with the pleasure principle , in that it avoids pain and seeks pleasure. Due to the instinctual quality of the id, it is impulsive and often unaware of implications of actions. The ego is driven by the reality principle. It helps separate what is real, and realistic of our drives as well as being realistic about the standards that the superego sets for the individual. The superego is driven by the morality principle. It acts in connection with the morality of higher thought and action. Instead of instinctively acting like the id, the superego works to act in socially acceptable ways. It employs morality, judging our sense of wrong and right and using guilt to encourage socially acceptable behavior. Freud said that it is the unconscious that exposes the true feelings, emotions, and thoughts of the individual. There are variety of psychoanalytic techniques used to access and understand the unconscious, ranging from methods like hypnosis, free association, and dream analysis. Whereas latent content is the underlying meaning of a dream that may not be remembered when a person wakes up, manifest content is the content from the dream that a person remembers upon waking and can be analyzed by a psychoanalytic psychologist. Exploring and understanding the manifest content of dreams can inform the individual of complexes or disorders that may be under the surface of their personality. Dreams can provide access to the unconscious that is not easily accessible. They are considered mistakes revealing the unconscious. Examples range from calling someone by the wrong name, misinterpreting a spoken or written word, or simply saying the wrong thing. It thus reacts to protect the individual from any stressors and anxiety by distorting reality. This prevents threatening unconscious thoughts and material from entering the consciousness. The different types of defense mechanisms are: Repression , reaction formation , denial , projection , displacement , sublimation , regression , and rationalization. It is a stage theory that believes progress occurs through stages as the libido is directed to different body parts. The different stages, listed in order of progression, are: The Genital stage is achieved if people meet all their needs throughout the other stages with enough available sexual energy. They do not support the idea that development of the personality stops at age 6, instead they believed development spreads across the lifespan. Critics of psychoanalytic theory[edit] The psychoanalytic approach has a variety of advantages and limitations that have spurred further research and expansion into the realm of personality development. Advantages[edit] The theory emphasizes the importance of childhood experiences. Limits[edit] Some claim that the theory is lacking in empirical data and too focused on pathology. Freud is considered a philosopher in some areas, and other philosophers, such as Jacques Lacan , Michel Foucault , and Jacques Derrida have written extensively on how psychoanalysis informs philosophical analysis. An Elementary Textbook of Psychoanalysis - Revised edition.

Chapter 4 : Psychology & Motivation | CalorieBee

Carrying forward his inquiry into the nature and conditions of normal and abnormal development, Lichtenberg focuses on motivation. His goal is to offer an alternative to psychoanalytic drive theory that accommodates the developmental insights of infancy research while accounting for the entire range.

Needs lower down in the hierarchy must be satisfied before individuals can attend to needs higher up. From the bottom of the hierarchy upwards, the needs are: The first four levels are often referred to as deficiency needs D-needs , and the top level is known as growth or being needs B-needs. Deficiency needs arise due to deprivation and are said to motivate people when they are unmet. Also, the motivation to fulfill such needs will become stronger the longer the duration they are denied. For example, the longer a person goes without food, the more hungry they will become. Maslow initially stated that individuals must satisfy lower level deficit needs before progressing on to meet higher level growth needs. These then become our salient needs. However, growth needs continue to be felt and may even become stronger once they have been engaged. Growth needs do not stem from a lack of something, but rather from a desire to grow as a person. Once these growth needs have been reasonably satisfied, one may be able to reach the highest level called self-actualization. Every person is capable and has the desire to move up the hierarchy toward a level of self-actualization. Unfortunately, progress is often disrupted by a failure to meet lower level needs. Life experiences, including divorce and loss of a job, may cause an individual to fluctuate between levels of the hierarchy. Therefore, not everyone will move through the hierarchy in a uni-directional manner but may move back and forth between the different types of needs. The original hierarchy of needs five-stage model includes: Maslow , stated that people are motivated to achieve certain needs and that some needs take precedence over others. Our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first thing that motivates our behavior. Once that level is fulfilled the next level up is what motivates us, and so on. Physiological needs - these are biological requirements for human survival, e. If these needs are not satisfied the human body cannot function optimally. Maslow considered physiological needs the most important as all the other needs become secondary until these needs are met. Safety needs - protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear. Love and belongingness needs - after physiological and safety needs have been fulfilled, the third level of human needs is social and involves feelings of belongingness. The need for interpersonal relationships motivates behavior Examples include friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Affiliating, being part of a group family, friends, work. Esteem needs - which Maslow classified into two categories: Maslow indicated that the need for respect or reputation is most important for children and adolescents and precedes real self-esteem or dignity. Self-actualization needs - realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences. Maslow posited that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy: This is what we mean by saying that the basic human needs are organized into a hierarchy of relative prepotency" Maslow, , p. Maslow continued to refine his theory based on the concept of a hierarchy of needs over several decades Maslow, , , Maslow noted that the order of needs might be flexible based on external circumstances or individual differences. For example, he notes that for some individuals, the need for self-esteem is more important than the need for love. For others, the need for creative fulfillment may supersede even the most basic needs. Hierarchy of needs summary a human beings are motivated by a hierarchy of needs. Biological and physiological needs - air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep, etc. Safety needs - protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, etc. Love and belongingness needs - friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Cognitive needs - knowledge and understanding, curiosity, exploration, need for meaning and predictability. Aesthetic needs - appreciation and search for beauty, balance, form, etc. Transcendence needs - A person is motivated by values which transcend beyond the personal self e. Self-actualization Instead of focusing on psychopathology and what goes wrong with people, Maslow formulated a more positive account of human behavior which focused on what goes right. He was interested in human potential, and how we fulfill that potential. Psychologist Abraham Maslow , stated that human motivation is based on people seeking fulfillment

and change through personal growth. Self-actualized people are those who were fulfilled and doing all they were capable of. In self-actualization, a person comes to find a meaning to life that is important to them. As each individual is unique, the motivation for self-actualization leads people in different directions Kenrick et al. For some people self-actualization can be achieved through creating works of art or literature, for others through sport, in the classroom, or within a corporate setting. Maslow believed self-actualization could be measured through the concept of peak experiences. This occurs when a person experiences the world totally for what it is, and there are feelings of euphoria, joy, and wonder. Maslow offers the following description of self-actualization: The specific form that these needs will take will of course vary greatly from person to person. Characteristics of self-actualized people Although we are all, theoretically, capable of self-actualizing, most of us will not do so, or only to a limited degree. Maslow estimated that only two percent of people would reach the state of self-actualization. He was especially interested in the characteristics of people whom he considered to have achieved their potential as individuals. By studying 18 people he considered to be self-actualized including Abraham Lincoln and Albert Einstein Maslow identified 15 characteristics of a self-actualized person. They perceive reality efficiently and can tolerate uncertainty; 2. Accept themselves and others for what they are; 3. Spontaneous in thought and action; 4. Problem-centered not self-centered ; 5. Unusual sense of humor; 6. Able to look at life objectively; 7. Resistant to enculturation, but not purposely unconventional; 9. Concerned for the welfare of humanity; Capable of deep appreciation of basic life-experience; Establish deep satisfying interpersonal relationships with a few people;

The psychoanalytic theories of motivation proposed a variety of fundamental influences. Freud () suggested that all action or behavior was a result of internal, biological instincts that are classified into two categories: life (sexual) and death (aggression).

Subjects Description Carrying forward his inquiry into the nature and conditions of normal and abnormal development, Lichtenberg focuses on motivation. His goal is to offer an alternative to psychoanalytic drive theory that accommodates the developmental insights of infancy research while accounting for the entire range of phenomena addressed by the theory of instinctual drives. To this end, he propounds a comprehensive theory of the self, which then gains expression in five discrete yet interactive motivational systems. Reviews "Joseph Lichtenberg has for some time been one of the most cogent contributors to the essential task of revising the basic theory of psychoanalysis. With this new book on the sources of human motivation, he has brought the field measurably closer to the accomplishment of that great joint project. Separating the wheat from the chaff, he presents us with a multifaceted approach to motivation that encompasses all the newer research without losing its firm roots in the basic theories of psychoanalysis. Lichtenberg brings to the task not only his many years of psychoanalytic experience but also an intimate familiarity with the contiguous sciences that, in impinging on psychoanalysis, are becoming part of it. For the reader who is no longer satisfied with merely studying the history of psychoanalysis but who wants to participate in making this history, there is no surer guide than Joseph Lichtenberg. Combining uncommon scholarship with sensitive and broad clinical experience, he blends neonatology, developmental studies, and self and object psychologies into a subtle, complex, and rich overview of motivation. Abundant patient vignettes help clarify the applicability of this discerning contemporary integration to analytic practice. The Self and Other Conceptual Tools. The Attachment-Affiliation Motivational System: The Exploratory-Assertive Motivational System. The Aversive Motivational System. The Sensual-Sexual Motivational System. Model Scenes, Affects, and the Unconscious. Empathy, Motivational Systems, and a Theory of Cure. Hadley, The Neurobiology of Motivational Systems. About the Author Joseph D. He has authored and edited numerous books and articles, including Craft and Spirit: Communication in Psychoanalysis Analytic Press, A Topical Journal for Mental Health Professionals, the Psychoanalytic Inquiry Book Series presents a diversity of subjects within a diversity of approaches to those subjects. Under the editorship of Joseph Lichtenberg, in collaboration with Melvin Bornstein and the editorial board of Psychoanalytic Inquiry, the volumes in this series strike a balance between research, theory, and clinical application. We are honored to have published the works of various innovators in psychoanalysis, such as Lachmann, Fosshage, Stolorow, Orange, Sander, Wurmser, Grotstein, Jones, Brothers, Busch, and Lichtenberg, among others. In our efforts to broaden the field of analytic interest, the series has incorporated and embraced innovative discoveries in infant research, self psychology, intersubjectivity, motivational systems, affects as process, responses to cancer, borderline states, contextualism, postmodernism, attachment research and theory, medication, and mentalization. As further investigations in psychoanalysis come to fruition, we seek to present them in readable, easily comprehensible writing. After 25 years, the core vision of this series remains the investigation, analysis and discussion of developments on the cutting edge of the psychoanalytic field, inspired by a boundless spirit of inquiry.

Chapter 6 : Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs | Simply Psychology

Health coaching is a relatively new field with many conflicting definitions. Health coaching is a powerful tool used to facilitate behavior change for those seeking to improve their health and wellness.

George Boeree Precursors of Psychoanalysis It often surprises students that psychiatry - meaning the doctoring of the mind - was not invented by Sigmund Freud. Psychoanalysis - a particular and very significant brand of psychiatry - was his baby. Psychiatrists existed before Freud, and most, psychiatrists today are not Freudian. The term psychiatry was coined by the German physician Johann Reil 1 in , and would slowly replace the older term "alienist. There are three people I would like to pay my respects to as important precursors to psychoanalysis: Franz Anton Mesmer, who discovered hypnotism; Philippe Pinel, who changed the way we thought of and treated the mentally ill; and Jean-Martin Charcot, who is often considered the father of neurology. He received his MD from the University of Vienna in His dissertation concerned the idea that the planets influenced the health of those of us on earth. He suggested that their gravitational forces could change the distribution of our animal spirits. He was, in fact, able to put people into trance states, even convulsions, by waving magnetized bars over them. His dramatic performances were quite popular for a while, although he believed that anyone could achieve the same results. In point of fact, some of his patients did in fact get relief from their symptoms -- a point that would later be investigated by others. When accused of fraud by other physicians in Vienna, he went to Paris. They concluded that his results were due to nothing more than suggestion. In order to serve the many poor people who came to him for help, he designed a sort of bathtub in which they could sit while holding the magnetic rods themselves. He eventually created an organization to train other mesmerists. Disassociated from Mesmer, hypnotism would go on to have a long, if contraversial, life into the twentieth century. His father was both a barber and a surgeon, a common combination in those days, as both vocations required a steady hand with the razor. His mother was also from a long line of physicians. Philippe began his studies more interested in literature -- especially Jean-Jacques Rousseau -- than in medicine. But, after a few years studying theology, he began the study of medicine, and he recieved his MD from university at Toulouse in Pinel moved to Montpellier in where he tutored wealthy students in anatomy and mathematics. He moved to Paris in , where he came into contact with a number of the renowned scientists and philosophers of the day including Ben Franklin , as well as becoming familiar with the radical new ideas of John Locke and the French sensationalists. Although he could not practice in Paris, he became a well respected medical writer, particularly known for his careful and exhaustive case studies. In that year, he also married Jeanne Vincent, with whom he had three sons. In , Pinel instituted a new program of human care, which he referred to as moral therapy. The men were given clean, comfortable accommodations, and were instructed in simple but productive work. Here, too, he provided his enlightened treatment conditions to the mentally ill. In that same year, he was made professor of medical pathology at Paris. In , Phillipe Pinel introduced the first textbook on moral therapy to the world. Pinel is also remembered for dismissing the demonic possession theory of mental illness for once and for all, and for eliminating treatments such as bleeding from his hospital. He also introduced other novelties to his hospital, such as vaccinations and the use of the stethoscope. He died in Paris on October 25, He received his MD at the University of Paris in In he became a professor at his alma mater. It, and he, became known throughout Europe, and students came from everywhere to study the new field. Among them were Alfred Binet and a young Sigmund Freud. Charcot is well known in medical circles for his studies of the neurology of motor disorders, resulting diseases, aneurysms, and localization of brain functions. He is considered the father of modern neurology as well as the person who first diagnosed of Multiple Sclerosis In psychology, he is best known for his use of hypnosis to successfully treating women suffering from the psychological disorder then known as hysteria. Now called conversion disorder, hysteria involved a loss of some physiological function such as vision, speech, tactile sensations, movement, etc. Charcot believed that hysteria was due to a congenitally weak nervous system, combined with the effects of some traumatic experience. Hypnotizing these patients brought on a state similar to hysteria itself. He found that, in some cases, the symptoms would actually lessen after hypnosis -- although

he was only interested in studying hysteria, not in curing it! Others would later use hypnosis as a part of curing the problem. Charcot died in Morvan, France, on August 16, The stamp bearing his image is from the web site of Michael Jacobson, MD, at http: The reality of such things is very much in doubt. Johann Friedrich Herbart was the author of a texbook on psychology, published in But, following Kant, he did not believe psychology could ever be a science. When ideas were incompatable, one or the other would be repressed, he said - meaning forced below the threshold into the unconscious. Schopenhauer is often seen as the originator of the unconscious, and he spoke at great lengths about instincts and the irrational nature of man, and freely made use of words like repression, resistance, and sublimation! Nietzsche also spoke of the unconscious: One of his most famous statements is "My memory says I did it. My pride says I could not have done that. In the end, my memory yields. Karl Eduard von Hartmann He blended the ideas of Schopenhauer with Jewish mysticism the kaballah and wrote Philosophy of the Unconscious in , just in time to influence a young neurologist name Sigmund Freud. The reader should understand that there are many theorists with little or no use for the concept of the unconscious. Brentano, forefather of phenomenology and existentialism, did not believe in it. Neither did William James. Neither did the Gestalt psychologists. Memories, for example, can be understood as stored in some physical state, perhaps as traces in the brain. When activated, we remember. The first differentiated classification was of what he labelled dementia praecox, which meant the insanity of adolescence. I should also mention Eugen Bleuler, who coined the term schizophrenia to replace dementia praecox in Now, on to Freud In his case those others were his mentor and friend, Dr. Twenty one years old, Anna spent most of her time nursing her ailing father. She developed a bad cough that proved to have no physical basis. She developed some speech difficulties, then became mute, and then began speaking only in English, rather than her usual German. When her father died she began to refuse food, and developed an unusual set of problems. She lost the feeling in her hands and feet, developed some paralysis, and began to have involuntary spasms. She also had visual hallucinations and tunnel vision. But when specialists were consulted, no physical causes for these problems could be found. In the evenings, Anna would sink into states of what Breuer called "spontaneous hypnosis," or what Anna herself called "clouds. Anna called these episodes "chimney sweeping" and "the talking cure. The first example came soon after she had refused to drink for a while: She recalled seeing a woman drink from a glass that a dog had just drunk from. While recalling this, she experienced strong feelings of disgust In other words, her symptom -- an avoidance of water -- disappeared as soon as she remembered its root event, and experienced the strong emotion that would be appropriate to that event. Breuer called this catharsis, from the Greek word for cleansing. It was eleven years later that Breuer and his assistant, Sigmund Freud, wrote a book on hysteria. In it they explained their theory: The emotions appropriate to the trauma are not expressed in any direct fashion, but do not simply evaporate: They express themselves in behaviors that in a weak, vague way offer a response to the trauma. These symptoms are, in other words, meaningful. When the client can be made aware of the meanings of his or her symptoms through hypnosis, for example then the unexpressed emotions are released and so no longer need to express themselves as symptoms. It is analogous to lancing a boil or draining an infection. In this way, Anna got rid of symptom after symptom. But it must be noted that she needed Breuer to do this: Whenever she was in one of her hypnotic states, she had to feel his hands to make sure it was him before talking! And sadly, new problems continued to arise. According to Freud, Breuer recognized that she had fallen in love with him, and that he was falling in love with her. Plus, she was telling everyone she was pregnant with his child. You might say she wanted it so badly that her mind told her body it was true, and she developed an hysterical pregnancy. Breuer, a married man in a Victorian era, abruptly ended their sessions together, and lost all interest in hysteria. It was Freud who would later add what Breuer did not acknowledge publicly - that secret sexual desires lay at the bottom of all these hysterical neuroses. To finish her story, Anna spent time in a sanatorium. Later, she became a well-respected and active figure - the first social worker in Germany - under her true name, Bertha Pappenheim.

Chapter 7 : Dictionary of Psychology - Oxford Reference

Motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides, and maintains goal-oriented behaviors. Motivation is what causes you to act, whether it is getting a glass of water to reduce thirst or reading a book to gain knowledge.

Motivational salience Motivation as a desire to perform an action is usually defined as having two parts, directional such as directed towards a positive stimulus or away from a negative one, as well as the activated "seeking phase" and consummatory "liking phase". This type of motivation has neurobiological roots in the basal ganglia , and mesolimbic, dopaminergic pathways. Activated "seeking" behavior, such as locomotor activity, is influenced by dopaminergic drugs, and microdialysis experiments reveal that dopamine is released during the anticipation of a reward. Opioid injections in this area produce pleasure, however outside of these hedonic hotspots they create an increased desire. Dopamine is further implicated in motivation as administration of amphetamine increased the break point in a progressive ratio self-reinforcement schedule. That is, subjects were willing to go to greater lengths e. Each stage of the cycle is composed of many dimensions including attitudes, beliefs, intentions, effort, and withdrawal which can all affect the motivation that an individual experiences. Most psychological theories hold that motivation exists purely within the individual, but socio-cultural theories express motivation as an outcome of participation in actions and activities within the cultural context of social groups. These fundamental requirements include food, rest, shelter, and exercise. The next set of needs is social, which refers to the desire for acceptance, affiliation, reciprocal friendships and love. As such, the natural system of management assumes that close-knit work teams are productive. The second type of needs deals with reputation, status, recognition, and respect from colleagues. This differs from the rational system, which assumes that people prefer routine and security to creativity. Self-management through teamwork[edit] To successfully manage and motivate employees, the natural system posits that being part of a group is necessary. As a result, individual employees have lost their sense of stability and security, which can be provided by a membership in a group. However, if teams continuously change within jobs, then employees feel anxious, empty, and irrational and become harder to work with. Wage incentives[edit] Humans are motivated by additional factors besides wage incentives. For instance, the straight piecework system pays employees based on each unit of their output. Based on studies such as the Bank Wiring Observation Room, using a piece rate incentive system does not lead to higher production. However, recent research on satisficing for example has significantly undermined the idea of homo economicus or of perfect rationality in favour of a more bounded rationality. The field of behavioural economics is particularly concerned with the limits of rationality in economic agents. Flow psychology and Ikigai Intrinsic motivation has been studied since the early s. The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behavior. In these studies, it was evident that the organisms would engage in playful and curiosity-driven behaviors in the absence of reward. Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivational tendency and is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development. The employee has the intrinsic motivation to gain more knowledge. Traditionally, researchers thought of motivations to use computer systems to be primarily driven by extrinsic purposes; however, many modern systems have their use driven primarily by intrinsic motivations. Even traditional management information systems e. Not only can intrinsic motivation be used in a personal setting, but it can also be implemented and utilized in a social environment. For example, Eli, a 4-year-old with autism, wants to achieve the goal of playing with a toy train [21]. To get the toy, he must first communicate to his therapist that he wants it. His desire to play is strong enough to be considered intrinsic motivation because it is a natural feeling, and his desire to communicate with his therapist to get the train can be considered extrinsic motivation because the outside object is a reward see incentive theory. Communicating with the therapist is the first, slightly more challenging goal that stands in the way of achieving his larger goal of playing with the train. Achieving these goals in attainable pieces is also known as the goal-setting theory. Intrinsic motivation can be long-lasting and self-sustaining. Efforts to build this kind of motivation are also typically efforts at promoting student learning. Such efforts often focus on the subject rather than rewards or punishments. Efforts at

fostering intrinsic motivation can be slow to affect behavior and can require special and lengthy preparation. Students are individuals, so a variety of approaches may be needed to motivate different students. Also, it helps if the instructor is interested in the subject. Goal orientation Extrinsic motivation comes from influences outside of the individual. In extrinsic motivation, the harder question to answer is where do people get the motivation to carry out and continue to push with persistence. Competition is an extrinsic motivator because it encourages the performer to win and to beat others, not simply to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. A cheering crowd and the desire to win a trophy are also extrinsic incentives. While intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, extrinsic motivation, refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which is doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, instead of for its instrumental value. In one study demonstrating this effect, children who expected to be and were rewarded with a ribbon and a gold star for drawing pictures spent less time playing with the drawing materials in subsequent observations than children who were assigned to an unexpected reward condition. Flow in the context of motivation can be seen as an activity that is not too hard, frustrating or madding, or to easy boring and done too fast. If one has achieved perfect flow, then the activity has reached maximum potential. Positive psychology looks into what makes a person happy. Flow can be considered as achieving happiness or at the least positive feelings. A study that was published in the journal Emotion looked at flow experienced in college students playing Tetris. The students that they were being evaluated on looks then told to wait and play Tetris. There were three categories; Easy, normal, and hard. The students that played Tetris on normal level experienced flow and were less stressed about the evaluation. This can b seen as someone who likes to run for the sheer joy of running and not because they need to do it for exercise or because they want to brag about it. Peek flow can be different for each person. It could take and individual years to reach flow or only moments. If an individual becomes too good at an activity they can become board. If the challenge becomes too hard then the individual could become discouraged and want to quit. In the view of behaviorism, motivation is understood as a question about what factors cause, prevent, or withhold various behaviors, while the question of, for instance, conscious motives would be ignored. Where others would speculate about such things as values, drives, or needs, that may not be observed directly, behaviorists are interested in the observable variables that affect the type, intensity, frequency and duration of observable behavior. Through the basic research of such scientists as Pavlov , Watson and Skinner , several basic mechanisms that govern behavior have been identified. The most important of these are classical conditioning and operant conditioning. Classical and operant conditioning[edit] Main article: Motivational salience In classical or respondent conditioning , behavior is understood as responses triggered by certain environmental or physical stimuli. They can be unconditioned, such as in-born reflexes, or learned through the pairing of an unconditioned stimulus with a different stimulus, which then becomes a conditioned stimulus. In relation to motivation, classical conditioning might be seen as one explanation as to why an individual performs certain responses and behaviors in certain situations. In operant conditioning , the type and frequency of behavior is determined mainly by its consequences. If a certain behavior, in the presence of a certain stimulus, is followed by a desirable consequence a reinforcer , the emitted behavior will increase in frequency in the future, in the presence of the stimulus that preceded the behavior or a similar one. Conversely, if the behavior is followed by something undesirable a punisher , the behavior is less likely to occur in the presence of the stimulus. In a similar manner, removal of a stimulus directly following the behavior might either increase or decrease the frequency of that behavior in the future negative reinforcement or punishment. If a student starts to cause trouble in class gets punished with something he or she dislikes, such as detention positive punishment , that behavior would decrease in the future. The student might seem more motivated to behave in class, presumably in order to avoid further detention negative reinforcement. The strength of reinforcement or punishment is dependent on schedule and timing. A reinforcer or punisher affects the future frequency of a behavior most strongly if it occurs within seconds of the behavior. A behavior that is reinforced intermittently, at unpredictable intervals, will be more robust and persistent, compared to one that is reinforced every time the behavior is performed. In addition to these basic principles, environmental stimuli also affect behavior.

Behavior is punished or reinforced in the context of whatever stimuli were present just before the behavior was performed, which means that a particular behavior might not be affected in every environmental context, or situation, after it is punished or reinforced in one specific context. The various mechanisms of operant conditioning may be used to understand the motivation for various behaviors by examining what happens just after the behavior the consequence , in what context the behavior is performed or not performed the antecedent , and under what circumstances motivating operators. The most common incentive would be a compensation. Compensation can be tangible or intangible, It helps in motivating the employees in their corporate life, students in academics and inspire to do more and more to achieve profitability in every field. Studies show that if the person receives the reward immediately, the effect is greater, and decreases as delay lengthens. From this perspective, the concept of distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic forces is irrelevant. Incentive theory in psychology treats motivation and behavior of the individual as they are influenced by beliefs, such as engaging in activities that are expected to be profitable. Incentive theory is promoted by behavioral psychologists, such as B. Incentive theory distinguishes itself from other motivation theories, such as drive theory, in the direction of the motivation. In incentive theory, stimuli "attract" a person towards them, and push them towards the stimulus. In terms of behaviorism, incentive theory involves positive reinforcement: As opposed to in drive theory, which involves negative reinforcement: For example, a person has come to know that if they eat when hungry, it will eliminate that negative feeling of hunger, or if they drink when thirsty, it will eliminate that negative feeling of thirst. In operant conditioning, the function of the reinforcer is to influence future behavior. The presence of a stimulus believed to function as a reinforcer does not according to this terminology explain the current behavior of an organism â€" only previous instances of reinforcement of that behavior in the same or similar situations do. Through the behavior-altering effect of MOs, it is possible to affect current behavior of an individual, giving another piece of the puzzle of motivation. Motivating operations are factors that affect learned behavior in a certain context. MOs have two effects: A common example of this would be food deprivation, which functions as an EO in relation to food: The worker would work hard to try to achieve the raise, and getting the raise would function as an especially strong reinforcer of work behavior. Conversely, a motivating operation that causes a decrease in the effectiveness of a reinforcer, or diminishes a learned behavior related to the reinforcer, functions as an abolishing operation, AO.

Chapter 8 : Motivation - Wikipedia

Psychology Definition of UNCONSCIOUS MOTIVATION: with regard to psychoanalytic theory, desires, urges, intentions, and motivators of which the self isn't conscious of.

He believed that dreams were wish fulfilling, meaning that in our dreams we act out unconscious desires Eder, First the manifest content which is the description of the dream as recalled by the dreamer Eder, For example if you dreamed about coming to school naked, the manifest content is your nudity, the school, the other people around you, and so on. The second was the latent content, which is the unconscious meaning of the manifest literal content Eder, Freud considered that even during sleep, our egos protected us from the material in our unconscious minds by presenting our repressed desires in the forms of symbols. Therefore, coming to school naked would represent a symbol for some kind of repressesd matter Eder, In more detail, Freud felt that the manifest content was not a true portrayal of the unconscious mind. He felt that skilled interpretation was often necessary to get to the real meaning of a dream. And that most symbols of dreams had a personal meaning for the dreamer and even identified many commonly occurring dream symbols. Freud believed that different styles of thinking were associated with different levels of consciousness Francher, For Freud, dreams demonstrate the activity by the way in which events are often oblivious to the categories of time and space or extreme contradiction Jacobs, Primary process thinking differs from conscious thinking in two ways. First, it is under the influence of the pleasure principle rather than the reality principle, and therefore, will choose objects according to what it thinks will give the most pleasure without regard to the availability or appropriateness of these objects in reality Jacobs, The infantile mind, the primitive mid, and the existence of dreams are all aspects of the primary processes Jacobs, The pleasure principle is the urge to have our desires met. This is not an active urge to seek pleasure, but rather an instinct or impulse to avoid displeasure, distress, or pain Eder, It is about preserving a balance within. Secondary process thinking is under the surveillance of the reality principles Francher, Their aim is also to produce pleasure, or more commonly, reduce displeasure Francher, The secondary processes are governed by reason and follow the pattern of logical thinking, they recognise temporal and spatial relationships and represent the function of the ego Francher, Secondary process thinking is characteristic of conscious and preconscious thought. Freud , suggests, that the pleasure principle is a primitive, innate instinct that drives our behaviour while the reality principle is learnt as we develop. However, it is disguised in such a way that it does not offend the ego and wake the sleeper. When participants were given emotionally threatening words their anxiety levels intensified. However, when participants were shown non threatening words, anxiety levels stayed neutral. Erdelyi, suggests this may validate the notion that subliminal stimuli influence unconscious behaviour. To Reason, the unconscious is more about automatic mental processes rather than a dynamic unconscious. Evidence of Dream Content Current research by Solms, on the neuropsychology of dreaming, demonstrates that may be an activation of desires and emotional mechanisms in the brain that initiate dreaming. He found that the manifest content of dreams were projected onto perceptual areas in the brain. Sigmund Freud , G. Stanley Hall , Jung; back row: These disagreements represented basic problems within the theoretical aspects of the psychodynamic approach. While Freud was still alive he dominated psychoanalysis, and those that disagreed with him were forced to set up separate institutes. Adler - developed a theory called individual psychology. To compensate for this, humans strive for superiority. Jung - developed a model of the personality he called the psyche. Jung argued that behaviour was motivated by our future goals as well as by our past experiences Jung, According to Jung, mental illness was caused by an imbalance in the psyche. Jung believed in a collective unconscious that lies deep within the psyche and a personal unconscious that is next to the ego and contains all our personal experiences that have been blocked from awareness because they are unacceptable in nature. He believed these instinctoid tendencies were weak and easily over come by negative environmental influences. From his observations, he described two distinct systems. The first were deficiency motives, which are basic needs that people are driven to fulfil e. Maslow suggested that these were unique to each individual and gained intensity as they were being met. There are two distinct differences between these concepts; deficiency motives are seen

to ensure our survival, while growth needs represent a higher level of functioning that can result in a person becoming happier, healthier, and more fulfilled Maslow, This hierarchy consisted of five basic needs. Once the physiological needs are satisfied we move on to the next step in the hierarchy Malsow, Safety Needs - these are the need for security, safety, and the need for law-abiding communities and a sense of order. Maslow alleged that the safety needs can clearly be observed in infants and young children when they are upset or scared. Belongingness and Love Needs - Once our physiological and safety needs are meet, Maslow suggests that we long for belongingness and love Maslow, Within the hierarchy Maslow defined two different types of love: D-love is the love we seek to meet the emptiness inside ourselves. Once our basic need for D-love has been meet than we move on to B-love, which is, the need for love and belongingness?? The first is based on our need to see ourselves as competent, achieving individuals. The second is the need for esteem based on the evaluation of others. This is the need for respect and admiration from other people around us Maslow, The Need for Self-Actualisation - The highest level of needs is for self-actualisation. He suggests the needs of self-actualisers are qualitatively different; he describes them as metaneeds Maslow, Metaneeds are, being concerned with higher aesthetic and moral values such as beauty, truth, justice, and ethics. Maslow also states, that not many individuals will achieve self-actualisation but many will strive to do so Maslow, Drive Theory - This theory is based on the notion that humans are born with certain physiological needs. However if these needs are not being satisfied it creates a negative state in which the individual feels anxiety or tension Zajonc, Freud believed the psyche was torn between the Eros which seeks wholeness through ever increasing unifications and Thanatos that wishes to achieve wholeness by breaking things apart until the absolutely simple is attained. An internal attribution is any rationalization that occurs internally or within a person. References[edit] Archard, D. Consciousness and the unconscious. Open Court, Non-conscious activation and pursuits of behavioural goals. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81, Psychoanalysis for beginners By Sigmund Freud. The interpretation of dreams. Reprint by Kessinger Publishing, Preparing and motivating behaviour outside of awareness. Journal of Unconscious Motivation, , Sage Publications Ptd, The act of creation. Toward a psychology of being. Habit and intention in everyday life: The multiple processes by which past behaviour predicts future behaviour. The Freudian slip revisited. The psychologist, 13, Another look at the sports pages. The reports of my death are greatly exaggerated. The Psychologist, 13, Life, the brain, and unconsciousness: New perceptions through targeted systems analysis. Elsevire Science Publishers, The scientific status of the unconscious processes: Journal of American Psychology, 47,

Chapter 9 : Psychoanalysis - Personality theory, Psychoanalytic therapy

Motivation is an area of psychology that has gotten a great deal of attention, especially in the recent years. The reason is because we all want to be successful, we all want direction and drive, and we all want to be seen as motivated.

There are different views on motivation. These views are explained as theories of motivation. The theories of motivation, try to provide general sets of principles to guide our understanding of the urges, wants, needs, desires, strivings and goals that come under the heading motivation. This is also called as theory of homeostasis. Claud Bernard coined the word homeostasis to explain the state of equilibrium in the body. Maintenance of optimal level leads to equilibrium which gives pleasure. Disequilibrium leads to displeasure. Hence, every individual strives to avoid disequilibrium by maintaining optimal level of the needs like food, water, body temperature, etc. This theory which has been explained by Sigmund Freud, deals with unconscious motivation. According to Freud, the inborn tendencies called instincts influence our behaviour. There are two groups of instincts with opposite nature: Freud has emphasised that the unconscious motives play more dominant role in determining our behaviour, than conscious or preconscious. He pointed that, our actions are determined by our unconscious motives. According to him, our unconscious mannerisms, slips of tongue and pen, phobias are the result of these hidden motives. These hidden motives may also drive the people towards various psychosomatic disorders like chronic headaches, insomnia, gastric troubles, etc. Our motives also appear in the form of dreams according to Freud. This theory believes in striving tendency of the individual for realizing his potentialities, especially creative ones, strengthening self-confidence and attaining the ideal self. There are two important persons related to this theoryâ€" Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Biological motives like hunger, thirst, etc. Safety and security needs protection from external threats c. Love and belongingness needs Affection, warmth, etc. Esteem needs self-esteem, respect, approval, etc. Maslow has explained that every individual struggles to fulfil basic needs first, and then followed by safety, love, esteem and finally actualisation needs. According to him the needs at one level should be satisfied at least partially, before the next level needs become active. Most of the people end their struggle to reach third or fourth level needs. Only a few will aspire for self-actualisation which is the ultimate goal of life. Self-actualisation means becoming everything one is capable of, or becoming what he can, that is, fulfillment of his basic potentialities. Carl Rogers, as a humanist believes in the strength and potentialities of human beings. According to him all human beings have a natural inclination for learning and a desire to grow and progress known as self-actualizing tendency. Every individual will strive to realise his potentialities and to grow to become a fully functioning person. Hence in the view of Rogers, the motivation for self-growth and becoming a fully functioning person are important concepts.