

Chapter 1 : The Observer is the Observed – Osho – Sat Sangha Salon

verb (used with object), ob-served, ob-serv-ing. to see, watch, perceive, or notice: He observed the passersby in the street. to regard with attention, especially so as to see or learn something: I want you to observe her reaction to the judge's question.

Thornberry and Marvin D. Krohn There are three basic ways to measure criminal behavior on a large scale. The oldest method is to rely on official data collected by criminal justice agencies, such as data on arrests or convictions. The other two rely on social surveys. In one case, individuals are asked if they have been victims of crime; in the other, they are asked to self-report their own criminal activity. This paper reviews the history of the third method—self-report surveys—assesses its validity and reliability, and compares results based on this approach to those based on official data. The role of the self-report method in the longitudinal study of criminal careers is also examined. This method of data collection is used extensively both in the United States and abroad Klein, Because of its common use, we often lose sight of the important impact that self-report studies have had on the study of the distribution and patterns of crime and delinquency, the etiological This study was supported by the National Consortium on Violence Research. Page 44 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Measurement Problems in Criminal Justice Research: The National Academies Press. Thus, prison data are less useful than court or police data as a measure of actual delinquent or criminal behavior. Moreover, the reactions of the juvenile and criminal justice systems often rely on information from victims or witnesses of crime. It does not take an expert on crime to recognize that a substantial amount of crime is not reported and, if reported, is not officially recorded. Thus, reliance on official sources introduces a number of layers of potential bias between the actual behavior and the data. Yet, through the first half of the twentieth century, our understanding of the behavior of criminals and those who reacted to crime was based almost entirely on official data. While researchers were aware of many of these limitations, the dilemma they faced was how to obtain valid information on crime that was closer to the source of the behavior. Observing the behavior taking place would be one method of doing so, but given the illegal nature of the behavior and the potential consequences if caught committing the behavior, participants in crime are reluctant to have their behavior observed. Even when observational studies have been conducted—for example, gang studies e. Hence, observational studies had limited utility in describing the distribution and patterns of criminal behavior. If one could not observe the behavior taking place, self-reports of delinquent and criminal behavior would be the data source nearest to the actual behavior. There was great skepticism, however, about whether respondents would be willing to tell researchers about their participation in illegal behaviors. Early studies Porterfield, ; Wallerstein and Wylie, found that not only were respondents willing to self-report their delinquency and criminal behavior, they did so in surprising numbers. Since those very early studies, the self-report methodology has become much more sophisticated in design, making it more reliable and valid and extending its applicability to myriad issues. Much work has been done to improve the reliability and validity of self-reports, including the introduction of specialized techniques intended to enhance the quality of self-report data. These developments have made self-report studies an integral part of the way crime and delinquency are studied. Although the self-report method began with the contributions of Page 45 Share Cite Suggested Citation: A item list of criminal and antisocial behaviors was used to measure delinquency, although in most of their analyses a scale comprised of a subset of only seven items was employed. The failure to find a relationship between social status and delinquency served at once to question extant theories built on the assumption that an inverse relationship did in fact exist and to suggest that the juvenile justice system may be using extra-legal factors in making decisions concerning juveniles who misbehave. A number of studies in the late s and early s used self-reports to examine the relationship between social status and delinquent behavior Akers, ; Clark and Wenninger, ; Dentler and Monroe, ; Empey and Erickson, ; Erickson and Empey, ; Gold, ; Reiss and Rhodes, ; Slocum and Stone, ; Vaz, ; Voss, These studies advanced the use of the self-report method by applying it to different, more ethnically diverse populations Clark and Wenninger, ; Gold, ; Voss, , attending to issues concerning validity and reliability Clark and Tifft, ; Dentler and Monroe, ; Gold, , and

constructing measures of delinquency that specifically addressed issues regarding offense seriousness and frequency Gold, These studies found that, while most juveniles engaged in some delinquency, relatively few committed serious delinquency repetitively. With few exceptions, these studies supported the general conclusion that, if there were any statistically significant relationship between measures of social status and self-reported delinquent behavior, it was weak and clearly did not mirror the findings of studies using official data sources. Page 46 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Theoretically interesting issues concerning the family Dentler and Monroe, ; Gold, ; Nye et al. The use of self-report studies to examine theoretical issues continued throughout the s. Another development during this period was the introduction of national surveys on delinquency and drug use. Williams and Gold conducted the first nationwide survey, with a probability sample of boys and girls 13 to 16 years old. Monitoring the Future Johnston et al. It began as an in-school survey of a nationally representative sample of high school seniors and was expanded to include eighth- and tenth-grade students. The NYS began in by surveying a national probability sample of 1, youth ages 11 through The survey design was sensitive to a number of methodological deficiencies of prior self-report studies and has been greatly instrumental in improving the self-report method. The NYS is also noteworthy because it is a panel design, having followed the original respondents into their thirties. Despite the expanding applications of this methodology, questions remained about what self-report instruments measure. The discrepancy in findings regarding the relationship between social status and delinquency Page 47 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Early on, self-reports came under heavy criticism on a number of counts, including the selection of respondents and the selection of delinquency items. The burst of energy devoted to self-report studies of delinquency has apparently been exhausted. This work constituted a criminological fad that has waned, probably because such studies have not fulfilled their early promise. Two studies were particularly instrumental at that time in pointing to flaws in self-report measures. Hindelang and colleagues illustrated the problems encountered when comparing the results from studies using self-reports and those using official data or victimization data by comparing characteristics of offenders across the three data sources. They observed more similarity in those characteristics between victimization and Uniform Crime Reports data than between self-report data and the other two sources. They argued that self-report instruments did not include the more serious crimes for which people are arrested and that are included in victimization surveys. Thus, self-reports tap a different, less serious domain of behaviors than either of the other two sources, and discrepancies in observed relationships when using self-reports should not be surprising. The differential domain of crime tapped by early self-report measures could also explain the discrepancy in findings regarding the association between social status and delinquency. Elliott and Ageton also explored the methodological shortcomings of self-reports. They observed that a relatively small number of youth commit a disproportionate number of serious offenses. However, most early self-report instruments failed to include serious offenses in the inventory and truncated the response categories for the frequency of offenses. In addition, many of the samples did not include enough high-rate offenders to clearly distinguish them from other delinquents. By allowing respondents to report the number of delinquent acts they committed rather than specifying an upper limit e. They also suggested a number of changes in the way in which self-report data are measured, so that the data reflect the fact that some offenders contribute disproportionately to the rate of serious and violent delinquent acts. The development of instruments to better measure serious offenses and the suggestion to acquire data from high-rate offenders coincided with a substantive change in the s in the focus of much criminology work on the etiology of offenders. The self-report methodology continues to advance in terms of both its application to new substantive areas and the improvement of its design. Rather, with improvements in question design, administration technique, reliability and validity, and sample selection, this technique is being used in the most innovative research on crime and delinquency. The sections that follow describe the key methodological developments that have made such applications possible. Considerable attention has been paid to the development and improvement of their psychometric properties. The most sophisticated and influential work was done by Elliott and colleagues Elliott and Ageton, ; Elliott et al. From their work a set of characteristics for acceptable i. Five of the most salient of these characteristics are the inclusion of 1 a wide array of offenses, including serious offenses; 2 frequency response sets; 3 Page 49 Share Cite Suggested

Citation: Each is discussed below. The domain of crime covers a wide range of behaviors, from petty theft to aggravated assault and homicide. If the general domain of delinquent and criminal behavior is to be represented in a self-report scale, it is necessary for the scale to cover that same wide array of human activity. Simply asking about a handful of these behaviors does not accurately represent the theoretical construct of crime. In addition, empirical evidence suggests that crime does not have a clear unidimensional structure that would facilitate the sampling of a small number of items from a theoretically large pool to adequately represent the entire domain. These considerations suggest that an adequate self-report scale for delinquency will be relatively lengthy. Many individual items are required to represent the entire domain of delinquent behavior, to represent each of its subdomains, and to ensure that each subdomain e. In particular, it is essential that a general self-reported delinquency scale tap serious as well as less serious behaviors. Early self-report scales tended to ignore serious criminal and delinquent events and concentrated almost exclusively on minor forms of delinquency. Failure to include serious offenses misrepresents the domain of delinquency and contaminates comparisons with other data sources. In addition, it misrepresents the dependent variable of many delinquency theories e. Many early self-report studies relied on response sets with a relatively small number of categories, thus tending to censor high-frequency responses. Self-report questions have a tendency to elicit reports of trivial acts that are very unlikely to elicit official reactions and even acts that are not violations of the law. This occurs more frequently with the less serious offenses but also plagues responses to serious Page 50 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Some effort must be made to adjust or censor the data to remove these events if the delinquency of the subjects is to be reflected properly and if the rank order of subjects with respect to delinquency is to be portrayed properly. Two strategies are generally available. First, one can ask a series of follow-up questions designed to elicit more information about an event, such as the value of stolen property, the extent of injury to the victim, and the like. Second, one can use an open-ended question asking the respondent to describe the event and then probe to obtain the information necessary to classify the act. Both strategies have been used with some success. With increasing emphasis on the study of crime across the entire life course, self-report surveys have had to be developed to take into account both the deviant behavior of very young children and the criminal behavior of older adults. The behavioral manifestations of illegal behaviors or the precursors of such behavior can change depending on the stage in the life course at which the assessment takes place. For the very young child, measures have been developed that are administered to parents to assess antisocial behavior such as noncompliance, disobedience, and aggression Achenbach, For the school-age child, Loeber and colleagues have developed a checklist that expands the range of antisocial behaviors to include such behaviors as stubbornness, lying, bullying, and other externalizing problems. There has been less development of instruments targeted at adults. Weitekamp has criticized self-report studies for being primarily concerned with the adolescent years and simply using the same items for adults. This is particularly crucial given the concern over the small but very significant problem of chronic violent offenders. Perhaps the most significant development in the application of the self-report methodology is its use in following the same subjects over time in order to account for changes in their criminal behavior. This has enabled researchers to examine the effect of age of onset, to track the careers of offenders, to study desistance, and to apply developmental theories to study both the causes and consequences of criminal behavior over the life course. Page 51 Share Cite Suggested Citation: In addition to concern over construct continuity in applying the technique to different-aged respondents, researchers need to consider the possibility of panel or testing effects.

A new study indicates that our brains perceive objects in everyday life of which we may never be aware. The finding challenges currently accepted models about how the brain processes visual information.

Figure demonstrates the predictive power of the ADL scores¹ which characterize people along a continuum rather than a simple dichotomy. The likelihood of dying over the 5-year follow-up period shows a generally monotonic increase with ADL score, whether self-reported or observed. Furthermore, the two measures appear to capture slightly different mortality trajectories. It may be that individuals recognize the level or change in level more acutely than can be picked up on the kinds of measures that went into the observed ADL score. Observed ADL scores may capture extreme levels of poor health better: Proportion dying by self-reported and observed ADL scores. Multivariate Models We turn to multivariate models of mortality to address several questions. First, which indicator adds greatest explanatory power when age and sex are taken into account? Second, does the predictive power of these health measures differ for older and younger adults? Initial models predicting the odds of dying are shown in Table for the total sample of person-years, person-years for which the individual was under 50 at the start of the year, and person-years for which the individual was 50 or over at the start. The first line reports on the model in which age is the only predictor. Interestingly, age is not a significant predictor of mortality in adults under 50. Adding sex does not significantly improve the predictive power of the model, as shown in line 2. Therefore, once age-in-years is in the model, no sex difference is detected. The remaining lines show the improvement in pseudo-R² when a single health indicator is added. For total person-years, SRH adds. In all three models, poor SRH is significantly associated with increased subsequent mortality. A much larger coefficient is estimated for the young subsample of person-years, in which there is a low baseline level of mortality. The yearly probability of dying for this subsample is 0. This is a large effect, especially considering that it results from a single question. While each indicator is significant in the total and age 50 and over models, only the self-reports² whether of general health or ADLs or major disease³ add predictive power for younger people. Stepwise regressions were carried out Table in which age and sex were entered first and then health indicators entered in the order of the magnitude of their additional predictive power. The index of major disease did not enter at all. For the under subsample, only self-reported ADLs served to predict mortality, whereas for those over 50, all indicators except major disease increased the fit to the data. Finally, the complete models, in which age, sex, and the four indicators that were significant in any of the Table models are included, are shown in Table. For the total person-years and over models, mortality increases significantly with age, with each additional year associated with a percent increase in the odds of dying. Controlling for age and health, the odds of dying for a woman in the same samples are less than half. This disjunction between sex differences in health and mortality introduces the possibility that, as in other studies, women may overreport poor health and greater disability. If this were the case, the inclusion of interactions between sex and each of the significant health measures included in Table would show significant negative interactions between health measures and the female main effect, indicating that the health measure was a worse predictor of health for women. The effects do not even approach significance, and these results do not change when nonsignificant interaction terms for sex and observed health measures are dropped models not shown. This result holds in rare events logistic regression models and probit regression models, both of which also apply the very realistic assumption that mortality risks are multiplicative in nature, not additive. These models were also run using a linear probability model in order to estimate the size of interaction effects if mortality risks were indeed additive. Interactions between sex and SRH were found to be highly nonsignificant in these models as well. Discussion This analysis demonstrates both the multidimensional nature of the relatively simple and low-cost health measures in the MHSS and their substantial value and validity in a low-income setting such as Bangladesh. We believe this is the only study to examine subsequent mortality in relation to these multiple measures of health. Each measure is a significant predictor of subsequent mortality, particularly for elders. With the exception of major disease, each appears to capture, at least in part, a different dimension of health from the others. These findings support the notion that individuals

can effectively assess their own health status even in settings of poor education and low levels of interaction with modern health systems. Furthermore, the measures seem equally appropriate for men and women. The higher age-specific prevalence of poor health, whether reported or observed, among women does not appear to result from their overreporting poor health compared with men. The proportional increase of mortality for those whose health was poor versus not poor, whichever the health measure used, did not differ for women and men. At the same level of health, women had lower mortality risks than men; however, these lower risks were combined with much higher rates of poor health. These differences countered one another; as a result, we found no sex differences in overall age-adjusted mortality. Objective health measures are frequently assumed to be superior to self-reports because they minimize concerns over reporting bias and international comparability. We find, however, that they are not necessarily better predictors of mortality. The self-reported and observed measures were similar in predicting mortality at older ages, while self-reports were the only significant predictors of mortality at younger ages. The marginal time and financial costs of collecting each measure vary substantially. Cost estimates based on the MHSS are given in Table , along with the improvement in mortality prediction found when each health measure was added to the model based on age and sex repeated from Table For comparison, we consider the high expected costs of drawing and analyzing a blood sample. For the second round of the MHSS, we have proposed a battery of seven biomarker analyses. Self-reported measures take less survey time than observational tests or drawing a blood sample and incur no additional capital costs; in addition, they can be collected by less skilled interviewers. The observed indicators cost at least 2. The current cost of collecting biomarkers is extremely high, but is likely to decrease in the future for two reasons. First, as collection is standardized, less expensive technology may be developed. Second, with continuing research, a small set of essential indicators is likely to be agreed upon. These results raise questions regarding a minimal set of survey-based health measures that ensures precision and accordance with international standards. In fact, it predicts mortality better than a number of more complex health indicators. The self-reported ADL index, the next least expensive indicator to collect, adds even more to the predictive power of our models. This indicator seems to work at least as well, and possibly better, than observed ADLs and anthropometric measures that are far more demanding of resources. However, as for SRH, it is important to ask whether self-reported ADLs produce results that are truly comparable across different populations and subgroups within populations. The results here indicate they are promising enough to be included in studies in other countries in order to assess their usefulness. The detailed questions on specific conditions that went into the major disease index were far more complicated to implement than the ADL questions and the index added no explanatory power to the analysis of mortality. It may be that the questions on specific conditions are better predictors than the overall index; we plan to address this issue in further analyses of the MHSS. They are not significant for those under It may be that the activities that go into the MHSS ADL index are not sufficiently difficult to detect disabilities that contribute to higher short-term mortality risk in younger adults. Neither the observed ADL index nor BMI picks up the increase in poor health with age for those under 50, especially for females, that is self-reported. In contrast, SRH and the self-reported ADL index increase with age and are significant mortality predictors, perhaps because younger adults recognize change in their own abilities or differences in comparison with peers even when their disabilities do not put them in a range considered unusual by the observer. We suspect that, unless the set of tasks is changed to detect more subtle disability, observed ADL measures for younger adults should be included in survey data collection only as a baseline for longitudinal follow-up rather than as valid health indicators. The four measures discussed here—SRH, self-reported and observed ADLs, and BMI—are strong predictors of survival over the next 5 years in the rural Bangladesh context, although the observed measures work best for elders. They are therefore good markers of general health and the effects of the health system and can be used to examine basic gender and socioeconomic differentials in that society. The high prevalence of poor health based on the self-reports, even at low ages, in Bangladesh makes these measures perhaps even more valuable than they would be in more advanced societies. More importantly, compared with complex measures such as biomarkers or disability adjusted life years, these measures can be obtained more frequently and in much larger samples for the same cost. If resources are especially constrained, it may be possible to restrict the set of

measures collected further and still be able to capture levels, differentials, and trends in overall health over time. Given the urgent need to assess health and track its trends over time in sub-Saharan Africa, we strongly recommend including a range of health indicators in data collection in a way that permits research on indicators in this region. Studies are needed that collect, in selected settings, simple and low-cost health indicators like those examined in this paper; expanded versions of these indicators e. It would also be appropriate to address issues of comparability of measures across population through techniques such as calibrating vignettes. This research would be most informative if carried out where it is possible to follow respondents for some period of time to observe survival outcomes. The expected outcomes of this research include Identification of measures that provide valid information on prevalence of specific conditions or diseases and those which provide information on overall health. Estimates of costs and difficulties of collecting each indicator. Cost-benefit analyses, which would help investigators decide on the package of indicators to be included in future data collection. Its Demographic Surveillance System sites offer crucial advantages. Since the sites carry out continuous longitudinal follow-up of large populations, they provide data on mortality trends prior to collection of the health measures. A set of health indicators measured in a one-time survey would contribute to the assessment of measures described in this paper. INDEPTH sites routinely collect the follow-up data needed to study relationships of health measures to subsequent mortality. In addition, if these measures were included periodically in subsequent DSS rounds, their sensitivity to trends and emerging differentials in health could be assessed. The issue of comparability between populations could be addressed in two ways for which DSS sites are again especially appropriate. Following the work on vignettes see Salomon et al. These vignettes could be extended to include ADLs as well as other aspects of health for which self-reports are collected. In addition, mortality prediction across sites could be analyzed to determine if, as for men and women in Bangladesh, the increase in the odds of mortality for those in poor health as measured by a specific indicator is the same across countries. Development of low-cost and informative health status modules could be guided by this research. They could be regularly included in DSS data collection rounds, providing valuable comparable information across sites on health levels and trends over time. These modules could also be included in standalone surveys covering larger geographic areas. Nationally representative surveys could then provide the basis for comparative studies of countries, with data from INDEPTH sites providing greater detail and longitudinal validation. In addition to tracking changes in health over time in defined populations, DSS sites have demonstrated they are ideal settings for conducting and evaluating health and social interventions intended to improve health either directly e. They offer well-established sampling frames with regular follow-up so that program and control groups can be established and compared over time. Regular observation of simple health measures can provide a baseline for assessing differences between experimental and control groups, and follow-up information for assessing the long-term impact of interventions on comparable health status measures. Finally, such measures facilitate analysis of the health effects of unexpected economic or political crises and other changing social or health patterns. For these reasons, further research on the promising set of simple indicators evaluated here for one developing country setting and on the more detailed and expensive measures discussed here is an essential part of a research agenda on aging in Africa. Mind body and culture:

Chapter 3 : The Self /and/ The Observer? | Yahoo Answers

This is a long-overdue post to warn the reader that all previous posts were written during a period of my life that I now refer to as my Spiritual Bypass Phase.

The statement is as extraordinary as J. It is difficult to understand it only intellectually, because the way of the intellect is dialectical, dualistic. On the path of intellect the subject can never be the object, the seer can never be the seen. The observer cannot be the observed. As far as intellect is concerned, it is an absurd statement, meaningless – not only meaningless, but insane. The intellectual approach towards reality is that of division: Only then is there a possibility of knowledge between the two. The scientist cannot become science, the scientist has to remain separate from what he is doing. The experimenter is not allowed to become the experiment itself. As far as intellect is concerned, logic is concerned, it looks absolutely valid. But there is a knowledge that passeth understanding, there is a knowing that goes beyond science. Only because that kind of knowing which goes beyond science is possible, is mysticism possible, is religiousness possible. Let us move from a different direction. Science divides the whole of human experience and existence into two parts: That which is known today was unknown yesterday. That which is unknown today may become known tomorrow, so the distance is not impossible, unbridgeable. In other words, as he knows more, the area of the unknown becomes less and the area of the known becomes bigger. If we follow this logic, the ultimate result will be that one day there will be nothing left as unknown. Slowly, slowly, the unknown will change into the known, and the moment will come when there is nothing left as unknown. That is the goal of science, to destroy ignorance – but to destroy ignorance means to destroy all possibilities of exploration, all possibilities of the unknown challenging you to move forward. The destruction of ignorance means the death of all intelligence, because there will be no need for intelligence anymore. It will be simply something which was useful in the past – you can put it in a museum – but it is of no use anymore. This is not a very exciting picture. Mysticism does not agree with science, it goes beyond it. According to mysticism, existence and experience is divided into three parts: The known was unknown one day, the unknown will become known one day, but the unknowable will remain unknowable; it will remain mysterious. Whatever you do, the mystery will always surround existence. The mystery will always be there around life, around love, around meditation. The mystery cannot be destroyed. Ignorance can be destroyed, but by destroying ignorance you cannot destroy the miraculous, the mysterious. I have been telling you that as you meditate – and by meditation I simply mean as you become more and more aware of your mind process. If the mind process is one hundred percent, taking your whole energy, you will be fast asleep inside – there will be no alertness. One morning Gautam Buddha is talking to his disciples. The king, Prasenjita, has also come to listen to him; he is sitting just in front of Buddha. He is not accustomed to sitting on the floor – he is a king – so he is feeling uncomfortable, fidgety, changing sides, somehow trying not to disturb and not to be noticed by Buddha because he is not sitting silently, peacefully. He is continuously moving the big toe of his foot, for no reason, just to be busy without business. There are people who cannot be without business; they will still be busy. You are doing a thousand and one things you are not aware of. Unless somebody points at them, you may not take any note of it. The moment Buddha asked him, the toe stopped moving. This much I know: I have not done anything – neither was I moving it, nor have I stopped it. The toe belongs to the man. It moves, but he is not aware of its movement. And the moment he becomes aware – because I asked the question – the very awareness immediately stops the toe. He does not stop it. Meditation means to watch the movement of thoughts in the mind. Just be an observer, as if you are standing by the side of the road watching the traffic – no judgment, no evaluation, no condemnation, no appreciation – just pure observation. As you become more and more accustomed to observation, a strange phenomenon starts happening. If you are ten percent aware, that much energy has moved from the mind process to the observer; now the mind has only ninety percent energy available. A moment comes – you have fifty percent of energy. And your energy goes on growing as mind goes on losing its energy. The traffic becomes less and less and less, and you become more and more and more. Your witnessing self goes on increasing in integrity, expanding; it becomes stronger and stronger. And the mind

goes on becoming weaker and weaker: One hundred percent observer and the mind disappears, the road is empty; the screen of the mind becomes completely empty, nothing moves. There is only the observer. This is the state J. When there is nothing to observe, when there is only the observer left, then the observer itself becomes the observed " because there is nothing else to observe, what else to do? The knower simply knows itself. The seer sees himself. The energy that was going towards objects, thoughts" there are no thoughts, no objects. The energy has no way to go anywhere; it simply becomes a light unto itself. There is nothing that it lights, it lights only itself " a flame surrounded by silence, surrounded by nothingness. You can call it enlightenment, it is the same thing: You have dissolved the mind. You are alone, fully alert and aware. Krishnamurti is using a phrase of his own. So his whole life, he was coining his own phrases. But you can change only the expression, you cannot change the experience. The experience is eternal. It makes no difference whether somebody calls it enlightenment, somebody calls it nirvana, somebody calls it samadhi, somebody calls it something else. You can give it your own name but remember, the experience should not be changed by your words. And it is not changed by J. It certainly points to the reality, but the words in themselves are not very poetic, are very ordinary. And the extraordinary should not be indicated by the ordinary; that is sacrilegious. So there are many people around the world who have been listening to J. If he were alive I would say something against him, certainly. His whole effort " and he lived long, ninety years " was somehow to prove that he was original in everything, even in expressions. If you are original, you are original. He may not have read them himself; somebody else may have read them, and he must have heard it. He was just nine years old, so he was not telling a lie by saying that he had not read the sacred scriptures; but the sacred scriptures were read to him. This reminds me of a milkman. I was a student in the university and he used to come to the hostel with his small son to give milk to the students. And everybody was suspicious that his milk was at least fifty percent water. Already the purest milk is eighty percent water; then fifty percent more". So it is just the name milk, otherwise it is all water. I cannot do this. I can take an oath. I have never mixed water into milk. One day I called him inside my room and closed the door. Just a little dialogue". I have seen you mixing water with my own eyes". I had to miss one morning walk just to hide near your place to see it. Just this morning I have seen it. You are a dangerous man. You can do it to your son but not to my son. Your son is not going to be harmed; truth is truth. My oath is absolutely correct.

The self observed by Morris Golden, , Johns Hopkins Press edition, in English.

Are you sure you want to delete this answer? Yes Sorry, something has gone wrong. We live a realm in which duality stymies realities from evidencing little more than dichotomy; that is the charter of this realm or universe. There is simply nothing in this world, this universe less of dichotomy at its very heart. The observer is paramount to the observed. You emphasize "our reality," which is truly the operative conception to your entire line here. Observation confounds the fruit of observation, yes, and for very exact reason. But the observation and the observed are all we have to go on while part of a universe whose focus is on that of the gross, and whose underpinning is a fleeting dynamic proceeding between any two things. For ours is a world of Mind as well. While fitted with but a mind, we cannot exist outside that very makeup and purpose here -- causation, which implies the call and the response, the drum beat and its subsequent rebound. Atoms can be anything they so want to be: Scientists quelled this esteemed oddity within themselves years ago by labeling the behaviors of atoms as wavicles, about which they are still not satisfied, and rightly so. Atoms are these things and a lot more. To the extent that scientists have discerned what they have, they are certainly proceeding in the right direction They need only continue same, for now this inquire and resolve is no longer a matter of "if" but rather "when. In other words, one shall wish to fine-tune the equippages; devise and incorporate as much a stability as possible because you now step into a world or realm in which all is equivocation and volatility -- outrageously active, in which all occurs at lightning speed, at nanoseconds ahead of the apparent object on which you focus. That is, one is ever looking askew at what one is looking at Thought is composed of atoms, but each is signed in a specially powerful way that they can form, can affect or take hold, and can carry. Thought spawns from the highest state of matter -- the universe of Mind Stuff. And the mind, true to its foundation and integrity, is no more or less than intricately configured atoms, brimming with intelligence, and comprised of those minute things -- the atoms -- designed to carry out the purposes as set for this universe. These atoms do so unswervingly: One cannot breach this, say, strangeness, this oddity, a divine dichotomy, unless he or she can get above it. Yet all innately have access to learn and master it, too. There exists no primadonnas in the universes. Since thought exists at the atomic level, it resonates at the atomic level, at which the atoms all about respond to kindred frequencies, as all frequencies are atomic, and as such so determined and influenced by the signature which have been projected toward them. The idea that "birds of a feather flock together" is appropriate to the nature of atoms as well and in fact is a common thread to all characteristics of this universe; and each other universe has its unique qualities, and do the whole clusters of types of signatures and atoms which abide those unique charters of that respective universe. This is a truth that mantic scientists know well, and have mastered and know to maneuver and manipulate in orderly fashion, and to which material scientists are now coming to grips with -- most fortunately. On the dialoguing with Self, that is a whole other matter, quite entirely. And herein we come to a point at which Science and Faith convene, and which secretly not few cosmogonists, astrophysicists, and ontologists come to agreements with the great Angelic Host. For it would be apt there as well. No such division truly exist, but we must be continually tried, and tested if not duped till we come to the reality of achieving and seeing that all that has ever been and will be, is just what it is.

Chapter 5 : Self-Observation: The Thinker Behind the Thought

The pettishness that might be caressed into fondness, had yielded to a listless apathy; there was less of the peevish temper of a child which frets and teases on purpose to be soothed, and more of the self-absorbed moroseness of a confirmed invalid, repelling consolation, and ready to regard the good-humoured mirth of others as an insult.

Teaching Children the Art of Self-Control Gina Stepp The breathtaking joys of parenthood are inextricably linked to its immense responsibilities. Of the responsibilities parents tacitly accept when they bring a child into the world, perhaps the most important is teaching how to regulate thoughts, emotions and behavior. Children who reach adolescence without developing this ability are more likely to fail academically, exhibit aggressive behavior, abuse substances, engage in high-risk sexual behavior and “as a result of any or all of these” generally experience negative life events. Unfortunately, many parents who struggle in this area themselves are ill-equipped to pass these skills down. Baumeister and Kathleen D. And while the whole story may not be crucial for parents to understand in detail, for context it does help to grasp some basics about how automatic as well as conscious processes of self-regulation work in adults. Likening the process to a muscle that gets tired, the researchers reported that self-regulation seemed to be a limited though renewable resource that could be depleted: But the muscle analogy did not break down there: Fortunately, not all of those tasks require effortful self-control. The most obvious influence on the conversion from effortful control to an automatic response is frequency. When we always respond to a particular situation with a certain behavior without thinking about it, that behavior can be said to be automatic. An example might be nail-biting as an unthinking reaction to anxiety. If it happens often, we may catch ourselves ruining our nails and thereby become aware of the need to react to anxiety in a more positive way. However, when implementation intentions are rehearsed in anticipation of stressful or distracting situations, goal intentions are strengthened. In the early stages, the idea is to link the desired action to a specific trigger. For instance, our dieter would designate a specific if-then intention before a potentially tempting situation “say, going out to a restaurant with friends. She might commit to a specific course of action: It is made possible by emotional bonding during early infancy, stemming from responsive interactions between infants and caregivers. Sensory stimulators such as touch are known to contribute to attachment and emotional self-regulation. The resulting emotional bond directly influences the neuronal pathways instrumental in self-regulation. It is important to recognize that emotions are not only regulated but regulatory. They integrate and organize our mental activity, appraising and making meaning of the stimuli that come in for processing. When appropriately regulated, they equip us to meet the social demands of our world; they force us to notice what motivates those around us “as well as ourselves” and to put that in context. As we pick up cues to the emotional states of others and respond, we become linked in what Siegel refers to as emotional resonance. This attunement, this connecting resonance, enables us to feel joined. Although this kind of connecting between parents and children is important throughout the lifespan, Siegel uses the example of a baby with a wet diaper to describe the ideal in the infancy stage. The parent responds by discovering the source of distress and resolving it. As a result the baby is aware of having been altered by the interaction with the parent and feels a sense of connected well-being. In contrast, when the parent fails to offer the appropriate response, the discomfort continues and the infant remains in a state of distress and isolation. Siegel acknowledges that no parent can achieve the ideal in every circumstance. Developmental psychologist Susan Calkins has also written about the connection between early attachment and emotional self-regulation. She explains that as securely attached infants develop physically, they begin to use their motor capabilities to help regulate their emotional responses. Between three and six months of age they gain the motor skills required to begin taking certain conscious actions. Progressing from simple self-soothing strategies such as sucking or looking away, they may now begin to distract themselves from a stimulus that arouses negative feelings by actively directing their attention toward a more positive or neutral object. If all goes well, by the end of toddlerhood they should be able to respond to and comply with parental directives, and behavioral self-control begins to emerge as a result. Calkins explains that early self-comforting, distraction and help-seeking abilities are critical to the self-regulation skills that follow.

Younger children do not distinguish between emotions, thoughts and actions as effectively as older children, and infants cannot do so at all. Predictably, parents of children who use such strategies tend to exhibit competent self-regulation skills themselves. Compared to other parents, they show more patience and positive guiding behaviors, such as helping children learn to distract themselves in frustrating situations or encouraging them to divert their attention away from a forbidden object. Distraction is an important self-regulatory strategy at this stage, but toddlers do not tend to use it spontaneously. Rather, this and other self-regulatory strategies seem to be learned as a result of positive encouragement from parents. The benefit for toddlers who are able to intentionally refocus their attention early in life is that they are more likely to exercise self-control as they grow, and that this skill remains relatively stable throughout early childhood. Although this stability has led to speculation that self-control may be related to temperament, links between parenting styles and the development of self-control have been well documented, and common sense suggests that parenting styles are also likely to remain fairly stable over time. Developing conscious self-control in preschoolers requires understanding that their ability to restrain their emotions or behaviors may be hampered if they are mentally processing multiple demands. One of the key developmental strides children make during this period includes an increasing motivation to focus on mastering specific goals. While younger children may be content with reaching any semblance of the goal being more interested in the process, in later stages they develop concrete standards of self-appraisal. As they begin to extract pleasure from their successes and disappointment from their failures, they develop motivation for persistence and mastery. However, this motivation can be reduced or eliminated if the child feels controlled in the task. This is an interesting concept in the development of self-regulation in children: Such parenting does not produce self-controlled children. They establish and consistently apply clear standards and boundaries while allowing room for personal expression. Naturally the level of personal expression allowed for children needs to be age-appropriate. Preschoolers, for instance, can easily be allowed to choose between two or three healthy snacks, or to decide what color shirt to wear or which bedtime story to have read. While the human brain remains plastic into adulthood, the roots of self-regulation run deep, and its capacities are thought to be fairly well entrenched by the time this period ends, although age-related changes still occur into preadolescence. During the school years children participate in more activities outside the home, and social and peer relationships have a more direct effect on the development of self-regulation than in earlier years. Having learned during the preschool years that emotions can be triggered by their own thoughts or through the words and actions of others, and armed with a greater ability for abstract thinking, children are now ready to take the next step toward developing mature self-regulation strategies. During this period a toolbox of other self-regulation strategies and skills is also necessary. These include capacities for self-monitoring and self-presentation. They must also learn to assign responsibility and blame in a realistic way. Rather, it can be a strengthening force as children learn to inhibit selfish impulses to benefit others or conform to social rules. In fact, socially oriented people have been found to show more self-regulatory ability than those less social. From their study on this topic, researchers Kathleen D. Vohs and Natalie J. The task of balancing these expectations is complicated by the fact that children essentially function in two societies: Their emotions may be confusing to them as they begin to evaluate themselves through the lenses of both of these influential groups and to establish their moral identity. Parents who remain emotionally attuned to their children are likely to find that it is the standards, values and boundaries they have established that carry the most weight. Adolescence The stability observed in self-regulation levels after middle childhood does not imply that children no longer need guidance in self-regulation. As adults know from personal experience, just because we have the ability and motivation to self-regulate does not mean we always succeed. Interestingly, recent research identifies the ability to delay gratification as an important foundation for reducing risk-taking in adolescents—and they are quite capable of this even though the prefrontal cortex has not yet finished maturing. Consistent with earlier developmental stages, however, adolescents are not likely to accurately receive and internalize the intended messages if parents fail to tune in to their emotional states. Unfortunately, this may be the most common mistake parents make when they press for change in their children. When children and teens come to us for advice, we are tempted to cut to the chase—to immediately give them the benefit of our experience by telling them exactly

what they need to do. This is a sure path toward leaving them feeling misunderstood and isolated. However, when we take the time to connect with teens on an emotional level first, conveying a sense that we genuinely understand why they feel as they do in that situation, we not only reinforce mutual attachment but support appropriate self-regulation. Clearly, whether considering adulthood, adolescence, middle childhood, or any other stage of life, self-regulation and interpersonal connection are entwined in an inseparable circular process. Just as self-regulation grows out of attuned social connection, so the success of our social connections depends to a great degree on our ability to self-regulate. Without question then, the task of connecting appropriately with our children is one of the greatest responsibilities of parenthood. Selected References Roy F. Vohs and Dianne M.

Chapter 6 : The self observed (edition) | Open Library

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Chapter 7 : Observe Synonyms, Observe Antonyms | blog.quintoapp.com

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Chapter 8 : Self-absorbed | Definition of Self-absorbed by Merriam-Webster

Self-Observation: The Thinker Behind the Thought. By Ron Esposito - March In my experience, one of the keys to personal development and ultimately self-understanding is observing how your mind works, what your heart feels and what your body experiences.

Chapter 9 : Self Regulation: Teaching Children The Art of Self-Control

When our self-concept becomes highly accessible because of our concerns about being observed and potentially judged by others, we experience the publicly induced self-awareness known as self-consciousness (Duval & Wicklund, ; Rochat,).