

**PSYCHOPATIC BEHAVIOUR OF MAIN  
CHARACTER IN NOVEL “BERLIN SYNDROME” BY  
MELANIE JOOSTEN**

**REFERENCES**

Submitted to the School of Foreign Language – JIA as a partial fulfilment of requirements for the undergraduate degree in English Literature Programme



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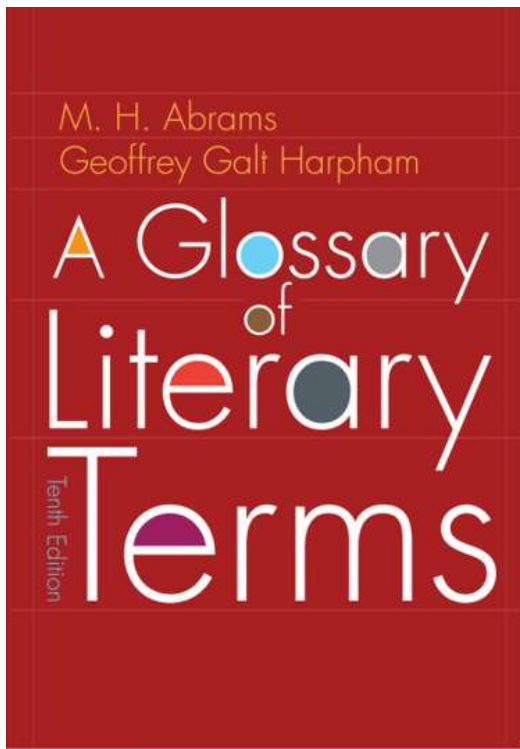
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**48 CHARACTER, THE**

(1926); Wayne C. Booth, *The Rhetoric of Fiction* (1961), especially chapters 1–4; and W. J. Harvey, *Character and the Novel* (1965). On problems in determining dramatic character, see Bert O. States, *The Pleasure of the Play* (1994); and on the disappearance of traditional characterization in postmodern drama, Elinor Fuchs, *The Death of Characters* (1996). On the formal distinction between primary characters (protagonist) and minor characters, see Alex Woloch, *The One vs. the Many: Minor Characters and the Space of the Protagonist in the Novel* (2003). In *The Economy of Character* (1998), Deidre S. Lynch describes the shift, especially in the second half of the eighteenth century, from external signs and actions to subjective states, as an indicator of character.

**character, the (a literary term):** 45.

**characterizing:** 47. See also *distance and involvement; empathy and sympathy*.

**chiasmus** (kī'z' mī'ō): 346.

**Chicago School** (of criticism): 138; 172.

**chivalric romance** (or **medieval romance**) is a type of narrative that developed in twelfth-century France, spread to the literatures of other countries, and displaced the earlier *epic* and heroic forms. ("Romance" originally signified a work written in the French language, which evolved from a dialect of the Roman language, Latin.) Romances were at first written in verse, but later in prose as well. The **romance** is distinguished from the *epic* in that it does not represent a heroic age of tribal wars, but a courtly and chivalric age, often one of highly developed manners and civility. Its standard plot is that of a **quest** undertaken by a single knight in order to gain a lady's favor; frequently its central interest is *courtly love*, together with tournaments fought and dragons and monsters slain for the damsel's sake; it stresses the chivalric ideals of courage, loyalty, honor, meritiveness to an opponent, and elaborate manners; and it delights in wonders and marvels. Supernatural events in the *epic* usually were attributed to the will and actions of the gods; romance shifts the supernatural to this world, and makes much of the mysterious effect of magic, spells, and enchantments.

The recurrent materials of medieval chivalric romances have been divided by scholars into four *clases* of subjects: (1) "The Matter of Britain" (Celtic subject matter, especially stories centering on the court of King Arthur); (2) "The Matter of Rome" (the history and legends of classical antiquity, including the exploits of Alexander the Great and of the heroes of the Trojan War); Geoffrey Chaucer's *Troilus and Criseyde* belongs to this class. (3) "The Matter of France" (Charlemagne and his knights). (4) "The Matter of England" (heroes such as King Horn and Guy of Warwick). The cycle of tales which developed around the pseudo-historical British King Arthur produced many of the finest romances, some of them (tales of *St. Perceval* and the quest for the Holy Grail) with a religious instead of a purely secular content. Criticism

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de Troyes, the great twelfth-century French poet, wrote Arthurian romances; German examples are Wolfram von Eschenbach's *Parzival* and Gottfried von Strassburg's *Tristan and Isolde*, both written early in the thirteenth century. *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*, composed in fourteenth-century England, is a **metrical romance** (that is, a romance written in verse) about an Arthurian knight; and Thomas Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* (fifteenth century) is an English version in prose of the cycle of earlier metrical romances about Arthur and various of his Knights of the Round Table.

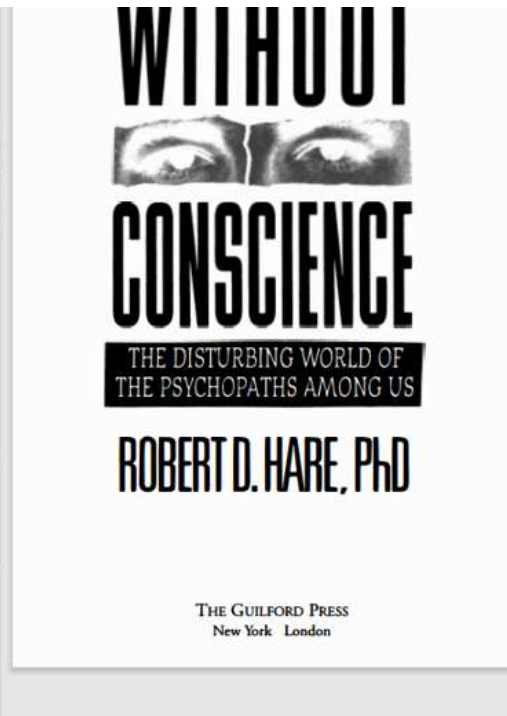
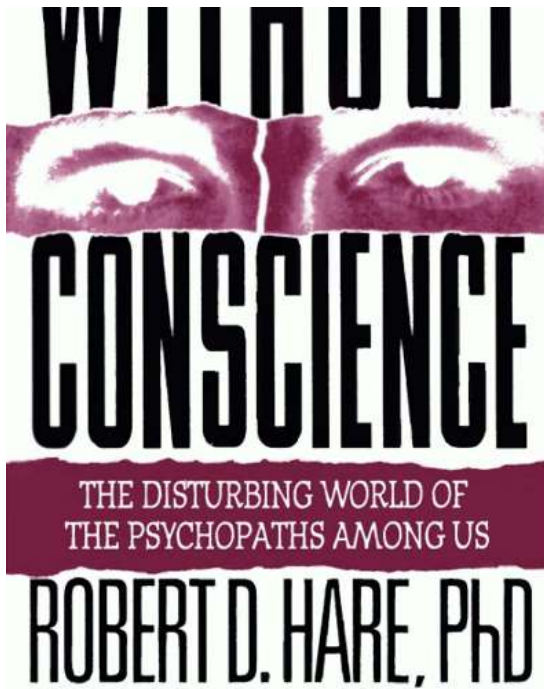
See *poor romance; Gothic romance; romantic comedy; and romance novel*. Refer to L. A. Hibbard, *Medieval Romance in England* (rev. 1961); R. S. Loomis, *The Development of Arthurian Romance* (1963) and *The Grail* (1963); the anthology *Medieval Romances*, ed. R. S. and L. H. Loomis (1957); and *The Cambridge Companion to Medieval Romance*, ed. Roberta L. Knauer (2000). For the history of the term "romance" and modern extensions of the genre of romance, see Gillian Beer, *The Romance* (1970); and for Northrop Frye's theory of the mythological basis of the romance genre, see the entry in this *Glossary* on *myth*. For references to *chivalric romance* in other entries, see pages 16, 39, 66.

**choral character:** 50.

**chorus:** Among the ancient Greeks the chorus was a group of people, wearing masks, who sang or chanted verses while performing dancelike movement at religious festivals. A similar chorus played a part in Greek tragedies, where (in the plays of Aeschylus and Sophocles) they served mainly as commentators on the dramatic actions and events who expressed traditional moral, religious, and social attitudes; beginning with Euripides, however, the chorus assumed primarily a lyrical function. The Greek ode, as developed by Pindar, was also chanted by a chorus; see *ode*. In *The Birth of Tragedy* (1872) the German classicist and philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche speculated that, at the origin of Greek tragedy, the chorus—consisting of goat-like satyrs—were the only figures on the stage. They were presented as attendants and witnesses of the suffering, death, and self-transformation of their master, the god Dionysus. Later, in Nietzsche's view, actors were introduced to enact the event that had originally been represented only symbolically, and the chorus was reduced to the role of commentator.

Roman playwrights such as Seneca took over the chorus from the Greeks, and in the mid-sixteenth century some English dramatists (for example, Norton and Sackville in *Gorboduc*) imitated the Senecan chorus. The classical type of chorus was never widely adopted by English dramatic writers. John Milton, however, included a chorus in *Samson Agonistes* (1671), as did Shelley in *Prometheus Unbound* (1820) and Thomas Hardy in *The Dynasts* (1904–8); more recently, T. S. Eliot made effective use of the classical chorus in his religious tragedy *Murder in the Cathedral* (1935). The use in drama of a chorus of singers and dancers survives also in operas and in musical comedies.

During the Elizabethan Age the term "chorus" was applied also to a single person who, in some plays, spoke the prologue and epilogue, and sometimes



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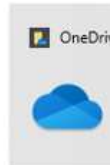
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*To the memory of my parents, Yvonne  
and Henry, and my sister, Charmaine*



## Psikoanalisis Sigmund Freud dan Implikasinya dalam Pendidikan

Helaluddin  
Syahrul Syawal

### Abstrak

Teori psikoanalisis merupakan teori yang berusaha untuk menjelaskan tentang hakikat dan perkembangan kepribadian manusia. Unsur-unsur yang ditanyakan dalam teori ini adalah motivasi, emosi dan aspek-aspek internal lainnya. Teori ini mengemukakan bahwa kepribadian berkembang ketika terjadi konflik-konflik dari aspek-aspek psikologis tersebut, yang pada umumnya terjadi pada anak-anak usia dini. Psikoanalisis memiliki banyak hal yang ditawarkan kepada pendidikan. Hubungan di antara mereka seperti sebuah perkawinan di mana kedua pasangan sadar akan kebutuhan bersama mereka, tapi tidak terlalu mengerti satu sama lain dan karena itu tidak mengerti akan semuanya secara nyata. Jadi tujuan-tujuan pendidikan yang dinyatakan berdasarkan analisis psikoanalisis adalah memberi tuntunan bagi pendidik dan anak didik tentang apa yang hendak dicapai, kegiatan-kegiatan yang mereka lakukan, dan tentang kemajuan yang dicapai oleh anak didik.

Kata-kata Kunci: psikoanalisis, perkembangan kepribadian, pendidikan.

### A. Latar Belakang

Ilmu psikologi mulai diakui sebagai ilmu yang mandiri sejak tahun 1879 saat Wilhelm Wundt mendirikan laboratorium psikologi di Jerman. Sejak saat itu, ilmu psikologi berkembang pesat yang ditandai dengan lahirnya berbagai aliran-aliran di dalamnya. Salah satu aliran dalam ilmu psikologi tersebut adalah konsep kepribadian. Konsep ini pun akhirnya diadopsi oleh banyak ahli dengan definisi yang beragam, salah satunya pemakaian konsep kepribadian dari aliran psikoanalisis (Ja'far, 2015).

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Pemahaman Freud tentang kepribadian manusia didasarkan pada pengalaman-pengalaman dengan pasiennya, analisis tentang mimpinya, dan bacaannya yang luas tentang beragam literatur ilmu pengetahuan dan kemanusiaan. Pengalaman-pengalaman ini menyediakan data yang mendasar bagi evolusi teorinya. Baginya, teori mengikuti mengikuti observasi dan konsepnya tentang kepribadian terus mengalami revisi selama 50 tahun terakhir hidupnya.

Meskipun teorinya berevolusi, Freud menegaskan bahwa psikoanalisis tidak boleh jatuh ke dalam eklektisme, dan murid-muridnya yang menyimpang dari ide-ide dasar ini segera akan dikocilkan secara pribadi dan profesional oleh Freud. Freud menganggap dirinya sebagai ilmuwan. Namun, definisinya tentang ilmu agak berbeda dari yang diartikan kebanyakan psikolog saat ini. Freud lebih mengabdikan penalaran deduktif ketimbang metode riset yang ketat, dan ia melakukan observasi secara subjektif dengan jumlah sampel yang relatif kecil. Dia menggunakan pendekatan studi-studi kasus hampir secara eksklusif, merumuskan secara khusa hipotesis-hipotesis terhadap fakta-fakta kasus yang diketahuinya.

Di tengah-tengah psikologi yang memprioritaskan penelitian atas kesadaran dan memandang kesadaran sebagai aspek utama dari kehidupan mental, Sigmund Freud, yang mengemukakan gagasan bahwa kesadaran itu hanyalah bagian kecil saja dari kehidupan mental, sedangkan bagian yang terbesar adalah jatra ketidaksadaran atau alam tak sadar. Freud mengemukakan alam sadar dan tak sadar itu dengan sebuah gunung es yang terdapat di mana bagian yang muncul ke permukaan air (alam sadar) jauh lebih kecil daripada bagian yang terbenam (alam tak sadar). Lebih lanjut, Freud memandang manusia sebagai makhluk yang deterministik, yaitu sebuah gagasan yang menyebut bahwa kegiatan manusia pada dasarnya ditentukan oleh faktor-faktor irasional, kekuatan alam bawah sadar, dorongan biologis, dan insting pada saat berwujud dalam tatanan kehidupannya.

Psikoanalisis Freud dapat dikategorikan sebagai ilmu baru tentang manusia yang mengalami banyak perimbangan. Bahkan hingga sekarang, teori ini juga

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masih banyak mendapat kritikan dari para ahli yang bersebenangan. Sebagai contoh, pendapat H.J. Eysenck (Profesor Psikologi Jerman) yang menyebut psikoanalisis tidak dapat dianggap sebagai ilmu pengetahuan. Beliau merupakan tokoh aliran behaviorisme ekstrem yang menyatakan bahwa tidak masuk akal jika orang memberi predikat ilmiah kepada teori psikoanalisis yang sama sekali tidak bersifat behavioristik (Bertram, 2016).

Di samping gagasan tersebut di atas, masih banyak gagasan besar dan penting Freud lainnya yang menjadikan ia dipandang sebagai seorang yang revolusioner dan sangat berpengaruh bukan saja untuk bidang psikologi atau psikiatri, melainkan juga untuk bidang-bidang lain yang mencakup sosiologi, antropologi, ilmu politik, filafat, dan kesusastran atau kesenian.

Dalam bidang psikologi, khususnya psikologi kepribadian dan lebih khusus lagi teori kepribadian, pengaruh Freud dengan psikoanalisis yang dikembangkannya dapat dilihat dari fakta, bahwa sebagian besar teori kepribadian modern teorinya tentang tingkah laku (kepribadian) mengambil sebagian, atau setidaknya mempersoalkan, gagasan-gagasan Freud. Psikoanalisis itu sendiri, sebagai aliran yang utama dalam psikologi memiliki teori kepribadian yang gagasannya kita sebut teori kepribadian psikoanalisis (*psychoanalytic theory of personality*).

Hubungan antara psikoanalisis dan pendidikan sangatlah kompleks, dalam artian bahwa psikoanalisis telah memodifikasi dan memperbaiki tingkat perilaku (sikap) dalam ukuran hubungan pendidikan (hubungan antara pendidik, orang tua, peserta didik yang bersangkutan). Dalam banyak hal, teori psikoanalisis menyumbang berbagai pikiran dalam perkembangan dunia pendidikan.

### B. Rumusan Masalah

Berdasarkan uraian di atas, maka rumusan masalah dalam makalah ini adalah:

1. Bagaimanakah pandangan atau teori psikoanalisis menurut Sigmund Freud?
2. Bagaimanakah hakikat peserta didik menurut aliran psikoanalisis?

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3. Apakah tujuan pendidikan dan bagaimana proses pendidikan dalam perspektif psikoanalisis?
4. Apa saja hakikat problematika pendidikan dan solusinya menurut pendekatan psikoanalisis tersebut?
5. Bagaimana implikasi psikoanalisis dalam pendidikan?

### C. Psikoanalisis Sigmund Freud

Psikoanalisis adalah cabang ilmu yang dikembangkan oleh Sigmund Freud dan para pengikutnya, sebagai studi fungsi dan perilaku psikologis manusia. Pada mulanya istilah psikoanalisis hanya dipergunakan dalam hubungan dengan Freud saja, sehingga "psikoanalisis" dan "psikoanalisis Freud" sama artinya. Bila beberapa pengikut Freud kemudian hari menyimpang dari ajarannya dan menempuh jalan sendiri-sendiri, mereka juga meninggalkan istilah psikoanalisis dan memilih suatu nama baru untuk menandai ajaran mereka. Contoh yang terkenal adalah Carl Gustav Jung dan Alfred Adler, yang menciptakan nama "psikologi analitis" (bahasa Inggris: *analytical psychology*) dan "psikologi individual" (bahasa Inggris: *individual psychology*) bagi ajaran masing-masing. Psikoanalisis memiliki tiga penerapan:

1. suatu metode penelitian dari pikiran.
2. suatu ilmu pengetahuan sistematis mengenai perilaku manusia.
3. suatu metode perlakuan terhadap penyakit psikologis atau emosional.

Tujuan Psikoanalisis dikembangkan oleh Sigmund Freud. Psikoanalisis dapat dipandang sebagai teknik terapi dan sebagai aliran psikologi. Sebagai aliran psikologi, psikoanalisis banyak berbicara mengenai kepribadian, khususnya dari segi struktur, dinamika, dan perkembangannya.

### D. Hakikat Peserta Didik

#### 1. Struktur Kepribadian

Menurut Freud, kehidupan jiwa memiliki tiga tingkat kesadaran, yaitu sadar (*conscious*), pra-sadar (*preconscious*), dan tak sadar (*unconscious*). Sampai dengan tahun 1920an, teori tentang konflik kejiwaan hanya melibatkan ketiga unsur

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**Info Artikel**      **Abstrak**

*Abstrak* (short): Fenomena perilaku psikopat dalam novel *Kataris* karya Anastasia Aemilia. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis fenomena perilaku psikopat dalam novel tersebut dengan menggunakan pendekatan psikologi sastra. Metode penelitian yang digunakan adalah kualitatif deskriptif. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa fenomena perilaku psikopat dalam novel tersebut dapat dianalisis dengan menggunakan pendekatan psikologi sastra. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis fenomena perilaku psikopat dalam novel tersebut dengan menggunakan pendekatan psikologi sastra. Metode penelitian yang digunakan adalah kualitatif deskriptif. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa fenomena perilaku psikopat dalam novel tersebut dapat dianalisis dengan menggunakan pendekatan psikologi sastra.

**Abstract**

*Case of abnormality in Indonesia in more than five decades and at alarming rates, and in some cases linked to psychiatric symptoms. Psychopaths as forms of mental disorder that is characterized by lack of empathy and personal emotions, can be easily recognized through conflict with social norms and have caused by widely thinking alone. This study aims to describe the phenomenon of psychopathic behavior in the novel Kataris by Anastasia Aemilia with the approach of literary psychology, by comparing using the theory of psychopath personality disorder from Rigmund Freud. Basically, literature psychology gives attention to the psychological problems of the fictional characters concerned in the literary work. Steps in this research is a phenomenon of psychopathic behavior reported by the author by studying the form of behavior, and the novel genre. This method includes and it descriptive qualitative technique. Based on the results of the research can be seen that (1) the form of psychopathic behavior of characters in the novel Kataris by Anastasia Aemilia is based on specific behavior in the psychopath that is following external, life to manipulate, behave aggressively, behave sadistic, and no regret and no feel guilty, so it can be described form psychopathic behavior in divided into three forms, a light, medium, and heavy. (2) Factors that cause characters in the novel Kataris behave psychopaths namely biological factors and environmental factors.*

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**PENDAHULUAN**

Fenomena perilaku psikopat yang terjadi di masyarakat secara tak sadar telah mengancam berbagai bentuk karya seni salah satunya karya sastra. Hal itu terjadi karena karya sastra tak luput dari penggambaran yang mencerminkannya. Fenomena perilaku psikopat ini telah penggambaran dituangkan berdasarkan pengalamannya yang berkaitan dengan psikopat atau imajinasinya. Fenomena perilaku psikopat ini telah penggambaran dituangkan berdasarkan pengalamannya yang berkaitan dengan psikopat atau imajinasinya yang mampu menggambarkan tokoh seorang psikopat. Psikopat secara etimologis merupakan gabungan kata dari bahasa Yunani yaitu *psyche* dan *patos* yang berarti penyakit jiwa. Psikopat berbeda dengan gila (kekuasaan), karena seorang psikopat sadar sepenuhnya atas perbuatannya. Gejala psikopat sendiri disebut dengan psikopati (Akmal 2008:65).

Menurut Freud (dalam Sarwono 2009:266) psikopat adalah orang yang ego-nya terlalu dikuasai oleh id dan superego tidak ada sehingga atau pengaruh sama sekali terhadap ego. Jadi ego hanya mengorganisir apa saja id yang artinya semua tindakan seorang psikopat didominasi oleh keinginan id semata, tanpa memperhatikan baik-buruk tindakan tersebut.

Salah satu jenis dari karya sastra adalah puisi. Umumnya novel merupakan potret kehidupan manusia yang sangat dalam cerita panjang. Novel juga dapat dijadikan bahasa untuk mempelajari sifat manusia. Berbagai macam sifat manusia dan fenomena hidup tercermin dalam sebuah novel termasuk fenomena perilaku psikopat.

Psikopat sendiri menurut Akmal (2008:65) adalah orang yang ego-nya terlalu dikuasai oleh id dan superego tidak ada sehingga atau pengaruh sama sekali terhadap ego. Jadi ego hanya mengorganisir apa saja id yang artinya semua tindakan seorang psikopat didominasi oleh keinginan id semata, tanpa memperhatikan baik-buruk tindakan tersebut.

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# CHAPTER 2

## SIGMUND FREUD

### Psychoanalysis

Throughout the course of history, scientists have dealt three great shocks to our feelings of self-importance. Nicolaus Copernicus demonstrated that the Earth is not the center of all creation, but merely one of several planets that rotate around the sun. Charles Darwin showed that humans are not a unique and privileged life form, but just one of many animal species that have evolved over millions of years. Sigmund Freud emphasized that we are not even the masters of our own minds, but are driven by many powerful unconscious processes (wishes, fears, beliefs, conflicts, emotions, memories) of which we are totally unaware. (See Freud, 1917a, 1916-1917/1966, pp. 284-285.)



Theories that minimize his role in the general scheme of things, and attack widely held beliefs, will not find ready acceptance. Galileo, a follower of Copernicus, was forced to recant his beliefs about the solar system in order to avoid being burned at the stake; while John Thomas Scopes was fired in 1925 for daring to teach evolutionary theory in an American high school, precipitating the famous "Monkey Trial." Freud's theory of personality has also provoked strong resistance, but here there are additional reasons for controversy. Early in Freud's career, three men whom he admired gave him similar (and startling) bits of information. Josef Breuer, with whom Freud later coauthored the landmark *Studies on Hysteria* (Freud & Breuer, 1895/1966), remarked that neurotic behaviors were always concerned with secrets of the marital bed. Jean-Martin Charcot emphatically proclaimed to an assistant that certain nervous disorders were "always a question of the genital," a conversation Freud overheard. And the distinguished gynecologist Rudolf Chrobak advised Freud that the only cure for a female patient with severe anxiety and an imposter husband could not be prescribed: "Rx: A normal penis, dose to be repeated" (Freud, 1914/1967, pp. 13-15; E. Jones, 11

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explanations, predictions that allow us to verify or discard the theory, and applications that enable us to control and change our environment. Both formal laboratory research and informal clinical observation have important advantages and serious drawbacks, and both are essential sources of information for present-day psychology.

3. **THE PRE-FREUDIAN ERA.** The first academic psychology dealt primarily with physiological and organic issues. Therefore Freud and his followers, who were concerned with the treatment of psychopathology, developed clinically oriented theories of personality to explain the phenomena that they encountered. Although Freud is properly regarded as the first psychologist to develop a theory of personality, many of his ideas (the unconscious, dream analysis, the id, repression, the sexual nature of psychopathology, and so forth) can be traced back to philosophers and other theorists who preceded him by many years.

1953/1963a, p. 158). Although Freud was somewhat shocked by these radical notions and dismissed them from his mind, they later emerged from his preconception to form the cornerstone of his theory—one that attributes virtually all human behavior to the erotic instinct.

## OBJECTIVES

- To devise the first theory of personality and the first psychotherapy, which he needed to treat his patients (and himself).
- To explore the unconscious, a vast hidden realm within every personality, to he could better understand his patients (and himself).
- To show that we do not want to understand important aspects of our own personality, and to explain how and why we conceal such information from ourselves.
- To devise methods for bringing unconscious material to consciousness, including the interpretation of dreams.
- To explain why personality often becomes a house divided against itself, torn by avowed intrapsychic conflicts.
- To show that sexuality underlies virtually all human behavior, and the failure to resolve the Oedipus complex is the primary cause of psychopathology.
- To emphasize that childhood is extremely important for personality development, and is where psychopathology originates.
- To warn that we are born with malignant instincts, which we must learn to sublimate into socially acceptable (but less satisfying) behaviors.
- To urge us to know ourselves and discover our hidden wishes, fears, beliefs, and conflicts, difficult though this may be.
- To apply psychoanalytic theory to many areas, including religion, work, and literature.

## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Sigmund Freud was born on May 6, 1856, at Freiberg, Moravia (now Czechoslovakia). His father was a wool merchant, his parents Jewish. Freud spent nearly all of his life in Vienna, where his family moved in 1860, and gradually rose from the lower middle class to the heights of society and world fame—though not without considerable physical and psychological suffering.

Freud was an excellent student throughout his academic career, receiving his medical degree from the University of Vienna in 1881. He was not overly enthusiastic about becoming a practicing physician, a slow route to economic security in those days, and longed for the brilliant discovery that would bring rapid fame. After graduation he continued to work in the physiology laboratory of his teacher, Ernst Brücke, and performed some high-quality research in microscopic neuroanatomy. Ironically, Freud narrowly missed out on the renown that he sought by failing to appreciate the full significance of some of his findings.

Freud's future at this time was highly uncertain. His finances were meager, his job did not pay well, and two senior assistants blocked his chances for advancement. When he became engaged to Martha Bernays in 1882, he accepted Brücke's friendly advice to seek his fortune elsewhere. He spent the next 3 years as an assistant to two noted medical scientists, Hermann Nussbaum and Theodor Meynert, won a travel grant to study for a few months with Charcot in Paris, and at last ended a 4-year courtship by marrying Martha on September 30, 1886. Freud's letters to his betrothed show him to have been an ardent and devoted lover, if at times jealous and possessive, and the marriage was for some time a happy one. The Freuds had six children, three boys and three girls, with the youngest (Anna) becoming a prominent child psychiatrist and ultimately assuming the leadership of the Freudian movement. Interestingly, the man who emphasized sexuality so heavily in his theories was in all probability celibate until his marriage at age 30. Also, while Freud normally declined to practice his psychological ideas on his wife and children, he did create a rather bizarre Oedipal situation by psychoanalyzing Anna himself, and so added due in part to this unusual emotional involvement with her father, she never married, devoted her life to the cause of psychoanalysis, and eventually replaced Martha as the most important woman in Sigmund's life (Roazen, 1975/1976b, pp. 58–59, 63, 439–440).

Freud's own life provided him with a great deal of psychological data. He was himself Oedipal, had powerful unconscious hostility toward his father, and was quite close to his mother (who was some nineteen years younger than her husband and devoted to her "golden Sigi"). Freud suffered from a severe neuritis during the 1890s, yet did strikingly original work during this time, as though the pressure of his own emerging psychopathology drove him to new heights (E. Jones, 1953/1963a, p. 184; Ellenberger, 1970, pp. 447f.). He described this syndrome as a "creative illness." The sufferer undergoes agonizing symptoms that alternately worsen and improve, exaggerated feelings of isolation, and intense self-absorption, and emerges from this ordeal with a permanently transformed personality and the conviction of having discovered profound new truths. During this period Freud also began his self-analysis (1897), probing the depths of his own mind with the psychological techniques that he developed. Though his creative illness ended by 1900, he continued the self-analysis for the remainder of his life and reserved the last half-hour of each day for this purpose.

Personally, Freud was highly moral and ethical—even puritanical. Some found him cold, bitter, rejecting, the kind of man who does not suffer fools gladly, and more interested in the discoveries to be made from his patients than in themselves. Others depicted him as warm, humorous, profoundly understanding, and extremely kind. (See, for example, Ellenberger, 1970, pp. 457–469; E. Jones, 1953/1963a; 1955/1963b; 1957/1963c; Reich, 1940/1964, p. 258;

4. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of a dichotomy versus a continuum conceptualization of research design. Qualitative and quantitative research have philosophical roots in the naturalistic and the positivistic philosophies, respectively. Virtually all qualitative researchers, regardless of their theoretical differences, reflect some sort of individual phenomenological perspective. Most quantitative researchers, regardless of their theoretical differences, tend to emphasize that there is a common reality on which people can agree. From a phenomenological perspective, Douglas (1976) and Grant (1973) believe that multiple realities exist and multiple interpretations are available from different individuals that are all equally valid. Reality is a social construct. If one functions from this perspective, how one conducts a study and what conclusions a researcher draws from a study are considerably different from those of a researcher coming from a quantitative or positivistic position, which assumes a common objective reality versus individuals. There are different degrees of belief in these sets of assumptions about reality among qualitative and quantitative researchers. For instance, Eisner (1991), a phenomenological researcher who emphasizes subjectivity, does not deny that there is a reality one must attend to.

The debate between qualitative and quantitative researchers is based upon the differences in assumptions about what reality is and whether or not it is measurable. The debate further rests on differences of opinion about how we can best understand what we "know," whether through objective or subjective methods.

William Firestone (1987), in an article in the *Educational Researcher*, differentiates qualitative from quantitative research based on four dimensions: assumption, purpose, approach, and research role. Regarding assumptions, Firestone asks: is objective reality sought through facts or is reality socially constructed? Related to purpose, he asks: is it looking for causes or for understanding? To

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determine approach, he asks whether the research is experimental/correlational or a form of ethnography. Lastly, related to the researcher's role, he asks whether the researcher is detached or immersed in the setting.

Shaker (1990), in a discussion of program evaluation models, presents them as a metaphorical journey moving from quantitative perspectives in the past to more recent naturalistic and qualitative assumptions. While posing a phenomenological continuum, Shaker would not seem to oppose one notion of question-driven research and evaluation. While he describes the "new identity" for evaluation as being "based on naturalistic approaches," he places this in the context of a "pragmatic commitment to finding methods that yield results in practice as we find it, rather than as we wish it to be" (p. 355).

The qualitative, naturalistic approach is used when observing and interpreting reality with the aim of developing a theory that will explain what was experienced. The quantitative approach is used when one begins with a theory (or hypothesis) and tests for confirmation or disconfirmation of that hypothesis.

It is important here to set the stage for abandoning the dichotomy. To do so, we examine a few of the key events in the chronicle of scientific evolution that established the debate in the first place. As long as one view of how we can explain the workings of the world reigns supreme, there is no debate. The debate rests on a dichotomy characterized by a loosening of the dominance of one paradigm over another, leveling the playing field so that the debate could occur. In fact, the debate may be but one more phase in the ebb and flow of an ever-changing philosophy of knowledge. For example, in *The Enlightened Eye*, Eisner (1991) criticizes against the dichotomy and asserts that qualitative and quantitative research can be combined. He warns against qualitative researchers merely adopting a "soft form of positivism" (p. 167).

The genesis of the current qualitative-quantitative debate in educational research occurred as far back as 1844, when Auguste Comte:

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# PSYCHOLOGY AN EXPLORATION

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### What is Psychology?

#### The Field of Psychology

Some people believe psychology is just the study of people and what motivates their behavior. Psychologists do study people, but their study extends as well. To better understand what motivates behavior, psychologists study not only what people and animals do, but also what happens in their brains and in their bodies as they do it.

#### 3.1 What defines psychology as a field of study, and what are psychology's four primary goals?

Psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes. Behavior includes all of our outward or overt actions and reactions, such as talking, facial expressions, and movement. The more mental processes refer to all the internal, covert activity of our minds such as thinking, feeling, and reasoning. Why "scientific"? To study behavior and mental processes in both animals and humans, researchers have to observe them. Whenever a human being is observing someone or something, there's always a possibility the observer will see only what he or she expects to see. Psychologists don't want to let their possible biases affect them to make faulty observations. They need to be as precise as possible and measure as carefully as they can, so they can do scientific studies in psychology.

#### Psychology's Goals

Every scientist has the common goal of learning how things work. The goal specifically aimed at measuring the operation of human and animal behavior are description, explanation, prediction, and control.

**DESCRIPTION: WHAT IS HAPPENING?** The first step in understanding something is to describe it. To do this involves observing a behavior and noting everything about it: what is happening, when it happens, to whom it happens, and under what circumstances it seems to happen.

For example, a psychologist might wonder why so many computer scientists seem to be male. The researcher makes observations and notes the many "non-scientist" characteristics present in the life and careers of a computer scientist to see in which contexts they exist and whether, at the company, interests linked with computer games, rock band, and science-fiction magazines/television shows add up to a very male culture.

That's what seems to be happening. The psychologist's observations are a starting place for the next goal: Why do females seem to avoid going into this environment?

**EXPLANATION: WHY IS IT HAPPENING?** Based on her observations, the psychologist might try to come up with a possible explanation, such as "women feel they do not belong in such stereotypically male-dominated surroundings." In other words, she is trying to understand or find an explanation for the behavior in question in this field. Finding explanations for behavior is a very important step in the process of learning theories of behavior. It thereby generalizes explanation of a set of observations or facts. The goal of description provides the observations, and the goal of explanation helps to build the theory.



Psychologists study behavior in various settings, including in the laboratory and in the field.

Psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes.

Where general judgments based on individual cases often fail.

The preceding concept comes from a real experiment conducted by psychologists Roger Chertsev and colleagues (Chertsev et al., 2005). Professor Chertsev (who teaches psychology at the University of Washington in Seattle) set up two experiments with more than 200 female and male student participants who were not studying computer science. In the first experiment, students came into a small classroom that had one of two sets of objects: either from T-shirt games, video games, books, and CDs, or from science papers, art, a dictionary, and coffee mugs (among other things). Then to ignore the objects because they were sharing the room with another class, the students spent several minutes in the classroom. While still sitting in the classroom, they were asked to fill out a questionnaire asking about how attitudes toward computer science. Although the attitudes of male students were not different from those of female students, women reported to be more negatively toward computer science than men (as measured in computer science) than those who were exposed to the stereotypical environment. The first experiment's results predicted the next one.

**PREDICTION: WHEN WILL IT HAPPEN AGAIN?** Determining what will happen in the future is making a prediction. In the Chertsev et al. study, the prediction is that if we want more women to go into computer science, we need to do something to change either the environment or the perception of the environment typically associated with this field. This is the purpose of the last of the four goals of psychology: changing or modifying behavior.

**CONTROL: HOW CAN IT BE CHANGED?** The focus of control is the modification of some behavior. It is, though, a behavior that is voluntarily one (such as women avoiding a certain academic major) by a distinctly one (such as more equally in some classes).

Professor Chertsev suggests that changing the image of computer science may help increase the number of women choosing to go into the field. One of the psychological investigations will try to meet all four of these goals. In some cases, the same thing might be an observation and prediction, as it would be for a personality theorist who wants to know what people are like (descriptive) and what they might do in certain situations (predictive). Some psychologists are interested in both description and explanation, as is the case with experimental psychologists who design research to find explanations for observed (described) behavior. Therapists may be more interested in controlling or influencing behavior and mental processes, although the other three goals would be important in achieving the objectives.

Although these goals have not really changed over the past few decades, the methods of achieving them certainly have changed. In the next section, we'll take a look at the early process in psychology.

### Psychology Then: The History of Psychology

#### to the Beginning: Thought, Introspection, and the Laboratory

How long has psychology been around? Psychology is a relatively new field in the realm of the sciences. It is only about 100 years old. It is not that we've thought about other people's behavior since the beginning, many philosophers, medical doctors, and physiologists thought about this. The famous philosopher such as Plato, Aristotle, and Descartes were about the relationship of the mind (or mind) and the body (Gazzaniga, 1983; Eysenck, 1985).

Philosophers, people who used reason and knowledge through thinking, not theories. Philosophers sometimes also sought the practical workings of the body and its systems.

How long has psychology been around? What is its history about psychology?



How long has psychology been around?



## THE ANALYSIS OF ILL EGO, AND SUPER EGO OF YURI ORLEY IN LORD OF WAR MOVIE BY ANDREW NECKER.

A FINAL PROJECT  
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement  
For S-1 Degree in American Study  
In English Department, Faculty of Humanities  
Diponegoro University

Submitted by  
Michael Ashrakh Padjaya  
10221210607

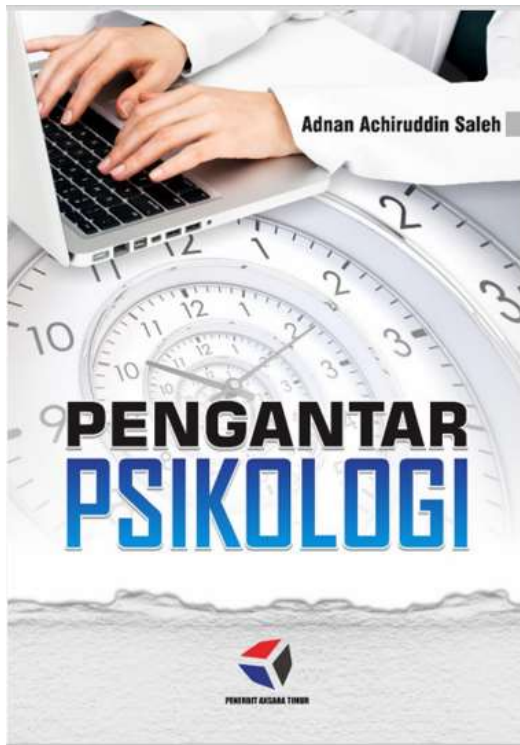
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Michael Ashrakh Padjaya



## PENGANTAR PSIKOLOGI

induknya filsafat, mulailah timbul kesulitan-kesulitan, karena salah satu tuntutan ilmu pengetahuan adalah bahwa hal-hal yang dipelajari dalam ilmu itu harus dapat dibuktikan dengan nyata, padahal untuk membuktikan adanya jiwa sebagai sesuatu yang nyata adalah tidak mungkin, apalagi untuk mengukur atau menghitung dengan alat-alat objektif.

Psikologi sebagai ilmu pengetahuan juga harus memiliki sifat-sifat yang dimiliki oleh ilmu pengetahuan pada umumnya. Oleh karena itu, psikologi mempunyai:

- a. Objek tertentu. Syarat mutlak di dalam suatu ilmu, karena objek inilah yang akan menentukan langkah-langkah yang lebih lanjut di dalam pengupasan lapangan ilmu pengetahuan. Tanpa adanya objek dapat diyakinkan tidak akan adanya pembahasan yang mapan.
- b. Metode penyelidikan tertentu. Tanpa adanya metode yang teratur dan tertentu, penyelidikan atau pembahasan akan kurang dapat dipertanggungjawabkan dari segi keilmuan. Segi metode inilah akan terlihat ilmiah tidaknya sesuatu penyelidikan atau pembahasan.
- c. Sistematis yang teratur sebagai hasil pendekatan terhadap objeknya. Hasil pendekatan terhadap objek itu kemudian disistematisasi sehingga merupakan suatu sistematika yang teratur yang menggambarkan hasil pendekatan terhadap objek tertentu.

Beranjak dari syarat psikologi menjadi ilmu pengetahuan tersebut kemudian menjadi landasan dari beberapa tokoh

dalam memberi pengertian dari psikologi. Di antara pengertian yang dirumuskan oleh ahli antara lain:

- a. Singgih Dirgagunarsa:  
Psikologi adalah ilmu yang mempelajari tingkah laku manusia.
- b. Plato dan Aristoteles:  
Psikologi adalah ilmu pengetahuan yang mempelajari tentang hakikat jiwa serta prosesnya sampai akhir.
- c. John Broadus Watson:  
Psikologi sebagai ilmu pengetahuan yang mempelajari tingkah laku tampak (lahiriah) dengan menggunakan metode observasi yang objektif terhadap rangsang dan jawaban (respon).
- d. Wilhelm Wundt:  
Psikologi merupakan ilmu pengetahuan yang mempelajari pengalaman-pengalaman yang timbul dalam diri manusia, seperti perasaan panca indera, pikiran, merasa (*feeling*) dan kehendak.
- e. Woodworth dan Marquis:  
Psikologi adalah ilmu pengetahuan yang mempelajari aktivitas individu dari sejak masih dalam kandungan sampai meninggal dunia dalam hubungannya dengan alam sekitar.
- f. Hilgert:  
Psikologi adalah ilmu pengetahuan yang mempelajari tingkah laku manusia dan binatang.

behavior) maupun tidak nampak (*innert behavior*).

J. B. Watson yang juga merupakan tokoh pendiri dari Behavioristik meyakini bahwa psikologi itu tentang perilaku manusia. Kajian dari psikologi sebaiknya mengarah pada perilaku yang nampak. Hal yang sama juga dikemukakan oleh Singgih Dirgagunarsa yang juga guru besar psikologi di Indonesia menggambarkan psikologi adalah mengkaji perilaku yang nyata, dapat dilihat atau diukur.

pendapat para ahli psikologi. Perbedaan tersebut bermuara pada adanya perbedaan titik berangkat pada ahli dalam mempelajari dan membahas kehidupan jiwa yang kompleks itu. Itulah sebabnya sehingga sangat sukar adanya satu rumusan pengertian psikologi yang disepakati oleh semua pihak.

Akan tetapi paling penting yang dapat dipetik dari berbagai pengertian tersebut adalah bahwa hal itu cukup memberikan wawasan pengertian tentang psikologi. Menurut

penulis sendiri memberi pengertian bahwa psikologi adalah ilmu pengetahuan yang mempelajari semua tingkah laku individu yang tidak dapat dilepaskan dari proses lingkungan dan yang terjadi dalam diri individu tersebut. Apa yang terjadi dalam diri pribadi tersebut disebut sebagai proses mental.

#### B. Perkembangan Psikologi

Sebelum kita membicarakan lebih mendalam tentang aliran-aliran dan tokoh dalam psikologi, yang akan dibahas pada bab IV, akan kita bicarakan terlebih dahulu secara singkat perkembangan sejarah psikologi sejak mula awalnya hingga sekarang (di Indonesia). Diskusi mengenai skema sejarah psikologi ini akan diperlukan untuk memahami peranan dari tiap-tiap aliran dan tokoh dalam suatu rangkaian yang besar dan bagaimana aliran dan tokoh yang berbeda-beda dan mewakili pemikiran-pemikiran yang berbeda-beda pula itu saling mempengaruhi atau saling mengkritik satu sama lain. Untuk mengerti pikiran-pikiran Watson misalnya, kita harus

Dalam garis besarnya, sejarah psikologi dapat dibagi dalam dua tahap utama, yaitu masa sebelum dan masa sesudah menjadi ilmu yang berdiri sendiri. Kedua tahap ini dibatasi oleh berdirinya laboratorium psikologi yang pertama di Leipzig pada tahun 1879 oleh Wilhelm Wundt. Sebelum tahun 1879, psikologi dianggap sebagai bagian dari filsafat atau ilmu faal, karena psikologi masih dibicarakan oleh sarjana-sarjana dari kedua bidang ilmu itu yang kebetulan mempunyai minat terhadap gejala jiwa, tetapi tentu saja penyelidikan-penyelidikan mereka masih terlalu dikaitkan dengan bidang lain ilmu mereka sendiri saja. Pada saat Wundt berhasil mendirikan laboratorium psikologi di Leipzig, para sarjana kemudian baru mulai menyelidiki gejala-gejala kejiwaan secara lebih sistematis dan objektif. Metode-metode baru diketemukan untuk mengadakan pembuktian-pembuktian nyata dalam psikologi sehingga lambat laun dapat disusun teori-teori psikologi yang terlepas dari ilmu-ilmu induknya. Sejak masa itu pulalah psikologi mulai bercabang-

penulis sendiri memberi pengertian bahwa psikologi adalah ilmu pengetahuan yang mempelajari semua tingkah laku individu yang tidak dapat dilepaskan dari proses lingkungan dan yang terjadi dalam diri individu tersebut. Apa yang terjadi dalam diri pribadi tersebut disebut sebagai proses mental.

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Dalam garis besarnya, sejarah psikologi dapat dibagi dalam dua tahap utama, yaitu masa sebelum dan masa sesudah menjadi ilmu yang berdiri sendiri. Kedua tahap ini dibatasi oleh berdirinya laboratorium psikologi yang pertama di Leipzig pada tahun 1879 oleh Wilhelm Wundt. Sebelum tahun 1879, psikologi dianggap sebagai bagian dari filsafat atau ilmu faal, karena psikologi masih dibicarakan oleh sarjana-sarjana dari kedua bidang ilmu itu yang kebetulan mempunyai minat terhadap gejala jiwa, tetapi tentu saja penyelidikan-penyelidikan mereka masih terlalu dikaitkan dengan bidang lain ilmu mereka sendiri saja. Pada saat Wundt berhasil mendirikan laboratorium psikologi di Leipzig, para sarjana kemudian baru mulai menyelidiki gejala-gejala kejiwaan secara lebih sistematis dan objektif. Metode-metode baru diketemukan untuk mengadakan pembuktian-pembuktian nyata dalam psikologi sehingga lambat laun dapat disusun teori-teori psikologi yang terlepas dari ilmu-ilmu induknya. Sejak masa itu pulalah psikologi mulai bercabang-cabang ke dalam aliran-aliran, karena bertambahnya jumlah sarjana psikologi tentu saja menambah keragaman berpikir dan banyak pikiran-pikiran itu yang tidak dapat disatukan satu sama lain. Karena itulah maka mereka yang merasa sepikiran, sependapat, menggabungkan diri dan menyusun suatu aliran tersendiri. Aliran-aliran strukturalisme, fungsionalisme, behaviorisme, dan sebagainya adalah aliran-aliran yang tumbuh setelah lahirnya laboratorium pertama di Leipzig tersebut.

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**GANGGUAN PERILAKU MASA ANAK DAN MASA REMAJA DAN PSIKOPAT**

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**Abstract**  
*Psychopath is an antisocial personality disorder that disturbing the person self and people around him. According to the experts, conduct disorder might continue to become delinquency in adolescence. Gradually, conduct disorder can also become antisocial personality disorder. Thus, it would be more effective to have an early preventive intervention, by giving early detection for children whose indication of antisocial behavior.*

**Key word:** Conduct Disorder; Childhood; Adolescence; Psychopath

**PENDAHULUAN**

Berita tentang Ryan membuat masyarakat luas mengenal istilah psikopat. Heboh pembunuhan berantai dengan lima korban, bahkan kabar lain menyebutkan 11 korban yang dilakukan Ryan membuat banyak orang terkejut. Terlebih tetangga pelaka karena meski jarang bergaul dan bersifat tertutup, Ryan dikenal sebagai sosok alim yang juga sekaligus guru ngaji, jauh dari bayangan seorang pembunuh berdarah dingin.

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Kapankah psikopat ini dimulai, apakah gangguan kepribadian ini baru muncul ketika seseorang dalam masa dewasa atau ada sejak kecil? Dengan demikian dapat dilakukan tindakan

**HEALTH SCIENCES** adalah Jurnal Enam Bulanan, yang diterbitkan oleh Fakultas Ilmu Kesehatan Universitas Muhammadiyah Surabaya



**GANGGUAN PERILAKU MASA ANAK DAN MASA REMAJA DAN PSIKOPAT**

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**Abstract**  
*Psychopath is an antisocial personality disorder that disturbing the person self and people around him. According to the experts, conduct disorder might continue to become delinquency in adolescence. Gradually, conduct disorder can also become antisocial personality disorder. Thus, it would be more effective to have an early preventive intervention, by giving early detection for children whose indication of antisocial behavior.*

**Key word:** Conduct Disorder; Childhood; Adolescence; Psychopath

**PENDAHULUAN**

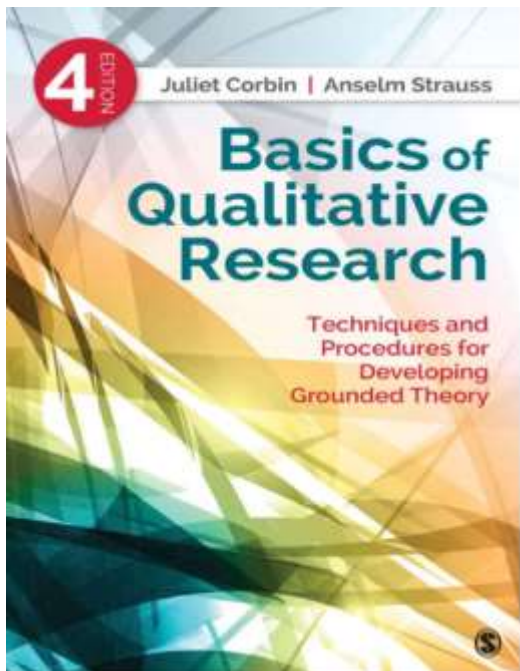
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## Basics of Qualitative Research

Fourth Edition



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### Description of Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is a form of research in which the researcher or a designated coresearcher collects and interprets data, making the researcher as much a part of the research process as the participants and the data they provide. Qualitative research utilizes an open and flexible design and its doing so stands at odds with the notion of rigor so important when doing quantitative research. There are many different types of qualitative research each with its own purpose and structure (Crabtree, 2013). (For just some of the possibilities, see the list under "Suggested Readings" at the end of this chapter.) The focus of this book is upon one type of qualitative research called *grounded theory*.

### Explanation of Why Researchers Choose Qualitative Over Quantitative Methods

Why do some researchers choose to use qualitative rather than quantitative methods? Here are some of the most frequently given reasons:

- To explore the inner experiences of participants
- To explore how meanings are formed and transformed
- To explore areas not yet thoroughly researched
- To discover relevant variables that later can be tested through quantitative forms of research
- To take a holistic and comprehensive approach to the study of phenomena

However, we think there are additional reasons why some persons choose to do qualitative research. Committed qualitative researchers tend to frame their research questions in such a way that the only manner in which they can be answered is by doing qualitative research. In addition, qualitative researchers are drawn to the fluid, evolving, and dynamic nature of this approach as opposed to the more structured designs of quantitative methods. In addition, they enjoy serendipity and making discoveries. Statistics might be interesting, but it is the endless possibilities to learn more about the human response that attract them. Qualitative researchers want the opportunity to connect with their research participants and to see the world from their viewpoints.

Furthermore, they enjoy playing with words, making order out of seeming disorder, and thinking in terms of complex relationships. For qualitative researchers, doing research is a challenge—one that brings the whole self into the process. This is not to denigrate quantitative researchers. In fact, all researchers share curiosity about the world and a determination to find answers to questions that will improve the social condition or lead to social justice. But there is no doubt that qualitative researchers are of a certain type, and once bitten by the "qualitative bug," they seek out opportunities to continue doing this form of research.

## A PRIMER OF *Freudian Psychology*

By CALVIN S. HALL  
*Professor of Psychology  
Western Reserve University*



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excellent discipline in scientific method. It taught him how to be a scientist.

In the 1890's, Freud discovered what kind of scientist he wanted to be. In a letter to a friend he wrote, "It is psychology which has been the goal beckoning me from afar." For the rest of his life, some forty years, Freud was a psychologist.

What is the relation of psychology to psychoanalysis? Freud himself answered this question in 1927: "Psychoanalysis falls under the head of psychology; not of medical psychology in the old sense, nor of the psychology of morbid processes, but simply of psychology. It is certainly not the whole of psychology, but its substructure and perhaps even its entire foundation." Freud is here speaking of psychoanalysis as a theory of personality. But there is another side to psychoanalysis as well. Psychoanalysis is also a method of psychotherapy. It consists of techniques for treating emotionally disturbed people. For Freud, the therapeutic aspects of psychoanalysis were secondary to the scientific and theoretical aspects. He did not want to see the therapy swallow up the science. It might be wise, therefore, to distinguish as we have done in this primer between Freudian psychology as a theoretical system of psychology, and psychoanalysis as a method of psychotherapy.

Physician, psychiatrist, scientist, psychologist—Freud was all of these things. But he was also something more. He was a philosopher. We get a hint of this in a letter he wrote to a friend in 1896. "As a young man I longed for nothing else than philosophical knowledge, and I am now on the way to satisfy that longing by passing over from medicine to psychology."

It was not at all unusual for the scientists of the nineteenth century to be attracted to philosophy. In fact, for many of them, science was philosophy. Does not philosophy mean "love of knowledge"? And what better way is there to show one's love of knowledge than by being a scientist? This was the substance of what Goethe was saying to every German intellectual. Goethe was the most influential voice in nineteenth-century thought and the

Freud felt that the situation might be ameliorated by the application of psychological principles in raising and educating children. This would mean, of course, that parents and teachers would have to undergo a psychological re-education before they could be effective agents of reason and truth. Freud did not minimize the immensity of this task, but he did not know any other way by which to create a better society and better people. Freud's social criticism is presented in his book *Civilization and Its Discontents*.

What then was Freud? Physician, psychiatrist, psychoanalyst, psychologist, philosopher, and critic—these were his several vocations. Yet, taken separately or together, they do not really convey Freud's importance to the world. Although the word "genius" is used indiscriminately to describe a number of people, there is no other single word that fits Freud as well as this word does. He was a genius. One may prefer to think of him, as I do, as one of the few men in history who possessed a universal mind. Like Shakespeare and Goethe and Leonardo da Vinci, whatever Freud touched he illuminated. He was a very wise man.

idol of Germany. Freud was not immune to Goethe's influence. In fact, he decided upon a career in science after hearing Goethe's inspirational essay on Nature read aloud at a popular lecture.

Freud's philosophical interests were not those of the professional or academic philosopher. His philosophy was social and humanitarian. It took the form of building a philosophy of life. The Germans have a special word for it. They call it a *Weltanschauung*, which means "world-view." Freud stood for a philosophy of life that is based on science rather than on metaphysics or religion. He felt that a philosophy of life worth having is one based upon a true knowledge of man's nature, knowledge that could only be gained by scientific inquiry and research.

Freud did not feel that psychoanalysis was called upon to develop a new *Weltanschauung*. It was only necessary to extend the scientific world-view to the study of man. Freud's own philosophy of life can be summed up in a phrase: "Knowledge through science."

Freud's intimate knowledge of human nature made him both pessimistic and critical. He did not have a very high opinion of the bulk of mankind. He felt that the irrational forces in man's nature are so strong that the rational forces have little chance of success against them. A small minority might be able to live a life of reason, but most men are more comfortable living with their delusions and superstitions than with the truth. Freud had seen too many patients fighting vigorously to preserve their delusions to place much faith in the drawing power of logic and reason. Men resist knowing the truth about themselves. This pessimistic viewpoint is developed most fully in his book *The Future of an Illusion* although it provides the underlying mood for many of his writings.

Freud was also a social critic. He believed that society, which has been fashioned by man, reflects to a great extent man's irrationality. As a consequence, each new generation is corrupted by being born into an irrational society. The influence of man on society and of society on man is a vicious circle from which only a few hardy souls can free themselves.

## CHAPTER TWO

*The Organization of Personality*

The total personality as conceived by Freud consists of three major systems. These are called the *id*, the *ego*, and the *superego*. In the mentally healthy person these three systems form a unified and harmonious organization. By working together co-operatively they enable the individual to carry on efficient and satisfying transactions with his environment. The purpose of these transactions is the fulfillment of man's basic needs and desires. Conversely, when the three systems of personality are at odds with one another the person is said to be maladjusted. He is dissatisfied with himself and with the world, and his efficiency is reduced.

## I. THE ID

The sole function of the id is to provide for the immediate discharge of quantities of excitation (energy or tension) that are released in the organism by internal or external stimulation. This function of the id fulfills the primordial or initial principle of life which Freud called the *pleasure principle*. The aim of the pleasure principle is to rid the person of tension, or, if this is impossible—as it usually is—to reduce the amount of tension to a low level and to keep it as constant as possible. Tension is experienced as pain or discomfort, while relief from tension is experienced as pleasure or satisfaction. The aim of the pleasure principle may be said, then, to consist of avoiding pain and finding pleasure.

The pleasure principle is a special case of the universal

tendency found in all living matter to maintain constancy in the face of internal and external disturbances.

In its earliest form the id is a reflex apparatus that discharges immediately by motor pathways any sensory excitations reaching it. Thus when a very bright light falls upon the retina of the eye the eyelid closes and light is prevented from reaching the retina. Consequently the excitations that were produced in the nervous system by the light quiet down and the organism returns to a quiescent state. The organism is equipped with many such reflexes, as they are called, which serve the purpose of automatically discharging any bodily energy that has been released by a trigger, the stimulus, acting upon a sense organ. The typical consequence of the motor discharge is the removal of the stimulus. Sneezing, for example, usually expels whatever may be irritating the sensitive lining of the nose, and watering of the eyes flushes out foreign particles. The stimulus may come from within the body as well as from the outside world. One example of an internal stimulus is the reflex opening of the valve in the bladder when the pressure on it reaches a certain intensity. The excitation (tension) produced by the pressure is terminated by the emptying of the contents of the bladder through the open valve.

If all of the tensions that occur in the organism could be discharged by reflex action, there would be no need for any psychological development beyond that of the primitive reflex apparatus. Such is not the case, however. Many tensions occur for which there is no appropriate reflex discharge. For instance, when hunger contractions appear in the stomach of the baby, these contractions do not automatically produce food. Instead they produce restlessness and crying. Unless the baby is fed, the contractions increase in intensity until they are abolished by fatigue. In time, of course, the baby would die from starvation.

The hungry baby is not equipped with the necessary reflexes by which to satisfy its hunger, and were it not for the intervention of an older person bringing food the baby would perish. When food in a suitable form is

brought to the infant's mouth, sucking, swallowing, and digestive reflexes carry on unaided and bring the tension of hunger to an end.

There would be no psychological development if every time the baby began to feel the tension of hunger it was immediately fed and if all of the other excitations arising in the body were similarly discharged by the co-operative efforts of parental care and inborn reflexes. However, in spite of the solicitude of parents, they are not likely to anticipate and quickly satisfy all of the baby's needs. In fact, by the use of schedules and the institution of training and discipline, parents create tensions as well as reduce them. The baby inevitably experiences some degree of frustration and discomfort. These experiences stimulate the development of the id.

The new development that takes place in the id as a result of frustration is called the *primary process*. In order to understand the nature of the primary process it will be necessary to discuss some of the psychological potentialities of the human being. The psychological apparatus has a sensory end and a motor end. The sensory end consists of the sense organs, which are specialized structures for receiving stimuli, and the motor end consists of muscles, which are the organs of action and movement. For reflex action it is only necessary to possess sense organs and muscles and an intervening nervous system that transmits messages in the form of nervous impulses from the sensory end to the motor end.

In addition to a sensory system and a motor system, the individual has a perceptual system and a memory system. The perceptual system receives excitations from the sense organs and forms a mental picture or representation of the object that is being presented to the sense organs. These mental pictures are preserved as memory traces in the memory system. When the memory traces are activated, the person is said to have a memory image of the object that he originally perceived. The past is brought into the present by means of these memory images. The perception is a mental representation of an object, while the memory image is a mental representa-

from being a very exact science. Freud had this in mind when he wrote:

So long as we trace the development from its final stage backwards, the connection appears continuous, and we feel we have gained an insight which is completely satisfactory or even exhaustive. But if we proceed the reverse way, if we start from the premises inferred from the analysis and try to follow these up to the final result, then we no longer get the impression of an inevitable sequence of events which could not be otherwise determined. We notice at once that there might have been another result, and that we might have been just as well able to understand and explain the latter. The synthesis is thus not so satisfactory as the analysis; in other words from a knowledge of the premises we could not have foretold the nature of the result.

It is very easy to account for this disturbing state of affairs. Even supposing that we thoroughly know the aetiological factors that decide a given result, still we know them only qualitatively, and not in their relative strength. Some of them are so weak as to become suppressed by others, and therefore do not affect the final result. But we never know beforehand which of the determining factors will prove the weaker or the stronger. We only say at the end that those which succeeded must have been the stronger. Hence it is always possible by analysis to recognize the causation with certainty, whereas a prediction of it by synthesis is impossible.\*

What Freud is saying here is that because of the subtleties in the relative intensities of excitatory and inhibitory forces and because small changes in the intensities may produce large effects, psychology cannot be a predictive science. It can, however, be a postdictive science in the sense that given a result it can look back

\* Sigmund Freud, "The Psychogenesis of a Case of Homosexuality in a Woman." In *Collected Papers, II* (London, 1953), 226-27.

and unearth the causes that produced the result.

In the next chapter we shall return to the question of the role that cathexis and anti-cathexis play in the development of personality. We shall also examine the problem of how a cathexis can evade a resistance by finding another outlet.

#### V. CONSCIOUSNESS AND UNCONSCIOUSNESS

In the early years of psychoanalysis the central concept of Freud's theory was the *unconscious*. In Freud's later formulations, beginning about 1920, the unconscious was demoted from its status as the largest and most important region of the mind to the lesser status of being a quality of mental phenomena. Much of what had formerly been assigned to the unconscious became the id, and the structural distinction between consciousness and unconsciousness was replaced by the three-part organization of id, ego, and superego.

Although it is not our purpose here to write a history of the development of Freud's ideas in relation to the history of psychology, it can be pointed out that the waning importance of the unconscious in psychoanalysis was paralleled by the decreasing significance of the conscious mind in psychology. While nineteenth-century psychology was busy at its work of analyzing the conscious mind, psychoanalysis was engaged in explorations of the unconscious mind. Freud felt that consciousness was only a thin slice of the total mind, that like an iceberg, the larger part of it existed below the surface of awareness.

Psychologists answered Freud by saying that the notion of an unconscious mind was a contradiction in terms; the mind, by definition, was conscious. The controversy never reached a final conclusion because both psychology and psychoanalysis changed their objectives during the twentieth century. Psychology became a science of behavior, and psychoanalysis became a science of personality. At the present time there are many indications that



## Psychoanalysis: The Influence of Freud's Theory in Personality Psychology

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### ABSTRACT

Psychoanalytic theory is Sigmund Freud's theory of personality that attributes thoughts and actions to unconscious motives and conflicts. The purpose of this paper is to examine the influence of Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory on other personality psychologists. It illustrates the relationship of different psychologist with Sigmund Freud, and further analyzes the influence by comparing the similarities and differences between traditional psychoanalytic theory with the new theories proposed by various psychologist. The conclusion of this paper is that the influence of Sigmund Freud towards other personality psychologist shed light on the overall development of Personality Psychology as a unique subject.

**Keywords:** Personality psychology, psychoanalysis, psychological types, Freud influence

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Psychology is the study of mind and behavior. Psychology, emerging from biology and philosophy, has many different schools of thought and individual subjects. One of the most famous schools in psychology is psychoanalysis, marking by the interpretation of dream and other Freudian theory. The Psychoanalysis or psychodynamic theory arose from the 19<sup>th</sup> century, which focus on the unconsciousness and dream analysis. Psychoanalysis is the first wave of psychotherapy development which has a huge influence on the development of psychology overall and other psychologists. Personality psychology is a subfield of psychology which studies the psychological type and individual personality. In this paper, it discusses the development of Freud's personality theory as well as how his theory influenced other famous psychoanalytic psychologists Anna Freud, Carl Jung, and Otto Rank.

### 2. Sigmund Freud

Sigmund Freud was the most influential person in the field of psychology. He was the founder of psychoanalysis, also the first person who proposed psychoanalytic personality theory.

### 2.1 Early experience

Freud was born in 1856 in Moravia. When Freud was born, his father was forty years old and his mother was only twenty (14). In his childhood, Freud's father was strict and despotic (14). However, his mother cared about him. He loved his mother in a special way, which influenced Freud's theory of Oedipus complex.

### 2.2 Id, Ego, and Super ego

Id, Ego, and Superego were the three layers of personality in Freud's theory. It was the basic structure of individual personality, according to Freud (3). Id represented human's biological instinct. Freud described Id as "pleasure principle" and "primary-process thought", representing Id fulfill human need immediately in order to relief the nervous feeling (5). Id is the most innate quality of human which represent their physiological desire. Ego used "reality principle" (5). It was the process of rationalization. Freud also called ego as the "second-process thought" (3). Freud compared the relationship between the ego and the id to that between a chariot and his horse: the horses provide the energy and drive, while the charioter provides direction (12). Super ego represented the conscience, which people already formed in their early childhood. The combination of Id, Ego, and Superego forms the behavior and personality of an individual, which represented by their behavior in the society and how interaction with others. Id, Ego, and Superego theory is the fundamental theory in Freud's personality theory.

### 2.3 Defense mechanism

Anxiety was the signal of danger, representing that the ego was in a threatened situation (4). As a result, ego must use defense types of defense mechanisms to reduce anxiety. The defense mechanisms included repression, denial, reaction formation, projection, regression, identification, displacement, and sublimation (4) Regression was the most common used mechanism, characterized by the unconscious replacement of conscious memories. It made people to "forget" traumatic memories. Freud regarded regression as an inner psychic process (1). Regression was

the basis of Freudian theory in personality psychology and the root of traumatic behavior.

Other defense mechanisms include denial, which is blocking events from awareness and the refusing to experience the events. Projection is that individual attributing their own unacceptable thoughts, feeling and motives to another person. Displacement involves substituting an impulse with a substitute object. There are also many other defense mechanisms that people use to facing traumatic events. The defense mechanisms that a person utilizes when facing their childhood trauma can in some way shape their personality and influence their personality development.

### 2.4 Criticism

Although Freud influenced the field personality psychology, there were many criticisms towards his theory. Harlow, in the journal of abnormal psychology, directly pointed out that Freud's theory was "unacceptably unscientific" (8). Moreover, an article discussing Freud's contribution illustrated that "the judgment of some critics to be missing against him", indicating that Freud's theory cannot be regarded as valid scientifically (7).

### 3. ANNA FREUD

Anna Freud was the daughter of Sigmund Freud. She was analyzed by Sigmund Freud for four years. She dedicated to her father's psychoanalytic system. However, instead of focusing on the adult's dream and interpretation, Anna Freud only analyzed children.

### 3.1 Children psychology

Anna's psychoanalytic subject changed from adult to primary children. She had made a huge contribution to the development of children psychology. According to Anna's theory, the children's internal world and external environment have a mutual interaction between each other (19). Also, Anna Freud's research showed various techniques in treating the disease caused by developmental disturbances and problems in children (16).

### 3.2 Elaboration on defense mechanism

Anna Freud, in the journal The Ego and the Mechanisms of Defense, elaborated on Sigmund Freud's theory on the defense mechanism and described how defense mechanism works in detail (3). It was one of the most famous Anna Freud's work in the field of psychology. Also, it was Anna Freud who brought the word "defense mechanism" and "suppression" into the public. According to Anna Freud, repression can be caused by any traumatic event and can stand in the unconscious mind which caused serious mental disease (19). Sigmund Freud, the father of Anna

Freud, complimented her work: "I agree with her opinion. However, her thought was derived from her own experience" (2).

### 4. CARL JUNG

#### 4.1 Early experience and relationship with Sigmund Freud

Carl Jung was born in 1875 in Solon. In his early years, he had an intimate family. His mother had an unstable mind, causing him to have a sense of alert to women. It was also the reason why Jung opposed Freud's opinion on Oedipus complex. In 1907, Carl Jung met Sigmund Freud (6). They had a close friendship at first. In the letter between Jung and Freud, it indicated that the mutual friendship between Jung and Freud was more like the relationship between the father and the son (6). Freud even named Jung as the head of International Psychoanalytic Association, showing the arbitrary and trust on Carl Jung (6). However, Jung had his own view on personality psychology. They separated in 1913.

#### 4.2 Analytical psychology

There were two main conflicts between Jung and Freud. The first one was about libido. Freud viewed libido as the sexual instinct of human (3). However, Jung thought libido was a broad life power. He did not view libido as an important factor contribute to the personality. Another difference of Jung viewing libido was the power for "psychic" providing energy for people to think and feel (16). The second conflict was the method of dream analysis. Freud interpreted dreams using free analysis, and he interpreted it separately (16). However, Jung thought the dream was connected with each other. And the dream was related to reality in a predictable and compensatory way (19).

#### 4.3 Psychological type

Jung characterized people into primary type of psychological function, which contained two governing function: sensation and intuition, and two judging functions: thinking and feeling (11). Then the function was divided into two attitude types: extroversion and introversion (11). Psychological type was the main contribution of Jung to personality psychology which merged his theory with psychoanalysis and personality. MBTI, the most widely used personality test, was constructed based on Jung's personality theory, which indicated that the psychological type can be used to characterize constant individual perception and judgment (17).

### PETUNJUK BAGI PENULIS

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### GANGGUAN PERILAKU MASA ANAK DAN MASA REMAJA DAN PSIKOPAT

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### Abstract

Psychopathy is an antisocial personality disorder that disturbing the person self and people around him. According to the experts, conduct disorder might continue to become delinquency in adolescence. Gradually, conduct disorder can also become antisocial personality disorder. Thus, it would be more effective to have an early preventive intervention, by giving early detection for children whose indication of antisocial behavior.

**Key word:** Conduct Disorder, Childhood, Adolescence, Psychopath

### PENDAHULUAN

Berita tentang Ryan membuat masyarakat luas mengenal istilah psikopat. Heboh pembunuhannya berantai dengan lima korban, bahkan kabar lain menyebutkan 11 korban yang dilakukannya Ryan membuat banyak orang terkejut. Terlebih tetangga pedesaan karena meski jarang bergaul dan bersifat tertutup, Ryan dikenal sebagai sosok alim yang juga sekaligus guru agami, jauh dari bayangan seorang pembunuh berdarah dingin.

Sebenarnya apakah psikopat itu sendiri? Menurut Hare, Cooke & Hart (Korsch, 2010) psikopat mempunyai kesamaan dengan kepribadian antisosial dan perilaku kriminal, psikopat tidak dikanakan dengan kriminal secara umum. Hare mengindikasikan bahwa "perilaku antisosial dari psikopat" (the antisocial behavior of psychopaths) dimotivasi oleh faktor-faktor yang berbeda dibandingkan dengan yang bukan psikopat (nonpsychopaths), sehingga topografi perilaku kriminal mereka berbeda. Beberapa faktor kepribadian dan psikologi sosial yang menjelaskan perilaku antisosial berbeda antara psikopat dan kriminal yang bukan psikopat.

Psikopat ialah seseorang dengan kriminallitas atau pelanggaran, tidak semua psikopat terlibat dalam aktivitas

kriminal dan tidak semua kriminal adalah psikopat. Kemungkinan sering terjadi seseorang tidak menyadari bahwa dirinya telah lama berkolaborasi dengan seorang psikopat. Menurut hasil penelitian (Clarke, dalam <http://detektifmantiaka.wordpress.com>) menunjukkan bahwa lima persen populasi orang dewasa yang bekerja Clarke menemukan bahwa psikopat tidak hanya ada di penjara, di ruang sidang pengadilan, atau pada kisah "thriller". Psikopat, baik laki-laki maupun perempuan, sedang berencana licik di tempat kerja, di seluruh dunia. Psikopat seperti itu ada di kantor besar maupun kecil, dan ruang kerja office boy, staff sampai ada di ruang rapat dengan mampu di lantala-lanta toko.

Pura psikopat ini bersembunyi lewat berbobot, mencurangi, mencari, memanfaatkan lewat keterampilan sosial mereka yang tinggi, mengabdikan dan mengabdikan pura rekan kerja, serta kesemuanya tanpa rasa salah maupun penyesalan.

Kapankah psikopat ini dimatikan, apakah gangguan kepribadian ini benar muncul ketika seseorang dalam masa dewasa atau ada sejak kecil? Dengan demikian dapat dilakukan tindakan

**Psychopathy Traits: An Analysis Of Main Character In The Novel  
"Mine" by Siti Nur Atika**

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**Abstract**

**Psychopathy Traits: An Analysis Of Main Character In the Novel "Mine" by Siti Nur Atika.** A psychopath is a person with disordered psychology who has difficulties conforming to the social standards that exist in their surroundings. This study focused on the psychic aspect of Sean, a character in Mine novel. The descriptive qualitative approach and Robert D. Hurst's theory were utilized in this study to uncover Sean's psychopathic features. The findings of this study show that Sean possesses five psychopathic characteristics. That is, mercilessness, possessiveness, shallow emotionality, lack of empathy, and a sense of personal satisfaction.

**Keywords:** Psychopathy, traits

**Introduction**

Psychopathy is a personality disorder that can be described as someone who has sadistic behavior and is accompanied by the ability to deceive others. Furthermore, psychopaths have superficial emotions, lack of empathy, and a strong desire to commit crimes and harm others. A psychopath is generally associated with sadistic feelings, a lack of empathy, and a desire to commit crimes in order to satisfy his desires. These individuals will feel satisfied and have no guilt if they hurt other people or even animals (Margawati, 1977). Similar to Neumann et al. (2016), Psychopathy refers to a group of personality traits and behaviors that are commonly connected with a lack of emotional sensitivity and empathy, impulsiveness, superficial charm, and insensitivity to punishment.

Siti Nur Atika is the author of the novel Mine, which was first released by Fantasia in Jakarta, Indonesia, in October 2017. It belongs to the romance genre. With 336 pages, this is the third publication on 2018. There are two primary characters in this novel, Tika and Sean. Tika is a typical human, but Sean is a possessive vampire who is also a werewolf. Sean, who fell in love with Tika, even appeared to have imprisoned her. Sean includes many love situations in this novel in addition to psychological conditions.

A novel is a type of literature authored by a writer with a long essay that contains a sequence of events in a person's life with those who surround him or her and emphasizes

the character. There are several issues that may be addressed in a novel, ranging from cultural issues to feminism and, most notably, psychology. According to Sunardi in Pulunggeli (2020) novel is a story with the prose form in long shape which means the story including the complex plot.

In this research the researcher focuses on the psychological condition specifically psychopathic of Sean. This research has the potential to grow the literary study of psychopaths. Furthermore, the author discusses Sean's psychotic conduct against Tika. The author believes that by doing this research, people will become more aware of and worried about mental health.

Danang Budi Mulyo Utomo examined psychopathic research in literature in his research *The Psychopath Phenomenon Reflected in Karen Rose's Notahik To Fear Novel (2005) A Psychoanalytic Approach*. Based on psychoanalytic analysis, the researcher concludes that in this work, the writer depicts a psychological phenomena in which a person experiences psychopathic conduct due to hereditary and environmental factors that occur in someone's behavior, when someone's behavior is dominated by Id. In contrast to previous research that solely explored psychopathic phenomena produced by heredity and environment, this study focuses on a specific sort of psychopathic behaviors.

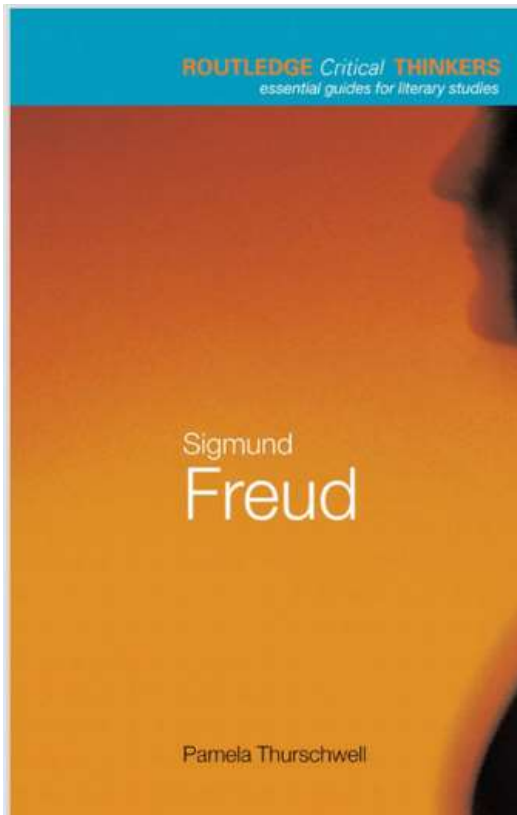
**Methodology**

As stated by Wellek and Warren (1977:136) in (Margawati, 1977), psychology can be used in literary works by studying author's psychology, character's psychology, and also reader's psychology. According to Wiyatni (2011) Psychology investigates and analyzes behaviour or activities seen as representations of human mental existence. There are several definitions of psychology (Albar, 2022)

The psychological approach is the polar opposite of the belief that literary work is constantly focused on different types of conduct. A particular study, termed psychology, is required to learn more about human behavior (Sulaeman, 2014).

A literature review is a method that is systematic, comprehensive, and reproducible for identifying, evaluating, and synthesizing research findings and findings that have been generated by academics and practitioners. The purpose of a literature review is to create an analysis and hypothesis based on prior knowledge about a topic that will be studied in order to identify a suitable location for research (Ulhaq & Rahmayanti, 2020).

In order to complete the study, the documents are used as the data, which are interpreted according to the researcher's understanding supported by the theory in this study. As mentioned before, document analysis is conducted to collect and interpret the



**SIGMUND FREUD**

Sigmund Freud's impact on how we think, and how we think about how we think, has been enormous. Freud's psychoanalytical theory suggested new ways of understanding – amongst other things – love, hate, childhood, family relations, civilisation, religion, sexuality, fantasy and the conflicting emotions that make up our daily lives. Today we live in the shadow of Freud's innovative and controversial concepts.

This short introduction to Freud's theories, contexts, influences and cultural effects is the ideal guide for readers interested in this thinker's continuing impact on contemporary culture and critical theory. The perfect companion to Freud's own work, this volume examines key ideas and key texts alongside the contexts from which they emerged. As well as offering a critical reading of Freud, the author highlights Freud's genius as a critical reader – of dreams, symptoms, slips of the tongue, myth, desire and culture. What emerges from this approach is a lucid examination of Freud's influence on contemporary literary and cultural theory.

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thinking, and works through Freud's writings with an eye towards the productiveness of contradiction. Reading Freud properly means reading him carefully. Even when you think you know what he's going to say, he may surprise you.

The terrain that psychoanalysis explores is that of the individual psyche.

#### PSYCHE

Originating from Greek myth, the word *psyche* originally referred to the soul. But psychoanalytic terminology does not use soul in a religious sense. Rather the psyche is the mental apparatus as it is defined in contrast to the body or the **soma**. (A somatic illness is one that is caused by bodily rather than mental factors.)

The key to the psyche that Freud asks us to read, the storehouse of conflicting energies and disguised desires, is the individual's **unconscious**. For Freud every thought is unconscious before it is conscious: 'Psychoanalysis regarded everything mental as being in the first instance unconscious; the further quality of "consciousness" might also be present, or again it might be absent' (Freud 1925a: 214).

#### UNCONSCIOUS

The unconscious for Freud, can be defined in several different ways, but it is primarily the storehouse of instinctual desires and needs. Childhood wishes and memories live on in unconscious life, even if they have been erased from consciousness. The unconscious is, in a sense, the great waste-paper basket of the mind – the trash that never gets taken out: 'in mental life nothing which has once been formed can perish – ... everything is somehow preserved and ... in suitable circumstances ... it can once more be brought to light' (Freud 1900: 256).

We will return to and refine our definition of this central psychoanalytic concept later, in our discussion of Freud's topography (mapping) of the mind in Chapter 5, but this definition of the unconscious will suffice as an initial explanation.

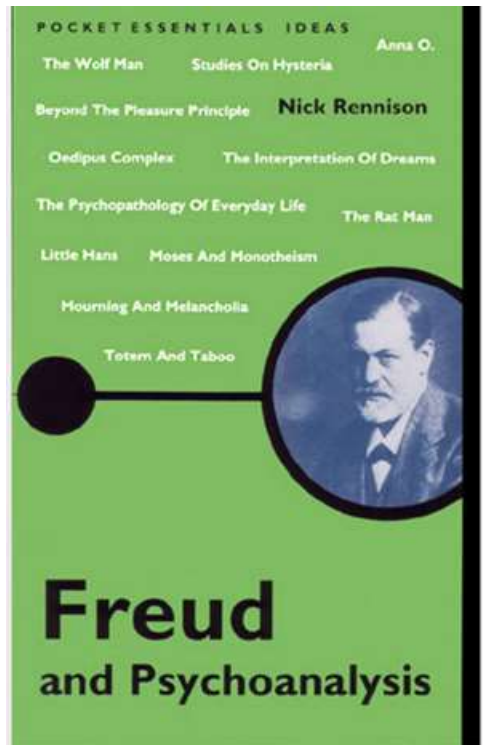
Besides defining certain key psychoanalytic concepts, before we can grasp Freud's ideas it is necessary to understand something about how his theories formed and changed in response to the surrounding intellectual and political climate. The rest of this introductory chapter will provide a short history of Freud's life and cultural circumstances. The next short chapter will provide a roughly chronological account of the early ideas that led to his initial development of psychoanalytic theory and practice.

#### LIFE AND CONTEXT

What then were the historical and personal circumstances that helped fashion the man Sigmund Freud and the theory and clinical practice, psychoanalysis, that is inseparable from his name? Freud was born on 6 May 1856 in the Moravian town of Freiberg. He was the son of a Jewish wool merchant, Jacob Freud and his third wife Amalie. When Freud was four his family moved to Vienna, where he would continue to live and work for the next seventy-nine years before being forced to leave because of the threat of Nazi persecution in 1938. In that year he and his family emigrated to England, where he died on 23 September 1939.

Outwardly Freud's life was not terribly eventful until his family's somewhat dramatic escape from Vienna. If Freud created a revolution with his new ideas about sexuality and unconscious desires, the battles he fought were conceptual ones rather than active ones. It is fair to say that he took the intellectual and cultural atmosphere he grew up in and made something new with it, yet he also worked within its limits.

The Vienna of the late nineteenth century was a contradictory city. Although it was home to sophisticated, liberal ideas in its intellectual café society, and its art, music and literature, by the turn of the century Vienna was also a city with deep economic problems. Recent historians have pointed out that the Vienna bourgeoisie was overwhelmingly Jewish. Although Jews made up only 10 per cent of the population of Vienna, more than half of the doctors and lawyers in the city in 1890 were Jewish (Forrester 1997: 189). With cultural advantages came backlash. Anti-Semitism was also a part of life in Vienna. In his 'Autobiographical Study' Freud wrote of the consequence of encountering anti-Semitism in his career as a student: 'These first impressions at the University, however, had one consequence which was afterwards



### Early Life

Sigmund Freud was born on the 6<sup>th</sup> May 1856 in the small country town of Freiberg, then part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, now the Moravian town of Příbor in the Czech Republic. He was the eldest son of Jacob Freud, a relatively unsuccessful and unprosperous Jewish merchant, and Jacob's second wife, Amalia who had married the previous year. Amalia was twenty years younger than her husband and Jacob had two adult sons from a previous marriage who were much the same age as their stepmother. Freud's earliest playmates included the children of one of these sons, Emanuel. That uncle, nephew and niece were roughly contemporaries, as were Freud's mother and his two older half-brothers, must have caused generational (and, possibly, sexual) confusion in the young Freud's mind and biographers have felt free to speculate on the influence this may have had on his future interest in childhood sexuality and its effects on adult life. In an age, however, when many women died young in childbirth and many widowers married second wives much younger than themselves, the Freud household's complex interrelationships would not have been significantly uncommon.

A year after Sigmund's arrival in the world, Amalia Freud gave birth to another boy, who was named Julius, but he died when only a few months old. In 1858 a sister Anna was born and she was followed at almost yearly intervals by four more girls. Alexander, Freud's youngest sibling, was born in 1866. Sigmund, the talented oldest sibling, was to grow up surrounded by adoring and admiring females, convinced of his special genius. Most important of these was, of course, his mother who lavished her attention on her first-born and was his earliest teacher. In later life, Freud wrote, 'A man who has been the indisputable favourite of his mother keeps for life the feeling of a conqueror, that confidence of success that often

7

Freud used a number of analogies to describe the relationship between ego and id. Perhaps most tellingly he compared the id to a horse and the ego to its rider

Electra complex - the female equivalent of the Oedipus complex in which the daughter harbours incestuous feelings towards the father and murderous antagonism to the mother. In Greek mythology Electra was the daughter of Agamemnon and Clytemnestra. After Agamemnon's return from the Trojan Wars, his wife murdered him. Electra incited her brother Orestes to kill Clytemnestra in order to revenge their father's death.

Fixation - in Freud's scheme of libidinal development there were several stages through which the individual needed to pass, several hurdles on the road to sexual maturity. A fixation occurs if the individual fails to clear one of these developmental hurdles and becomes fixated at one of the stages, attached to objects appropriate to that stage

Free association - one of the foundations of psychoanalytical practice. By encouraging the analysand to speak aloud his or stream of consciousness, one idea linking with another, one word or image suggesting another, the analyst aims to uncover unconscious thought processes that would otherwise remain hidden.

Freudian slip, *more correctly known as parapraxis* - this is one of the most familiar of Freudian ideas to the man or woman in the street and he introduced it in his 1905 book, *The Psychopathology of Everyday Life*. Freud proposed that the mind makes no meaningless errors. Slips of the tongue or of the pen on the page and failures of memory in everyday life are not mere matters of chance. They reveal hidden motivations and unconscious processes at work which can be revealed by careful analysis. One of the most telling examples of secret reasons behind temporary amnesia came from Freud's own experience. For many days in a row, despite reminding himself that he needed to buy some 'Loschpapier' (blotting paper), Freud forgot to do so. Why? he asked himself and came up with the answer that, when in the shop, he used the word 'Fließpapier' (another German word for blotting paper) rather than 'Loschpapier'. It was the time of the painful break up of his friendship with Wilhelm Fliess and asking

ciations. So, to avoid these, Freud simply forgot to go.

**Id** *in German 'das Es'* - that part of the mind, in Freud's schematic division of it into three, which is primitive, instinctual and constitutes the unconscious. Amoral and demanding of instant gratification of the libido, the id is in constant conflict with the realism of the ego and the conscience of the superego

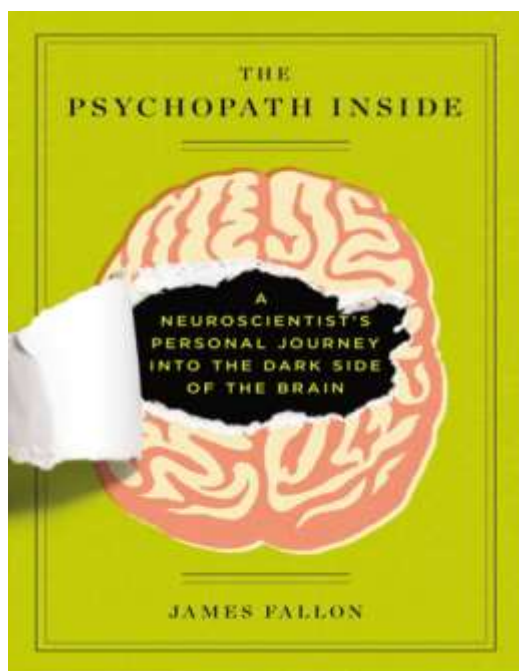
**Introjection** - the process by which one absorbs an external object, or more frequently another person, into one's mind and creates a mental state which reflects that external object or person

**Latent dream** - the hidden and repressed ideas, wishes and desires that lurk beneath the manifest dream, waiting to be revealed by the interpretative techniques of psychoanalysis

**Libido** - in psychoanalytic theory, the sexual drive and energy which is directed towards individuals and objects in the outside world. Neurotic and other psychiatric illnesses are often the result of libido that is inappropriately directed.

**Manifest dream** - what the dreamer remembers of a dream and describes to the analyst, the raw and sometimes bizarre material from which the latent dream, with its often dark, instinctual desires, can be coaxed

**Oedipus complex** - the story of Oedipus is one of the most familiar and resonant of the Greek myths. King Laius of Thebes and his wife Jocasta are about to become parents when it is foretold that the child will grow up to murder his father and marry his mother. Anxious to avoid this undesirable future, Laius arranges for his new-born son to be left on a mountainside to die. Shepherds take pity on the child and rescue him. Eventually, by one of those roundabout set of circumstances so essential to any good myth, the boy is brought up by the king and queen of Corinth and named Oedipus. Ignorant of who he really is, Oedipus, as a young man, leaves Corinth when the Delphic Oracle repeats the prediction about killing his father and marrying his mother. On the road to Thebes he meets Laius by chance, they quarrel and Oedipus ends by killing the man he does not realise is his



THE
<b>PSYCHOPATH INSIDE</b>
A NEUROSCIENTIST'S PERSONAL JOURNEY INTO THE DARK SIDE OF THE BRAIN
<b>JAMES FALLON</b>
CURRENT

Despite the debate about whether psychopathy is a real disorder and, if so, what defines it, there are some accepted parameters within the medical community. The most famous and widely used test is the PCL-R (Psychopathy Checklist, Revised), also known as the Psychopath Test or Hare's Checklist, named for the Canadian psychiatrist Robert Hare, who developed it. The PCL-R consists of twenty items, each of which is scored 0, 1, or 2, designating whether the psychopathic trait is not present (0 points), partially present (1 point), or definitely present (2 points). A person with a "perfect" score of 40 is a full-blown, categorical psychopath on this scale. Thirty is the normal cutoff for a diagnosis, although sometimes 25 is used. The test is scored by a person trained in giving the scale, usually during a session in which the clinician interviews the subject, sometimes supplemented with legal and medical records and third-person references. An evaluation can also be made by someone who knows the subject well, without his being present.

The traits can be sorted into four different categories, or "factors." The interpersonal factor includes the traits of superficiality, grandiosity, and deceitfulness. The affective factor includes lack of remorse, lack of empathy, and refusal to accept responsibility for one's actions. The behavioral factor includes impulsivity, lack of goals, and amenability. And the antisocial factor includes hawkishness, a history of juvenile delinquency, and a criminal record. Antisocial personality disorder is related to psychopathy but is much more common and is a measure of outward disruptive behavior rather than an underlying personality problem. Psychopathy scores are actually a better predictor of criminal recidivism, severity, and persistence.

Psychopathy is not something one can just casually assess, although there are versions of the test that can be self-administered and are not "officially" diagnostic. A typical statement on a self-administered checklist might be, "I can be shrewd, crafty, sly, and clever—if needed, I can also be deceptive, unscrupulous, unfeeling, manipulative, and dishonest." Two other sample statements would be, "At times, I feel a strong need for novel, exciting, and exciting situations; I get bored easily. This might result in me taking chances and doing things that are risky. Carrying tasks through 'to the bitter end' or staying in the same job for a longer time can feel very difficult for me," and "Significant amounts of the money I have made, I have made by emotionally exploiting or manipulating others. With 'classy' forms of work, I often feel a lack of motivation, a problem with my self-discipline, or an inability to complete my responsibilities."

To illustrate the degrees represented on the PCL-R, I like to point to pop culture, which is full of portrayals—some accurate, some less so—of

psychopaths. The most extreme and ridiculous examples can be found in horror films featuring foot-toothed characters with two bigger eyeballs who evade danger and immorally evade death. Think Freddy Krueger or the family in *The Texas Chain Saw Massacre*. Even Patrick Bateman, Christian Bale's self-loving, unbridled character in the film adaptation of *American Psycho*, is not representative of a true psychopath, as he is too violent to be realistic. These are caricatures—even the most violent criminals are rarely so obviously insane.

Some reasonable characterizations include Timothy DeVita, played by Joe Pesci in *Goodfellas*, and Frank Booth, played by Dennis Hopper in *Blue Velvet*. Both of these are relatively normal-looking guys—guys you might pass on the street and not think twice about. But they are deeply disturbed individuals who obviously cannot control their insane aggressiveness and whose little rage or sympathy for their violent actions. Timothy and Frank would score high on the PCL-R. Timothy in particular expresses the interpersonal aspects of glibness, charm, and manipulation. He's charming, and he can go in and out of character. In the "Do I amaze you?" exchange, he has the other guy pinned—there's no right answer. Psychopaths can put people into uncomfortable positions. There's also a scene in which Timothy shoots a guy in the foot, then turns him out for making a big deal of it and goes back to playing cards. After a murder, psychopaths often say they feel like someone else did it, or the victim precipitated the pulling of the trigger. They feel detached, impelled to action by forces out of their control. Timothy calls the foot-shooting incident an "accident." Not all psychopaths are impulsive or physically violent, but some are, as in the cases of Timothy and Frank.

My favorite example comes from the 1986 film *Mindhunter*, starring litas Cox and William Bantman. Cox plays Harold Lecter, a cannibalistic serial killer who was later reimagined more famously by Anthony Hopkins in the films *The Silence of the Lambs* and *Hannibal*. Lecter is characterized by his lack of empathy, his gifts and charming manipulation of people, and his utter lack of remorse for his heinous and perverse behavior. In short, he is what many would consider a classic psychopath and would probably have scored high on Hare's Checklist. Real-life psychopaths who resemble Lecter account for the more sensational and extreme cases—think Jeffrey Dahmer, Ted Bundy, or the Son of Sam.

But according to Hare, there is an entire other category of psychopaths out there—those who don't score as high on the PCL-R but who still exhibit strong signs of classic psychopathic traits. These are people like the hero of *Mindhunter*, the FBI profiler Will Graham, played by Bantman. Graham recognizes that he has the same urges and lack of interpersonal empathy as Lecter. Although he is

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Mario Klarer is Associate Professor of English and American Studies at the University of Innsbruck.

has to be highly selective, entailing an idiosyncratic temporal dimension that usually focuses on one central moment of action. The slow and gradual build-up of suspense in the novel must be accelerated in the short story by means of specific techniques. The action of the short story therefore often commences close to the climax (*in media res*—"the middle of the matter"), reconstructing the preceding context and plot development through flashbacks. Focusing on one main figure or location, the setting and the characters generally receive less detailed and careful depiction than in the novel. In contrast to the novel's generally descriptive style, the short story, for the simple reason of limited length, has to be more suggestive. While the novel experiments with various narrative perspectives, the short story usually chooses one particular point of view, relating the action through the eyes of one particular figure or narrator. The **novella** or **novellette**, such as Joseph Conrad's (1857–1924) *Heart of Darkness* (1902), holds an intermediary position between novel and short story, since its length and narratological elements cannot be strictly identified with either of the two genres.

As this juxtaposition of the main elements of the novel and the short story shows, attempts to explain the nature of these genres rely on different methodological approaches, among them reception theory with respect to reading without interruption, formalist notions for the analysis of plot structures, and contextual approaches for delineating their boundaries with other comparable genres. The terms plot, time, character, setting, narrative perspective, and style emerge not only in the definitions and characterizations of the genre of the novel, but also function as the most important areas of inquiry in film and drama. Since these aspects can be isolated most easily in prose fiction, they will be dealt with in greater detail in the following section by drawing on examples from novels and short stories. The most important elements are:

Plot	What happens?
Characters	Who acts?
Narrative perspective	Who sees what?
Setting	Where and when do the events take place?

## a)

## Plot

**Plot** is the logical interaction of the various thematic elements of a text which lead to a change of the original situation as presented at the outset of the narrative. An ideal traditional plot line encompasses the following four sequential levels:

exposition—complication—climax or turning point—resolution

The **exposition** or presentation of the initial situation is disturbed by a **complication** or **conflict** which produces suspense and eventually leads to a climax, crisis, or turning point. The **climax** is followed by a resolution of the complication (French **dénouement**), with which the text usually ends. Most traditional fiction, drama, and film employ this basic plot structure, which is also called **linear plot** since its different elements follow a chronological order.

In many cases—even in linear plots—**flashback** and **foreshadowing** introduce information concerning the past or future into the narrative. The opening scene in Billy Wilder's (1906–2002) *Sunset Boulevard* (1950) is a famous example of the **foreshadowing** effect in film: the first-person narrator posthumously relates the events that lead to his death while drifting dead in a swimming pool. The only break with a linear plot or chronological narrative is the anticipation of the film's ending—the death of its protagonist—thus eliminating suspense as an important element of plot. This technique directs the audience's attention to aspects of the film other than the outcome of the action (see also Chapter 7, §4: Film).

The *stream of the novel* and the *experimental novel* deliberately break with linear narrative structures while at the same time maintaining traditional elements of plot in modified ways. Many contemporary novels alter linear narrative structures by introducing elements of plot in an unorthodox sequence. Kurt Vonnegut's (1922–) postmodern novel *Slaughterhouse-Five* (1969) is a striking example of experimental plot structure which mixes various levels of action and time, such as the experiences of a young soldier in World War II, his life in America after the war, and a science-fiction-like dream-world in

which the protagonist is kidnapped by an extraterrestrial force. All three levels are juxtaposed as fragments by rendering the different settings as well as their internal sequences of action in a non-chronological way. Kurt Vonnegut offers an explanation of this complex plot structure in his protagonist's report on the unconventional literary practice of the extraterrestrial people on the planet Tralfamador:

Tralfamadorian [...] books were laid out—in brief clumps of symbols separated by stars [...] each clump of symbols is a brief, urgent message—describing a situation, a scene. We Tralfamadorians read them all at once, not one after the other. There isn't any particular relationship between all the messages, except that the author has chosen them carefully, so that, when seen all at once, they produce an image of life that is beautiful and surprising and deep. There is no beginning, no middle, no end [...]. What we love in our books are the depths of many marvelous moments seen at one time.<sup>1</sup>

Kurt Vonnegut is actually talking about the structure of his own novel, which is composed of similarly fragmentary parts. The different levels of action and time converge in the mind of the protagonist as seemingly simultaneous presences. Vonnegut's technique of non-linear narrative, which introduces traditional elements of plot in an unconventional manner, conveys the schizophrenic mind of the protagonist through parallel presentations of different frames of experiences.

*Slaughterhouse-Five* borrows techniques from the visual arts, whose representational structures are considered to be different from literary practice. Literature is generally regarded as a temporal art since action develops in a temporal sequence of events. The visual arts, however, are often referred to as a spatial art since they are able to capture one particular segment of the action which can then be perceived in one instant by the viewer. Vonnegut and other experimental authors try to apply this pictorial structure to literary texts. Fragmented narratives which abandon linear plots surface in various genres and media, including film and drama, always indirectly determining the other main elements, such as setting and character presentation.

## b)

## Characters

While formalist approaches to the study of literature traditionally focus on plot and narrative structure, methods informed by psychoanalysis shift the center of attention to the text's characters. A psychological approach is, however, merely one way of evaluating characters; it is also possible to analyze character presentation in the context of narratological structures. Generally speaking, characters in a text can be rendered either as types or as individuals. A typified character in literature is dominated by one specific trait and is referred to as a **flat character**. The term **round character** usually denotes a persona with more complex and differentiated features.

Typified characters often represent the general traits of a group of persons or abstract ideas. Medieval allegorical depictions of characters preferred **typification** in order to personify vices, virtues, or philosophical and religious positions. The Everyman-figure, a symbol of the sinful Christian, is a major example of this general pattern in the representation of man in medieval literature. In today's advertisements, typified character presentations re-emerge in magazines, posters, film, and TV. The temporal and spatial limitations of advertising media revive allegorical and symbolic characterization for didactic and persuasive reasons comparable to those of the Middle Ages.

A good example of the purposeful use of typified character presentation occurs in the opening scene of Mark Twain's, "A True Story" (1874).

It was summer-time, and twilight. We were sitting on the porch of the farmhouse, on the summit of the hill, and "Aunt Rachel" was sitting respectfully below our level, on the steps—for she was our servant, and colored. She was a mighty frame and stature; she was sixty years old, but her eye was unimpaired and her strength unabated. She was a cheerful, hearty soul, and it was no more trouble for her to laugh than it is for a bird to sing. [...] I said: "Aunt Rachel, how is it that you've lived sixty years and never had any trouble?" She stopped quaking. She paused, and there was a moment of silence. She turned her face

the facade of his characters by dwelling solely on exterior aspects of dialogue and actions without further commentary or evaluation. Dramatic presentation, however, only pretends to represent objectively while it always necessarily remains biased and perspectival.

As shown above, one can distinguish between two basic kinds of characters (round or flat), as well as between two general **modes of presentation** (showing or telling):

<b>Kinds of characters</b>	
<i>typical characters</i>	<i>individualized characters</i>
flat	round
<b>Modes of presentation</b>	
<i>explanatory method</i>	<i>dramatic method</i>
narration	dialogue—monologue

Similar to typification and individualization, explanatory and dramatic methods hardly ever appear in their pure forms, but rather as hybrids of various degrees, since the narrator often also acts as a character in the text. Questions concerning character presentation are always connected with problems of narrative perspective and are therefore hard to isolate or deal with individually. The following section on point of view thus inevitably touches upon aspects already mentioned.

### c) Point of view

The term **point of view**, or narrative perspective, characterizes the way in which a text presents persons, events, and settings. The subtleties of narrative perspectives developed parallel to the emergence of the novel and can be reduced to three basic positions: the action of a text is either mediated through an exterior, unspecified narrator (omniscient point of view), through a person involved in the action (first-person narration), or presented without additional commentary (figural narrative situation). This tripartite structure can

only summarize the most extreme manifestations which hardly ever occur in their pure form; individual literary works are usually hybrids combining elements of various types of narrative situations.<sup>5</sup>

The most common manifestations of narrative perspectives in prose fiction can, therefore, be structured according to the following pattern:

<b>omniscient point of view</b>	<b>first-person narration</b>
through external narrator who refers to protagonist in the third person	by protagonist or by minor character
<b>figural narrative situation</b>	
through figures acting in the text	

Texts with an **omniscient point of view** refer to the acting figures in the third person and present the action from an all-knowing, God-like perspective. Sometimes the misleading term *third-person narration* is also applied for this narrative situation. Such disembodiment of the narrative agent, which does away with a narrating persona, easily allows for changes in setting, time, and action, while simultaneously providing various items of information beyond the range and knowledge of the acting figures. Jane Austen (1775–1817), for example, introduces an omniscient narrator of this sort in her novel *Northanger Abbey* (1818):

No one who had ever seen Catherine Morland in her infancy, would have supposed her born to be a heroine. Her situation in life, the character of her father and mother, her own person and disposition, were equally against her. Her father was a clergyman, without being neglected, or poor, and a very respectable man, though his name was Richard—and he had never been handsome. He had a considerable independence, besides two good livings—and he was not in the least addicted to locking up his daughters. Her mother was a woman of useful plain sense, with a good temper, and, what is more remarkable, with a good constitution.<sup>6</sup>

technique, best exemplified by the final section of his novel *Ulysses* (1922), which strings together mental associations of the character Molly Bloom. A famous example in American literature is William Faulkner's (1897–1962) renderings of impressions and events through the inner perspective of a mentally handicapped character in *The Sound and the Fury* (1929). These experimental narrative techniques of character presentation became the major structural features of modernism, thereby characterizing an entire literary era at the beginning of the twentieth century.

A good example is Virginia Woolf's (1882–1941) novel *Mrs Dalloway* (1925), which presents events not only through the thoughts of one person, but also through a number of other figures. As indicated by the title, the character Clarissa Dalloway is at the center of the novel, yet Virginia Woolf depicts her protagonist through the psyches of different personae. These figures cross paths with Clarissa Dalloway, reacting to her and thus revealing a new character trait of the protagonist. Through the interaction between the different mental reflections, as well as a number of other structural elements, the novel achieves a closed and unified form. It is a striking example of how the use of narrative perspective, character presentation, setting, and plot structure can create an interdependent network of elements which work toward a common goal.

Modernist and postmodernist novels introduce these techniques in very overt ways, often even changing **narrative perspectives** within one text in order to highlight decisive shifts in the course of action or narrative. The Canadian novelist Margaret Atwood, for example, renders the first section of her novel *The Edible Woman* (1969) in first-person narration by the protagonist. In the second part she then uses a figural narrative situation in order to emphasize the general alienation of the main character: "Marian was sitting listlessly at her desk. She was doodling on the pad for telephone messages. She drew an arrow with many intricate feathers, then a cross-hatch of intersecting lines. She was supposed to be working [...]."<sup>7</sup> When Marian regains her identity at the end of the novel, Atwood also switches back to the original first-person narration: "I was cleaning up the apartment. It had taken me two days to gather the strength to face it, but I had finally started. I had to go about it layer by layer" (ibid.: 289). Later on, Atwood even lets the protagonist reflect about these

narratological changes when Marian says: "Now that I was thinking of myself in the first person singular again I found my own situation much more interesting" (ibid.: 290). Atwood's novel is an obvious example of how thematic aspects of a text, in this case the protagonist's loss of identity, can be emphasized on a structural level by means of narratological techniques such as point of view.

### d) Setting

**Setting** is another aspect traditionally included in analyses of prose fiction, and it is relevant to discussions of other genres, too. The term 'g' "setting" denotes the location, historical period, and social surroundings in which the action of a text develops. In James Joyce's *Ulysses* (1922), for example, the setting is clearly defined as Dublin, 16 June 1904. In other cases, for example William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) *Hamlet* (c. 1601), all we know is that the action takes place in medieval Denmark. Authors hardly ever choose a setting for its own sake, but rather embed a story in a particular context of time and place in order to support action, characters, and narrative perspective on an additional level.

In the gothic novel and certain other forms of prose fiction, setting is one of the crucial elements of the genre as such. In the opening section of "The Fall of the House of Usher" (1840), Edgar Allan Poe (1809–49) gives a detailed description of the building in which the uncanny short story will evolve. Interestingly, Poe's setting, the House of Usher, indirectly resembles Roderick Usher, the main character of the narrative and lord of the house:

I know not how it was—but, with the first glimpse of the building, a sense of insufferable gloom pervaded my spirit. [...] I looked upon the scene before me—upon the mere house, and the simple landscape features of the domain—upon the bleak walls—upon the vacant eye-like windows—upon a few rank sedges—and upon a few white trunks of decayed trees—with an utter depression of soul which I can compare to no earthly sensation [...]. Perhaps the eye of a scrutinising observer might have discovered a barely perceptible fissure, which, extending



A Concise Introduction to  
**Mixed Methods  
Research**



John W. Creswell



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to Mixed Methods Research

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*This book is dedicated to Isabel Bicket Marshall (1914–2014), who  
raised me as a child, and who provided love, support, and a  
heightened sense of organization to my life and for my professional  
work.*

—JWC

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## ABOUT THE AUTHOR



John W. Cresswell is a professor of educational psychology at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. In addition to teaching at the University, he has authored numerous articles on mixed methods research, qualitative methodology, and general research design, as well as 22 books (including new editions), many of which focus on types of research design, comparisons of different qualitative methodologies, and the nature and use of mixed methods research. His books have been translated into many languages and are used around the world. Dr. Cresswell held the Gilson Institute Endowed Professor Chair for five years at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. For an additional five years, he served as director at the Office of Qualitative and Mixed Methods Research at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, which provided support for scholars incorporating qualitative and mixed methods research into projects for external funding. He served as founding coeditor for the *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* (SAGE) and has held the position of adjunct professor of family medicine at the University of Michigan, where he assisted investigators in the health sciences and education with research methodology for National Institutes of Health and National Science Foundation projects. He also served extensively as a consultant in the health services research area for the Veterans Health Administration. Dr. Cresswell was a Senior Fulbright Scholar to South Africa and in 2006 lectured to faculty and students at five universities on mixed methods research in education and the health sciences. In 2012, he again was a Senior Fulbright Scholar, this time in Thailand. In 2011, he served as co-leader of a national working group at NIH developing "best practices" for mixed methods research in the health sciences. In the spring of 2013, Dr. Cresswell was a visiting professor at Harvard's School of Public Health. In the summer of 2013, he conducted mixed methods training at Cambridge University in the UK. In 2014, he will be awarded an honorary doctorate from the University of Pretoria in South Africa.

## CHAPTER 1

### BASIC FEATURES OF MIXED METHODS RESEARCH

#### ◆ TOPICS IN THE CHAPTER

- Mixed methods as a methodology and a method about 25 years old
- A definition of mixed methods research
- What is not mixed methods research
- Four key characteristics of a mixed methods study

#### ◆ UNDERSTANDING MIXED METHODS RESEARCH

The best way to begin, I believe, is to reach an understanding of the basic characteristics of mixed methods research. As a field of methodology about 25 years old, this approach has common elements that can easily be identified. That is not to say that there is no disagreement about the core meaning of this approach. It can be viewed from a philosophical stance, in which epistemology and other philosophical assumptions take center stage. It can also be presented as a methodology, that is, as a research process originating from a broad philosophy and extending to interpretation and dissemination. Or it can be positioned within a transformative perspective, such as feminism or disability theory. Since these are all possibilities, it is crucial to recognize that several definitions exist depending on the perspective of the author.

My stance is to look at mixed methods as a method. This means that I will give it a distinct methods orientation, one in which data collection, analysis, and interpretation hold center stage. This is not to minimize the importance of philosophy or of methodology or of the research questions. It

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Eka Alisa Putri - 12 Februari 2023, 14:35 WIB

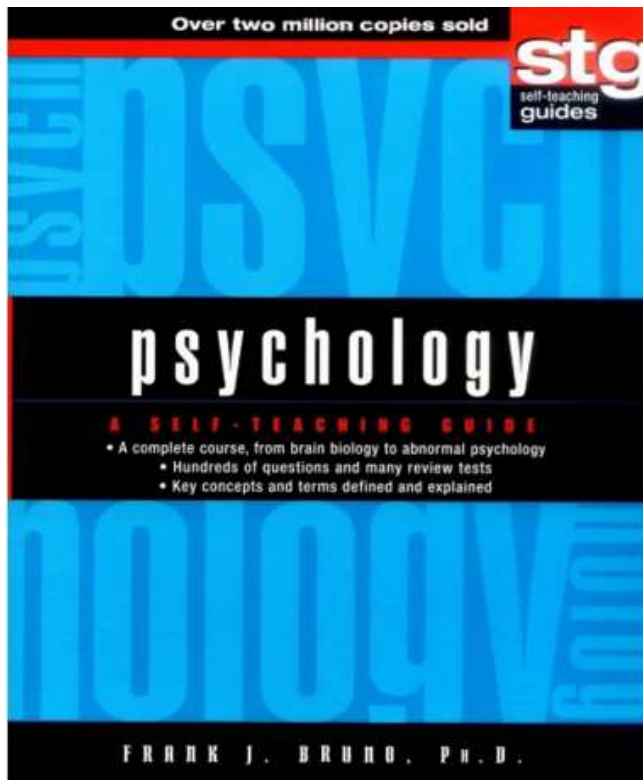


**PIKIRAN RAKYAT** - Terdakwa kasus pembunuhan berencana [Brigadir J, Ferdy Sambo](#) akan menjalani sidang vonis pada Senin, 13 Februari 2023. Menjelang pembacaan putusan akhir majelis hakim terhadap dalang di balik tewasnya [Brigadir J](#) itu, kasus pembunuhan ini mengalami drama yang cukup panjang.

Kasus ini berawal dari dugaan 'Polisi tembak Polisi' di kediaman [Ferdy Sambo](#) yang saat itu menjabat sebagai Kadiv Propam Polri di Kompleks Polri Duren Tiga Nomor 46 kawasan Pancoran, Jakarta Selatan, pada Jumat, 8 Juli 2022 sekira pukul 17.00 WIB.

Sejak awal peristiwa, para pelaku beralih menghabisi nyawa [Brigadir J](#) karena adanya tindak pelecehan terhadap [Putri Candrawathi](#), istri dari [Ferdy Sambo](#). Pada saat kejadian, di rumah tersebut ada [Brigadir J](#) yang bertugas sebagai sopir dan [Bharada E](#) juga berada di rumah lantai dua, lalu ada dua saksi lainnya yang berada di lantai atas.

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- identify the five classical schools of psychology and their founding personalities;
- name and describe the six principal viewpoints used to explain behavior;
- name and describe seven important fields of psychology.

### Looking at the Word *Psychology*: From Ancient to Modern Meanings

The word **psychology** has had several different meanings from ancient to modern times. Here is its present definition: *Psychology is the science that studies the behavior of organisms.* This definition should guide you throughout your study of this book.

Three words in the definition merit special attention: (1) science, (2) behavior, and (3) organisms. Modern psychology is considered a *science* because it bases its conclusions on **data**, information obtained by systematic observations. The research methods used by psychology are covered in chapter 2.

**Behavior** has three aspects: (1) cognitive processes, (2) emotional states, and (3) actions. **Cognitive processes** refer to what an individual thinks. **Emotional states** refer to what an individual feels. **Actions** refer to what an individual does.

An **organism** is any living creature. Consequently, the behavior of dogs, rats, pigeons, and monkeys can be legitimately included in the study of psychology. Such organisms have indeed been subjects in psychology experiments. However, traditionally the principal focus of psychology has been humans. When animals are used in experiments, the implicit goal is often to explore how such basic processes as learning and motivation, as studied in animals, can cast a light on our understanding of human behavior.

(a) What does psychology study? \_\_\_\_\_

(b) What are the three aspects of behavior? \_\_\_\_\_

Answers: (a) The behavior of organisms; (b) Cognitive processes, emotional states, and actions.

Although you now know the modern definition of psychology, it is important to realize that the word *psychology* has its roots in ancient meanings associated with philosophy. The Greek word **psyche** means soul. Consequently, to philosophers living 400 to 300 B.C., psychology was the "study of the soul." This was the meaning given by Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. In view of the fact that these thinkers, particularly Socrates and Plato, did not believe that animals have souls, it becomes evident why for many centuries psychology's main attention has been