PSYCHOLOGY
for TEACHERS
PRAISE FOR THE LAST EDITION

‘Written in a very accessible style, this book makes the links between underpinning psychological theory and practice easy for the reader to relate to.’
John Luker, Glyndwr University

‘A very accessible text which demonstrates how theory can be effectively applied within the classroom. The companion website provides a very useful source of information and resources.’
Jean Bourne, Herefordshire & Ludlow College

‘This is a thorough and readable introduction to educational psychology. It deals with historical approaches as well as emerging ones in a lucid manner. Practising teachers looking to extend their knowledge will find the reflective questions at the end of each section valuable.’
Louise Campbell, University of Edinburgh

‘Psychology for Teachers provides a comprehensive introduction to the application of key ideas from Psychology to Education from an inter-disciplinary perspective.’
Jonathan D. Reid, Oxford Brookes University
PSYCHOLOGY for TEACHERS

PAUL CASTLE
SCOTT BUCKLER

2nd Edition
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NEW TO THIS EDITION

*Psychology for Teachers* has been updated extensively for this second edition with a range of new content.

The major additions to this edition include eight new chapters divided into three entirely new parts on Mental Wellbeing (Part 4), Psychological Skills Training (Part 5), and Evidence-based Teaching (Part 6). The new chapter topics include Mental Wellbeing, Coaching Psychology and Developing Resilience (Part 4), Goal-Setting, Mental Imagery, Self-Talk and Cognitive Restructuring, and Relaxation (Part 5) and Doing Research and Analysing Data (Part 6). The addition of this new content is in response to current and topical developments in educational psychology and educational research and practice more widely.

Chapter 9 (Understanding Special Educational Needs and Disabilities) has also been thoroughly revised to include coverage of the SEND Code of Practice (Department for Education/Department for Health, 2015), and there is a more critical perspective applied to the discussion of Learning Styles in Chapter 20.

We’ve also taken the opportunity to include additional further reading in a selection of the new chapters as well as fully revised references throughout this new edition.
This book would not have been possible without the contributions of many others. From SAGE Publishing we would specifically like to express our gratitude to the commissioning editor, James Clark, whose original vision promoted the first edition of this book and who had the timely foresight to consider a second edition. Our thanks also extend to Robert Patterson at SAGE whose meticulous attention to detail has helped take the manuscript through to publication. Furthermore, for the copy-editing by Gemma Marren whose attention to detail has helped immeasurably; along with Rachel Burrows, the Senior Production Editor whose support was extremely welcome in the final stages. We similarly appreciate the support from the many others ‘behind the scenes’ at SAGE who contribute to such a wonderful experience for authors, in turn ensuring that SAGE is the beacon of academic excellence when it comes to publishing.

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Scott would like to thank Genea Alexander from the University of Worcester for the many professional discussions to ensure that the content is relevant to all those progressing with their careers in teaching. I would also like to thank Professor Alison Kington, similarly from the University of Worcester, for her academic support and advice. Additionally, I would like to thank all the staff at Hindlip First School, Fernhill Heath, Worcester, for simply being superb models of what teaching should be and an outstanding school. Finally I would like to thank Chloe and Cameron, for challenging everything I thought I knew about children and education.
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ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Paul Castle joined the University of Worcester as a senior lecturer in September 2004. He is a Chartered Sport and Exercise Psychologist, Associate Fellow of the British Psychological Society and is registered with the Health & Care Professions Council. As an active practitioner, with almost 20 years’ experience, Paul provides applied psychology consultancy to clients in a wide array of disciplines, with a particular emphasis on providing individual- and small-group support to teachers and lecturers, to ameliorate the effects of stress, depression and burnout. As Mental Health and Wellbeing (MHWB or MWB) Lead for the Institute of Sport & Exercise Science at Worcester, Paul has embraced the emerging issue of MWB in students and staff within primary, secondary and tertiary education. He is an advocate for reducing the stigma associated with MWB and provides applied psychological support in guiding students through their own ‘personal challenges’ by a combination of sport, physical activity and psychological skills training. Paul is trained in Mental Health First Aid (MHFA) and Applied Suicide Intervention Skills Training (ASIST), in conjunction with his professional grounding. He is an active member of the ‘Suicide Safer’ Project Group at the University of Worcester, which aims to promote ‘suicide safer communities’ both regionally and nationally.

Scott Buckler has worked extensively in education since 1995 as a teacher and university lecturer. He has led degree programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate level, and lectured predominantly on applied educational psychology, inclusive education and leadership in schools. He is a Chartered Psychologist with a specific interest in transpersonal psychology. Other SAGE publications Scott has co-authored are Your Dissertation in...
ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Education (2016 with Nicholas Walliman) and How to Be a Successful Teacher: Strategies for Personal and Professional Development (2009 with Paul Castle). He is currently writing Responsible Radical Teaching with Pie Corbett, and runs a CPD consultancy.
As we write this foreword, it is raining. Rain, we have realised, is good for writing. It is rhythmic. It reduces the distractions otherwise associated with writing in the summer months. It provides a contrasting backdrop to the creative process required to write. In this respect, we have been unlucky. Much of our writing has taken place in the heat, so we have had to utilise our contingency plan: good coffee … and lots of it! Of course, since coffee is a diuretic, we have also had to ensure that we remained adequately hydrated in order to remain focused. We have had to adapt to ever-changing pressures and forces conspiring against us. Likewise, this is quite normal within the education system. Things change! Often! They change again and after a while, some things travel full circle and the wheel is reinvented, with a new label.

It is not change that is the difficulty: change is inevitable. Rather, it is how we all adapt to this change that is the key, transforming a multitude of thoughts into a coherent whole. With this in mind, we hope that the following chapters provide you with a convenient structure to assemble your own thoughts. The indivisible relationship between psychology and education in facilitating positive learning behaviour will become apparent as each section develops. It will also become apparent that a range of perspectives need to be considered by the teacher in order to promote best practice in the classroom. Since the first edition, we have updated where necessary, but we have also added three new sections as a result of emerging trends.

The issue of mental health and wellbeing (MHWB or MWB) has entered the public domain in the last two years and is an area of such concern that it was mentioned in the Queen’s speech (21/06/17). Both Princes William and Henry (Harry) are instrumental in the roles they play in promoting MWB in society. Equally, some high-profile celebrities are campaigning to reduce the stigma associated with diminished MWB. Moreover, we see these challenges emerge in our schools, colleges and universities every day, and in order for aspiring teachers to consider how best to educate and guide their students, it makes sense to consider their own MWB. This part, in combination with the second new part on Psychological Skills Training, will enable you to explore and develop MWB, with guidance provided here.

The third new part is on research methods. Many people avoid these two ‘dirty words’. Dry, dull, tedious, difficult, incomprehensible, pointless, meaningless! If you subscribe to this view, you are hindering yourself. Rather, look at research methods
as a vehicle to explore your thoughts and ideas. In the education system, recording information, monitoring progress, achieving results and keeping track are inescapable … they happen anyway! Think in terms of data and suddenly you have a diverse amount of information at your fingertips, ready to answer your questions. Yet, if you don’t have the knowledge to do something with it, it is not working for you. The teacher of tomorrow, implicit in the Teachers’ Standards, is expected to formulate ideas, design studies, conduct research and report the results scientifically, in order to reach valid conclusions. The new section will facilitate this.

Finally, we hope that the theories and perspectives within this book can be embraced to further enhance your classroom practice. Throughout your career, keep an open mind and keep searching for the peer-reviewed evidence when a new initiative is suggested, or in the absence of any evidence, propose investigating it formally. It is your job not only to promote thinking within your learners, but also to promote a critical, questioning attitude across the profession: only then can we, as teachers, ensure that the very best of practice is adopted, and if necessary, adapted. Be mindful of striving to achieve the work–life balance that will enable you to remain resilient on your exciting journey and seek out challenges to make you stronger and more effective as your teaching evolves.

Paul Castle and Scott Buckler
January 2018
What do you see in this picture? Is it a tea cup viewed from above? Is it a washing-machine door? A duck? Is it just two circles and a rectangle? Or can you see something different?

As a profession, teaching requires us to question our perspective. We are swayed by what we believe to be best practice, what the theory says about best practice, what we perceive about our own teaching, our thoughts and feelings, the thoughts and feelings of others, and so on. We are continually considering this array of perspectives as we develop our teaching and as we develop our profession.

Perspective is fundamental within psychology and we believe that psychology is of fundamental importance within teaching. Although the term ‘psychology’ can be simply defined as the ‘scientific study of people, the mind and behaviour’ (British Psychological Society, 2017), the focus on ‘behaviour’ raises a number of differing perspectives. For example, what is behaviour? Can behaviour be influenced or controlled? What is the best way to modify behaviour: medication, rewards or punishment? Is behaviour the result of processes internal to the individual or externally influenced? What do we define as ‘misbehaviour’? A number of other questions could similarly be raised in relation to any aspect within the teaching profession. This book encourages you to consider a range of psychological perspectives and how these relate to teaching.
As the cover of this book demonstrates, the ladder acts as a ‘vehicle’ or ‘tool’ to encourage this ascent. The ascent is analogous to your professional development. No two people will take the same ascent and this is a core reason why education is deemed a profession. Although we are informed of best practice, such practice can only be developed by taking the initial steps, gaining confidence along the way and continually asking if there are new ways that can be developed to enhance our teaching further.

Within this book you are provided with current theoretical perspectives and encouraged to consider how these perspectives relate to your practice and, on this basis, what makes (or even enhances) best practice within the profession. Each chapter provides explicit links to the most relevant Teachers’ Standards (Department for Education, 2013), demonstrating how psychology and education explicitly relate. Fundamentally the book encourages you to explore current theoretical perspectives, analysing and evaluating how these perspectives relate to your practice through structured reflections and activities. Through this approach, we encourage you to develop your personal teaching philosophy, which enhances best practice.

Let this exploration of the clouds of perspective begin!
ONLINE RESOURCES

The second edition of *Psychology for Teachers* is supported by a range of online and downloadable resources available at: [https://study.sagepub.com/castlebuckler2e](https://study.sagepub.com/castlebuckler2e)

Resources include:

- lecturer PowerPoint slides
- downloadable activity sheets
- selected SAGE journal articles
This part contextualises the theme of the book by inviting the reader to examine classical approaches (Chapter 1) and emerging psychological approaches (Chapter 2) to perspectives on education. These perspectives inform the developing teacher and provide frameworks upon which newly acquired knowledge can be ‘attached’, while providing a discussion about the qualities of the effective teacher (Chapter 3). These perspectives will also enable the teacher to develop their own philosophy on and psychology of professional practice (Chapter 4).
1 CLASSICAL APPROACHES TO PSYCHOLOGY

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CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- Consider the defining features of a variety of psychological perspectives.
- Develop an understanding of how various psychological perspectives have influenced education.
- Evaluate how psychology can be applied within education.

TEACHERS’ STANDARDS

A teacher must:

4 Plan and teach well-structured lessons
   - reflect systematically on the effectiveness of lessons and approaches to teaching

5 Adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils
   - have a secure understanding of how a range of factors can inhibit pupils’ ability to learn, and how best to overcome these
   - demonstrate an awareness of the physical, social and intellectual development of children, and know how to adapt teaching to support pupils’ education at different stages of development

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Perspective is the central focus of the book: by appreciating that there is a wide variety of approaches to teaching, the teacher who continually reflects on their own approach should place themselves in a position of achieving their best practice. The concept of perspective is discussed before exploring various psychological perspectives spanning the past century. This chapter will provide an overview of the ‘classic’ approaches (psychodynamic, behaviourist, cognitive, humanistic, psychobiological) and their relevant contributions to learning. We then introduce and discuss the importance of the evolutionary perspective in psychology.

1.2 PERSPECTIVES IN PSYCHOLOGY

The world does not exist! That sounds like a very strange statement to make, given that we are all present in a world that is revolving (literally) and that in our daily lives
we interact with our world, or our immediate environment. There is therefore a multitude of evidence to show that the world does exist. Of course it does. Yet, not too long ago, the world was flat. Or at least that was the accepted wisdom of the day, held to be correct by many people. Throughout the history of humankind, people have held a set of beliefs, attitudes and opinions on anything and everything that affected them.

These beliefs, attitudes and opinions may not be shared by everyone though. Some people may question and challenge the accepted wisdom. ‘The world is not flat and I shall prove it to you’ (or words to that effect) led to the intrepid explorer Ferdinand Magellan (1480–1521) embarking on a voyage of discovery that could have ended either in success or failure of the highest order. Fortunately, for Magellan, and for cartographers and globe manufacturers, evidence for a round world was found and a new set of beliefs was formed. A new perspective on how the seas did not simply fall off the edge of the world came into existence, became accepted and the previous perspective of a flat world was dismissed. Interestingly, children of today would find the view of a flat world absurd. A recent example is that the discovery of stone megaliths at Göbekli Tepe in Turkey demonstrate civilisation existed from the tenth to eighth millennium BCE, pre-dating the earliest accepted civilisation of Mesopotamia by at least 5000 years.

Artists talk of perspective within paintings. By this they mean the arrangement of objects within the painting in such a way as to give the illusion of depth. Of course, we could discuss classical paintings such as Constable’s *Hay Wain*, or the work of the Impressionists of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. However, perspective is perhaps best reflected in the work of M.C. Escher (1898–1972). Escher’s lithograph *Relativity* (1953) sums up perspective in a visual sense perfectly (see Figure 1.1). If one looks closely at the lithograph it becomes apparent that the perspective doesn’t make sense. It does not work. Yet, on the surface, the image looks perfectly normal. Escher has used perspective to provide depth, by placing objects in front of or behind each other in a way one would expect in artistic work. However, he has then created a twist in reality; to produce an image that simply could not work in the real world. Indeed, this lithograph is similar to the flat world view mentioned above. If you were to try to walk up or down all of the stairs in Escher’s image, you would simply fall off, because they do not all ascend or descend as they appear.

The lithograph fools us into seeing something that is not all that it seems. Equally, if we look at Escher’s symmetry drawings, we ‘see’ what we want to see first because of the perspective we adopt. This is not perspective as in the ‘depth’ sense of the term, but rather, perspective in the sense of the prior knowledge and experience we bring to the viewing of the drawing. Your perspective changes, possibly very quickly, but nevertheless it shifts so that you take on a new view of the image. The content of the image hasn’t changed, but the way in which you see it has.

Artwork takes many forms, some quirky, some not, but it does provide us with excellent examples of how perspective can be used to great effect and how we as humans will fall for something that is not quite as it seems. In the next example (Figure 1.2), one can obviously see a house, woodland, a bridge and a river. Certain objects appear in
the foreground; certain objects in the background. Some trees are taller than others, reflecting their age. The water appears to be flowing, reflected in the direction of the foliage under the surface. Yet in reality, it is not under the surface, the trees do not display age and the image is a two-dimensional representation of a three-dimensional scene that has been recreated by the human brain.

Perspective is important in psychology because it provides us with a conceptual standpoint from which we can begin to make sense of the world around us. Perspective enables us to look at something from one point of view and, hopefully, to see the same thing from another’s point of view. This is important and is something that we encourage children to do all the time. ‘How do you think John feels when you tease him?’ A child learns how others may be affected by the actions of another by adopting the perspective of that child. In the classical developmental psychology of Jean Piaget (1896–1980) this is known as perspective-taking and is illustrated by showing a child a doll and then placing that doll in another room, before asking the child what the
doll can see in that room. In order to answer, the child must adopt or take the perspective of the doll.

In discussing the role of perspective in helping humans to understand and interpret the world around them, we have shown that perspectives can change and that adopting the perspective of another may provide a completely different interpretation of the world under scrutiny. Having established the importance of perspective, we cannot simply launch into the perspectives in psychology without providing a historical ‘road-map’ showing from where these perspectives have derived. The next part of this chapter explores the roots of psychology but we will be mindful throughout to make links to practical application and relevance to you as teachers.

1.3 THE ROOTS OF PSYCHOLOGY AND PARADIGM SHIFTS

This part will provide as close to a chronological history of psychology as possible and begins with relevant philosophical underpinning. It is far easier to understand the nature, scope and diversity of psychological perspectives when one can see how psychology itself has evolved to its current stature in science. In adopting a chronological approach, not only will you see where psychology has derived from, but also you will experience the various paradigm shifts that have taken place.
(Hergenhahn, 2009). A paradigm is an orientation towards something using a particular focus, for example a behaviourist perspective, discussed later in this chapter. A paradigm is therefore the accepted wisdom of the time. Paradigms change over time, as evidence accrues and academic thinking changes. This change in thinking leads to the development of paradigm shifts, usually when a critical mass of like-minded thinkers agree on the emergent development. Not only will you see where psychology has come from, but you will also be able to see where the pendulum of science has swung throughout the centuries to arrive at our current paradigm, which by definition is only favoured today; in five, fifty or one hundred years, the existing paradigm may have been replaced.

1.4 ANIMISM

An early paradigm was animism, whereby every object capable of moving possesses a soul, comprising the ability to think and feel, whether the object is animate or inanimate. Of course, while this is logical for animals it is hardly likely for an inanimate object capable of motion, such as a car tyre. Animism, therefore, has no place in this book. That is until one considers the phenomenon in developmental psychology, where children ascribe feelings and thought processes to inanimate objects such as dolls or teddy bears.

1.5 RATIONALISM OR CARTESIAN DUALISM

René Descartes was a French mathematician (1596–1650) credited with being the founder of modern philosophy. Essentially, Descartes postulated that the body is a physical entity, a machine subject to the physical laws of mechanics, whereas the mind was non-physical and therefore not subject to such laws. Descartes’ work was known as rationalism, or the pursuit of truth through reasoning. Cartesian (from Descartes) dualism is such that the mind and body are separate entities and should be treated as such. However, Descartes did advocate interactionism: the mind and body interact with each other. Today we talk in terms of voluntary and involuntary movements of the body. Voluntary movements are subject to conscious processing and are based, to a large extent, on free-will or choice (you can choose whether to walk, run, skip or hop), whereas involuntary movements are devoid of conscious processing (you do not have to think about breathing or digesting lunch, it just happens).

Interestingly, the source of the interaction between brain and body, according to Descartes, was the pineal gland, located in the centre of the brain. Descartes would not have been aware at the time that the pineal gland is an important neuroendocrine structure involved in hormone regulation in childhood. More importantly, this focus on interactionism has been a significant factor in the growth of modern psychology.
Traditionally, empiricism replaced Descartes’ rationalism, with the focus shifting away from a search for truth through reasoning, in favour of the search for truth through experience and observation. The English philosopher John Locke (1632–1704) postulated that new-born children enter this world as a blank slate, or *tabula rasa*, upon which knowledge is imprinted. Interestingly, today we talk about learner-centred learning, an approach that places the learner at the centre of the learning experience and educational focus. The roots of this ‘new’ idea on education lie firmly in the philosophies of academics such as Locke, David Hume and George Berkeley 400 years ago.

Of course, empiricism would not be advocated wholeheartedly today, since the wealth of evidence collected on a number of developmental stages in childhood (for example, cognitive development, development of sensory and motor systems, emotional development, to name but some) points to genetic influences or genetic predisposition in favour of such behaviours occurring. Here, an interaction between person and environment is now seen as the accepted norm.

Today, if empiricism is viewed as a method, rather than a philosophy, it is of far greater benefit to us as scientists. On this basis, empiricism entails investigation of a research question, or hypothesis, on the basis of existing theory. It is testable and involves the collection and analysis of data, followed by an interpretation of results, culminating in supporting or refuting the hypothesis. We hope you can see that you probably use empiricism as a technique many times in a classroom situation. For example, if you believe that a child is badly behaved in a lesson when he or she is with a particular group of children, you might move them to another, observe and note any differences and use this data to support or refute this hypothesis. Equally, if another member of staff comments that a child is ‘always aggressive’, you might seek to explore a range of circumstances where you observe the child to look for emerging patterns. For example, perhaps aggressive behaviour only takes place during the first lesson of the day and only on a particular day, or just after lunch after other children have been taunting him or her in the playground during the lunch break. Testing hypotheses about the behaviour is empiricism.

**1.7 STRUCTURALISM VERSUS FUNCTIONALISM**

Structuralism was the beginning of modern psychology as we now know it. Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920) is credited with being the father of modern, scientific psychology. His approach, known as structuralism, explored the ‘science of immediate experience’ of the mind through introspectionism (looking inwards). Data was obtained by observing stimuli and recording around 10,000 introspective experiences (it is interesting that sportspeople talk about the ‘magical 10,000 hours’ of
practice required to become elite). Wundt’s systematic study of structure of the mind was the first attempt at experimental psychology and was successful in separating psychology from philosophy.

Whereas structuralism focused on the conscious experience of ideas and sensations, functionalism emerged as a new trend, focusing instead on the processes of perception and learning as conscious activities. William James (1842–1910) was the leading advocate of functionalism. Functionalism was based to some extent on the work of Charles Darwin, who was advocating the function, or biological significance, of occurrences in nature (survival of the fittest). In the same *modus operandi* of Darwinism, functionalism relies on adaptation, examining the functioning organism within its existing or changing environment. Indeed, elements of functionalism are still in existence in modern psychology. One only needs to look at journals reporting functional advances in language, memory or sensory processing to notice that science is seeking to explain function. It has long since been interested in reporting and understanding physical structures. Houdé et al. (2010) provide an excellent meta-analysis of functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies in numerical processing, reading and executive functions in the developing brain, comprising more than 800 children between 1999 and 2008. Bandettini (2009) examines the mindset of fMRI research around this time, while Muckli (2010) examines fMRI evidence in relation to the processing of visual information.

It may help to draw upon an analogy here. In medicine, we have computerised tomography (CT) scans and fMRI scans. CT scans are able to display structural anomalies whereas fMRI scans do not detect structural anomalies, but are able to display functional processes, such as when a patient is asked to perform a linguistic task. This analogy highlights the difference between structuralism and functionalism. It is not always sufficient for us to know about the structure of something, since that does not necessarily provide the whole picture of what is happening. If you have a child who is poor at paying attention to your instructions, you would benefit from investigating the functional nature of information processing, rather than looking at a picture of the child’s ear (unless of course, this was an X-ray or CT scan showing signs of physical anomaly).

**REFLECTION**

Functionalism is about adaptation to an environment. As children pass through the education system, they are faced with having to adapt to new environments. This can be observed, for example, as the oldest class in a primary school becomes the youngest class in a secondary school. Different children will adapt at different rates so it is up to us as educators to facilitate the smooth transition at each important stage of the educational system.
Consider transitions that have affected you.

- Can you remember your first day of school? Your first day of secondary school? Your first day at college or university?
- How do you adapt to change on a daily basis?

1.8 PSYCHODYNAMIC PERSPECTIVE

The psychodynamic perspective is synonymous with the combined works of Sigmund Freud (1856–1939), the father of psychoanalysis. Indeed, Freud is single-handedly responsible for the commonplace belief today that ‘psychologists can read minds’ and that all we ever do is ‘psychoanalyse people’. Of course, this is not the case. Neither of the authors can read minds and neither of us possesses a couch (as in, ‘lie on my couch and I’ll tell you what you’re thinking’). Returning to the psychodynamic perspective, which in fact is based on more than Freud alone, this perspective seeks to explore the central elements of motivations and drive for human behaviour, which are formed during the critical early childhood years between the ages of three and five.

Freud proposed the existence of three structural concepts of the mind. In explaining each one it is beneficial for you to think of an iceberg. What you see of the iceberg above the surface of the water is only part of the overall structure of the iceberg. Two of Freud’s concepts are equivalent to being above the surface, or conscious, and the other is equivalent to being below the surface, or unconscious. These concepts are the ego, superego and id, depicted in Figure 1.3.

We should begin under the surface by explaining the id. The id was seen by Freud as the ‘pleasure component’ of the mind, that part of personality requiring immediate hedonic gratification, regardless of the appropriateness of the act being sought, rather like the mind’s ‘naughty child’. The id was also seen as an unconscious part of the mind, surfacing or showing itself under situations of disturbance.

Competing with the id, the ego was seen by Freud as the ‘self’ and is derived from the Latin for ‘I’. It is the part of the mind that serves to control behaviour, through perception, cognition and memory. This aspect of the mind tries to obey the ‘reality principle’, which aims to placate unconscious demands and desires by remaining realistic about whether such demands and desires can be satisfied immediately, or whether delayed gratification is necessary.

The superego, for Freud, comprises two elements: the ego-ideal and the conscience. The ego-ideal is the part of the superego that we would like to achieve, and the conscience is, as the modern interpretation suggests, the voice in our head that
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differentiates right from wrong and influences whether we feel guilty or not. The superego provides us with a moral code of accepted standards of behaviour.

The constant competition between the id, ego and superego may ultimately lead to conflict in the mind. Indeed, it would be difficult to see how conflict-avoidance is possible according to Freud’s conceptualisation of the mind. Conflicts influence the activity of one or both of Freud’s hypothesised ‘primary drives’: the sexual drive and the aggressive drive. In short, these instinctual drives are constantly in a state of fluctuation, being kept under control by the prohibitive nature of the superego (the conscience), with a compromise being reached between the id and the superego. For Freud, dreams were the place in the human mind that desires of the id could be played out in the safety and security of the mind, while the person was sleeping. In this way, sexual and aggressive acts could remain undetected and therefore go unpunished by society. Conflicts emerged when these undesirable or inappropriate acts sought to display themselves outside of sleep.

Children had the difficult task of repressing desires of the id and learning the rules of appropriate behaviour, which influenced the development of their personalities in later life. Errors were inevitable and can be seen in such examples today as the child in the middle of a supermarket aisle having what we all tend to call a ‘tantrum’. For Freud, this behaviour would be a display of the conflict between the id requiring immediate gratification (‘I want those sweets now’) and the under-developed superego, or an under-developed version of ‘I should not lose control here’. We are sure you will have examples of your own from the classroom.
REFLECTION

A child’s personality forms during early childhood and this shapes their adulthood. Behaviour is influenced by three concepts:

- perception of reality
- consciences
- immediate gratification of desires.

Can you explain how the ego, id and superego relate to the way in which behaviour is influenced?

1.9 BEHAVIOURIST PERSPECTIVE

Whereas structuralism fell from favour, functionalism underwent metamorphosis and was subsumed by behaviourism. Essentially, behaviourism ignored the elements of introspectionism, which, by its very nature, was subjective and could not be measured. Behaviourism, which began with John Watson (1878–1958) during the 1910s and was later developed by B.F. Skinner (1904–90), focused instead on that which is observable and thus measurable. Unlike Watson (1930), who paid attention to observable acts of behaviour, Skinner (1938, 1953) focused his attention on the effects of those acts, something we recognise today in part when we talk of the ABCs in the classroom: antecedents, behaviour, consequences (see Chapter 14 for a further discussion in relation to behaviour). Although behaviourism as a paradigm fell out of favour in psychology after the late 1950s and in the strict ‘reward and punish’ era in education up to the 1980s, around the time of the abolition of corporal punishment in schools, certain elements of this paradigm remain today. The notion of ‘behaviour-shaping’ is based on principles of behaviourism: situations in which a desired behaviour is required necessitate reinforcement of closer and closer approximations towards that behaviour. Integral to behaviourism are the concepts of classical and operant conditioning. Classical conditioning is based on stimulus–response principles and was first demonstrated, using dogs, by Ivan Pavlov (1849–1936). As Figure 1.4 demonstrates, if a stimulus is presented, a response will occur. So, in the case of Pavlov’s dogs, the stimulus is a bowl of food and the response will be salivation. If the bowl of food is presented at the same time that a bell is rung, over a period of time, the dog will begin to associate the sound of the bell with the food, and salivation will take place. Consequently, the sound of the bell becomes the new stimulus and will elicit salivation every time it is rung, even if food is not presented. The desired response (salivation) is produced at the sound of the stimulus (the bell). You can try this with the family pet, although you have probably already done so not using a bell, but using...
the sound of the tin as it opens. Our pets are convinced that the sound of opening a tin of chickpeas or soup means tuna. You will then start to wonder who is conditioning whom. Are you conditioning your pet by the sound of the tin, or are they conditioning you by meowing or barking for food, to which you then respond?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before Conditioning</th>
<th>Conditioning Process</th>
<th>After Conditioning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FOOD (Unconditioned stimulus)</td>
<td>SALIVATING DOG (Unconditioned response)</td>
<td>FOOD (Conditioned stimulus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BELL (Neutral stimulus)</td>
<td>DOG (No response)</td>
<td>BELL (Unconditioned stimulus)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.4 Classical conditioning**

In essence, behaviour can be elicited in one of three ways: through positive reinforcement, as in the example of a teacher rewarding a learner for good behaviour by moving him or her 'up the zone board'; through punishment, as in the example of a teacher giving a detention to a learner for a misdemeanour; or through negative reinforcement, as in the example of a learner handing in a piece of homework on time in order to avoid a punishment. In these examples, instrumental learning, or operant learning, takes place. Operant conditioning, therefore, differs from classical conditioning in two ways. Whereas an unconditioned stimulus is always presented regardless of whether the behaviour occurs or not during the conditioning stage in classical conditioning, it is not necessary in operant conditioning. Secondly, reinforcement is made on the basis of a desired response emanating from choice: the person produces the desired behaviour out of volition and the behaviour is subsequently reinforced. In the classroom, this perspective is widely adopted today, especially with younger children. For example, if a teacher wishes to foster the behaviour of younger children not shouting out the answer, which may otherwise potentially create acoustic chaos, he or she may reinforce the desired behaviour of responding only to children with their hands up. A child with their hand up will receive attention and be allowed to give their answer. Every time this happens, the behaviour 'Don’t shout, put your hand up and you will receive attention', becomes reinforced and the child learns that this is the most effective way of receiving attention from the teacher. For the child who shouts
out, the teacher ought to ignore the behaviour wherever possible, sending out the message, ‘Shouting out does not elicit the teacher’s attention.’ There is one caveat to bear in mind. Conditioning only works as long as the reward continues to be available. The response will become extinguished relatively quickly in the absence of the reward, because the association between stimulus and response is broken. However, it is possible to re-establish the association by reintroducing the stimulus.

Once the desired behaviour has been learned, the teacher should focus on varying the reinforcement schedule. By this, we mean that the reward, such as attention in the example above, should not be available every time the desired behaviour is elicited. Rather, it might be elicited on every third occasion until the children realise that a pattern is emerging, in which case, it might be elicited every third, fifth, eighth and fourteenth occasion. Of course, we are not asking you to employ a specific mathematical formula here. That would be far too unwieldy and time-consuming in keeping track. Instead, we are merely suggesting that you keep them guessing so that the children know that reinforcement will be coming, but they don’t know exactly when.

In this way, all behaviour is goal-directed. The goal is to receive positive reinforcement, something that we probably all like to receive, or to avoid punishment. Although psychology has moved far beyond the principles of behaviourism, these seemingly inescapable facets of behaviourism remain. Psychologists today acknowledge that behaviourism in its strict form is untenable as a perspective explaining human behaviour, but that certain elements, such as learning through operant conditioning, are powerful tools in promoting desirable behaviour, especially in the classroom. In this way, the volitional aspects of operant conditioning sit comfortably with the newly prevailing notion of learner-centred learning and learner-centredness, albeit one perhaps where ‘higher authorities’ (teachers) are manipulating the volitional aspect of choice.

**REFLECTION**

- Consider a desired behaviour you would like to be evident in your classroom.
- Identify a series of smaller steps that would be required to evidence this desired behaviour.
- Consider how each appropriate step could be rewarded as there is progress towards the behaviour.

**1.10 HUMANISTIC PERSPECTIVE**

Humanistic psychology developed in the 1950s and 1960s as a backlash against the inadequacies of the psychodynamic approach, with its ‘unhealthy’ emphasis on disturbances and neuroses. Similarly, humanistic psychologists, such as Abraham
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Maslow (1908–70), Carl Rogers (1902–87) and Eric Fromm (1900–80), were disillusioned with the overly mechanistic theorising of the behaviourist approach. Instead, the humanistic approach considered so-called higher human motives and the journey of self-development towards a state of existence known as self-actualisation. Humanism therefore favours positive growth, through experience and choice. According to Maslow, we are all capable of achieving positive growth and it is our experiences and choices made during our lives that direct us towards this growth. Maslow is synonymous with the ‘hierarchy of needs’, usually depicted as a pyramid, where solid foundations at the bottom of the pyramid allow for development and progress above it (see Figure 1.5). The hierarchy varies between five and eight layers as people have developed this over time: what is important to note is that it is a conceptual model, not an exact model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Being Needs (for growth)</th>
<th>Self-actualisation (achieving full potential)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aesthetic (pleasure and satisfaction in harmony)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cognitive (understanding of the world)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-esteem (accomplishment and recognition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deficiency Needs (for stability)</td>
<td>Emotional (love, friendship, belonging)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Safety (personal security, health, wellbeing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physiological (air, water, food, warmth)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.5 Maslow’s hierarchy of needs**

Maslow places physiological needs at the base of the pyramid. These needs are of major importance. If an organism cannot satisfy its basic physiological needs for food, water and oxygen, it will not survive, either in the Darwinian or indeed any other sense. So humans strive to secure life by securing these basic needs. Above these needs are those of safety, in seeking shelter and security, where danger is removed, or at least minimised. Motivation to strive further can be met once these first two needs are secured. Maslow then discusses the motivation to strive for emotional needs, or social needs, specifically the need to love and be loved, and to obtain a sense of belonging. This is evident today with the widespread phenomenon and popularity of social networking sites. Humans need to be needed by each other. Next, Maslow proposes self-esteem needs. These are the need to be competent within one’s field and to be recognised as being competent; in the modern day this is usually through certificates and qualifications, but does not exclude competence through experiences that do not necessarily produce pieces of paper. After self-esteem needs, the satisfaction of cognitive needs is sought, through exploration of
problems or questions. This leads to an increased understanding of the world in which we find ourselves and helps us to find solutions to the challenges we face throughout our lives. As we journey closer towards self-actualisation, Maslow proposed that we strive to acquire aesthetic needs, such as beauty and harmony. The beauty found in a flower or in a natural landscape provides us with a sense of pleasure and satisfaction. Equally, the harmony we may experience when we seek out and listen to a piece of music or when viewing a piece of art are examples of the human desire to meet aesthetic needs. Once each of these needs has been fulfilled, Maslow proposes that we enter, or indeed have already entered, the state of self-actualisation, whereby we have achieved our full potential as a human being. This drive to achieve self-actualisation is, according to Maslow, innate and all humans possess it. The extent to which each of us strives to achieve it is, as we are sure you will see from the daily news, rather questionable to say the least. It is important to note that Maslow evolved the hierarchy throughout his writing and many permutations exist. Ultimately the hierarchy can be summarised as containing deficiency needs (aspects that if lacking cannot enable a human to function effectively), and being needs (for the individual to thrive and achieve their full potential).

Carl Rogers differed from Maslow in that he did not advocate a hierarchical approach to human growth. Rather, Rogers advocated the importance of the self-concept in each of us. According to Rogers, this is the opinion we and others have of ourselves. It is a need to be held in high esteem by others and to feel a sense of positive regard for who each of us is as an individual. Our personality develops as a product of each of us striving to satisfy the need for approval by others and it is this approval that provides our own happiness or unhappiness. This approach would seem to place each of us in a rather shallow position, doing things on the basis of what others think. Rogers’ position should not be interpreted in this way. Instead, Rogers discussed the concept of unconditional positive regard. This can be explained using the example of children within (we would like to think most) families. Parents talk in terms of unconditional love – doing anything for their children, regardless of the ‘wrongs’ or misdemeanours the children may have done. Parents don’t ‘give love to receive love’: their love is unconditional. Rogers proposed that, if a context of unconditional positive regard is fostered, then each of us as individuals is presented with the opportunity to grow, develop and strive to achieve our potential regardless of what others think of us. The opinions others have of us become a by-product of what we are striving to achieve, rather than our reason for striving to achieve it.

Whether the concepts and processes or drives postulated by the humanistic approach can be investigated scientifically is questionable and so humanistic psychology in the past has not had a large impact on the science of psychology. Nevertheless, in recent years, with incidents of stress, anxiety and depression on the increase, people are beginning to see something appealing in the tenets of the humanistic approach. There does indeed seem to be a desire to search for the things in life that make one a better person, not in a materialistic or financial sense, but in a ‘quality of life’ sense.
This is noticeable within psychology, with the emergence of transpersonal psychology since the 1960s and positive psychology since 1998.

The humanistic perspective is appealing in the school setting, on the basis that it is everything that teachers would wish for the children in their charge to aspire towards. The notion of reaching one’s full potential has been seen on school reports for many years and no doubt will continue long into the future. ‘Could do better’ was a phrase from the past, although interestingly is still in use today (Beadle, 2008). ‘Is not reaching his or her potential’ is another. In the same way that teachers are striving for their children to achieve, teachers are also striving to better themselves. We talk in modern phraseology of CPD, or continuing professional development. There does not appear to be a time when we are not seeking to improve on our personal development, raise our standards and seek out challenges requiring us to self-reflect and implement solutions. The peak of Maslow’s hierarchy may always seem out of reach if we are constantly seeking to go higher, but this is not a bad thing. Imagine sitting at the top of Maslow’s pyramid, wondering where to go next. In the absence of goals and aspirations, there is little else to foster the sense of challenge and exploration that, as humans, keeps us going. Of course, in the modern day, it may seem like we are being overwhelmed by the sheer amount of development that we are expected to make, by those in positions of authority above us. This is where we need to seek a balance between expectations, of ourselves and of others, and the practical implications of doing too much. Indeed, a phrase used regularly nowadays is the ‘work–life balance’.

**REFLECTION**

Once basic physiological and safety needs have been secured, it becomes possible to explore and understand our immediate (and wider) world to solve problems and achieve successes. Considering the way that education is prevalent in all societies and cultures as long as food, water and shelter are provided, why do you think that education is such a fundamental aspect of human culture?

**1.11 COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE**

Whereas the brain was not important in the observation-laden approach of behaviourism, the cognitive perspective placed the brain, or rather its functions, firmly at the centre of human behaviour. Although the two approaches appear to be at extreme ends of the spectrum, the emergence of cognitive psychology attempted to fill a gap in behaviourist theory. The cognitive perspective emphasises the importance of explaining behaviour in terms of internal events, the meaning of concepts
and processes, beliefs, attitudes and intentions. It is not a return to the introspectionism of Wundt (1896), or to the meanings inherent in the psychodynamic approach. Rather, cognitive psychology attempts to explain ‘cognitions’ – thoughts, language, memory, decision-making, attention and information processing – that inform our everyday lives. These are the very processes that behaviourism neglected to investigate because they were not observable. In emphasising information processing, cognitive psychology developed the computer analogy. The human mind was seen as being similar to a computer, acquiring information at the stimulus-input point (the sensory organs), processing information (the sensory systems and structures within the brain) and producing a subsequent ‘output’ or behaviour (usually generated by the motor system). A monitoring and safety process was seen to be built-in (the feedback loop), which provides the organism with a constant stream of information, and this becomes part of the new ‘input’. Back in the 1990s, the computer analogy was replaced by the concept of neural networks. A neural network was considered to be akin to a set of ‘nodes’, each one responsible for a specific thing or containing a particular piece of information. Each of these nodes is connected to other nodes within a similar ‘network’ and each network is connected to other networks. Furthermore, each node is either excitatory or inhibitory and, when a node is activated, this will lead to the activation of like-minded nodes in the system. If these are excitatory, activation will lead to a process taking place, such as the processes involved in the linguistic function of asking a question (including movement of the lips, vibration of the larynx and regulation of lung function). In contrast, if the nodes are inhibitory, activation will lead to a process ceasing, for example, the processes involved in stopping speech production at the point when you need to listen to the answer to the question that has just been asked (Bechtel and Abrahamsen, 1990).

Although the replacement of ‘computer’ with ‘neural network’ was considered a development in cognitive psychology and it has indeed enabled psychologists to look at human behaviour in a different way, it really does seem to be nothing more than a change in semantics. What we have described above as a network is not really very different from the way one might describe the internet today. It is a network of computers, linked in like-minded ways. We place controls on what should or should not be viewed by subscribing to websites, forums (or as we prefer, fora) and groups as members, hence these become inhibitory if one is not a subscriber. At the heart of this ‘connectionism’ is the computer, so we return to our starting point of the computer analogy. Nevertheless, the human mind as a network has been fruitful in advancing psychology.

Today, certainly in applied and in therapeutic settings, psychology may be considered as a blend of both cognitivism and behaviourism. Many applied practitioners adopt what is known as a cognitive behavioural approach to problems or, as we would prefer to say, challenges. We explore thought processes with our clients as well as observing them in their own environments. For example, the elite sportsperson may be observed before an important competition, or the trainee teacher may be observed...
in the lead-up to an important lesson-observation. As practitioners, we may be looking for signs of anxiety (or anxiety-regulation), confidence or self-belief. Any observations may be followed up with a discussion to see what the person's perceptions of the event were, or we may precede an observation with this discussion, in order to guide us about what we should be looking for in advance of an observation.

**REFLECTION**

If the human mind is viewed as a network of like and unlike nodes, then our job in the classroom is to find ways of activating the network in such ways that learning takes place. As a teacher, you will be helping children to acquire packets of information or knowledge, assemble them into sub-networks and begin to forge links between concepts within the ever-increasing network. Your role now is to consider how you might facilitate this within the classroom.

**1.12 PSYCHOBIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE**

Huge advances in the field of neurobiology in the latter part of the twentieth century have had a significant effect on our understanding of the human brain. Much is now known about the intricate structures within the brain, about the systems and interrelationships between these structures from a functional point of view and about electrochemical communication between neurons within the human brain. None of this would have been possible without advances in other areas of science that have helped to provide us with the necessary equipment to assist in our voyage of discovery.

These advances have spawned a wide variety of specialist subdivisions, such as cognitive neuroscience, neuroendocrinology and psychobiology. Psychobiology is an umbrella term that explores psychological processes from a biological or physiological point of view (Carlson, 2012). Consequently psychobiology, biological psychology, physiological psychology and psychophysiology are used interchangeably. Although there are nuances that do distinguish them from each other, a discussion of them here would be neither necessary nor indeed fruitful.

Essentially, the psychobiological perspective takes reductionism as its starting point. This means that the human being is viewed as a set of interacting systems, rather than holistically. The focus may be on the central nervous system, the limbic system or the endocrine system. This may be reduced further, to a focus on the visual system or, even further, to a set of neurons that may contribute to what we call learning or memory. This perspective, therefore, explores psychological processes by considering systems within the human body and causal or correlational
factors within those systems (Pinel, 2010). For example, an understanding of the
limbic system (a set of structures within the human brain) helps us to understand
the associated behaviour of aggression, or complements a behavioural observation
of mood and emotion. You might ask why such knowledge would be useful, until
you are faced with a behaviour-management issue in your classroom that you are
struggling to find an explanation for. Your knowledge of how the brain functions,
even if it is limited, may help you to understand the behaviour that you see in
front of you.

Similarly, an understanding of how the human brain develops during childhood
will help you to appreciate why, for example, children struggle with acquiring funda-
mental movement skills, such as catching a ball in PE. Your knowledge of how the
brain executes movement or how depth perception is not sufficiently developed in
children until approximately 12 years of age (Gallahue and Ozmun, 2011) helps to
inform your observations of displayed behaviour.

**REFLECTION**

Having at least some knowledge of psychobiology will help you to appreciate the
processes taking place in children’s brains. In order to decide what to learn
about, you should start from your current knowledge of the learning disabilities
you have seen within schools: dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyspraxia, attention deficit/
hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and so on. Ask yourself one question, ‘What is
happening in the brain?’, for any of these disabilities and then explore the litera-
ture to build your knowledge base.

**1.13 EVOLUTIONARY PERSPECTIVE**

Evolutionary theory looks at how species have evolved to fill a niche in their environ-
ment. An evolutionary perspective considers how humans adapt to their environments
and it is this word, ‘adapt’, that holds a vital key to why an understanding of evolution-
ary psychology is important for the remainder of this book. Evolutionary psychology
is based on elements derived from the seminal *Origin of Species* by Charles Darwin
(1859) and behavioural genetics (Plomin et al., 2008). It is this combination that enables
humans as a species to occupy the privileged niche that we do.

In essence, Darwin (1809–82) espoused the view that, genetically, only the fittest
survive: ‘Survival of the fittest’. Genes are carried on through the generations of those
animals who are the most successful at adapting to their environment. Don’t think for
one minute that we are suggesting that only the fittest, most successful teachers sur-
vive to pass their genes on to their offspring and create a new breed of ‘super-teacher’.
Rather, hold this as a controversial thought for discussion later in the chapter, while we return to the evolutionary perspective.

Evolutionary psychology focuses on three important elements: inclusive fitness, kin selection and differential parental investment. Inclusive fitness is the strategy of promoting one's own genes, in such a way that they continue in the gene pool. We are now talking in terms of genetic survival, as opposed to person survival. If Darwin's natural selection favours survival of the fittest, then it is important to ensure that our own genes are part of the process, a 'got to be in it to win it' concept. Inclusive fitness is aimed, therefore, at ensuring that the direct replication of genes occurs first and foremost. Linked to this is the notion of kin selection, whereby not only are one's own genes favoured, but also the genes of related, if indirect, wider family members. The third strategy, differential parental investment, is the notion that females take a greater parental investment in rearing offspring (remember we are talking about various species, not only humans) and consequently, become more selective when it comes to seeking a mate. By the nature of child-rearing, the father takes less of a hands-on role and consequently also takes less of a role when it comes to mate-selection, in the sense of natural selection.

The impetus to satisfy the demands of natural selection is not necessarily a conscious one. We do not necessarily go about daily life thinking about procreating with all and sundry in an attempt to have a greater opportunity in the gene pool. Rather, we get on with the process of living. Certainly, the concept of altruism would not exist if we were only to favour our own genetic survival. Altruistic acts, by their very nature, are not necessarily gene-driven, especially if the person towards whom we are acting altruistically does not share any of our genetic material. Yet altruism takes place on many occasions, on a daily basis. This may be viewed, perhaps, in a reciprocal manner. Reciprocal altruism is the notion, coined by the sociobiologist Robert Trivers in 1971, that one should act and behave towards others in the same way that one would wish others to act and behave towards oneself. So, a child shares some of his or her lunch with a friend, who is genetically unrelated, because that friend is hungry. There is no benefit to the benefactor and no advantage gained in depriving themselves of the food, but there is a potential reciprocal benefit. The beneficiary may be more likely to reciprocate this gesture at some point in the future (Kenrick, 2001). Of course, we all view this as a normal action of everyday life; surely we would all share lunch if a friend found themselves without food. But, in this part, we are explaining this act from an evolutionary psychology perspective. If we were to explain it from a humanistic perspective, we might talk instead of the altruistic act being performed in order to satisfy our self-esteem needs (refer to the discussion of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Figure 1.5). In terms of relevance to this book, the evolutionary approach helps us to appreciate the role of social and cognitive factors in the way in which children adapt to their environment. It goes without saying that it would be ridiculous to talk about the genetic consequences of successful adaptation to the school environment. If, however, one views this in microcosm, as part of the continuous process of adaptation
throughout one's lifespan, then any adaptive experience should help to promote a longer life, and more potential opportunity to add to the gene pool, or protect offspring to maturity so that they can then add to the gene pool.

**REFLECTION**

Rather than thinking of the evolutionary perspective as being synonymous with genetic propagation, think more in terms of the school or classroom environment and ask yourself, 'How can I provide a stimulating environment for the children, and how can I help them to adapt to changes and foster reciprocal altruism within that environment?' Understanding the role of social and cognitive factors will guide you in exploring these questions.

**1.14 SUMMARISING INTERACTIONISM FROM AN APPLIED PERSPECTIVE**

We have already discussed the interaction between genetic predispositions and environmental opportunities, or influences. In applied terms, children interact with and are products of their environment; this is why certain undesirable behaviours that occur at home are brought into school. If these undesirable behaviours are not tolerated and are punished, this leads to confusion because there is disparity in the message between home and school. As you will be aware, teachers spend a large proportion of their time in school explaining why such behaviours are inappropriate, whether inside or outside of school, in the hope that the child will take the message and apply it to their home circumstances as well as within school. This is not always successful, but always necessary for teachers as educators in wider sociobehavioural issues.

Returning to the interaction discussion, not only does the child interact with the school environment and other children, but also the group dynamic includes an interaction with the teacher, or a range of teachers. If we add the physical environment, within which interaction occurs throughout the school day, week, term and indeed academic year, we are experiencing what Descartes spoke about when he postulated the interaction between the physical and the mental. 'The physical', in Cartesian terms, is akin to motivational climates in modern terms. If children are to interact with their environment in an enriching way, then it goes without saying that the classroom and wider school environment must be equally enriching and vibrant. That is why we put displays up and refine seating arrangements to suit the needs of all those who interact within that environment. We will return to the issue of motivational climate in Chapter 10.
1.15 CONCLUSION

In this chapter we have introduced the notion of perspective and discussed how it is possible to adopt different perspectives. Psychologists tend to favour a perspective or, especially in the case of some applied practitioners, will adopt a combination of perspectives to suit the needs of their clients. We favour this approach, since it complements the idea of constantly striving to adapt to an ever-changing environment, both in the Darwinian sense, as well as in a practical day-to-day sense. You should reflect on the contents of this chapter, to explore your own needs and the needs of those who you will be interacting with (don’t forget to include other adults as well as children). You will begin to discover (or adapt to) a perspective, or elements from different perspectives, that sit comfortably with you.

In the next chapter, we examine more recent (post-behaviourism) psychological approaches in more detail, providing an evaluation of their potential contribution to education, aimed at developing a more holistic approach to education than the classical approaches have previously offered.

1.16 FURTHER READING


Beaver’s research paper provides a clear discussion of a positive, strength-based approach to respond to the increased prevalence of childhood anxiety and depression.


This book is recommended as a theoretical overview of psychology, which provides a very well-rounded resource on the subject.


This book sets out the fundamental basis of Maslow’s theories, providing an insight into the depth and scope of his work.