STUDY OF THE BASIS OF NEGATIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CHANGES IN ADOLESCENTS' BEHAVIOR ACROSS VARIOUS THEORIES

Narziyeva Shakhnoza Rustamjon kizi

Asia International University

Annotation: This article discusses the emergence of psychodynamic theory within Freud's psychoanalytic framework and explores numerous theories based on Freud's ideas, including those of Anna Freud, Erik Erikson, and Carl Jung. The psychodynamic theory was developed to encompass any theory derived from Freud's foundational principles explaining the origins of deviant behavior. As a result, the terms psychoanalytic and psychodynamic are often used interchangeably. However, there is an important distinction: the term psychoanalytic refers exclusively to the theories developed by Freud himself, whereas psychodynamic refers to theories derived from or influenced by Freud's ideas, such as Erikson's psychosocial development theory and Jung's concept of archetypes.

Keywords: psychodynamics, psychoanalysis, Id, Ego, Super-Ego, emotion, internal standards, drive, projection, identification.

Introduction

Psychodynamic theory is essentially a collection of psychological theories that emphasize the significance of unconscious behaviors and other forces in human activity, particularly unconscious actions. This approach highlights that childhood experiences form the basis of adult personality and relationships. Psychodynamic theory originated from Freud's psychoanalytic theories and includes any theories based on his ideas, including those of Anna Freud, Erik Erikson, and Carl Jung.

Psychodynamic theory consists of a set of psychological theories that stem from the idea that people are often unconsciously motivated and that adult personality and relationships are largely the result of childhood experiences.

Psychodynamic theory developed from Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theories and encompasses any theory rooted in his ideas, including the works of Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, and Erik Erikson. It also includes newer theories such as object relations theory.

Between the late 1890s and the 1930s, Sigmund Freud, based on his experiences with patients during therapy, developed various psychological theories. He attempted to scientifically justify his approach to therapeutic psychoanalysis, and his ideas gained popularity through his books.

Interpretation of Dreams

In 1909, Freud traveled to America with his colleagues, where he spread his ideas and delivered lectures on psychoanalysis. In the following years, regular meetings were held to discuss psychoanalytic theories and guidelines. Freud influenced several major psychological thinkers, including Carl Jung and Alfred Adler, and his influence continues to this day.

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The term psychodynamics was first introduced by Freud. He observed that some of his patients developed psychological symptoms that had no biological basis. Nevertheless, these patients could not stop their symptoms through conscious effort. Freud argued that if symptoms cannot be voluntarily prevented, they must arise unconsciously. Thus, symptoms were considered the result of an unconscious will opposing the conscious one, and he termed this process "psychodynamics."

Psychodynamic theory was formed to encompass any theory derived from Freud's basic principles. As a result, the terms psychoanalytic and psychodynamic are often used interchangeably. However, there is an important distinction:

- Psychoanalytic refers only to theories developed by Freud himself.
- Psychodynamic refers to theories based on Freud's ideas;
- Including Erik Erikson's psychosocial development theory;
- And Jung's concept of archetypes.

Many theories fall under psychodynamic theory; therefore, it is often referred to as an approach or perspective rather than a single theory.

Despite its connection to Freud and psychoanalysis, psychodynamic theorists today pay less attention to some Freudian concepts such as

- the Id,
- the Ego,
- and the Superego.

Today, the approach focuses on the core principles derived from and expanded upon Freud's theories.

Freud described the primitive level of cognition — represented in the language of hallucinations, dreams and jokes — as the primary process of thinking. The Id exists in a relatively unchanging and completely unconscious form, yet its presence and influence are recognizable through thoughts, behaviors, and emotional derivatives.

The **Ego** is the set of functions that enable a person to adapt to life's demands and resolve challenges, managing the impulses of the Id. The ego develops throughout life, especially rapidly during early childhood. It operates according to the reality principle and forms the basis of secondary process thinking (logical, sequential, directed). Thus, the Ego is considered a mediator between the demands of the Id and the restrictions of the environment. It contains both conscious and unconscious aspects. The conscious ego corresponds to what most people think of as the "self," while the unconscious ego contains defense mechanisms. In addition to the Id and Ego, Freud introduced the concept of the **Superego**, which represents the internalized influence of parents. According to Freud, the primary function of the Superego is to counteract the impulses of the Id by exerting psychological pressure on the Ego. Its key functions include ideals, self-observation and conscience.

Internalized standards and prohibitions are based on parental example. From early childhood, the child restricts themselves either due to fear of losing love or due to the threat of parental

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authority. Thus, the Superego motivates action through internal moral pressure. Behaviors that violate conscience lead to feelings of guilt, emptiness, and the need for punishment.

Excessive strictness of the Superego can cause personal problems, while its weak development can also be harmful. For example, suicidal behavior may arise in the context of depression following the loss of a loved one. Some individuals, instead of experiencing normal grief, enter a special state of melancholia in which the "self" weakens and psychological health deteriorates sharply. Freud explained that in melancholia, "the object is lost as an object of love. The inner world becomes impoverished by grief, while the ego itself becomes impoverished by melancholia." The self becomes unworthy and loses respect for itself because it becomes the target of the Superego's harsh criticism.

In such cases, self-blame is not entirely accurate, since it is actually directed at the lost loved one. Identification with the lost object replaces the object itself, and the hostility toward the object becomes self-directed. If love toward the object cannot be resolved externally, it turns into narcissistic identification, and hostility is expressed as sadistic satisfaction.

As Freud noted, "Only this sadism reveals the solution to the tendency for self-destruction."

Freud studied human development in terms of **psychosexual stages**. Each stage focuses on different parts of the body — from the oral stage to the anal and phallic stages, ending with the genital stage. According to classical drive theory, if a child is excessively frustrated or overly gratified at any stage, they may become fixated at that stage.

Freud's later works laid the foundation for the development of **ego psychology**, which studies defense mechanisms. From conflicts in early development, defense mechanisms emerge as ways for individuals to cope with anxiety. For example, alcoholism or drug addiction often involves denial — the person rejects the existence of the problem and insists "I am in control." This is the defense mechanism of denial: "If I do not acknowledge it, it is not happening."

Similarly, sadism, explosiveness, depression following the loss of a close person, projection, and introjection underlie many forms of maladaptive behavior. In anxiety states, individuals may internalize negative traits of others (projective identification).

In the dynamics of internal conflict, parents — who serve as key objects in the child's world — play a central role. The final branch of psychoanalysis — object relations theory — develops the idea that psychological issues stem from disturbances in early object relations. The child's perception of their parents, the emotions internalized from them, and the unconscious images of parents continue to influence behavior throughout life.

From the above ideas, it can be concluded that in deviant behavior, inferiority complexes combine with inadequate life guidelines and underdeveloped social emotions. These emotions hinder the development of group belonging. Such a person sees others as instruments for achieving personal goals, views society as an enemy force, and refuses cooperation. This conflict manifests itself in reactions against social norms: respecting others, telling the truth, acquiring knowledge and working, accepting when others are right, expressing gratitude. Instead, the desire for dominance pushes the individual toward humiliating and discrediting

others. As a result, persistent negative personality traits emerge — impatience, envy, arrogance, and mistrust.

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