

**MELANIE KLEIN:
A PSYCHOBIOGRAPHICAL STUDY**

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ABSTRACT

The objective of psychobiography is a better understanding of individuals, and psychobiographical case studies add meaning and value to research (Runyan, 1988a). Melanie Klein was chosen for this study through a purposive sampling method due to her contributions to the discipline of psychology, which placed her in a distinguished position regarding twentieth century psychoanalysis. Furthermore, no other psychobiography has been written on Klein. The primary aim of this study was to present the reader with a basic description of her life, and a secondary aim was to accomplish an in-depth description of Klein within her social and historical context. Due to these aims and the nature of psychobiography, it may be said that this is a qualitative study based on a single case method, described as explorative and descriptive. Data was analysed according to Huberman and Miles' (1994) approach which consists of data reduction, display and verification. This study was guided by Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. The theory allowed for an in-depth description of Klein's experiences and social and historical contexts by merely illuminating her life. Finally, it may be said that this study contributed to the limited amount of psychobiographical research in South Africa.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

According to McAdams (2000), the best means of capturing a human life situated in time is through a psychologically informed biography. By psychologically informed biography, McAdams (1988) refers to a psychobiography in which the psychobiographer systematically employs psychological theory to analyse and transform a life into a coherent and illuminating story. The value of psychobiographical studies lies in their ability to provide us with descriptions and understandings of the personal experiences of the subject. This study achieved this by employing Daniel Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. Levinson believes that in order to study the life course of a person, it is necessary to look at an individual's life at a particular time and to describe its evolution over time. All aspects of a person's development are important, including the subject's external realities and subjective meanings, which is why this study has taken both into consideration. The subject chosen for this research project was Melanie Klein. She was selected due to her extraordinariness and contributions to the discipline of psychology. This introductory chapter provides the reader with a brief outline of the psychobiographical approach to research, a brief account of Klein's life, an overview of Levinson's (1996) theory and an outline of the structure of the thesis.

1.2 The psychobiographical approach

The central idea in psychobiography is to describe an entire life, from birth until death, while applying a psychological theory to it or by directly structuring the individual's life according to the psychological theory (McAdams, 2000). In Runyan's (1982) words, the psychobiographer attempts to discern, discover, formulate and understand the subject's experiences through the application of a theory. These experiences can inform and teach us about

what it must have been like to live in different social and historical circumstances. On an emotional level, they have the ability to move us deeply (Runyan, 1982). Within the field of psychobiography, the uniqueness of the individual subject is of profound value. Therefore, individuals who are considered to have led exceptional, distinct and exemplary lives are generally chosen as psychobiographical subjects (Runyan, 1988a). Alexander (1990) supports this by expressing that understanding the subject is the ultimate goal. Therefore, psychobiography is characterised as a morphogenic approach. The term morphogenic stresses the individuality of the entire human being rather than that found only in particular elements, meaning that the person is described in a more holistic and in-depth manner (McAdams, 2000; Runyan, 1988a). Because there are very few things more captivating than learning about the experiences of other human beings, psychobiography is a rapidly developing discipline within the field of qualitative research (Jacobs, 2004).

The study of people's lives is not a new phenomenon. Since psychobiographical works began to be produced, we are able to identify three periods within the social sciences. The first period started in the early 20th century, with the emergence of psychobiography, which promised to grant new insights into human being's lives. One of the first known psychobiographies is that of Freud, who in 1910 wrote *Leonardo da Vinci and a memory of childhood*, while hoping to illustrate what underlies creativity (Jacobs, 2004; Espinosa, 2006). After that, there were many other attempts, which led to the second period in the study of people, which lasted from approximately World War II until the mid-1960s. During this period, there was a noteworthy decline in interest in psychobiography. However, a number of works continued to be produced, such as Robert Langer's *The mind of Adolf Hitler* which was written in 1943 (Jacobs, 2004). Nevertheless, with the emergence of the third period, which began approximately in the mid 1960s and continues up until the present day, an enormous number of works have been produced (and still are being produced). Within psychology, significant contributions have been made in fields such as adult development, life history research in psychopathology and in life-span human development (Runyan,

1982).

Within the South African context, psychobiographical projects have been completed on Jan Christiaan Smuts, Bruce Fordyce and Christiaan Rudolph de Wet, amongst others. Some of the references that can be found in this field are:

- Edwards, M. J. (2004).
- Stroud, L. (2004).

1.3 A brief introduction to Melanie Klein

As one of the most outstanding contemporary theorists within the discipline of psychology, Melanie Klein's thinking has significantly influenced and shaped twentieth century psychoanalysis. Even though she never discarded the main principles of Sigmund Freud's theory (Kristeva, 2001), she initiated a new approach to the understanding of the unconscious. Therefore, it may be said that Klein founded an Object Relations theory, and was the first to provide a model for the early psychological experiences of children. Amongst her other achievements, she founded a new theoretical discipline when she initiated psychoanalytic treatment for children. Through this she influenced other colleagues, and in so doing, inspired the first psychoanalytic work with those suffering from autism, psychosis and borderline conditions (Kristeva, 2001).

Melanie Klein was born in Vienna on March 30, 1882 (Hinshelwood, Robinson & Zarate, 1997). Her father, Moriz Reizes, was a well-known doctor fluent in ten different languages. Her mother, Libussa Deutsch, was a dominant and persuasive woman 24 years younger than her husband. Both her parents were academically orientated although neither encouraged Klein in this regard (Grosskurth, 1986; Segal, 1992). Klein was the youngest of four children, two of whom passed away at an early age. Due to the lack of parenting that Klein endured, before their deaths, these two siblings (Emanuel and Sidione) took their younger sister under their wing. Both Emanuel and Sidione tried to support and encourage Klein. It is said that their deaths drove Klein into a

recurrent depression, the first of many to come throughout her life (Grosskurth, 1986). Grosskurth (1986) adds that Klein had an inclination towards depression whenever Libussa was around. Klein's mother had a controlling and manipulative nature, and in subsequent years, she treated Klein as always suffering from anxiety and needing rest while she, Libussa, took control of Klein's family life. Furthermore, Klein's life was characterised by a very unhappy marriage which ultimately led to her divorce and emigration to England (Likierman, 2001). From her arrival in England at the age of 44 until the time of her death at age 78, Klein's most significant contributions were made to the field of psychology (Grosskurth, 1986).

The rationale for the selection of Klein as the subject of this research includes her contributions to the discipline of psychology. In addition, Klein is an example of someone who suffered throughout her life, but who, against all odds, achieved and exceeded all of her life expectations. Her success was achieved even though she belonged to a world in which Jews were not accepted by everyone, and even though she was an academic and a divorced woman, which in those times was uncommon. Finally, it may be said that Klein serves as an example of a woman who, on her own, achieved a position worthy of respect and equal to that of men. These unique, significant and distinguishing factors were fundamental in the selection of Klein as a suitable individual to explore and learn about.

1.4 Overview of theoretical framework

Daniel Levinson (1996) formulated a theory which describes the important changes that occur throughout a person's life. All aspects of a person's life are important, such as major events in their lives, their relationships, strivings, thoughts and ideas. Although according to Levinson (1996) each individual's life is unique and the course of a life is not simple, everyone goes through the same basic sequence. The life course evolves through a series of identifiable seasons or eras, and transition is required from one season to the next. This is known as a cross-era transition. Furthermore, every season brings change and has its own time space (Levinson, 1996).

Levinson (1996) divided the life course into a sequence of four eras. Each individual spends approximately 25 years in the separate eras of childhood and adolescence, early adulthood, middle adulthood, and late adulthood. Each era has a unique bio-psycho-social character that contributes to the development of the individual. There are major changes identified and described taking place between and within the eras, and these will be explored further during the main research. The eras overlap; a new era begins as the previous one draws near its end. This process has been applied to Klein's life and therefore will be used in order to assist this project with her analysis according to Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*.

1.5 Outline of the structure of the thesis

This study consists of various chapters in which different aspects of Klein's life are explored. Furthermore, psychobiography as a research method is examined in detail and employed, as is the selected theory. There are seven chapters beginning with this introduction, which presents the reader with a brief outline of the psychobiographical approach to research, a brief account of Klein's life and an overview of Levinson's (1996) theory. Chapter 2 provides a theoretical overview of psychobiographical research, including definitions, related terms, descriptions, criticisms, responses to the criticisms and the value of psychobiography. Chapter 3 presents Levinson's theory of *Adult Development in Women*, including concepts, Levinson's eras and developmental periods. Chapter 4 describes the research design and methodology, and discusses the research objectives and design, participant and sampling method, and the collection, process and analysis of the data, as well as validity, reliability and the ethical considerations of the study. Chapter 5 provides the results of the thesis and Chapter 6 presents a discussion of these findings. Chapter 7 presents the conclusion which provides a summary of the research study, the value of the research, limitations and further recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

AN OVERVIEW OF PSYCHOBIOGRAPHICAL RESEARCH

2.1 Introduction

According to McAdams (2000) “psychobiography is the systematic use of psychological theory to transform a life into a coherent and illuminating story” (p. 730). This chapter will attempt to describe psychobiography as a research method. In order to do so, the following components will be examined: definitions, related terms and descriptions of psychobiography; an overview of psychobiography; and finally, responses to criticism and the value of psychobiography.

2.2 Psychobiography: definitions, related terms and descriptions

Runyan (1988a) stated that psychobiography is one of the main areas of study in which the aim is to achieve an in-depth understanding of a person's life. Why study an individual person's life? For some human beings, there are few things that can compare to learning about the experiences of other individuals. Other people's experiences are not only intriguing but can also be very instructive. Furthermore, people's lives have the ability to move individuals deeply, to assist individuals in visualising what it would have been like to live under different circumstances (social, academic and historical), to provide insight into how those people whom they read about feel and react in their own lives, and maybe even to compare those people's reactions and feelings to their own. Consequently, because learning about the experiences of other human beings may be interesting and instructive, psychobiography research is a rapidly developing discipline (Jacobs, 2004).

In order to fully understand psychobiography, it is necessary to distinguish it from similar methods that are often confused with it. To begin with, Denzin (1989) described *life history* as a term that was usually employed to describe a person's life told in his or her own words. Within the social sciences, this

term had been subjected to various criticisms, amongst which were lack of representativeness from the subject and dependence on possibly imprecise memories. Consequently, this was a method perceived as having only limited usefulness, and the social scientific community regarded with disapproval anything associated with life histories. However, from life history methods, new forms of studies developed (Denzin, 1989). The main six research methods will now be mentioned and briefly described in no particular order.

The first research method which developed from life history is *autobiography*. Bromley (as cited in Jacobs, 2004) defined autobiography as the documentation of part of, or the whole of, an individual's life, written by the individual. According to McAdams (2000), a good autobiography puts life in the shape of a story. Amongst other things, events, consequences, recurrent themes and characters should all be incorporated, and so the reader of the autobiography will find himself or herself collecting life narratives told in the person's own words. However, this form of knowledge tends to be selective and biased, and therefore can be perceived as subjective.

Bromley (as cited in Fouche, 1999) also described a second and related form of study known as *biography*. Biography is the structured account of a person's life (usually from birth until death) written by someone who is not the individual being studied. Biography focuses more on what is particular to a certain individual, such as the reasons behind his or her fame. Due to the focus on specific aspects of the individual, this methodology has also been considered subjective and therefore lacking in structure for a comprehensive and precise scientific approach. However, high-quality biographies can be enlightening and profoundly informative (Jacobs, 2004).

A third associated research method to life history is the *case study*. McAdams (2000) described a case study as an "in-depth investigation of a single individual, sometimes conducted over a substantial period of time" (p. 26). The case study method provides the researcher with extensive, significant and systematic information on one particular individual, therefore, the individual becomes the main unit of analysis. Case studies are generally

used in order to formulate theories about certain or all persons. This is done by finding common trends amongst the individuals of the case study, and generalising the findings. However, there is controversy attached to this, for how can scientific explanations proceed if every case is perceived as completely unique (McAdams, 2000)?

The fourth method is *psychohistory*, which attempts to apply psychological theory in order to interpret events of a political, social and/or cultural nature (Jacobs, 2004). More explicitly, according to Kren and Rappoport (1976) “it attempts to understand the social conditions shaping the development of the individual psyche, and then the psychological factors forming the social conditions” (p. 21). Therefore, psychohistory requires that researchers examine their psyches so as to determine how social factors influence or shape their work.

The fifth method is *pathography*: because this leads straight to psychobiography, it will be discussed in section 2.3.

The last research method that developed from life history is *psychobiography*. Over the years several theorists, authors and researchers have defined psychobiography, and even though their definitions vary, the essence of psychobiography is still encapsulated (Jacobs, 2004). Some of the most comprehensive definitions are reviewed next.

According to Glad (as cited in Runyan, 1982) “psychobiography is, essentially, any life history which employs an explicit personality theory – that is, a perception that individual behaviour has an internal locus of causation as well as some degree of structure and organisation” (p. 201). McAdams (1988), defines psychobiography as “the systematic use of psychological (especially personality) theory to transform a life into a coherent and illuminating story” (p. 2). In psychobiography, the life studied is normally that of a famous and exemplary subject which is conveyed in written form. McAdams (2000) also stated that psychobiography studies the life of a subject usually until his or her death. The aim of the researcher is to discover and formulate the central

story of the individual's entire life. In addition, the story must be structured according to psychological theory. Howe (as cited in Jacobs, 2004) explained psychobiography "as a way of doing psychological research in which biographical data is used extensively to examine the growth of original thinking, creativity and productivity in unusual individuals" (p. 11).

By taking these definitions into account, psychobiography can be defined as the specific application of psychology in biography. There are two aspects of this definition that should be noted. Firstly, the area of study is defined by the application of psychological theory. Secondly, this application of theory must be explicit so as to be able to distinguish psychobiography from biography or other similar genres (Runyan, 1982).

It is important to differentiate the last two methods mentioned (psychohistory and psychobiography). In more general terms, history and psychology differ in that the former is concerned with understanding and explaining the specific sequence of historical events and their development, while psychology tends to focus primarily on people's thoughts, experiences and behaviours, and on researching these (McAdams, 2000). According to Allport (as cited in McAdams, 2000), researchers should view and examine each person's personality as a unique entity. The specific and individual patterns of people's lives should be the focus of the research, as opposed to general laws about individuals. Allport was one of the first theorists to propose this, and thus to emphasise the uniqueness of the subject, and he introduced the distinction between idiographic and nomothetic conceptualisations as ways of studying the subject (Runyan, 1988b). According to Runyan (1988b), the idiographic approach is based on the idea that every person is different from the rest, while the nomothetic approach endeavours to identify qualities common to all people or to specific groups of people. Therefore it may be said that unlike history, psychology adopts an idiographic approach: an approach which differentiates the specifics of individual patterns in life from general laws about people. In other words, an approach which examines, describes and discusses the complexities of a single case (McAdams, 2000).

Within the field of psychobiography, the uniqueness of the individual subject is essential. Alexander (1990) supports this by expressing that understanding the subject is the ultimate goal. Therefore, psychobiography was initially characterised as an idiographic approach. With regard to this classification, Allport was criticised because this distinction implies a means to the particularity of the entire person, which signifies that the idiographic approach is an in-depth study of one or certain aspects of the individual, as opposed to being an in-depth study of all aspects of the individual. Consequently Allport replaced the term idiographic with the term morphogenic, which stresses the individuality of the entire human being rather than that found only in particular elements, meaning that the person is described in a more holistic manner (McAdams, 2000; Runyan, 1988a). This is why one can say that psychobiography is morphogenic as opposed to idiographic, for it emphasises the individual in a holistic or complete way (Carlson, 1988).

Now that the above distinction has been made and that psychobiography, its definitions, related terms and descriptions have been examined, this section may be brought to an end. The following section will focus on psychobiography by discussing its development throughout the decades.

2.3 Overview of psychobiography

As with any research method, psychobiography has a history which describes its development. From the Middle Ages up until the 19th century, biographies of people who were considered exceptional historical figures were being undertaken. However, these biographies were merely a structured account of the person's life and did not take the individual's feelings or psyche into consideration. With the emergence of psychoanalysis this changed and researchers were now able to do more than state facts about their subject's lives. As from the 20th century they had the availability of a technique that could help give insight into how needs, desires and disappointments from childhood could help shape an individual's behaviour or mode of thinking as an adult (Jacobs, 2004).

Lytton Strachey (1880-1932) was a well known biographer and, according to McAdams (1988), is credited with creating the change that converted biography into pathography during the 20th century. Pathography differs from biography in that the former was a method that attempted to expose the anxieties of the individual being studied, and it would later on lead to psychobiography. Due to this distinction, it may be said that before Strachey, the practice of biography was unpsychological. McAdams (1988) supports this by claiming that Strachey, who was a biographer of famous and influential people, employed a more pathological inclination in his work. Strachey's technique involved applying psychological concepts to his biographies. These concepts would assist him in uncovering hidden personality traits from the subject he was studying at the time. For example, Strachey created the biographies of distinguished Victorians such as Cardinal Manning and Florence Nightingale. Regarding Nightingale, his work uncovered that although she performed innumerable good deeds, there was a hidden selfish compulsion found at the root of them (McAdams, 1988).

Elms (1988) states that Freud was not a follower of pathography, and in an attempt to differentiate his work from Strachey's, he named his method psychobiography. According to Runyan (1988a), the first psychobiography was Freud's *Leonardo da Vinci and a memory of childhood*, which he wrote in 1910. Freud's psychobiography was different from Strachey's work: Strachey only applied psychological concepts to his biographies, while Freud applied a systematic theory of personality to the life span of Da Vinci and was therefore able to explain failures as well as successes in his subject's life. Therefore the focus was not just on exposing Da Vinci's anxieties, but on studying his successes as well. Freud actually chose Da Vinci because he possessed a creative trait, and with his work, Freud hoped to uncover the dynamics underlying creativity (Elms, 1988).

Almost 100 years later, Freud's work is still being studied by students all over the world, for he provided methodological guidelines that are still valid today (Elms, 1988). On the other hand, Freud's work has also been subjected to various criticisms by authors such as Runyan (1988a) and McAdams (2000).

The two best known criticisms are that Freud projected on to Da Vinci aspects of his own sexual orientation, and that he built conclusions and arguments about Da Vinci's life from inadequate or insufficient data. Nonetheless, many other psychobiographies followed Freud's. A possible explanation for this may be that his work was only subjected to criticisms later on in the 20th century. Therefore, according to Runyan (1988a), in the 1920s various significant studies by writers with no formal training in psychiatry or psychoanalysis were also undertaken.

According to Runyan (1988a), with the growth of psychobiography more critics began to attack its method. However, psychobiography continued to develop throughout the 1930s. Psychobiographers decided to research writers such as Molière, Dostoevsky, Tolstoy, Poe, Nietzsche and Rousseau. Public figures such as Caesar, Napoleon and Darwin were also studied (Runyan, 1988a). Also within this decade, Henry Murray (as cited in McAdams, 1988) held that researchers within the field of psychology should write biographies that would contribute to a better understanding of personality. As the director of the Harvard Psychological Clinic, Murray proposed that psychologists embark on the rigorous study of individuals. He referred to this process as *personology*. Murray's main interest lay in studying life narratives, and thus he called on psychologists to analyse autobiographies in order to discern and explore what was underlying the subject's story.

Runyan (1988a) alludes to the fact that the publishing of psychobiographies slowed down significantly during the 1940s. Langer's *The mind of Adolf Hitler*, originally written in 1943 but only published in 1972, was one of the main works produced at this time. This psychobiography also marked a distinct change in the way that the world perceived psychology. Until this time, neither psychology nor psychobiography had been used strictly for strategic political purposes. *The mind of Adolf Hitler* was specifically written so that the Allies in World War II would be able to understand Hitler. The Allies hoped that by gaining insight into Hitler's psyche, they would be able to come up with more efficient ways to stop him, or at least to foresee what his

plans were and thus come up with appropriate counter-tactics (Runyan, 1988a).

From World War II until the late 1960s the study of psychobiography did not completely cease and there were a number of significant works produced.. Amongst others, Erikson's (as cited in Runyan, 1988a) *Young man Luther: A study in psychoanalysis and history* was published in 1958. According to McAdams (1988), Erikson's analysis of Martin Luther (1958) and Mahatma Gandhi (1969) serve as good examples of how psychobiography has matured since the 1920s. In his work on Martin Luther, Erikson (as cited in McAdams, 1988) places the subject within his socio-historical context, and shows how one cannot be separated from the other. In his work on Mahatma Gandhi, Erikson (as cited in Kren & Rappoport, 1976) thought it essential to understand consciously and subconsciously his own feelings, transferences and counter-transferences with his subject. These features have become one of the main requirements for what is considered a good quality psychobiography in the 21st century (McAdams, 2000). McAdams (1988) points out that around this time, and after World War II in general, within the field of psychology researchers attempted to make their work more scientifically accepted. Therefore there was a general striving for studies to be more empirical and quantitatively orientated, and consequently, psychobiographies received less methodological attention (Runyan, 1988a).

Runyan (1988a) mentions that since the late 1960s and within the social sciences the focus returned to the production of psychobiographies. Up until the mid 1980s there had been numerous psychobiographical works published on artists, musicians, writers, religious leaders, politicians, scientists and others. In addition, in 1985, Barber (as cited in Runyan, 1988a) thought of studies of individuals that could be grouped such as USA presidents. The era of the mid 1960s up until the early 1980s brought many different disciplines and professionals into the field of psychobiography, including psychiatrists and psychoanalysts such as Erikson. In addition, there were historians, political scientists, literary critics and academic personality psychologists such as McAdams, and Elms with his studies on Allport and Murray (as cited in

Runyan, 1988a). Therefore it may be said that various disciplines and professions had adopted psychobiography as a method of study, because many researchers wanted to learn and write about experts in their field (Runyan, 1988a).

With regard to the South African context, Vorster (2003) believes that within the field of psychology insufficient works have been published on the lives of leading South African figures. However, much has been done in the last decade. At Rhodes University in Grahamstown, scholars have completed psychobiographies such as:

- 1) Espinosa, M. J. (2006). *Eugene De Kock: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Honours treatise, Rhodes University, Grahamstown.
- 2) Green, S. J. (2006). *Karen Horney: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, Rhodes University, Grahamstown.
- 3) Jackson, K. (2006). *A psychobiography of Marilyn Monroe*. Unpublished Honours treatise, Rhodes University, Grahamstown.
- 4) Simango, M. (2006). *A psychobiographical study of Winnie Madikizela Mandela*. Unpublished Honours treatise, Rhodes University, Grahamstown.
- 5) Smeeton, B. (2005). *The psychological development of a Springbok rugby player: A psychobiographical study of Raymond Carlson*. Unpublished Honours treatise, Rhodes University, Grahamstown.
- 6) Warmenhoven, A. (2006). *The emotional intelligence of "Hansie" Cronje: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, Rhodes University, Grahamstown.

Examples of psychobiographies completed by scholars at the University of Port Elizabeth¹ in the last few years include:

¹ Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University as from January 2005.

- 1) Bareira, L. (2001). *The life of Helen Martins, creator of the Owl House: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 2) Edwards, M. J. (2004). *A psychobiographical study of Albert Schweitzer*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 3) Fouche, J. P. (1999). *The life of Jan Christiaan Smuts: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 4) Jacobs, A. (2004). *Cornelis Jacobus Langenhoven: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 5) Kotton, D. (2002). *Bantu Stephen Biko: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 6) Morrison, N. (2004). *The personality of an elite ultramarathon athlete: A case study of Bruce Fordyce*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 7) Stroud, L. (2004). *A psychobiographical study of Mother Theresa*. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 8) Vorster, M. S. (2003). *The life of Balthazar Johannes Vorster: A psychobiographical study*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.
- 9) Warmenhoven, A. (2004). *A psychobiographical study of Wessel Johannes "Hansie" Cronje*. Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Port Elizabeth, Port Elizabeth.

New works are constantly and currently being produced, not just in South Africa but throughout the world. It is important to carry on developing methods within the field of psychobiography as much can be learned from its products.

In this section, how psychobiography came to be was discussed. In the

following section, criticisms, responses and the value of psychobiography will be addressed.

2.4 Criticisms, responses and value of psychobiography

Psychobiography as a research method has been both criticised and praised. Some theorists or researchers stand against it, while others give it their approval and support. In order to explore the methodological status of the field of psychobiography, the most important criticisms and their responses will be examined, and then a general overview of the value of psychobiography will be given.

Alexander (1990) and Carlson (1988) point out that as human beings we feel, we believe, we try hard, we want, we appreciate, we suffer, we master and more. There are many different aspects to a person. Therefore, some would argue that because each individual is so complex how can it be even remotely possible to scientifically understand a person in his or her totality? Alexander (1990) did not provide a full or detailed answer to this question. However, he pointed out that if, throughout history, whenever someone encountered a challenge, he or she had given up on it, no progress or production of knowledge would have ever taken place. Research needs to begin at some point, and psychobiographical studies are an accurate way of describing and understanding the entire life course of an individual. The task of the psychobiographer consists of systematically employing a psychological theory to analyse and describe an individual life (McAdams, 1988, 2000). This enables the researcher to trace patterns of the individual's development over his or her life's continuum, and thus the researcher can achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the person and his or her behaviour (Jacobs, 2004). At least for the time being, until some other method can be improved or discovered and applied, psychobiography is the best means for portraying a human life.

Another common criticism of psychobiography is that because the psychobiographer works so closely with one subject throughout the research,

critics believe that he will lose objectivity towards to the subject of the project. On the other hand, authors like Runyan (1988a) assert that losing objectivity is not problematic for the study as it adds value to psychobiography as a research method. Runyan (1988a) suggests that because the researcher is constantly exposed to the subjectivity of the individual under study, the psychobiographer can develop empathy and sympathy for that individual. This connection that the researcher shares with the chosen subject enables the former to convey to the reader of the study the feeling of having met the individual. Consequently, the psychobiography can persuade the reader of the study to change or form a different view on his or her pre-conceived ideas of the chosen individual.

As mentioned in section 2.2, psychobiography takes on an idiographic approach. This approach has been subjected to some criticism. For example, Rosenwald (as cited in McAdams, 1988) stated that the assumption of the idiographic approach, in which the uniqueness of the individual is considered important, actually separates the individual from society. As an alternative, Rosenwald proposed multiple-case studies. He suggested multiple-case studies were more appropriate, for then each subject as a member of society could contribute to knowledge on society from a different perspective. Contrary to Rosenwald's belief, Alexander (1990) implies that understanding the subject is of foremost importance in psychobiography. In addition, Allport (as cited in McAdams, 2000) suggests that researchers should observe and examine each person's personality as a unique entity. Therefore, particulars of an individual's life should be the focus of the research, as opposed to general laws about individuals.

According to Runyan (1982), one of the most recurrent criticisms of psychobiography is that biographical interpretations are based on inadequate facts. This is attributed to researchers having no real cooperation from the subject (the person is usually dead) or any systematic way of obtaining information. Furthermore, if the researcher realises that the most important information required is from childhood, unfortunately this is usually the most difficult information for him or her to access. Consequently, some might claim

that the evidence is either insufficient, from the wrong period or of the wrong kind. This becomes problematic for it takes credibility away from psychobiography and its interpretations of famous individuals.

In the case of the subject of the psychobiography being absent, the researcher may draw on sources that do not involve getting the information straight from the individual being studied, such as books and letters that were written by the individual or to the individual, and interviews with family members. The psychobiographer can learn from informants about their perceptions of the subject and of the subject's reactions to different situations at different times. Furthermore, the researcher has the advantage of having information about a person who has lived up until the time of the psychobiography or up until his death, therefore behaviours and experiences from different developmental periods of the subject's life can be intensely analysed. Finally, regarding the subject of the psychobiography being absent, information on psychobiography is available to everyone. Therefore, if original interpretations are criticised, they can be critically re-evaluated and alternatives can be proposed (Espinosa, 2006; Runyan, 1982).

With regard to some psychobiographers realising that the most crucial information may be from childhood and therefore unavailable, Runyan (1982) suggests that researchers should devote themselves from the beginning of the project to exceptional individuals whose lives are available in the form of tangible evidence. As a result, the researcher can develop and test for several psychological explanations. For example, someone thinking about doing a psychobiography on Lady Diana Spencer would be able to find several books such as biographies at their disposal. Similarly, Kren and Rappoport (1976) sustain Runyan's suggestion with regard to a lack of information on influential childhood experiences by proposing that the researcher can always choose to perform a psychobiography on another individual for whom there is more adequate information available. There will always be certain questions that cannot be answered, for very rarely do people have at their disposal the complete story of an individual's life. However, the researcher will be able to develop psychological explanations of

those individuals for whom there is sufficient information, at least on certain aspects of behaviour and experience (Runyan, 1982).

Another criticism of psychobiography relates to claims of lack of evidence from the right period. In order to avoid this, the psychobiographer should learn about the context of his or her subject, and this means that religious, historical, moral, economic, social, cultural and political contexts should be studied for each specific psychobiography. Therefore, if these aspects of the psychobiographical subject are taken into consideration within the study, they add value to the method (Runyan, 1982). According to Runyan (1982), it is of vital importance to integrate the psychological aspects of the individual with the person's various contexts. The psychobiographical subject is analysed in a complete way and, by doing this, the reader of the psychobiography achieves information on a larger contextualised background of the period in which the person lived. According to Aristotle (as cited in Aristóteles, 1998) the human being is not only rational but sociable. Furthermore, the person is a reflection of the society in which he or she is brought up, and at the end of the person's development, the individual engages with that society. Every society is formed by families and thus one cannot separate the individual from its context. If all of these influences are taken into account then a richer understanding of the person can be achieved, and the impact of the surroundings taken into account. This will supply the researcher with an adequate frame of reference for interpreting different meanings of behaviours and thus will provide a better description of the individual being studied (Runyan, 1982).

Lastly, according to McAdams (2000), psychobiographies have been criticised for being too subjective to be classified as a meticulous scientific method. Therefore, critics claim that psychobiography lacks reliability and validity. This particular point will be discussed in-depth in Chapter 4.

Now that psychobiography's criticisms, responses and value have been examined and discussed, this section may be brought to an end. The following section concludes this chapter.

2.5 Conclusion

Runyan (1988a) states that the objective of psychobiography is a better understanding of individuals. Therefore one can say that through a better understanding of people, psychobiographical case studies add meaning and value to research in general. According to McAdams (2000), psychobiography is highly illuminating and researchers who dismiss their task as psychobiographers are in essence avoiding their intellectual responsibility to study the person as a whole (psyche and historical facts) and to present their study to others as a form of knowledge.

In this chapter, definitions and descriptions of psychobiography, an overview of psychobiography, and finally, criticisms, responses and the value of psychobiography, were addressed. In other words, various aspects of psychobiography as a research method were discussed, described, defined and examined.

The following chapter will illustrate and discuss Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

Daniel Levinson (1996) formulated a theory which describes the important changes that occur throughout a person's life. An integration of other theories, such as those of Freud, Jung, Piaget and Erikson, led Levinson to explore his own ideas, and to turn these into his own model of the human life cycle based on in-depth interviews with firstly men (1978), and later on women (1996). His theory has several identified strengths. Amongst others, it provides a thorough description of human development which grants a comprehensive understanding of adult development (Stroud, 2004). This particular strength led various psychobiographical studies to implement Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. Some of these studies are: *The life of Helen Martins, creator of the Owl House: A psychobiographical study* (Bareira, 2001); *A psychobiographical study of Mother Theresa* (Stroud, 2004); and *Karen Horney: A psychobiographical study* (Green, 2006).

The primary aim of Levinson's (1996) study was to gain knowledge of the life structure and development of women from the late teens to the mid-forties, his research being an exhaustive analysis of women's lives. In order to achieve this, Levinson carried out in-depth biographical interviews with 45 women, 15 in each of three samples. The samples consisted of 15 homemakers, 15 women with careers in the corporate-finance world, and 15 women with careers in the academic world. This enabled Levinson to capture the uniqueness of each life, and to depict developmental principles that delineate women's lives in general (Levinson, 1996). Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women* will guide this research project. Because the subject of this particular study is the life of Melanie Klein, the focus on Levinson's theory will primarily be on the homemakers for the first part of her life, and as from her 35th birthday the focus will be on the women with academic careers, for this is when Klein's life reaches

the turning point for which she became well known. Therefore both samples can be compared and applied to Klein's life course and circumstances.

The aim of this chapter is to provide the reader with descriptions and insight into Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. However, it is important to be aware of certain concepts in order to fully understand Levinson's theory. These are:

3.1.1 Termination

The term *termination* tends to imply the end, conclusion or close of a relationship (with a person, group, institution, social movement, symbol or place). Furthermore, termination can imply a change in the character of a relationship: one form of the relationship ends, while a different one begins. In addition, a termination may be insignificant if the relationship is of little value to the individual. However, it may be of greater consequence if the relationship is a major component in an individual's life, and the individual has invested a lot of self in it (Levinson, 1996).

According to Levinson (1996), the most traumatic termination entails complete loss of contact with another, such as a death, a move which may imply never seeing again the same people, or permanent parting due to a quarrel. All of these may cause the individual to experience feelings of grief, helplessness, abandonment and rage.

3.1.2 Individuation

According to Levinson (1996), *individuation* implies that children shift from conception to existence as human beings in the world. Furthermore, individuation is a process which involves the individuals' relationship to both self and the external world. The further persons find themselves within the process of individuation, the greater the sense of self-awareness that people achieve. Therefore individuals become more integrated, autonomous, responsible and dependent on their inner resources (values, talents, etc.). Individuation also

occurs toward the external world. The more individuated relationships that people possess, the more their feelings of connectedness to other people and their surroundings. In addition, individuation brings more balance into people's lives, as individuals become more aware of their own possibilities but also of how these will influence others around them.

Levinson (1996) perceived individuation as a developmental attempt toward the resolve of four polarities which are essential for evolution in the life cycle. They are young/old, destruction/creation, masculine/feminine and engagement/separateness. Each of the terms within the pair represents opposing tendencies or conditions. However, all pairs coexist in every person and society. In more detail:

3.1.2.1 *Young/old* coexist at every age throughout development. People at a certain point will feel old due to particular circumstances but young because of others. For example, at 40 some women may feel old compared to women in their 20s, but these same women might feel too young to even compare themselves to someone in their 70s. This dichotomy may become problematic if people do not find a balance. In order for development to follow its normal course, people have to resolve the developmental task of every transitional period in which they find themselves. The idea is for individuals to become young/old in a new way appropriate to their era in the life cycle.

3.1.2.2 *Destruction/creation* present similar problems of conflict and reintegration as young/old. Every transition brings to individuals issues of death or destruction. Awareness of death or of how loved ones have acted destructively toward us, or of how individuals themselves have hurt their loved ones, are inevitable. Also, within a transition period, desires for love and creativeness become present. Therefore destructive and creative forces can be partially integrated within people's lives, although never fully.

3.1.2.3 *Masculine/feminine* parts of the self should also coexist within each person, and each person should be aware of this and accept it. Masculine/feminine are split so intensely during pre-adulthood that it takes the

rest of the eras to bring them together in order to overcome this division.

3.1.2.4 *Engagement/separateness* must also be integrated, although this polarity is very difficult to end. The balance for the need to engage in the external world with the need to remain separate and independent is very delicate and it takes people most of their lives to accomplish, although realistically, Levinson (1996) states that most never do.

These polarities can be worked through at any stage of the life cycle. However, during transitional periods, opportunity and desire to attain integration are strongest. When the life structure is up for reappraisal and change, it becomes more important to balance out the polarities.

3.1.3 Initiation

Initiation implies making a choice. Some choices tend to be easier than others. For example, choosing what to wear in the morning is much easier than choosing a spouse, a friend or an occupation. The most difficult choices in life place the individual making the choice through a more extended thinking-feeling exploring process, therefore one may say that choices are based to various degrees on the individual's preferences and external opportunities/constraints. The process of choosing often has conscious and unconscious aspects. For example, when an individual decides to enter a relationship with another, some investment of self is made in the relationship, often without the individual realising consciously that he or she is making a choice. After the investment of self, the individual will expect some reciprocal response from the other, and if this occurs, the relationship evolves over time. Every significant relationship is therefore an evolving process, in which those involved make a series of choices (Levinson, 1996).

3.1.4 Gender splitting

According to Levinson (1996), although both genders go through the same periods of infancy, adolescence, and adult life structure development, males

and females have different experiences. The genders differ with regard to life circumstances, in the life course, and in ways in which each gender goes through and deals with developmental periods. Women and men work on developmental tasks with different resources and restrictions (Levinson, 1996).

Gender splitting is considered the most significant form of conflict that pertains to the established division existing between the sexes, such as masculine and feminine or male and female. It pervades all aspects of life, such as cultures and institutions within society as well as individual people, both in terms of their own minds as well as different aspects of their everyday existence. There are four recognised basic forms of gender splitting: the domestic sphere, the traditional marriage enterprise, the place of work, and the individual psyche (Levinson, 1996).

Levinson (1996) states that when gender splitting operates most strongly, women primarily live as homemakers in a traditional marriage enterprise. This implies that women's lives are centred on everything that is considered domestic, and they only hold jobs that are acceptable for women, and only admire and accept women who have the same qualities and ideals as they do. These qualities have to be associated with what is considered to be feminine. This may be problematic if the woman desires a life that is not centred around the domestic sphere or her husband.

Men's lives have traditionally been centred around work, that is to say, around the public sphere. Men have always controlled and dominated the public sphere, and women who have participated in this area have done so under segregated and marginal terms. This is because in most societies, women have been forced to centre their lives within the domestic sphere, which has influenced and contributed to their identity, activities, satisfactions and dissatisfactions. Therefore the gender division between the domestic and the public sphere is essential in women's lives (Levinson, 1996).

3.1.5 The traditional marriage enterprise

According to Levinson (1996), the *traditional marriage enterprise* involves family-orientated lives. This means that marriage is not just about being in love, it is also about building an enterprise. The idea behind the enterprise is for both partners to be able to have what they consider a good, satisfying, and happy life by forming a family with the basic traditions of the family of origin and by having children. The traditional marriage enterprise functions with the woman/mother/wife as a homemaker, and with the man/husband/father as the main provider (Levinson, 1996).

According to Levinson (1996), this defined division of labour serves to support and maintain the pervasive gender splitting in human life. Homemaking and providing are general ways of living that include the whole family, work and all social contexts. Within this view, the man is perceived as the “head of the family” and thus as the ultimate source of authority. Men occupy the dominant positions in society and within most families. In most human societies, patriarchy has been a universal theme. When women engage in work outside the household, it is to assist the man with the expenses of the latter. Furthermore, this employment outside the household is within fields considered to be mainly for women, such as nursing. Therefore, these activities that take the women outside the domestic sphere tend to connect her primarily to other women and children. Woman in patriarchal societies are discouraged from taking on full participation in the occupational system: they are raised to believe that work is primarily the man’s job, and that their role is to stay at home with the children, and to take care of their home. Within a patriarchal society, when a woman has a position of authority over men in the workplace, or is perceived as more successful than her husband, tension can result. Levinson (1996) believes that due to the woman mainly staying in the household and the man spending most of his time outside the household, it is difficult to bridge the division that these spheres produce in a marriage.

3.1.6 The internal anti-traditional figure

Levinson (1996) claims the *internal anti-traditional figure* can be explained as the opposite of the traditional homemaker. The former is an inner conflict that most women go through, and consists of wanting more than a traditional marriage life. Some women feel that they can do more, be more than just a mother or wife, that they can have free minds, that they can participate in all domains of life, and most importantly, that they can know themselves as individuals. This does not come without conflict. Some women are scared of sacrificing marriage and motherhood for their profession, and believe that if they choose their careers, they will end up alone and empty. On the other hand, some women believe that if they choose both a family and a profession, they will not be capable of doing either properly. This is a continuous ambiguity with which women are faced.

Now that these six concepts have been examined, we can continue the most significant notion which emerged from Levinson's research, which is the life structure, and in particular, the key pattern of a person's life at any given point in time. His theory focuses mainly on the development of the life structure in adulthood, and thus it will assist in the further exploration and description of Klein's life course.

3.2 Levinson's *life structure*

Levinson (1986) believes that in order to study the life course of a person, it is necessary to look first at the life structure of that person, because the periods in the life structure development provide a framework in which to study life courses. This framework holds for most humans in general, however, specific variations such as culture or historical epochs should be taken into consideration. The framework can also assist us with understanding biological, psychological and social changes. Therefore, the concept of *life structure* implies looking at an individual's life at a particular time and describing its evolution over time. The exploration of a person's life structure seeks to consider the external realities as well as the subjective meanings. Although

each individual's life is unique and the course of a life is not simple, all life structures comprise the same basic sequence of events and experiences. Furthermore, it is also implied that no life structure is enduring, because change is part of the nature of people's existence (McAdams, 2006).

Life course refers to the pattern of explicit events, accomplishments, failures, ambitions and relationships that make up the individual's life over time. All aspects of a person's life are important, and thus the individual life structure includes the person's socio-cultural world (family, class, religion, ethnicity, political systems, occupational structure, historical era), the person's participation in the world (various relationships and roles regarding important people and institutions in his or her life), and various aspects of the self (wishes, conflicts, anxieties, strivings, thoughts and ideas amongst a host of others which may change or remain stable over time) (McAdams, 2006). According to Levinson et al. (1978) the term *life cycle* "suggests that the life course has a particular character and follows a basic sequence" (p. 6). The human life cycle implies that from birth until death, humans follow a specific pattern. However, this universal pattern is under the influence of various cultural and individual variations which help shape it. Furthermore, within the life cycle, there is the idea of seasons, but these will be examined and explained further on in this section (Levinson et al., 1978).

Levinson (1996) maintained that individuals' relationships with others make up the primary components of a life structure, for relationships shape and give substance to the life course. A significant relationship may be with a present other such as a parent or a friend, with a person from the past such as an old lover, an imagined or symbolic figure, a group, an institution, some part of nature, etc. Therefore the choices that individuals make concerning their relationships should be considered with regard to the meanings and functions that they entail within the life structure. These meanings and functions give way to three components, which may shift amongst themselves, change or even be eliminated altogether. The *central components* are those that bring more meaning to the self and life, such as family, marriage, friendship and occupation amongst others. Furthermore, they influence other components and they are

the ones into which the individual invests more energy and time. The *peripheral components* are those into which the individual invests less energy and time, and therefore they are easier to change or remove. The *unfilled components* are made up of all of the things that a person desires but for some reason has been unable to achieve, such as a meaningful job, marriage or family. The absence of one or several of these components can have a major impact on the life structure (Levinson, 1986).

Levinson (1986) believes the life structure emerges during the life course according to a certain sequence. Therefore it may be said that the life course evolves through a series of identifiable seasons. The idea of *seasons* implies a progression of periods or phases within the life cycle. Each season has its own unique character and may be viewed as a rather stable segment of the entire cycle. Every season also brings change and has its own time space. The variations that one may identify in relation to each individual and the season are related to gender, class, race, culture, historical period, genetics and particular circumstances. Finally, no season is either better or more significant than another. In other words, every season involves a period in which a structure is built and maintained to enhance life within it. This takes place when the individual accomplishes the developmental tasks which are crucial to the evolution of the periods. Each period's fundamental task is to build a life structure. Thus the individual is required to make key choices, form a structure around these choices, and pursue his or her values and goals around them. Structure building periods last roughly five to seven years (Levinson, 1996).

Transition is required from one season to the next. This phase is known as a *transitional period*, and it is here that the transformation of the life structure occurs and a new structure is formed. The primary tasks of all transitional periods are for the individual to reappraise the current structure, to investigate the potential for change within and outside the self, and to commit himself or herself to the changes needed in order to achieve the new and desired life structure. Transitional periods last approximately five years (Levinson et al., 1978).

3.3 Levinson's eras and developmental periods

In this section, Levinson's eras and developmental periods will be described. In addition, the successive developmental periods of early adulthood that both the homemakers and the women with careers have been through will also be examined. We follow Levinson's chronology of eras and transitional periods while examining the homemakers and the women with careers when appropriate. The homemakers' section will be included from the adolescent life structure as far as the mid-life transition, for this is the structure that Levinson (1996) followed in his book. The focus will be on the homemakers' familial-social context until the culminating life structure for early adulthood. Once this has been looked at, the focus will shift to the women with careers for the following eras, as this is the development that best represents Klein's experience.

Levinson (1996) divided the life cycle into a sequence of 4 *eras*, each lasting approximately 25 years. Although there are major changes identified and described as taking place between and within the eras, each has its own unique and unifying attributes, which have to do with the character of living. The character of living includes biological, psychological and social features. Therefore it may be said that each era has a distinctive *bio-psycho-social* character that contributes to the development of the whole individual by providing a structure within which developmental stages and processes of everyday life occur. Moreover, the eras overlap; a new era begins as the previous one draws near its end. Levinson set specific ages in which this takes place. However, each individual life is different and thus there is a margin of not more than 6 years for variation around the average age. The transition from one era to the next is challenging and lengthy (Levinson et al., 1978).

Although there is not much organisation within an individual's life course, some underlying order emerges with regard to the evolution of the life structure. During the adult years and through a sequence of periods, the life structure develops. In this sequence, periods in which the life structure is transformed alternate with periods in which a structure is built and maintained. The *structure*

building period's main task is to form and maintain a life structure and to enhance the individual's life within it. As an individual makes choices, a structure is formed which enables the individual to pursue his ideals and objectives. Building a life structure and making choices involves change, and this can be a complicated task (Levinson, 1996).

According to Levinson (1996), the eras and the structure-changing or transitional periods progress as follows:

3.3.1 *Pre-adulthood* (childhood, adolescence and the early adult transition) is the first era and extends from conception until approximately age 22. It is the era of most rapid bio-psycho-social growth, and throughout this era, the individual is at its most susceptible and dependent phase (Levinson et al., 1978).

A move from birth to childhood takes place during the first few years. During this time, the child establishes a distinction between the "me" and "not-me", and as a result goes through an initial biological and psychological separation from the mother. This can be classified as the first step in a systematic process of individuation. Then follows middle-childhood in which the child expands his social world from family to neighbourhood and school. This new stage in the individual's life leads to more responsibility, skills and discipline and takes place at approximately 5 or 6 years of age. At roughly 12 or 13 years, puberty starts and this provides the move from middle-childhood to adolescence. Adolescence leads to the beginning of a more independent, responsible adult life that includes sexual maturity (Levinson, 1986, 1996).

3.3.2 *Early adult transition* (age 17-22) is the first structure-changing period in which the individual ends childhood and begins early adulthood. In a cross-era transition the individual is in between eras, therefore he or she is concluding one era, and preparing himself or herself for the next one without a clear idea of what is to come. Levinson (1996) states that the tasks of all transitional periods are individuation, termination and initiation. Here it is important to terminate the adolescent life structure and all of its significant

parts. It is also imperative to become more individuated, that is, to move towards a more adult self. The final task is to initiate relationships in the adult world. Levinson (1986) concludes that the early adult transition “represents, so to speak, both the full maturity of pre-adulthood and the infancy of a new era. One is at best off to a shaky start, and new kinds of development are required in the next era” (p. 9).

3.3.2.1 Homemaker sample

At this time, all of the 15 homemakers lived with their parents and went to a public school. The main components of their lives were their family, school, and their peers. As the end of the school era began, the homemakers began to think about their possibilities in the adult world, and about leaving their parental home (Levinson, 1996).

According to Levinson (1996), within the homemaker sample, there was a variety of religions, ranging from Catholics to Jews. Furthermore, religious views and involvement were also varied. Two of the women were African-American and the other 13 were white. After high school, five women had completed a four-year college degree, five had vocational training, four had finished high school, and one woman had finished 11 years of education. Within their families, there were also variations in the socio-economic status. Some of the women had relatively comfortable middle-class parents who were also college educated, others came from a stable working-class or lower middle-class home, and others grew up in surroundings of poverty and hardship. Levinson (1996) stated that this last group had the highest divorce rate and an average of four children.

According to Levinson (1996), within the Western culture, both home and the family are viewed as places of safety for every individual. The family should provide a feeling of physical and psychological safety for spouses and children. However, for the homemakers, their families generally represented a threat. Most of the women encountered abuse, alcoholism and anguish. The homemakers belonged to what modern society would identify as

dysfunctional families. Only a minority of the women gave an account of their adolescence and childhood as taking place within a positive atmosphere.

During this time, the internal traditional homemaker figure operated strongly within all of the homemakers. Becoming homemakers in a traditional marriage enterprise was both desirable and inevitable for these women. Very few searched for alternatives, and after their search became unsuccessful, they resigned their lives to an existence within their homes.

A year before or after graduation, the homemakers began the early adult transition. Graduation brought with it several social, biological and psychological changes that encouraged the women towards adulthood. This caused the women to move towards a continuous but different life structure to that of adolescence (Levinson, 1996).

With regard to the family of origin, women realise that they cannot (at least not for much longer) continue living within the parental home. Therefore, during this stage, women begin with small steps in this direction. This implies more independence, and the move into the uncertain. However, after the move, the relationship between parents and daughters tends to continue, but under different circumstances (Levinson, 1996).

According to Levinson (1996), in the early adult transition, to marry and to start a family has many implications. Forming a relationship while the individual is maturing from childhood is a difficult task. When a woman gets married and leaves the parental home, her development as an adult becomes limited, because she needs to focus on her marriage and new circumstances, rather than on her developmental tasks of this period. This results in the marriage becoming vulnerable, although not completely doomed to failure.

During the first years of marriage the couple will experience problems. The most critical ones are those involving the splitting of the domestic and public worlds. The man is supposed to provide and the woman is required to take care of the home and the children. These parallel and unconnected lives, due

to gender splitting, lead the couples to have limited time together. If no attempt is made between the couple to overcome these problems, the marriage can either end in divorce or in a lasting but unsatisfying union (Levinson, 1996).

As indicated by Levinson (1996), in a traditional marriage enterprise, a woman and a man join each other with the purpose of creating a family. Matrimony and motherhood are an obvious correlation. Having and raising children are not only the justification of the woman's existence but also part of becoming an adult.

3.3.3 *Early adulthood* is the second era and lasts from approximately age 17 to 45. This is the era in which the adult experiences the highest levels of energy and stress. In his or her twenties and thirties, the individual is at his or her finest physical state. Socially and psychologically, early adulthood represents the optimal period for developing and pursuing youthful dreams and ambitions. In addition, it is a time for the individual to establish himself or herself in society, to raise a family and become a 'senior member' of the adult world. This can be a time of stress with regard to parenting and career responsibilities. Furthermore, important decisions regarding finances, work and family have to be made. Alternatively this era can bring great satisfaction in relation to love, family, sexuality, work opportunities, the achievement of goals and creativity. Therefore it may be said that in this era there can be ambiguity between one's personal wishes, dreams and aspirations, and those that are imposed, demanded or expected from society (Levinson, 1996).

3.3.4 *The entry life structure for early adulthood* (age 22-28) is a period in which the individual's task is to build and maintain an enriching adult life structure. This implies that at this stage, the individual should make positive life choices regarding marriage, love, family, work, lifestyle and separation from the family of origin. The individual is now a young adult whose life must be organised to enable him or her to be a part of the adult world.

3.3.4.1 Homemaker sample

According to Levinson (1996), this structure can be divided into two phases and the shift between the phases:

3.3.4.1A The first phase lasts from approximately 22 to 25. This is a time for strengthening commitments and building important relationships.

3.3.4.1B The shift takes place at 25 and brings about the change from the initial phase to the final phase of this period. At this point the individual has several problems of different kinds, which can involve the marriage, the children or work amongst others. At 25, the woman decides that things need to change and that problems need to be resolved. The changes are generally specific but embedded in more general concerns, and are meant to make the individual's life more integrated and fulfilling.

3.3.4.1C The second phase generally takes place at 26. If the woman is satisfied with her life, she can devote this second phase to enhancing it. If this is not the case, then the woman might decide to make further changes, although these can require more years to fulfil.

3.3.5 *Age 30 transition* (age 28-33) takes place in mid-era, and provides the opportunity for additional individuation. Furthermore, the individual is able to explore possibilities for the next life structure. During these years, both women and men can experience new concerns such as the loss of youth and the assumption of a more senior position within the individual's world.

3.3.5.1 Homemaker sample

Levinson (1996) states that this transitional period for the homemakers normally begins at 28 and ends at 33. The tasks for these women, as for everyone in general, were to end the previous structure, to become more individuated, and to move towards the next structure. Since this transition was the final one in the culminating life structure, the developmental work that

the women did here was of major importance. By this age the women tended to believe that their already established life pattern would continue. However, that was not the case. Women realised at this time that the previous decade was built with imperfections, and that there was still the need for maturation. Conflict from the past should still be resolved so that the homemakers could prepare themselves for the thirties.

3.3.6 *Culminating life structure for early adulthood* (age 33-40) is the developmental phase, in which the aim is to create a structure in which individuals can secure their place in society so as to achieve their youthful dreams and objectives. During these years, the individual moves from “junior” to “senior” member in the adult world.

3.3.6.1 Women with academic careers

As from now we will be looking at the sample of women with academic careers, because it is from this point that Klein became involved in the academic world and thus belongs within this group for her analysis. The academic women from the sample were all white. Three of the women were Catholic, eight were Protestant and four were Jewish. These women made a greater effort than the homemakers in overcoming the splitting between genders. Their internal anti-traditional figure is much stronger than that of the homemakers, and thus they attempt to achieve a greater balance between their work and their family (Levinson, 1996).

According to Levinson (1996), at this stage, the women from the sample took on greater responsibilities and more profound commitments. This period, like the entry life structure, also has two phases:

3.3.6.1A The first phase lasts approximately until age 35 or 36. The task is to establish a new and satisfactory life structure. Once the second phase has begun, changing the structure is very difficult.

3.3.6.1B During the second phase, the individual needs to fulfil her main goals for early adulthood. This is done by forming an enterprise built amongst the central components of the life structure, although it also involves other components. Gender differences are important during this phase. By this stage the woman wants to gain a stronger sense of her own personhood. This is the time to move from girl to woman, to be acknowledged for qualities related with the feminine. Women who were previously happy to be dependent on their husbands, now have a need for their own independence. Becoming one's own woman is very important, for if the effort goes badly, the individual will have a sense of failure in her life.

Levinson (1996) believed that this period represented a time of great difficulty, but also of substantial development and personal growth for most of the women in the sample. Many of the women with children decided that their way of life with regard to marriage was too difficult, and felt that a marriage with equality amongst the partners would be better with regard to provisions and the domestic aspect.

3.3.7 During the *mid-life transition* (age 40-45) significant social and psychological changes take place. From the thirties until the early forties is a time in which the individual tries to be both young and old in ways appropriate to middle adulthood. Now that the life structure of the thirties has ended, the individual has to come to terms with the conclusion of youth. An essential task of this period is the mid-life individuation. The evolution of the self and life has to be modified so as to fit the coming developmental period.

3.3.7.1 Women with academic careers

According to Levinson (1996), the women from the sample experienced changes in marriage, motherhood, and occupation. In general, the type of change is determined by the particular circumstances of the individual. It is very difficult to make assumptions at this stage. However, many of the career women thought that with success they could have it all and do it all with regard to their job and their family. The women's self esteem went hand in

hand with either success or failure. Therefore, in most cases, the women were trying to fulfil the endless requirements of a demanding career and family. Finally, one can say that the themes for the new era are that women want to be more carefree, and to pursue their own interests and make their own choices (Levinson, 1996). In relation to this, McAdams (2006) states that this period may bring opportunities involving new goals and plans intended to increase the individual's potential concerning the future.

Levinson (1996) did not pursue the other eras in detail, for the main area of his research was early adulthood which begins with the early adult transition and ends with the mid-life transition. However, with regard to Klein's life, all periods will continue to be described in a thorough manner.

3.3.8 *Middle adulthood* is the third era. This era starts with the mid-life transition and last from approximately 40 to 65 years of age. At this stage, most individuals become senior members of their societies. This era brings a different degree and level of responsibilities. The individual's biological and psychological capabilities may be lower than in previous eras but on average, energy levels are sufficient and lives can still be personally and socially satisfying. People at this stage are responsible for themselves, but also for the development of the younger generation. This era brings the possibility for mature creativity, a higher responsibility toward the self and others, and a change in the way the individual views life. In addition, at this time, the perspective on life becomes more universal and the individual more capable of intimacy. Unfortunately, middle adulthood can bring for some individuals a loss in vitality and a growing emptiness (Levinson, 1996).

3.3.9 The task of the *entry life structure for middle adulthood* (age 45-50) is to create a stable structure so that the individual can get under way with middle adulthood. This developmental structure, by definition, has to be different from that of the thirties. The relationships that form the central components of the life structure are the same in essence (same job and family) but have evolved with time. Within these years, an initial place in a new generation and season in life has to be established.

3.3.10 The *age 50 transition* (age 50-55) is another mid-era transition, similar to the age 30 transition. It is a common feature that within these years developmental crises may take place. These crises depend on the type of changes and decisions that the individuals have made during the last 10 to 15 years: an entry into a new period often reactivates unresolved problems and discrepancies from the past. This is the ideal time to evaluate the entry life structure and to carry on with individuation with regard to the self and society. Furthermore, it is an opportunity for the individual to prepare himself or herself for the structure that will be formed in the following period.

3.3.11 Like that of the thirties, the *culminating life structure for middle adulthood* (age 55-60) provides the individual with the opportunity to prepare himself or herself in order to carry out his or her main objectives for the coming era.

3.3.12 During the *late adult transition* (age 60-65), middle adulthood ends and late adulthood is initiated. The primary task of this period is to evaluate the past and for the individual to shift into the new era. Furthermore, the individual creates a foundation for the next period, which is the entry life structure for late adulthood.

3.3.13 At approximately 60, the era of *late adulthood* begins. Late adulthood may or may not be viewed as a distinct and gratifying period in life. The individual's life is altered in several ways due to biological, psychological and social changes. Both deteriorating health and retirement can be challenging. At this stage, individuals need to reduce the level of responsibility they hold towards themselves and society and this can be traumatic for various reasons. Firstly, belonging to a generation that is no longer dominant and receives less recognition requires major adjustments. Secondly, individuals of this age have less authority and power and this also needs getting used to. Furthermore, this generation might enter into conflict with the younger generation with regard to how they handle their responsibility levels. On a more personal level, people in late adulthood have to confront life decisions by finding a way to reconcile with their life mistakes (Levinson et al., 1978).

Development is a process of evolution that has two aspects: positive growth and negative growth. The former is related to adollescening, while the latter is associated with senescening. Both adollescening and senescening take place during the entire life cycle, however, their character and balance change significantly from era to era. For example, in childhood, we are mostly adollescening, although with growth as with change, there is always loss involved. The child's growth is related to understanding the adult world, which may imply a loss in the creative and imaginary capacity that children possess. Growth, however, is related to advancement from a lower to a higher developmental level. Amongst others, there is great progression in body size and function, capability for adaptation, and character formation. This growth tends to stabilise at the age of 20 in early adulthood, and then there is a gradual decline from approximately 40 when senescening begins its predominance over adollescening (Levinson, 1996). According to Levinson (1996), in late adulthood we are mostly senescening. However, some adollescening can take place towards the end of the life span as individuals seek to give further meaning to their lives. Therefore it can be said that our lives are a mixture of growth and decline, and the study of adult development must take both into account. In this regard, Levinson (1996) also adds that adult development must be studied on its own, not as an extension of childhood or as a preface to old age.

The following table is a summary of the different eras and transition periods that emerge from Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. With it, developmental periods in Klein's life will be identified and applied in the exploration and description of her life course.

Table 1. The Developmental Periods in the Eras of Adult Development (Levinson, 1996).

	ERA OF PRE-ADULTHOOD	ERA OF EARLY ADULTHOOD	ERA OF MIDDLE ADULTHOOD	ERA OF LATE ADULTHOOD
Infancy: age 0-2				
Early childhood: age 2-6				

Middle childhood: age 6-12				
Adolescence: age 12-17				
Early adult transition: age 17-22				
Entry life structure for early adulthood: age 22-28				
Transition: age 30				
Culminating life structure for early adulthood: age 33-40				
Mid-life transition: age 40-45				
Entry life structure for middle adulthood: age 45-50				
Transition: age 50				
Culminating life structure for middle adulthood: age 55-60				
Late adult transition: age 60-65				
Late adulthood: age 65-?				

3.4 Conclusion

Levinson (1996) formulated a theory of life structure development which can be applied to the life cycle of individuals. This theory identifies and illustrates four eras which describe the evolution of a human life. In every era, each individual builds a life structure and although there is an underlying sequence to this process, each individual life is considered to be unique and to vary from others in certain aspects.

In this chapter, the main concepts that emerge from Levinson's (1996) theory were looked at and described. In detail, individuation, the four polarities, gender splitting, the traditional marriage enterprise, internal anti-traditional figure, eras and developmental periods were examined. In addition, the homemaker and the women with career samples were incorporated into the description of the eras and developmental periods for further understanding. In the following chapter, the research design and methodology followed in this study will be examined.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Psychobiographical researchers have to address a number of methodological considerations. Those relevant to this study will be described in this chapter, namely: (a) research objectives, (b) research design, (c) participant and sampling method, (d) procedures involving data collection, processing and analysis, (e) validity and reliability, and finally (f) ethical considerations.

4.2 Research objectives

To date, no psychobiography on Melanie Klein has been undertaken. The primary aim of this study is to present the reader with a basic description of Klein's life. This may be achieved by exploring and describing Klein's development according to Levinson's (1996) theoretical framework. A secondary aim is to accomplish an in-depth examination of Klein within her particular social and historical context. Although it is not an intended objective of this study, through the achievement of a clear psychological perspective on Klein's life, additional understanding may be gained with regard to her theory. As a result, through this research, more academic value and comprehension can be brought to the fields of psychobiography and psychology.

4.3 Research design

Berg (as cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994) stated that qualitative data is about capturing the core nature of people within their context, and of converting these experiences, settings and actions which are based on observation or documents into words and thus language. Therefore it can be said that the focus of qualitative data is on an individual's experiences, actions, perspectives and interpretations of their world. In relation to this, Erikson (as cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994) mentioned that social facts are embedded

in social action. Action carries with it intentions and meanings which lead to consequences. Therefore actions can be encapsulated to supply an underlying description of the forces at work which are interpreted according to the particular social and historical context in which they occur, within a specific situation. Consequently, no research study conforms to a conventional methodology. It is the researcher that must mould the methodology to the distinctiveness of the setting (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Qualitative research may be conducted in various ways. In this particular study it is carried out through an in-depth study and discussion of Klein's life circumstances and extensive descriptions of these circumstances. These descriptions are achieved through the use of multiple sources of data such as the ones mentioned in section 4.5. The aim is for the researcher to achieve a holistic overview of the subject and her context under study. With regard to this, Van Maanen (as cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994) states that the main analytic assignment is to "uncover and explicate the ways in which people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action and otherwise manage their day-to-day situation" (p. 8).

This study may be described as life history research (Runyan, 1988a) which takes a morphogenic approach. Therefore, instead of being an in-depth study on one or certain aspects of the person, it looks at the subject in a more holistic way (McAdams, 2000). According to Alexander (1990), the uniqueness of the individual subject is of profound value, and thus understanding the subject is the ultimate goal of psychobiography. The study can also be classified as exploratory, for it focuses on analytical choices made by the researcher concerning what parts of Klein's lifespan should be highlighted (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is also descriptive, for it attempts to depict Klein's life by implementing a psychological theory. This particular study will be guided by Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*, therefore, it can be said that Levinson's theory will assist the researcher as a template against which the data collected can be compared and analysed (Yin, 1994).

4.4 Participant and sampling method

Melanie Klein was selected as a participant by means of a purposive sampling method. She was chosen due to her extraordinariness and for her contributions to the discipline of psychology. According to Segal (1992), Klein's three main contributions were: firstly, even though some of her work has enhanced the findings of Freud, she founded a new theoretical discipline – she is considered the main founder of *Object Relations Theory*. Secondly, according to Likierman (2001), Klein was the first to provide a model for the early psychological experiences of children – she devised a range of therapeutic techniques that had a significant impact on methods of child care and child rearing. Thirdly, she established a highly influential training programme in psychoanalysis (also with regard to children) – as one of the most distinguished contemporary theorists within the discipline of psychology, Klein's thinking has significantly influenced and shaped twentieth century psychoanalysis. These accomplishments are particularly significant considering the range of tragic events she experienced during her life (Grosskurth, 1986).

Melanie Klein was born in Vienna on March 30, 1882 (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Her father, Moriz Reizes, was a well-known doctor. Her mother, Libussa Deutsch, was a very persuasive and controlling woman (Grosskurth, 1986). Klein was the youngest of four siblings, and was basically left to care for herself. Due to the lack of parenting that Klein endured, Emanuel (her only brother) and Sidione (one of her sisters) took her under their wing. Both tried to support her and even encourage her academically. It has also been suggested that Emanuel took the relationship with his younger sister even further, so much so that Grosskurth (1986) insinuates that the relationship was tainted by serious incestuous undertones. Unfortunately, Emanuel and Sidione suffered premature deaths, and it is said that this drove Klein into a recurrent depression (Grosskurth, 1986). This depression may also be attributed to the neglect that Klein claimed to have experienced at the hands of both of her parents. Although both Moriz and Libussa were well-learned and avid readers, neither encouraged Klein in this regard. Furthermore, there was favouritism directed

towards Klein's siblings, but not towards Klein herself, so that Klein viewed herself as the unwanted child that had lived, while the other two desired children had not (Segal, 1992). After the death of Emanuel and Sidione, Libussa's exertion of control within the family increased. Furthermore, her controlling and manipulative nature strengthened after her husband's death which intensified her need to rule the family. She always directed her children with regard to how they should live their lives, even after her eldest and youngest were at an acceptable marriage age. With regard to Klein's marriage partner, Libussa insisted on her marrying Arthur Stevan Klein. This insistence continued even after Klein decided that he was really not suitable for her. Klein was still expected to continue with the wedding plans due to pressure from Libussa's economical situation (Likierman, 2001; Segal, 1992). Soon after the marriage took place, the Kleins started a family. This however did not dissipate Libussa's control on Klein's life, on the contrary. Libussa sent Klein letters expressing in detail how the latter was supposed to care for her children, and eventually she even moved in with the family. Consequently, Klein's life was characterised by a very controlling mother and an unhappy marriage, which ultimately led to her divorce and emigration to England. From her arrival in England at the age of 44, and up until the time of her death at age 78, her most significant contributions were made to the field of psychology (Grosskurth, 1986).

4.5 Data collection

In order to obtain information on the life of Melanie Klein, multiple sources of data have been reviewed. The most useful and important sources were:

- Grosskurth, P. (1986). *Melanie Klein: Her work and her love*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Hinshelwood, R., Robinson, S., & Zarate, O. (1997). *Introducing Melanie Klein*. Cambridge: Icon Books.
- Kristeva, J. (2001). *Melanie Klein* (R. Guberman, Trans.). New York: Columbia University.
- Likierman, M. (2001). *Melanie Klein: Her work in context*. London: BookEns.

- Segal, J. (1992). *Melanie Klein*. London: Sage.

It was obvious to the researcher that the biographies by Hinshelwood et al. (1997), Kristeva (2001), Likierman (2001) and Segal (1992) were largely based on Grosskurth's (1986) work. Grosskurth supplies a significant amount of information on Klein and he is the only one of these five authors who refers to her autobiography. This is why there is some discrepancy between Grosskurth's book and other sources regarding information on Klein. Most of the data used in this study was obtained from Grosskurth's biography. However, the other four sources were also useful because they provide a diverse range of information on aspects of Klein and her world which Grosskurth did not include in his book (for example, Julia Segal is the daughter of Anna Segal who knew and worked with Klein and thus had firsthand information on her).

4.6 Data processing and data analysis

Once the necessary information for the research has been gathered, the following step is data analysis. Alexander (1990) suggests that data analysis can be achieved by processing data in order to obtain a selection of the most significant aspects and factoring them into general or unique sequential patterns. According to Yin (2003) every study should attempt to have a general analytic approach that will assist the researcher in identifying what to analyse and why, in order to attempt to answer the research question. The analysis of the data for this study will be guided by the application of the three linked sub-processes (steps) proposed in Miles and Huberman's (1994) general approach. The first step is data reduction, the second data display, and the third conclusion drawing and verification. These sub-processes are described in more detail next.

4.6.1 Data reduction

A qualitatively orientated project involving the capture of large amounts of base data will of necessity require that data to be reduced to a more detailed and focused level. This involves the discarding of non-vital information and the re-organisation of the data collected in any form such as from documents or books. The process of doing so is known as *data reduction*. It is fair to say therefore that data reduction is an integral part of the analytical process as it requires a significant degree of analysis in order to determine which data should be retained for the purposes of enhancing the research report and which data might detract from the main focus and thus must be discarded (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the process extends further and encapsulates all aspects such as the selection of the relevant conceptual framework through which to analyse and point it in the direction and focus of the research question. Throughout the process the data is repeatedly examined and summarised, leading on to further structures within what eventually becomes the final report.

4.6.2 Data display

The actual presentation of the data is known as *data display* and, according to Miles and Huberman (1994), involves the structured presentation of the information in a manner which allows the reader to draw conclusions.

Extended text is the most common form of data display, but it is inherently problematic as the huge amounts of data involved tend to obscure and detract from a proper analysis. A researcher, when presented with large amounts of information, is unlikely to possess the ability to properly analyse the data and may draw incorrect conclusions based upon analysis weighted towards only the section of the data that appears to be the most interesting. Faust (as cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994) stated that “Extended text can overload humans’

information processing capabilities and preys on their tendencies to find simplifying patterns” (p. 11).

In order to avoid this pitfall, Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that the correct use of displays assists greatly in terms of qualitative analysis. Suggestions to achieve this include the use of matrices such as charts and graphs and other similar tools which can present the data in a far more structured manner. This allows for an immediate focus on a particular salient point from which the research may be extended.

In a similar manner to data reduction, the correct use of data display forms part of the analytical process itself. The selection of the relevant matrix and the construction thereof in order to present and display the data requires an analysis and as such should be recognised as part of the analytical process (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

4.6.3 Conclusion drawing and verification

The *conclusion drawing and verification* process is the final element of the analysis process. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), looking at the process as a whole from the commencement of data collection, the researcher will be methodically sifting through the data as it is collected and will be making preliminary conclusions and noting patterns or discrepancies. As the data is reduced these may change but the pattern of conclusion drawing should be present throughout, albeit in a flexible form, subject to change and modification as new information becomes available.

Miles and Huberman (1994) point out that the drawing of preliminary conclusions is only part of the process and the actual verification of those conclusions can take place as the detailed analysis continues. The manner and form of this process may vary from a small statement to a detailed written report.

Miles and Huberman (1994) insist that the three systems be seen as interdependent and part of the same process of analysis. The presentation of these three streams can further be illustrated in a cyclical manner, ensuring that the researcher moves through the process of data collection, reduction, display and conclusions during the collection of the data, and then once this has been completed revisiting the process of reduction, display and conclusions. The process is ongoing as new data is collected and added so the display may change with a resulting new conclusion being drawn.

Miles and Huberman's (1994) sub-processes were applied in this research. To begin with, the researcher selected the multiple sources of information which would be necessary to carry out this research. While reading through each of them, important parts were highlighted. Furthermore, words summarising the highlights were recorded in the margin. Once this was accomplished, the notes in the margin were re-read and written down on blank paper in point form. Therefore the title of the source would be written on blank paper, followed by the written-out notes from the margins, and the specific page of the source to which those notes belonged. This procedure took a lot of time to be carried out, but it helped organise all the information, and saved time later on when the researcher had to go back to check notes or references. In addition, all the information was arranged in separate folders depending on which chapter they belonged to (for example, all the information related to, and that would make up the psychobiography chapter, was filed together in the "psychobiography" folder).

By the time the information was filed in each folder appropriately, the researcher was aware and knowledgeable of all the available information for a specific chapter. Therefore, it was time to start writing out the chapter. Finally, once the information was typed out, it became easier to examine it, discuss it and to draw conclusions from it. This procedure was carried out throughout this study.

4.7 Validity and reliability

Miles and Huberman (1994) state that qualitative studies have few guidelines for shielding the study against misinterpretations, let alone in displaying unreliable or invalid conclusions in any research study. Therefore methods that are credible, dependable, confirmable, trustworthy and replicable are a requirement for any research project to ensure reliability and validity. Yin (2003) advocates the use of four tests to guarantee design quality. These are discussed next.

4.7.1 Construct validity

Construct validity may be defined as the degree to which the operational construct of a variable truly reflects the actual theoretical meaning of the variable (Cozby, 1997). According to Yin (2003) specific constructs or variables should be selected with care and be clearly conceptualised by the researcher, to ensure that they relate to the original aims of the study. This is done with the use of instruments and measures that effectively operationalise the constructs of significance in a research. Because most instruments and measures are not necessarily as precise as required, several tactics are recommended to enhance construct validity. The first is the use of multiple sources of evidence, and this tactic is relevant during data collection. The second is to establish a chain of evidence, which is also relevant during data collection. The third and final tactic is to have the final report of the research reviewed by multiple investigators from alternative theoretical viewpoints comparing their data. All of Yin's (2003) recommendations have been carried out in this study.

4.7.2 Internal validity

Internal validity is defined by Yin (2003) as confirming causal relationships, whereby particular circumstances are shown to lead to other circumstances. The concern for internal validity in relation to psychobiography is the use of inferences. Every time an event cannot be directly accounted for, the researcher will infer that a certain incident is the result of a previous incident

based on the sources available. If all alternative explanations and possibilities have been considered, if the evidence is convergent and the inference correct, then the problem of internal validity is being dealt with, such as it is in this psychological research. The use of multiple sources of data and triangulation can enhance internal validity by preventing distortions of the information. Triangulation takes place when findings are confirmed by more than one instrument measuring the same thing, this includes multiple key informants reviewing the data (Stake, 1995). Yin (as cited in Stroud, 2004) proposed the use of published materials in psychobiographical studies, for they are “(a) stable sources of data in that they can be repeatedly viewed, (b) useful for verifying dates and the correct spelling of names and titles, (c) relatively accessible, (d) a means of corroborating information from other sources, and (e) convenient for the researcher to access in his or her own time” (p. 174). The use of multiple sources, such as the ones used in this study, minimises the possibility of a researcher reporting information in an unfounded or biased manner, and thus compromising the validity and integrity of the data.

4.7.3 External validity

External validity or generalising findings to other individuals or to the larger population is not an aim of psychobiographical studies. Within the area of psychobiography the emphasis is on the uniqueness and in-depth understanding of the subject itself (Stake, 1995). Therefore in this study, the aim is to generalise findings to the applied theory (analytic generalisation), as opposed to quantitative research which relies on statistical generalisations to the rest of the population (Yin, 2003).

4.7.4 Reliability

Reliability (sometimes referred to as objectivity or confirmability) implies that if a researcher were to follow the same process as explained by an earlier investigator and thus carried out the same research study all over again, the researcher should arrive at the same conclusions and findings. However, this does not mean that the researcher should replicate the results of the study by

doing another study: the emphasis is on doing the same study all over again (Yin, 1993, 2003). In order to achieve reliability in this particular research study, the study's procedures and methods have already been described in detail in this chapter. Therefore, the sequence of how data was collected, processed, condensed and displayed for conclusion drawing is described in a clear and explicit manner (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

4.8 Ethical considerations

Although the quality and the truth of the knowledge that researchers produce are important, there are other issues that each study should take into account. The researcher's ethical/meaningful or unethical/simplistic perception of actions in relation to the lives of the people being studied is important and should be taken into consideration. In order to accomplish this, a number of important ethical issues involving psychobiographical research have been addressed in this study. Certain ethical policies (Elms, 1994) for ensuring the protection and the rights and dignity of human subjects claim that research involving humans as subjects is important for the advancement of knowledge in the sphere of human welfare. Furthermore, psychobiographical research has made a substantial contribution to the welfare of society and the effective continuation of research is vital to society and individuals. In order to ensure the continuation of research, this study has followed certain guidelines specifically applicable to psychobiographical research. These guidelines will be described in order to design support and reinforce ethical standards: firstly informed consent, and secondly non-maleficence. With regard to informed consent, an e-mail was sent to the Melanie Klein Trust requesting permission to carry out this research project. As part of this request, the nature, purpose and scope of the study were explained. With regard to non-maleficence, this study undertakes not to harm the reputation of either Klein or the Melanie Klein Trust. In addition, the information that is found within the public domain will be treated in a respectful manner. The Melanie Klein Trust granted permission (see Appendix A) and psychobiographical research ethics were thus implemented and fulfilled in this study.

4.9 Conclusion

Methodological considerations are essential in carrying out a research project in order to acknowledge and minimise possible shortcomings. Qualitative research is not like any other research in that it possesses an elastic quality. Qualitative research focuses on describing and explaining, therefore all design decisions are based on this focus, in order to capture and interpret the different meanings in people's lives. This chapter has presented an overview of the key methodological consideration relevant to the qualitative approach, and to this particular study. Therefore a series of procedures such as research objectives, research design, participant and sampling method, procedures involving data collection, processing and analysis, validity and reliability, and finally ethical considerations were described and discussed.

In the following chapter, the results from Klein's analysis according to Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women* will be examined.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

Melanie Klein is considered to be one of the most prominent theorists within the discipline of psychology. She was a woman defended and loyally supported with absolute fervour by her followers, while those unconvinced by her theory ostracized her. Even though she never discarded the main principles of Sigmund Freud's theory (Kristeva, 2001), she initiated a new approach to the understanding of the unconscious. She founded a new theoretical discipline that modified the clinical methods that focused on psychosis, children, and autism. Particularly in Britain, Klein's theoretical and clinical writings inspired work highly valued by modern psychoanalysis. Her legacy has not only left a mark on clinical psychoanalysis, but on sociologists and on feminists as well. Clearly she was a woman whose influence is still present in the 21st century (Kristeva, 2001). The aim of this chapter is to present the reader with an in-depth description of Klein's life within her particular social and historical context. This may be achieved by exploring and describing Klein's development according to Levinson's (1996) theoretical framework. Therefore the chapter is divided into the various eras in Klein's life, including the era of pre-adulthood (and childhood), early adulthood, middle adulthood and late adulthood. Moreover, the chapter is also divided according to the cross-era transitions which take place between eras. These are early adult transition (age 17-22), mid-life transition (age 40-45) and late adult transition (age 60-65). Klein's biographical account will be discussed as it unfolds chronologically throughout the eras and the cross-era transitions.

5.2 Era of pre-adulthood: 1882-1902

The central components in Klein's life identified during this era are her family of origin (especially her siblings Sidione and Emanuel), her education and her relationship with Arthur, her husband. The peripheral components comprise her

friends and the family's financial situation. An unfilled component involves her delayed marriage to Arthur.

Melanie Klein was born in Vienna on March 30, 1882 (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Her father, Moriz Reizes, and her mother, Libussa Deutsch, married in 1875. Soon afterwards, the newly-weds moved and settled in Deutsch-Kreutz where they had their first three children: Emilie – the eldest – was born in 1876, Emanuel in 1877, and Sidione the year after in 1878. After Sidione's birth, the family moved to Vienna where Klein was born (Grosskurth, 1986). The move to Vienna was prompted because the family had hopes for better financial opportunities. Unfortunately the family's finances did not get better and therefore Moriz was forced to borrow money from his brother-in-law in order to open a dental practice and a shop for Libussa to run. The Reizes' economical situation only improved when Klein was five years old (Segal, 1992). The improvement in finances was due to Moriz's father who after his death, left the Reizes in full control of his savings. This was a relief from financial difficulties, at least for the time being (Grosskurth, 1986).

At the age of five, Klein started school. She was very happy there and rapidly became a dedicated student. Grosskurth (1986) portrays her as a gregarious child who would never allow anyone to overlook her, especially at home, and regarding her three eldest siblings. In this regard, Segal (1992) mentions that Klein did not receive as much parental attention as her brother and sisters. Furthermore, at a young age, she was also told by her mother that she was unwanted and, as a result, felt the need to constantly compete with her siblings for the attention of Moriz and Libussa. One of Klein's earliest memories of her father involves him pushing her abruptly away, as she tried to climb onto his knee. Emilie was the favourite of their father, who openly expressed his preference for his eldest. Sidione was said to be very attractive. Emanuel was the only boy and, due to his intellect, great things were expected from him. Due to most of the parental attention going to the three older siblings Emanuel and Sidione took their younger sister under their wing. Both tried to support and encourage her with regard to her emotional and intellectual development. Consequently, Klein looked up to Emanuel and Sidione and a close relationship

developed amongst the three of them.

From the age of nine, Klein developed a deep attachment to Emanuel, who was very interested in her development and in her studies (Segal, 1992). According to Grosskurth (1986), Klein described Emanuel as a significant foundation in her life. He recognized a creative potential in her, one that was ignored by Moriz. In this regard Klein said:

From at least this time onwards, he was my confidant, my friend, my teacher. He took the greatest interest in my development, and I knew that, until his death, he always expected me to do something great, although there was really nothing on which to base it. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 16)

He also encouraged her to study medicine, and therefore coached her in Latin and Greek. Klein passed her entrance examinations thanks to her brother's dedication although she never furthered her studies in medicine, due to her marrying. Emanuel was proud of Klein and had no hesitation in introducing her to his friends, one of whom she was later to marry (Grosskurth, 1986).

Grosskurth (1986) reveals that misfortune struck the family twice with regard to Klein's siblings. The first occasion was in 1886 when Sidione died of scrofula, when Klein was four years old. As a result of this death, Klein mentioned that Libussa began to spoil her and to increasingly rely on her. Furthermore Klein suggested that Libussa's change in attitude was a means for Klein to substitute Sidione (Grosskurth, 1986; Hinshelwood et al., 1997). In Klein's own words:

I have a feeling that I never entirely got over the feeling of grief for her [Sidione's] death. I also suffered under the grief my mother showed, whereas my father was more controlled. I remember that I felt that my mother needed me all the more now that Sidione was gone, and it is probable that some of the spoiling was due to my having to replace that child. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 15)

When Klein was seven years old and her brother Emanuel was twelve, misfortune struck again. Emanuel developed scarlet fever, followed by

rheumatic fever and tuberculosis. This led to a heart problem and to the guarantee from doctors that if Emanuel did not lead a healthy lifestyle, he could die prematurely (Grosskurth, 1986).

In January 1900, Klein had to deal with Emanuel's departure to Italy. Three months later, on April 6, 1900, Moriz passed away from pneumonia. However, Grosskurth (1986) suggests that he was suffering from a degenerative illness such as Alzheimer's disease. Hinshelwood et al. (1997) point out that Emanuel was informed of his father's death two months later on his return to Libussa's house. While at home, however, Emanuel was unhappy, and therefore decided to quit university, leave his mother's house and go travelling. Grosskurth (1986) states that after Emanuel's departure the family was suffering economically.

According to Likierman (2001) and Segal (1992), Klein met her future husband when she was seventeen. Arthur Stevan Klein was studying to become a chemical engineer and was intellectually gifted. Klein was not in love with him, but claimed that a type of companionship grew between them. Moreover, in the beginning Emanuel was impressed with Arthur and this also influenced Klein's decision to marry the engineer. The marriage was postponed for several years due to Arthur's studies, job and travelling. During this time Klein realised that Arthur had a rigid inflexibility, and was just as strong-willed as she was. She also realised that they were not really suited for each other, but refrained from telling Libussa or Emanuel. Grosskurth (1986) suggests this could have been due to Libussa strongly approving of their relationship. In addition, Grosskurth (1986) put forward that Klein eventually agreed to marry Arthur due to the pressure from the family's economic situation. In Klein's own words:

From that time I was so loyal that I refrained from any entertainment where I might have met other young men and never expressed a feeling that I already had in my mind, that we were not really suited to one another. Both loyalty to my fiancé, with whom I was up to a point in love, and circumstances, prevented me from mentioning this to my mother or brother. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 19)

Arthur finally got a job in a paper mill in Rosenberg, where his parents resided. The new job meant that economically, Klein and Arthur were finally able to get married. As soon as Emanuel heard, he wrote to Klein to congratulate her, but his letter was full of malevolence, envy and hypocrisy. Furthermore, now that she was going to be economically looked after by Arthur, Emanuel asked her for money. The latter stated in his letter that if she did not give it to him, she was going to be responsible for the consequences, although Emanuel never specified what consequences (Grosskurth, 1986).

Grosskurth (1986) suggests that there were strong incestuous feelings involved between Klein and Emanuel. These feelings are embedded in their letters and in their relationship, which was filled with jealousy and guilt. For example, when Klein replied to Emanuel's letter which asked her for money, she stated that she always wanted to be more to him. Klein also declared that she longed to be with him.

According to Grosskurth (1986), both Emanuel and Klein conveyed feelings that went beyond the normal brother-sister relationship and it appeared that "they were desperately trying to find some middle ground between brother and sister, and something more than friends" (p. 32). In a different letter, Klein wrote to Emanuel that he was her eternal love and in her future, Klein would date men that resembled her brother. Their relationship ended on these terms, for just after Emanuel's arrival in Genoa he died, on December 2, 1902. Emanuel's death was precipitated by disease, malnutrition, alcohol, drugs, poverty and his self-destructive character. According to Hinshelwood et al. (1997), Klein carried the guilt of his death with her forever and no one would ever replace him. This could be due to their particular relationship, and due to her denying him money when he requested it in his final letter to her. Grosskurth (1986) suggests that the deaths of both Emanuel and Sidione drove Klein into a recurrent depression. According to Segal (1992), this depression can also be attributed to the neglect that Klein claimed to have experienced from both of her parents. After all, she was the unwanted child that had lived, while the other two desired children had not.

5.3 Early adult transition: 1903-1904

The central components in Klein's life identified during this era are her marriage to Arthur and the birth of their daughter Melitta. The peripheral component comprises Emanuel's death. The unfilled components are marriage-related expectations.

Melanie Klein married on March 31, 1903, the day after her twenty-first birthday, while still mourning Emanuel (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Grosskurth (1986) reveals that Klein felt revulsion towards sex, and this could be connected to her feelings of having betrayed Emanuel. Nevertheless, two months after the wedding she realised she was pregnant. On January 19, 1904 the Kleins' first daughter, Melitta, was born. Klein claimed that she enjoyed motherhood. However, Grosskurth (1986) makes reference to a passage in Klein's unpublished autobiography which could be interpreted otherwise: "I threw myself as much as I could into motherhood and interest in my child. I knew all the time that I was not happy, but saw no way out" (p. 42).

5.4 Era of early adulthood: 1899-1927

This era is divided into three developmental periods, namely the entry life structure, age 30 transition and culminating life structure for early adulthood.

5.4.1 Entry life structure: 1905-1909

The central components identified are Klein's mother, Arthur, Klein's depression and second pregnancy. The peripheral components are the Kleins' move to Krappitz, her children, friends and other relatives. The unfilled component involves her children: being a good and efficient mother and spending time with both Melitta and Hans.

Grosskurth (1986) mentions that Libussa had a controlling and manipulative nature, and was constantly interfering with her daughter's family. For example, when Melitta was one year old, Arthur took Klein on holiday. Not only did

Klein's mother insist on coming but she also asked for money from Klein and her husband. As part of an excuse, Libussa told the Kleins "to tell you the truth, I am a real mess" (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 43). In addition to the financial requests, Libussa was giving the Kleins advice on how to raise Melitta. Furthermore, once again, Libussa invited herself on a planned work trip, which was to take place as soon as Klein and Arthur returned from their holiday. Libussa insisted that she was lonely and would not get in their way. She sent them a letter saying "what surprises me is that in the excess of your pleasure you have forgotten about me ... I cannot make such a journey by myself, and will not. I believe that this will be my sole opportunity if I could travel with you" (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 44). She ended up not going, but Klein would be made to feel guilty about this in the near future. Furthermore, when Klein mentioned that she and Arthur disagreed on how things were to be carried out in their home, Libussa blamed what she considered to be Klein's continuous nervous tension. According to Grosskurth (1986), Libussa felt that Klein was on the whole responsible when there were problems at her home or between Arthur and her. Therefore, not only the lack of support, but also the constant blame that Klein received on behalf of her mother were the main causes for Klein's depression. In addition, Klein's depression intensified after her visit to Emanuel's grave and after finding out about her second pregnancy. Their second child, Hans, was born on March 2, 1907, a few weeks before Klein's 25th birthday. In her autobiography, Klein states that he seemed like a smart child. However, according to Grosskurth (1986) Hans was very childish and seemed almost retarded. Grosskurth (1986) also reveals that Hans had a predisposition to develop homosexual tendencies as an adult.

Later in 1907, Arthur took on a better paid job as director in another paper mill. As a result the family had to move to Krappitz, a very small town. At this point, Libussa was persuaded to come and stay with them, for the move and the children were proving too much for Klein to handle alone. Libussa did so willingly and immediately, and from the moment in which she arrived, she took control of the household (Grosskurth, 1986). Segal (1992) indicates that at this time Klein felt irritable, depressed, tired, anxious and despondent. In addition, she complained about Arthur being difficult, nervous, unable to sleep, and

always suffering from a sore stomach. In order to keep things calm amongst the family members, and also to reinforce her control over the household, Libussa encouraged Klein to spend a lot of time outside the house in quiet and restful places. The family spent two and a half years in Krappitz and Klein spent about half of this time away visiting friends and relatives in attempts to calm her nervous tension. Her absence resulted in her missing out on significant moments in her children's lives.

According to Grosskurth (1986), while Klein was away and Libussa in charge of her home, many issues occurred which demonstrate Libussa's manipulative nature. She sent letters to Klein bragging about the perfect state in which she kept the house. She also told her daughter that her children were doing wonderfully, implying that both the family and the house were better off without Klein. She took Hans under her wing (he was evidently Libussa's favourite) but made Melitta believe that her mother was emotionally weak and unstable and that these were the reasons for Klein never being around. This could be the cause for future disagreements that Klein would have with her daughter. Melitta was growing resentful towards Klein, for she now perceived her as an incapable mother. With regard to Arthur, Libussa continued to interfere. She discouraged Arthur from writing to Klein, controlled the couple's money, implied to Klein that Arthur was too busy for her, and simply tried to keep the couple apart. Both Klein and her home were completely dominated by Libussa. This went on for a while, until Klein and Arthur finally asked her to leave.

5.4.2 Age 30 transition: 1910-1915

The central components identified during the age 30 transition are Libussa's illness and ultimately her death, Klein reading Freud's paper on dreams, her depression which led to her analysis with Ferenczi, and Arthur going into combat. The peripheral components are Klein's nuclear family, the move to Budapest and the beginning of the First World War. The unfilled components are Klein's desire for a better marriage and life circumstances, and for forming a career.

In 1910 the Klein family moved again, this time to Budapest. In 1913, Klein realised that she was pregnant for the third time. Erich was born on July 1, 1914 when Klein was 31 years of age. Three months after the birth, Libussa began to lose a lot of weight. She was diagnosed with bronchitis and it was clear that she was dying (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Klein describes one of their last moments together as follows:

With a certain feeling of guilt that I might have done more for her, and we know that such feelings exist. I knelt down by her bed and asked her forgiveness. She replied that I should have at least much to forgive her as she to forgive me. Then she said, Don't grieve, don't mourn, but remember me with love". (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 64-65)

Soon after, on November 6, Libussa died (Grosskurth, 1986).

There is a big discrepancy between what is known about the relationship of Klein and her mother through letters and people's recollections, and what Klein implied in her unpublished autobiography. In her autobiography Klein almost idealised Libussa (Grosskurth, 1986). In Klein's own words:

I did not imagine that one could die in such a serene way, completely without anxiety and regret, no accusation against anyone ... everything she had left from the pocket money my husband gave her she sent to my sister [Emilie], who needed it. She has in many ways remained my example and I remember the tolerance she had towards people. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 65)

According to Grosskurth (1986), during the six or seven years following Libussa's death, there are no letters or information on Klein, except for poems she wrote, fragments of prose, sketches and four completed narratives.

In 1914, several events took place. Firstly, Grosskurth (1986) mentions that with the start of the First World War in 1914, Arthur was sent into combat. Secondly, Klein read Freud's 1901 paper on dreams. Reading this paper was the first step into Klein's new career and passion. With regard to this, Klein stated: "That was what I was aiming at, at least during those years when I was

so very keen to find what would satisfy me intellectually and emotionally” (Grosskurth, 1986, p.69). Thirdly, soon after reading Freud’s paper and due to her depression which was intensified by Libussa’s death, she went for analysis with Sándor Ferenczi. Ferenczi was a Freudian follower, soon to be referred to by Freud as a son, and was an outstanding analyst who worked in Budapest and founded the Hungarian Psychoanalytical Society in 1913. He also analysed Ernest Jones, the founder and future president of the British Psychoanalytic Society who, after the war, became the president of the International Psychoanalytical Society. Ferenczi encouraged Klein to take interest in her children psychoanalytically, and due to her good observational skills, he selected her as clinical assistant (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). In this regard Klein stated:

During this analysis with Ferenczi, he drew my attention to my great gift for understanding children and my interest in them, and he very much encouraged my idea of devoting myself to analysis, particularly child-analysis. I had, of course, three children of my own at the time ... I had not found ... that education ... could cover the whole understanding of the personality and therefore have the influence one might wish it to have. I had always the feeling that behind was something with which I could not come to grips. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 74)

5.4.3 Culminating life structure for early adulthood: 1916-1921

The central component identified at this stage is Klein’s rapidly developing career. The peripheral components include her children and the anti-Semitic movement which became the Kleins’ reason for moving again. The unfilled components include the desire for improved finances and life circumstances, and more explicitly, her freedom from Arthur.

According to Grosskurth (1986), during the First World War, Arthur was wounded, and in 1916 he returned to Budapest with a leg injury. Klein and Arthur had been separated for one and a half years and the latter’s return implied that her freedom from him was over. However, even though the couple continued as they were before the war, Klein now found it hard to put up with

the charade that had become her marriage.

In 1919, Klein presented a paper at the Hungarian Psychoanalytical Society (as cited in Grosskurth, 1986) based on the analysis of her own child, Erich (his identity was kept anonymous until years later). The paper on Erich was important in that it was the reason for her being admitted as a psychoanalyst in the Budapest Society. However, it created controversy with regard to the acceptability of psychoanalysts when analysing their own children (although it was common at the time). In addition, there was also controversy regarding how explicit and truthful analysts should be to children when it came to sexual or other adult questions. Klein explained how Erich reacted to her explanation on how a person is made:

He seemed to understand and asked no more questions, behaving, however, oddly. As soon as I had started with the detailed explanation, he became distracted and somewhat embarrassed and started immediately to change the subject he himself had raised. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 76)

Issues relating to psychoanalysts' children such as the acceptability of analysing them and levels of truthfulness regarding them, would take years before being resolved. In the meantime, Klein was beginning to take Melitta (now 15 years old) to the society's meetings with her (Hinshelwood et al., 1997).

In 1919, with the defeat of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, life in Europe was changing (Grosskurth, 1986). Hinshelwood et al. (1997) point out that an anti-Semitic movement began to grow, in which professional Jews became unacceptable to most of the non-Jewish population. Jews were banned from entering universities and were only allowed certain positions within the army. Klein's family was also affected in that Arthur was unable to find work, and due to this, in 1919 he left for Sweden. Klein and the children went to Rosenberg to stay with Arthur's family. Grosskurth (1986) suggests that it could be due to these turbulent times that in the future Klein, although she recognized her Jewish origins, stated that she had no religious beliefs. In her own words:

I have always hated that some Jews, quite irrespective of their religious principles, were ashamed of their Jewish origin, and, whenever the question arose, I was glad to confirm my own Jewish origin, though I am afraid that I have no religious beliefs whatever. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 84)

In 1921 Klein moved to Berlin with Erich. She could not afford to take her two elder children and thus, these remained with Arthur (Segal, 1992). Regarding this she stated: "I took my youngest son, who was then only eight, and nominally I also had the right to have my other two children, but that was not practicable, at the time, as I was still financially dependent on my husband" (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 89).

5.5 Mid-life transition: 1922-1927

There are various central components in Klein's life identified at this stage. Firstly, her relationship with Arthur, the development of her career and the opposition that this caused, her relationship with Karl Abraham, her trip to London, and her affair with Kloeziel. One peripheral component which was identified was Klein's problematic financial situation, and two unfilled components include her freedom from Arthur which only took place towards the end of the mid-life transition, and her inability to keep all her children with her.

In 1922 Klein finally separated from Arthur. Soon after the separation, Klein and her children were reunited. However, Klein once again felt guilty about having left her children behind for this period. In future years, Klein stated that after the separation her practice grew, although she had to fight opposition every step of the way. However, in 1923 she was elected to full membership of the Berlin Psychoanalytic Society. Her paper *The development of a child* (1923) was the first to be published by Ernest Jones. Also in 1923, Klein approached Karl Abraham and asked him to take her into analysis. In 1920, Abraham had set up in Berlin the first Psychoanalytic Training Institute. Many came to be analysed by him. For some time now, it had been a requirement that in order to become an analyst, one had to go for analysis oneself. These professionals were known as analysands, as opposed to patients (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). According to

Grosskurth (1986), Abraham analysed Klein from the beginning of 1924 until the summer of 1925 when he passed away.

In 1923, Arthur and Klein attempted reconciliation. Klein probably acceded to this due to her financial difficulties in bringing up three children on her own. However, it soon became clear that the four year separation was not sufficient time for Arthur and Klein to get along. Arthur was too desperate to regain authority and became somewhat of an oppressor in their home. He bullied Hans, who had to be sent for therapy. The situation at home became unbearable for Klein and a final separation from Arthur had to take place. In her despair Klein came to the realisation that her career would be a means for independence from Arthur. However, she still worried about supporting her children, and even losing Erich's custody to her husband due to a lack of finances. At this time, Melitta supported her mother against her father, especially because Arthur disapproved of Melitta's suitor, Walter Schmideberg. Schmideberg was 14 years older than Melitta, was an alcoholic, and Arthur further accused him of being a drug addict. Regardless, in 1924, Melitta married Schmideberg in Vienna. This became a good opportunity for Klein to finally separate from Arthur. After their separation, Klein took Erich with her, and Arthur was given custody of Hans. In 1937 Arthur moved to Switzerland, re-married, divorced again and died in 1939 (Grosskurth, 1986).

Grosskurth (1986) points out that in 1924, under Abraham's influence and with his support, Klein started to overcome a very difficult period in her life. She also started to produce work again. This same year Klein gave her first congress paper, *The technique of the analysis of young children*, at Salzburg. Furthermore, she delivered a paper *Psychological basis of psycho-analysis of young children* to the Vienna Psychoanalytic Society. However, she was again in conflict with some analysts when she started to question at what stage the Oedipus complex takes place. In addition, some disagreed with her level of honesty regarding telling children about their repressed tendencies. For example she was very explicit with Erich and Hans regarding issues about their own sexuality. Klein's speaking to children about their own sexuality, and her debating the beginning of the Oedipus complex, made members uneasy, but

Ernest Jones appeared to be very interested in her work. After Abraham's death, Klein was attacked more openly by members who opposed her views.

It became more and more clear to me that Melanie Klein was mainly interested in the unconscious proceedings and connections, and paid little attention to the real, everyday life of the children ... often causing her learned and even reluctant audience embarrassment, incredulity and even sardonic laughter ... Melanie is rather tiresome as a person ... and she is unpopular with a certain section of the society who pretend she's quite sound in practice, but feeble-minded about theory. (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 120-131)

Furthermore, around this time Anna Freud, who clearly supported all of her father's views, had entered the field of child analysis. She was also very critical of Klein and their differences would lead to big transformations within the psychoanalytic field in the future.

Segal (1992) suggests that the opposition against Klein became very unpleasant and thus she contacted Ernest Jones. James Strachey also approached Jones. Strachey and his wife Alix met Klein at a gathering in 1924. At this occasion, Alix assisted Klein with the translation of her papers (both Alix and James were Freud's official translators and editors). Jones seemed interested in Klein presenting some lectures in Britain. Strachey suggested to Klein that she correspond with Jones directly. She did, and finally got a response with a formal invitation. In July 1925, Klein spent three weeks in London where she presented two lectures a week. These were a success, and the members of the British Psychoanalytic Society were very welcoming. Jones praised Klein and became one of her most important supporters and on July 17, 1925 he wrote:

Melanie Klein has just given a course of six lectures in English before our society ... she made an extraordinarily deep impression on all of us and won the highest praise both by her personality and her work. I myself have from the beginning supported her views about early analysis and although I have no direct experience of play analysis I am inclined to account her development of it as extremely

valuable. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 138)

Amongst some of the members who would later shape Klein's life were Ernest Glover, Sylvia Payne, Joan Riviere, Ella Sharpe, the Stracheys, and Susan Isaacs (who later became very close to Klein). Klein recalled this visit to London as one of the happiest times of her life. These three weeks also proved important in her future decision to permanently establish herself in England (Alford, 1989; Hinshelwood et al., 1997). With regard to this, she stated:

In 1925 I had the wonderful experience of speaking to an interested and appreciative audience in London – all members were present ... the three weeks that I spent in London, giving two lectures a week, were one of the happiest times of my life. I found such friendliness, hospitality and interest, and I also had an opportunity of seeing something of England and I developed a great liking for the English. It is true that later on things did not always go easily, but those three weeks were very important in my decision to live in England. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 137)

In the spring of 1925, and before her visit to England, Klein began dancing lessons. This is where she met C. Z. Kloetzel, nine years younger than her, her dancing partner and a married journalist. They became romantically involved. His physical likeness to Emanuel was remarkable. Klein gave him the secret name of Hans. Grosskurth (1986) found it curious that she would choose her son's name for her lover. The affair lasted some time, but Kloetzel broke it off after he claimed to have fallen in love with someone else. Klein was devastated but sent him a letter in which she said goodbye to him in a very civilized manner. She wrote:

Yesterday I received your letter ... it does not perhaps call for an answer ... but I will follow my feeling ... which tells me to say a few words of farewell ... I do not regret ... what we had together, will always remain with me as something very beautiful ... the warm feeling which I extend to you as a person ... I am returning your freedom fully to you ... I too will and shall cut the bonds which tied me to you, and I shall find sufficient strength to carry it through ... that is what I wanted to say to you, Hans, for our farewell. I want you to know that I shall always be a

good friend to you ... if you wish it to be so ... if you want to write to me from Cape Town ... then I would be very happy. (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 144-145)

Soon after the breakup Klein received a letter from Jones in which he asked her to go to England for one year in order to analyse his children. She was more than happy and agreed (Grosskurth, 1986).

Going to England in order to analyse Jones' children was a good financial opportunity which gave Klein the chance she needed in order to divorce Arthur, which she did in 1926. On September of that same year, she arrived in England. Erich joined her three months later. Two months after her arrival, Klein made her first appearance at a meeting of the British Psychoanalytic Society. Soon afterwards, Klein discussed, with her now close friend Joan Riviere, the possibility of establishing herself and Erich on a permanent basis in England. Riviere discussed it with Jones, who agreed, and in the meantime, Klein sent Jones a letter herself in which she talked about:

...difficulties in bringing up my son ... the very disturbing and damaging influence of his father. I expressed my concern that I would be unable to continue in the way I have done so far, that I would have to look for an opportunity to keep the boy permanently with me, but his opportunity would have, of course, to be compatible with the possibility of doing my work ... in the course of our conversation the idea of my settling down permanently in London emerged. However, I stated at once that this could be considered only after I had found out what you think of such a possibility. I would have approached you in the very near future with a request for a frank discussion of this question. Yet in the meantime Mrs. Riviere has taken the opportunity of raising this question with you ... with regard to professional prospects, London could prove to be a complete substitute for Berlin ... not only for my work but also for working for the establishment and expansion of child analysis, seems to me to be given here. That which I was able to begin in Berlin ... could be continued and completed in London, if you will stand by me ... in my mind I am decided to make London my new home. (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 160-162)

Jones' response was encouraging for he supported her psychological views.

Furthermore, as part of the agreement with Jones, Klein was already analysing his wife and both his children. By the end of 1926 Klein had nine patients. Due to Klein's accomplishments, a year and a half later, Ferenczi wrote to Sigmund Freud about her dominant influence within the field. However, in March 1927, the first of a series of attacks between Anna Freud and Klein took place. Anna had been analysed by her father, and many considered her his successor. In 1922 she had become a member of the Vienna Society. Her specialization, like Klein's, was within the field of child analysis. The attacks of 1927 were the beginning of a division in psychoanalysis between those who supported Anna (and thus her father's views) and those who supported Klein and her theory. Despite these events, on October 2, 1927 Klein was nominated as a member of the British Psychoanalytic Society (Segal, 1992).

5.6 Era of middle adulthood: 1922-1947

This era is divided into three developmental periods, namely the entry life structure for middle adulthood, age 50 transition and culminating life structure for middle adulthood.

5.6.1 Entry life structure for middle adulthood: 1928-1932

The central components identified during this period are Klein's daughter Melitta, Klein's career within the British Psychoanalytic Society and the publishing of her first book. Peripheral components include her two sons, Hans and Erich. There is no unfilled component identified during this period in Klein's life.

According to Grosskurth (1986), the most peaceful and productive decade in Klein's life was the one from 1928 until 1938. After the disagreements with Anna and Sigmund Freud, she came out in a stronger position and most of the members of the British Psychoanalytic Society supported her. She had custody of Erich, who went to visit his father regularly. Also, Klein shared holidays with Hans, who studied chemical engineering and who had done his national military service in Sweden. In 1927 Melitta graduated and in 1928 she joined her

mother in England. Klein was to assist her daughter in writing her dissertation. Melitta and her husband were separated for two years. In 1929 Klein's daughter was training in analysis with Karen Horney, and from 1930 she attended meetings at the British Psychoanalytic Society and started reading her own papers that at this stage were still in agreement with her mother's theory.

Groskurth (1986) states that in 1931 Klein took on her first training analysand, Dr. W. C. M. Scott. He was the first of many who would come to train with Klein. In 1932 she published her first book, *The psycho-analysis of children* (Klein, 1949). Within the British Psychoanalytic Society, her book was the most important of those that were available at the time. Jones did not hesitate in congratulating her in a letter, which read:

The book has finally appeared today, a momentous event in the history of psycho-analysis and particularly in the achievement of our Society among which we are proud to count you as an honored [sic] member. I am writing to congratulate you on the final achievement of what I know has been an enormous task. We shall now look forward to the results it will produce, results which will go on expanding for many, many years to come – probably for ever. (Groskurth, 1986, p. 194)

Jones' good wishes, however, created more resentment amongst her opponents. The same year, Melitta's husband arrived in England, and Melitta claimed her financial and academic independence from her mother. In a letter to Klein, she wrote:

I hope that you will therefore allow me to give you some advice. You do not take it enough into consideration that I am very different from you. I already told you years ago that nothing causes a worse reaction in me than trying to force feelings into me – it's the surest way to kill all feelings. Unfortunately, you have a strong tendency toward trying to enforce your way of viewing, of feeling, your interests, your friends, etc. onto me. I am now grown up and must be independent; I have my own life, my husband; I must be allowed to have interests, friends, feelings and thoughts which are different or even contrary to yours ... I certainly can, with your help, retain a good and friendly relationship with you, if you allow me enough

freedom, independence, and dissimilarity, and if you try to be less sensitive about several things ... don't forget that through our shared profession a difficult situation is created ... this could be solved if you treated me like another colleague and allowed me all the freedom of thinking and expression of opinion, as you do the others. (Grosskurth, 1986, p.199)

Melitta also changed analysts. She started seeing Edward Glover, who would soon publicly express his disagreements with Klein's theory. This is when Klein's personal and professional lives started to break down, for within the British Psychoanalytic Society, Glover was second to Jones who was then president.

5.6.2 Age 50 transition: 1933-1936

The central components identified at this stage in Klein's life are the attacks she received from other members of the British Psychoanalytic Society, her disagreements with Melitta, other issues within the Society, Klein's career in general, and the sorrows aroused by the deaths of both Ferenczi and Hans. The peripheral components identified are the arriving of psychoanalysts from Europe and Klein's analysis with Payne. With regard to unfilled components, these were Klein's losses and the desire for arguments within the British Psychoanalytic Society to cease.

In 1933, Glover and Melitta joined forces in an attempt to discredit Klein and her theories. Klein was hurt by Melitta's attacks but always refused to directly respond to them. She attributed Melitta's attitude to her being immature. In May of the same year, Ferenczi died (Grosskurth, 1986).

Segal (1992) and Grosskurth (1986) indicate that during 1933 several debates took place within the British Psychoanalytic Society. Firstly, due to the growing Nazi regime in the European continent, many psychoanalysts were forced to flee. Most of them fled to England, and so the British Psychoanalytic Society started discussing the arriving Jewish members, for they had to be placed within the Society. One of them was Paula Heimann, who was to play an important

role in Klein's life. Secondly, a dispute arose about whether or not analysts should possess medical qualifications. The conclusion was that if they did, it would benefit them, but those who did not have medical degrees could still work. Thirdly, the different approaches towards child analysis continued to cause controversy. There were still many unresolved issues from the past, such as whether it was advisable or not to be honest with children regarding their sexual tendencies. Soon it became clear that the difference was between those who supported Anna Freud and those who supported Klein. Another debate of 1933 was one that took place between Klein and Melitta. This one would also go on for years and still remain unresolved. On October, 1933 Melitta was elected a member of the British Psychoanalytic Society. At first she was quite popular with the members: she was asked to lecture, her papers were highly valued and at an early age she was made a training analyst. However, she was soon criticized for placing too much emphasis on patients' environments, and for providing reassurance and advice to the patients. Furthermore, some members of the British Psychoanalytic Society (Joan Riviere's daughter amongst them) claimed that Melitta was never as popular as she believed herself to be. She was perceived as intense, humourless and rude. It was said that Melitta was rude in the sense that she caused her colleagues embarrassment, anguish and awkwardness with regard to how she treated Klein in public. Melitta did not deny some of these criticisms but felt that the main objection against her was that she was now contradicting her mother's views. In this regard she stated: "I always felt that the main objection was that I had ceased to toe the Kleinian line ... Her [Klein's] claims were becoming increasingly extravagant, she demanded unquestioning loyalty and tolerated no disagreement" (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 213). Grosskurth (1986) believed that Melitta's feelings toward her mother, and Melitta becoming a member of the Society, made matters worse with Melitta and Glover on the one side, and Klein and her followers on the other.

In April, 1934 Hans died. He was walking down a mountain when the path collapsed and he fell down a precipice. Melitta felt very strongly that perhaps Hans may have committed suicide, but according to Erich and Klein, Melitta's assumption was incorrect. Friends and family attended his funeral in Budapest, except for Klein who was distraught. For Klein, Hans' death was the pinnacle of

a year full of sadness and disappointments. Furthermore, Melitta's betrayal and his death aroused past sorrows, such as Emanuel's death. All of this led Klein to focus her work on loneliness, grief and loss for the rest of her life. Klein also felt that her work on depression was of great importance. According to Segal (1992) she became obsessive about it. Consequently, she insisted on undivided loyalty from her supporters and thus, if her followers did not give her full support she would have them removed from her group (Grosskurth, 1986).

In 1934 Klein, in collaboration with Joan Riviere, wrote one of her main papers on depression: *Love, hate and reparation* (Grosskurth, 1986). According to Grosskurth (1986), this was the last paper she would write for the next two years. Jones was worried about her, especially in relation to Hans' death and the memories that this event could have brought forward. After all, Klein was very familiar with the deaths of family members and friends. Klein had endured the deaths of Sidione, Emanuel, her parents, Abraham and Ferenczi. Therefore, Jones was worried about Klein arousing past sorrows and asked Payne, a friend and psychoanalyst, to see Klein professionally. Also during this year, the British Psychoanalytic Society announced that they would be expanding a section of their clinic for training in child analysis. Klein was to conduct the appropriate seminars for the education of the analysands. This was a major achievement. However, in contrast to this achievement, in 1936 Glover publicly detached himself from Klein's beliefs. Furthermore, Jones congratulated Anna Freud on her manuscript which criticized Klein's method, aims and premises, but simply sent Klein a brief note on her paper.

Hinshelwood et al. (1997) point out that in 1936 Klein became Donald Winnicott's supervisor. Winnicott was a paediatrician who, after being analysed by Strachey, became qualified as an analyst. He was also assisting Klein with some cases, and analysing Erich. With regard to Erich's analysis, Klein insisted on being Winnicott's supervisor but Winnicott refused on ethical grounds due to Klein being Erich's mother. Klein very gracefully accepted Winnicott's refusal and Erich went into analysis with him from 1935 until 1939.

5.6.3 Culminating life structure for middle adulthood: 1937-1943

The central components identified at this stage are the Controversial Discussions and the permanent attacks that Klein had to endure from her colleagues, as well as the publishing of her second book. In addition, due to the War, Klein was forced to travel back and forth from London and this placed limits on both her professional and private life. Professionally, she was unable to attend certain meetings and to keep track of what her attackers were saying or doing behind her back. Regarding her private life, she was missing out on her normal routine in London and of spending time with her friends. The peripheral components are the beginning of bombings in London, and Emilie's death at which Klein was unable to be present because she was in the outskirts of the city. Klein's unfilled component is her disappointment in Jones with regard to how he handled her problems with Glover.

According to Grosskurth (1986) two important events took place in 1937. Firstly, Klein published *Love, hate and reparation* (Klein, 1937). Secondly, the number of people in opposition to Klein had increased noticeably and the British Psychoanalytic Society could no longer contain both Glover and Klein. Klein was still convinced that Jones was supporting her against her competitors, but in fact he was becoming ambivalent towards her. At this time, and due to the expanding Nazi empire, many psychoanalysts were continuing to leave the continent for either America or England, including Freud who arrived in London in June 1938. By now even some of Klein's old supporters, such as Alix Strachey and her husband, were beginning to doubt the direction of her theory. However, amongst the analysts arriving from the continent, there was a minority that soon became a devoted group of supporters, such as Paula Heimann and Susan Isaacs. Melitta and Glover were still attacking Klein publicly, and most of the continental analysts who were arriving in London were firmly behind Sigmund Freud and his daughter. In 1939 there was an attempt to consolidate these continental analysts with the Kleinians, but this was unsuccessful.

In September 1939 Britain declared war on Germany, and in that same year Freud died. Klein moved outside London due to the bombings but carried on

seeing patients and analysands. In May 1940 there was another death in the family: Klein's sister Emilie, who had recently arrived in London, passed away. Klein was on the outskirts of London, and although she was absent at the time of Emilie's death, in her autobiography, she claimed that her sister died "full of anxieties and persecution" (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 250). Both Arthur's and Emilie's deaths pushed Klein to further her theory on mourning (Grosskurth, 1986).

Grosskurth (1986) mentions that one month before Emilie passed away, Klein went to London and at the British Psychoanalytic Society was once again attacked by her opposition (Glover, Anna Freud and many other analysts from Europe). More specifically, Anna Freud alleged that Klein's work was not psychoanalysis but a substitution for it. Klein responded by sending a memo to the members of the Training Committee which read:

Miss Freud said that her work and that of her collaborators is Freudian analysis, and that Mrs. Klein's work is not psycho-analysis but a substitution for it. The reason she gave for this opinion was that Mrs. Klein's work differs so greatly in theoretical conclusion and in practice from what they know to be psycho-analysis. (Grosskurth, 1986, p.256)

Grosskurth (1986) indicates their attack on Klein was offensive and she was furious. In addition, another one of her papers was left out of the discussion. James Strachey, who was ill and thus unable to attend the meeting, sent his opinion to Glover in a letter, and in relation to Klein's and Anna Freud's disagreements, he stated:

I am very strongly in favour of compromise at all costs. The trouble seems to me to be with extremism, on both sides. My own view is that Mrs. K. has made some highly important contributions to psycho-analysis, but that it's absurd to make out (a) that they cover the whole subject or (b) that their validity is axiomatic. On the other hand I think it's equally ludicrous for Miss F. to maintain that psycho-analysis is a Game Reserve belonging to the F. family and that Mrs. K's ideas are fatally subversive ... these attitudes on both sides ... are infused by ... a desire to dominate the

situation & in particular the future – which is why both sides lay so much stress on the training of candidates ... it should be the aim of training analysis to put the trainee into a position to arrive at his own decisions ... not to stuff him with your own private dogmas. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 257)

After this exchange of letters took place, Klein returned to the outskirts of London. However, she still maintained correspondence with Winnicott, who by now was a very good friend. Some of her concerns were expressed in a letter she sent him in March (Grosskurth, 1986), which said:

I shall never forgive Jones for having been so weak, so undecided and actually treacherous to a cause he himself values so highly and the possibilities of which he never underrated. Others, afraid of conflict found it more convenient to withdraw, others sit on the fence and feel that to keep the society together at all costs or rather to pretend to the outside world that this is Ps. An. [psycho-analysis] that to do this is more important than to preserve and protect the essence of our work and make it grow. Does it sound funny that I compare this great struggle [World War II] we are in for the preservation of freedom in the world with such a small thing as the goings on our society? (Grosskurth, 1986, p.260)

In 1941, Jones had semi-retired to the country and this left Glover in charge of the British Psychoanalytic Society. Segal (1992) mentions that Klein felt vulnerable now that Glover was in such a powerful position; a position in which he could exert harm to both her and her theory. Not only was he the acting president of the British-Psychoanalytic Society, but also the scientific secretary, and the chairman of the Training Committee. Furthermore he was secretary of the International Psychoanalytic Association and director of the clinic.

With regard to Jones' semi-retirement, Kristeva (2001) states that the general feelings within the Society were that he had not handled the differences between the members well. Apparently Glover agreed with this sentiment, for he tried to prevent Jones attending meetings by changing their times, and so on. Klein wrote to Jones and expressed how disappointed she was with him. Klein maintained that he should have handled things better, and that if Jones had

supported her she would have been appointed to Council. Furthermore, she still held it against Jones that he invited the continentals to join the British Psychoanalytic Society. Regardless of the bombings and of the economic situation in London, the arguments within the Society carried on. While Klein remained on the outskirts of London, Glover and Melitta were leading discussions which were meant to undermine her work. This was a decisive factor in Klein's return to the capital, for she now realised that she needed to re-establish strong communications with her colleagues, attend meetings, and fight to maintain her credibility and position within the Society (Grosskurth, 1986).

Toward the end of 1941, the general feelings within the British Psychoanalytic Society were of panic about the war, and of instability and confusion over the issues within the Society itself, so much so that in December a meeting was called in order to decide the future orientation of the Society. As usual, nothing was resolved and things carried on as they were. This could have been the reason for Klein making a phone call to Anna Freud in order to discuss the crisis. Anna Freud (amongst others) thought it was time to separate into different schools of thought, at least with regard to the training of psychoanalysts, and to perhaps suggest Payne as president of the Society, since she would respect both her and Klein. Still no agreement was reached or anything resolved. Therefore the Society arranged meetings in which Kleinians and the newly arrived Europeans from the continent could express their views in order to achieve a consolidation. These meetings in which different schools of thought could express their views went on for a while, but again, no agreement was reached. From October 1942, the discord amongst the members of the British Psychoanalytic Society would be formally known as the Controversial Discussions (Grosskurth, 1986).

5.7 Late adult transition: 1944-1946

The central components identified during this transition are the end of the Controversial Discussions and the publishing of her third book. The peripheral component identified is Glover's resignation. There are no unfilled components

identified since what Klein wanted career-wise was achieved and with regard to her personal life, nothing in particular stands out.

In 1944, the Training Committee offered four recommendations (Grosskurth, 1986):

- 1) As soon as it was practical after the end of the war, the society would elect a new Training Committee.
- 2) The members of this new committee should preferably not be involved in the controversies within the Society.
- 3) Members with rigid views should not be elected for the functions of training or control analysts.
- 4) That all candidates had a right to extensive knowledge of all of the sections within the Society.

Soon after these recommendations were passed, Anna Freud decided to remove herself from the British Psychoanalytic Society but was persuaded against this. However, when Glover presented his resignation to the Society, it was accepted (Grosskurth, 1986). In relation to this, Klein wrote a letter to her supporters which stated:

As far as I am concerned, this finishes now a feud which has lasted for nine years; and since I have had so much patience in the interest of the work, the Society and the future of Psycho-Analysis, I think we shall now all have to keep for the future to a very careful policy. I have no doubt whatever that Glover is going to try to transfer the feud, which more or less remained an internal one so far, into a feud which will be carried out publicly. He will, I think, attack the Society as non-Freudian and so on, and I have no idea yet what he is going to do about me in his books and other ways. Still, all that is much less unpleasant than to have it inside the Society. He will, most likely, found a new group ... I do not know what Anna Freud is going to do. As I said, she retains her membership. Whether this means that she is waiting to see in which way Glover is going to start a new society, or whether she does not wish to join with him, I cannot say. But without Glover she is a much less dangerous and troublesome opponent. (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 342-343)

In November 1946, it was finally agreed that there would be one Training Committee, but that it would be divided into three different courses. The A Course would carry on as before, following Klein, and teachers would be selected from all groups. The B Course would teach techniques that followed Anna Freud's theory. The C Course was to be referred to as the independents, who followed an intermediate school of thought, they did not adhere strictly to Course A or B but rather to a combination of both. Students from all three courses would attend seminars and lectures together, but would select a course with regard to the learning of technique. Only their first supervisor could be chosen from the course to which they adhered, their second had to be chosen from the independent course. In the Council, the Training Committee, and in other policy making bodies, there would be representatives from all three groups. This was the end of the Controversial Discussions that had gone on for several years (Grosskurth, 1986; Kristeva, 2001).

In 1948 and after the resolve of the Controversial Discussions, Klein published *Contributions to psycho-analysis* (Segal, 1992). There is significance in this date because it is the first book that Klein published after a break of 11 years, her previous book, *Love, hate and reparation* having been published in 1937 (Klein, 1937).

5.8 Era of late adulthood: 1944-1960

This is the final era in Klein's life. The central components during this era include her family (mainly Erich and Michael), her career, her project of establishing a trust, the publishing of four of her books, and her now deteriorating health. The peripheral components identified are the deaths of Kloetzel and Jones. Unfilled components involve her relationship with Melitta and her unfinished/unpublished autobiography.

On March 30, 1952 Klein celebrated her seventieth birthday (Kristeva, 2001) and published *Developments in psycho-analysis* (Klein, 1983). Erich still remained close to her. Melitta had left for America (in 1945) and was never to reconcile with her mother. Around this time Klein found out that Kloetzel (her

ex-lover who had left for Palestine because he was unable to find employment in England during the War) had died. People began to notice how Klein had aged. Although she was always impeccably groomed, she felt generally tired. In addition, her hip had started to fail her and as a consequence she was forced to use a cane. As the years went by, Klein became more and more like her mother, especially with regard to her inflexibility, determination, and strength of character. In celebration of her birthday, her followers decided to publish a special issue for her in the *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis*. Winnicott's paper for this issue was rejected by Klein, and this caused a disagreement with regard to their work. Winnicott even reported to his wife: "Apparently, Mrs. Klein no longer considers me a Kleinian" (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 398).

According to Segal (1992), although Klein had emerged successfully from the Controversial Discussions, after the war, the Americans were the most influential group with regard to psychoanalysis. Americans viewed Anna Freud as the true follower of her father, and her prominent figure was accepted by most. However, Klein still made sure that her supporters in England were absolutely loyal and gifted. Nevertheless, Klein was ageing and this caused her to take on fewer patients. In 1955 Klein established a trust to further teaching and research in psychology based on her concepts. According to Jones, Klein's work had been firmly established within the British psychoanalytic field. In this regard, he wrote a heartfelt preface which said:

Mrs. Klein's work of the past thirty years has been attacked and defended with almost equal vehemence, but in the long run its value can be satisfactorily estimated only by those who themselves make comparable investigations. As is well known, I have from the beginning viewed Mrs. Klein's work with the greatest sympathy, especially as many of the conclusions coincided with those I reached myself; and I have all along been struck by the observation that many of the criticisms have been close echoes of those with which I have been made familiar in the earliest days of psycho-analysis. A good many of her findings and conclusions have been adumbrated in quite early days by Freud, Rank, and others, but what is so distinctive and admirable in her work is the courage and unshakable integrity with which she has quite unsparingly worked out of [sic] the implications and consequences of those earlier

hints, thereby making important fresh discoveries in her course.

It is a matter for wide satisfaction as well as for personal congratulation that Mrs. Klein has lived to see her work firmly established. So long as it was simply deposited in what she herself had published there was always the hope, but by no means the certainty, that it would be taken up by future students. The situation has now moved beyond that stage; her work is firmly established. As a result of her personal instruction, combined with the insights of those who decided to accept it, she has a considerable number of colleagues and pupils who follow her lead in exploring the deepest depths. To the papers that many of them have contributed to *New Directions in Psycho-Analysis* I have the pleasure of adding this envoi. (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 412-415)

Also in this year, Klein presented a paper *A study of envy and gratitude* and published *New directions in psycho-analysis* (Kristeva, 2001). Segal (1992) points out that the paper on envy and gratitude caused Winnicott and Heimann to finally break away from Klein's theory. Furthermore, Heimann would eventually quit Klein's group. In addition, her opponents became more critical, but her supporters even stronger. According to Grosskurth (1986), the paper *A study of envy and gratitude* suggests that Klein had been envious of many throughout her life, including her sister Emilie. With regard to this, Grosskurth (1986) points out that in the envy paper Klein could have been discussing herself and her feelings toward Emilie. This is what Klein stated:

A woman patient whom I would describe as fairly normal whose envy of her older sister had been held in check by her sense of strong intellectual superiority to her, which was in fact an actuality. The patient through her dreams, recalled the envy she had experienced towards her sister who was courted while the younger sister was yet a child ... Her ensuing guilt made her sad that as a child she had loved her sister far more than she thought. Considering herself "fairly normal," the patient was shocked to recognize and acknowledge the residue of paranoid and schizoid feelings and mechanisms. The revision of her earliest relations was bound up with changes in feeling towards her primal introjected objects. The fact that her sister also represented the mad part of herself turned out to be partly a projection of her own schizoid and paranoid feelings on to her sister. (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 420)

Throughout her life, Klein had felt envious towards Libussa, her own daughter, and many of her followers. It may be that due to her unresolved thoughts on jealousy, Klein chose to further her studies and therefore, in 1957 decided to publish *Envy and gratitude* (Klein, 1975).

Grosskurth (1986) indicates that Klein began to work on her unpublished autobiography from 1953 to 1959. During her last years she remained close to her grandchildren, and her favourite was Michael (Erich's son). She continued to be close to Michael, and he even named his daughter Melanie. Concerning her autobiography and her family, in 1959 Klein stated:

That change from strong personal ambition to the devotion to something which is above my own prestige is characteristic of a great deal of change that went on in the course of my psycho-analytic life and work. When I abruptly finished my analysis with Abraham, there was a great deal which had not been analysed and I have continually proceeded along the lines of knowing more about my deepest anxieties and defences. In spite of the scepticism which I said was quite characteristic of a large part of my analytical life, I have never been hopeless, nor am I now. It is a mixture of resignation and some hope that my work will perhaps after all survive and be a great help to mankind. There are, of course, my grandchildren who contribute to this feeling that the world will go on, and when I speak of my having been completely dedicated to my work, this does not exclude my also being completely dedicated to my grandchildren. Even now, when they have become much less close to me, I know that I have been a very important figure in the first few years of their lives and that this must have been of great benefit to them. All three loved me deeply until 6 or 7 years old, and Hazel [her third grandchild] even up to 9 or 10, and I believe that they have kept some affection for me, though unfortunately they are far less in contact with me; except Michael, who has in recent years become much closer to me again and who I know has at least unconsciously, and perhaps partly consciously, the feeling that I am of great value and also that he can speak freely to me. (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 435-436)

Klein was also very close to her housekeeper, Kathleen Cutler, who cared for

her devotedly until Klein died and who once declared in reference to Klein: "Once you met her, you would always remember her". (Grosskurth, 1986, p. 437)

Grosskurth (1986) states on June, 1957 Jones suffered a coronary attack and passed away. Klein forgot about his lack of support in the later years and only remembered how he had initially encouraged her. Before his death, Jones wrote two volumes on Freud's biography and Klein had written to Jones to congratulate him. After he died, she genuinely grieved for him. Jones had worked hard to establish her work and Klein would not forget this. When Winnicott sent her Jones' obituary to comment on, she wrote:

By stressing more certain points, for instance, the great importance of his principle that every psycho-analyst be analysed (whatever his personal qualities), and his achievement that analysis should only be applied to Freudian teaching, and furthermore, by stressing what you perhaps have not so strongly experienced, that is, a great deal of kindness and helpfulness, as against his at times forbidding approach, the picture of his personality would appear in a different light ... I think the counterpart of Jones' at times sharp and caustic attitude needs much more stressing, that is, the great deal of kindness, which expressed itself in helping so many people, and which had its root in a dislike for falsity and mediocrity, and in a real enthusiasm for the value of psycho-analysis. He hated to see it badly or not genuinely represented. It is true that, with his intellectual brilliance, it was not easy for him to put up with stupidity ... but this rather sharp attitude was apt to pass over quickly and give way to real appreciation as soon as he found something interesting, new or true ... he showed great courage and devotion in the way in which he saved Freud from Vienna and enabled him to die peacefully. (Grosskurth, 1986, pp. 441-442)

Three years later Klein was diagnosed with anaemia. Cutler remembers her being excessively tired. She decided to move to Switzerland to try and recuperate, however she soon became very ill and was brought back to England, where she was diagnosed with cancer of the colon. The operation that followed the diagnosis was successful. Michael was very upset about his grandmother being ill but Klein told him that she had become immortal with

her achievements and with people carrying forward her ideas. While recovering from her operation, Klein fell out of her bed, and broke her hip, and due to complications from this, she died on September 22, 1960 (Grosskurth, 1986). One year after her death, *Narrative of a child analysis* (Klein, 1975) was published.

5.9 Conclusion

From the time Klein was born, she learned about the injustices in life. From the moment that she was conceived, she had been unwanted. It was her perseverance, her ambition and her strong will that drove her towards success. Throughout her life she was confronted by those who disapproved of her and of her theory. However, she never lacked friendships and support. Just as she mentioned to her grandchild Michael on her death bed, she became immortal through her work (seven books and various papers that appear in these books), which is widely recognized and held in high regard by most professionals of the 21st century.

In this chapter, the life course of Melanie Klein has been described. Her life course has been divided according to Levinson's (1996) four eras of adult development in women and to the cross-era transitions which take place in between eras so as to facilitate examination. In addition, reference has been made to the concepts of central, peripheral and unfilled components. These have assisted the researcher in identifying significant events, experiences and issues throughout the development of Klein's life.

In the following chapter, the results obtained from Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women* will be discussed in order to illuminate Klein's life.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher presents a discussion of Klein's life structure development based on descriptions derived from Levinson's (1996) theoretical framework of *Adult Development in Women*. These descriptions are derived from Levinson's polarities, components and developmental tasks. In order to facilitate understanding, this chapter has been structured in the same manner as Chapter 5, and therefore the chapter has been divided into the various eras of Klein's development. Her biographical account will be discussed as it unfolds chronologically throughout the eras and the cross-era transitions.

6.2 Era of pre-adulthood: 1882-1902

Levinson (1996) established that the first era is pre-adulthood, which extends from conception until approximately age 22. This is the era of most rapid bio-psycho-social growth, and is the era in which the child is able to distinguish between the "me" and "not me". This process of individuation is of utmost importance for as the child separates from the primary caregiver, he or she begins to develop an identity.

Melanie Klein was born in Vienna on March 30, 1882 (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Her father, Moriz Reizes, was a well-known doctor and her mother, Libussa Deutsch, was a dominant and persuasive woman. Moriz and Libussa married in 1875, and by the time Klein was born, they already had three children: Emilie, Emanuel and Sidione. After Sidione's birth, the family moved to Vienna where Klein was born (Grosskurth, 1986). The move to Vienna was prompted because the family had hopes for better financial opportunities (Segal, 1992). Unfortunately the family's finances did not improve until Moriz's father passed away and left the Kleins in full possession of his savings (Grosskurth,

1986).

Descriptions according to theory suggest that the Kleins' financial difficulties presented Klein with the polarity of engagement/separateness. Even though the Reizes wanted to engage with the rest of the world while maintaining their individuality, it became very difficult to keep their needs separate from society's economical demands. This is the typical debate of self (or in this particular circumstance of a family) being influenced by society's pressure. Unfortunately, this type of situation continued to influence Klein until the end of her life.

At the age of five, Klein started school. She was very happy there and soon became a striving student. Grosskurth (1986) portrays her as an extrovert who would never allow anyone to outshine her, which he explains was due to Klein being the youngest of four siblings and knowing that she was unwanted. Segal (1992) supports this by mentioning that Klein did not receive as much parental attention as her brother and sisters. Therefore, Emanuel and Sidione took their younger sister under their wing. Consequently, Klein looked up to Emanuel and Sidione and a close relationship developed amongst them.

From the age of nine, Klein developed a deep attachment to Emanuel. Emanuel recognized a creative potential in her and therefore was very concerned and involved in both her development and her studies (Segal, 1992). According to Grosskurth (1986), Klein portrayed her brother as a friend, a confidant and her teacher. Emanuel was proud of Klein and this was a feeling she was not used to.

Descriptions according to theory suggest that the issues of her being the youngest child and the lack of parental attention presented Klein at a very young age with two polarities. Firstly the young/old division which implies that individuals at a certain stage will feel old due to particular circumstances but young due to others. In other words, Klein felt young and naïve in contrast to her siblings at this stage, because she was the youngest and most sheltered by her brother and sister. Furthermore, sometimes even though individuals are aware of their circumstances, they may find it hard to understand or accept

them. This was applicable to Klein's situation: although she was aware of her position within the family, she found it hard to comprehend the reason for her parents' neglect. However, Klein felt old in the sense that circumstances that are out of the ordinary and place individuals under harsher conditions than others tend to lead to an earlier process of maturation for such individuals. Secondly, the polarity of destruction/creation may have presented itself, due to Klein being aware of and feeling hurt by her parents' neglect but yet, inevitably, wanting to love them and receive their love. However, although she did not receive a lot of love from her parents, she did from two of her siblings.

Grosskurth (1986) reveals that tragedy struck the family twice with regard to Klein's siblings. The first occasion was when Sidione died of scrofula. As a result of this death, Klein mentioned that Libussa spoiled her more and became increasingly reliant on her. Additionally, Klein suggested that Libussa's change in attitude was a means for Klein to substitute Sidione. Klein believed that she never got over her sister's death (Grosskurth, 1986; Hinshelwood et al., 1997).

When Klein was seven years old and her brother Emanuel was twelve, tragedy struck again. Emanuel became very ill and this led to a heart problem and to the assurance from doctors that if Emanuel did not lead a healthy lifestyle, he could die prematurely (Grosskurth, 1986).

Descriptions derived from theory indicate that at this young age, Klein was presented with the polarity of destruction/creation. Firstly she had to deal with her sister's death. Not only was Sidione a person she loved, but also someone who loved her back and acted as a role model. Secondly, she had to adapt to her new circumstances, which included Libussa becoming more dependent on her. This reliability and demonstration of love was what Klein always hoped for. However, in Klein's mind, instead of this signifying that Libussa cared for her, Klein viewed herself as a replacement; in other words, as second best. This situation did not improve with Emanuel's diagnosis: on the contrary, Klein's family life went through a lot of change and the lack of stability could not have been easy for them.

From a very young age, Klein was confronted with death and with confusing feelings surrounding this. By seeing the adults in her family at such a tragic moment, she perhaps changed her view on how adults are not as strong as one perceives them to be when one is a child. In addition, in this sense, Klein was also confronted with young/old. Evidence suggests that due to Klein's surroundings, she was forced to once again, be more mature than other children her age, and to take on more responsibility, such as caring for her mother.

In January 1900, Klein had to deal with Emanuel's departure to Italy. Three months later, on April 6, 1900, Moriz passed away from pneumonia (Grosskurth, 1986). Hinshelwood et al. (1997) point out that Emanuel was unhappy at home and therefore decided to leave again and go travelling. Grosskurth (1986) states that after Emanuel's departure the family was suffering economically.

Theory indicates that, due to the nature of Klein's relationship with her father, she did not suffer as much with his death as she did with Sidione's. After all, she barely knew Moriz and he had never really taken the time to bond with his youngest child. However, Klein was more concerned by Emanuel's departure and the now critical financial situation at home. Theory suggests that again, this circumstance brought forward issues of engagement/separateness.

As Levinson (1996) stated, balancing the external world with the individual's internal one is almost impossible to accomplish and once again, Klein found herself under these circumstances. She struggled with society's expectations regarding how a daughter is expected to be distraught with her father's death, and her actual emotions. She also felt abandoned by Emanuel leaving at such a difficult time, and when the family needed him the most. After all, he was now the man of the house and expected to fulfil the duties of an older and protective brother, and caring son. Evidence derived from theory suggests this brought forward the masculine/feminine polarity regarding gender roles in those times. It hurt Klein to see her brother go when in those days he was expected to take care of the women in his family. It possibly placed pressure on Klein and Emilie regarding their mother, and most definitely it brought unease regarding all of the women's futures.

Klein met Arthur Stevan Klein, her future husband, when she was seventeen (Likierman, 2001). She was not in love with him, but claimed that a type of companionship grew between them. In time Klein realised that Arthur and she were not really suited for each other, but she refrained from telling Libussa or Emanuel. She also refrained from stopping the wedding and it is suggested (Grosskurth, 1986) that Klein eventually agreed to marry Arthur due to the pressure of the family's economic situation.

Descriptions developed from theory indicate that the decision to marry Arthur was one of the hardest choices that Klein had to make in her life. She knew from very early in the relationship that they were not meant for each other, but due to her family's financial difficulties, carried on with the wedding plans. In addition, knowing that both her mother and brother approved of Arthur, she did not feel confident enough to face them and let them know about her true feelings toward him (Grosskurth, 1986). This brought the masculine/feminine polarity into her life once again. In addition, these circumstances also brought the engagement/separateness polarity. Klein was certainly in a dilemma involving her own personal wishes and the expectations that society had placed upon her. Klein felt obliged to marry Arthur because she had given him her word, and in those days it was very difficult to retract (Grosskurth, 1986). The polarity of young/old had a substantial influence on her decision as well, for as a woman, she was expected to marry and have a family. Finally, she was at what was socially considered an appropriate age for a woman to marry (Grosskurth, 1986). According to Levinson (1996), within the Western culture, the family should provide a feeling of physical and psychological safety for spouses and children. Furthermore, within the Western culture becoming a homemaker in a traditional marriage enterprise is both attractive and expected for most women. Very few search for alternatives, and if their search is unsuccessful, they resign their lives to an existence within their homes.

Arthur finally got a job in a paper mill in Rosenberg, where his parents resided. The new job meant that economically, Klein and Arthur were finally able to get married. This motivated Emanuel to ask Klein for money. He also stated in his

letter that if she did not give it to him, Klein was going to be responsible for the consequences (Grosskurth, 1986). However, no consequence was specified. Grosskurth (1986) reveals that there were strong incestuous feelings between Klein and Emanuel. This is reinforced by the fact that in the future, Klein dated men who resembled her brother.

Emanuel died in Genoa on December 2, 1902. Klein carried the guilt of his death with her for ever and no one would ever replace him (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Grosskurth (1986) suggests that the deaths of both Emanuel and Sidione drove Klein into a recurrent depression. According to Segal (1992), this depression can also be attributed to the neglect that Klein claimed to have experienced from both of her parents.

Theory based descriptions imply that Klein's relationship with Emanuel led her to have confusing feelings and thoughts. She probably found herself in a position in which her love for her brother clashed with what society had indoctrinated her into believing and accepting as normal: on the one hand she strongly loved Emanuel in what was considered an inappropriate way, but on the other hand, she knew that this was socially unacceptable. This implied that Klein found herself influenced by the polarity of engagement/separateness. In addition to the circumstances in which Klein and Emanuel found themselves just before his death, dealing with his actual death brought forward the polarity of destruction/creation. She had been hurt by him and his letter, but she also felt that by denying him the money he had requested, she had hurt him in return. Klein always wanted Emanuel's love and approval (Grosskurth, 1986).

Descriptions according to Levinson's (1996) theory suggest that Klein overcame the developmental tasks of the era of pre-adulthood successfully. Klein's initial biological and psychological separation from the mother, or the distinction between the "me" and the "not-me", was accomplished at an early age, mainly due to Klein not being paid as much attention as her siblings and thus having to fend for herself. Also due to the neglect from her parents, Klein was able to view herself as a separate being, both from her parents and from her brother and sisters. This came naturally because of the difference in

treatment, which marked the first step in a systematic process of individuation (Grosskurth, 1986).

During middle-childhood, Klein also overcame her developmental tasks by attending school and expanding her social world in a successful manner. This expansion, inevitably led to her acquiring more responsibility, skills and discipline. This was evident from Klein's motivation and extroversion at school. In addition, Klein became more mature and responsible after Sidione's death.

According to theory, puberty provides the move from middle-childhood to adolescence. Adolescence leads to the beginning of a more independent and responsible adult life. Klein accomplished this through her relationship with Emanuel. With his support, friendship and guidance, Klein learned how to become less reliant on her family and to have more confidence in herself. All of the above-mentioned is in accordance with what Levinson (1996) considers the successful accomplishment of the tasks of the current stage, in order for Klein to move on to the next stage, which is the early adult transition.

6.3 Early adult transition: 1903-1904

Klein married Arthur on March 31, 1903 (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Grosskurth (1986) revealed that Klein felt revulsion towards sex. Nevertheless, on January 19, 1904 the Kleins' first daughter, Melitta, was born. Klein claimed that she enjoyed motherhood, however Grosskurth (1986) suggested otherwise.

This transition period was very difficult for Klein. Firstly, she had to deal with Emanuel's death, and secondly, with her marriage to Arthur and with marital expectations that included sexual relations that she did not enjoy (Grosskurth, 1986). Thirdly, the Kleins' first-born which possibly brought feelings common amongst new parents, such as anxiety about the unknown. For instance, a baby crying and not being comforted by food, sleep or a change of diaper may make parents anxious and concerned (Zulliger, 1968). These feelings are normally accompanied by positive ones. However, according to Grosskurth (1986), Klein handled the situation with acceptance rather than joy. Therefore

theory based descriptions demonstrate that negative feelings predominated. All of these reasons indicated the presence of all of the polarities, including destruction/creation, masculine/feminine, engagement/separateness and young/old.

Descriptions according to theory indicate a shift in components from the era of pre-adulthood. Klein's central components went from her family of origin, her education and her relationship to Arthur, to just Klein's marriage, to her marriage and the birth of their daughter Mellita. This implies that Klein was at this stage focusing her entire attention on her new family. Regarding Klein's peripheral components, the shift went from her friends and the Kleins' financial circumstances, to only Emanuel's death. In the previous era, the unfilled component was Klein's marriage to Arthur, whereas at this stage, it was marriage-related expectations.

Levinson (1996) states that developmental tasks of this period include the termination of the previous era; individuation, which involves moving to a more adult self and accepting the burdens, fulfilments and responsibilities from the coming era; and finally, initiating new and more mature relationships. According to this, Klein accomplished two of the three requirements, and therefore she achieved a successful termination of the previous era. More specifically, she moved to a more adult self by dealing with her brother's death, by fulfilling her marriage to Arthur and by accepting the responsibilities of marriage and motherhood. On the other hand, at this point in her life, Klein did not initiate new relationships. According to theory, even though Klein did not manage to fulfil one of the tasks, a move into the next stage would have still been possible.

6.4 Era of early adulthood: 1899-1927

Klein's life up to this stage showed the presence of all of Levinson's (1996) polarities, including destruction/creation, masculine/feminine, engagement/separateness and young/old. The most predominant themes that kept on emerging up to this point of her life were social influences over personal choices and the deaths of loved ones. The following era is divided into three

developmental periods: the entry life structure, age 30 transition, and culminating life structure for early adulthood.

6.4.1 Entry life structure: 1905-1909

Grosskurth (1986) mentions that Klein's mother had a controlling and manipulative nature, and was constantly interfering with Klein's family. Also, according to Grosskurth (1986), Libussa felt that Klein was generally responsible when there were problems at her house or between Arthur and her. This was one of the main causes for Klein's depression, which increased after finding out about her second pregnancy. The Kleins' second child, Hans, was born on March 2, 1907. Later in 1907, the family moved to Krappitz, and Libussa, for practical reasons, was persuaded to come and stay with them. Segal (1992) indicates that at this time Klein complained a lot about Arthur, and because of this, Libussa encouraged her to spend a lot of time outside the house in restful places, which she did, but her absence resulted in her missing out on significant moments in her children's lives. While Klein was away, Libussa managed to convince Melitta that her mother was emotionally weak and unstable. Consequently, Mellita became resentful towards Klein, and this could be the cause for future disagreements that Klein would have with her daughter (Grosskurth, 1986).

According to descriptions based on Levinson's (1996) theory, Klein had a very difficult time due to her mother's interference. She also found herself in a dilemma involving her own wishes as opposed to her mother's. In addition, evidence suggests, she felt caught between her husband's wishes and those of her mother's, as well as those of her children and Libussa. Klein also felt insecure about any decision involving her house or family life: feelings of guilt and insecurity had been embedded in her from childhood, which explained why she spent so much time away and why she never stood up to Libussa. She felt inadequate as both a wife and mother, and very lonely, as she had no one to share her burdens with other than Libussa who apparently was unkind to her and her loved ones. All of this showed that Klein did not emerge from this stage successfully: on the contrary, many of the tasks of this period were not

accomplished in a satisfactory manner. Instead of Klein enriching her life within the adult life structure, her choices caused Klein to feel disheartened and depressed with her life. In addition, she was unsuccessful with regard to shifting her relationship with her mother into a more mature and independent one. Not much had changed from Klein's childhood to the current stage, regarding Libussa and the way the latter thought of and treated her daughter.

Regarding the different components in Klein's life, there was a shift from the early adult transition. Then, Klein's central components involved her recent marriage to Arthur and the birth of their daughter. At this stage, they involved Klein's mother, Arthur, Klein's depression and her second pregnancy. Therefore, it may be said that Klein's life was at this stage more eventful than in the previous stage: there were more things in Klein's mind that had more significance and required more of her energy and time than in the previous stage. There was also a shift regarding Klein's peripheral components. They went from Emanuel's death to the Kleins' move to Krappitz, her children, friends and other relatives. The unfilled component shifted from marriage expectations to expectations that Klein held and desired as a mother. Klein's peripheral and unfilled components demonstrated a change in Klein's way of thinking and prioritising. In previous stages, the components evolved more around Klein herself and her own interests; at this stage, they evolved more around her significant others and in these being her main focus.

6.4.2 Age 30 transition: 1910-1915

In 1910 the Klein family moved to Budapest. In 1913, Klein realised that she was pregnant for the third time, and gave birth to Erich on July 1, 1914. Three months after the birth, Libussa was diagnosed with bronchitis (Hinshelwood et al., 1997). Soon after, on November 6, Libussa died. There is a significant discrepancy between what is known about the relationship between Klein and her mother and how Klein idealised Libussa in her unpublished autobiography (Grosskurth, 1986).

Descriptions according to theory reveal that because Klein grew up in a

matriarchal environment (Grosskurth, 1986), from an early age she was encouraged to obey Libussa without ever questioning her. Throughout Klein's development, Libussa made all of the family's important decisions, especially after her husband's death. Klein never contradicted her and only began to do so much later in life and only after her marriage to Arthur. Many times she felt unhappy with her mother, or with what her mother wanted of her. Even when she knew she should not marry Arthur, she did so and never mentioned a word to Libussa because it was expected of her. A possible reason for Klein rarely contradicting Libussa could be that from a very young age, she was treated differently from her siblings and always felt unequal to them. She felt that she was not loved as much as her brother and sisters were. Even after Sidione's death, when Libussa showed more affection and dependence on Klein, the latter attributed it to Libussa wanting to replace Sidione with her. In other words, Klein did not believe that it was entirely out of love. So why would Klein idealise Libussa in her autobiography? Descriptions based on Levinson's (1996) theory do not provide an evidence-based answer. Perhaps she thought that every woman had a relationship with her mother similar to the one that she had. However, if Klein did not think it was normal, then perhaps throughout the years she simply learned to accept it. Another reason could be that Klein, as Grosskurth (1986) suggested, was in denial about the relationship with her mother, or perhaps she did not want the rest of the world to know her personal problems or to deduce aspects of her personality from her mother-daughter relationship. These are conjectures from the researcher, but realistically, Klein and Libussa were the only ones that could possibly know. However, from these speculations and according to theory, one can say that Klein at this stage was confronted with all four polarities: regarding Libussa, Klein always felt younger than her age (young/old) and limited herself to obeying due to her upbringing within the feminine gender role (masculine/feminine). Furthermore, Klein had many memories of her mother hurting her emotionally, and also felt that she, in return, had hurt Libussa. Eventually, Klein also had to confront her mother's death (destruction/creation). Regarding social pressures and acceptance, Klein very rarely exercised her independence or independent thinking, at least not until later on in life (engagement/separateness).

In 1914, several events took place. Firstly, with the start of the First World War Arthur was sent into combat. Secondly, Klein read Freud's 1901 paper on dreams. Thirdly, soon after reading Freud's paper and due to her depression, she went for analysis with Ferenczi, who would later on encourage Klein to take interest in her children psychoanalytically (Grosskurth, 1986; Hinshelwood et al., 1997).

The researcher sustains that with Arthur gone to war, Klein had more free time to pursue other interests, and this was the reason for her reading Freud's paper, going into analysis with Ferenczi and psychoanalysing her children. The polarity that presented itself at this stage was engagement/separateness, but what predominated was separateness. Klein was looking more into herself, into her own independence and desires. This was a unique experience for Klein, for in the past, she rarely pursued her own wishes or goals (Grosskurth, 1986).

Regarding the components in Klein's life, most of the central components remained the same as in the previous stage, although they varied in content. Previously, they involved Libussa, Arthur and Klein's depression. At this point, they still did but in different aspects. Regarding Libussa, before it was about the way she treated Klein, now it was about her final moments and death. In relation to Arthur, in the previous stage it was about Klein being annoyed by him, and now it was about Arthur going to war and the implications that this had on Klein's life. Regarding Klein's depression, in the previous stage she looked for help in ways that kept her apart from her family, whereas now her way of helping herself involved a professional analyst. However, there was a change in one of the central components. In the entry life structure, Klein was placing the greatest share of her energy in a pregnancy that was partly contributing to her depression. At this point, in the age 30 transition, this energy was placed positively in Freud's paper.

Regarding Klein's peripheral components at this stage, they involved her nuclear family, the move to Budapest and the beginning of the First World War. Previously, they also involved a move and her family, but in addition, they involved Klein's friends. Klein's unfilled component was about being a better

mother. At this point in her life, they were about Klein's desire for a better marriage and life circumstances, and for forming a career. Due to all of the changes regarding components, descriptions based on Levinson's (1996) theory show evidence that Klein was slowly attempting to improve her circumstances in general. Her focus in the age 30 transition was placed upon her family, treating her depression, adjusting to new circumstances, hoping to improve her marriage and aspiring to form a career.

Levinson's (1996) theory suggested that Klein was successful in accomplishing the tasks of this period in a positive manner. Klein finally achieved individuation from her mother and from Arthur. After Libussa died and Arthur left for war, Klein made her own decisions. As a part of this, Klein decided to pursue her own interests and made time to do this. These interests were the ones that initially led to her future life and success in psychoanalysis. In other words, Klein was building a new life structure. Finally, Klein going into analysis with Ferenczi showed initiative with regard to her wanting to improve her well-being.

6.4.3 Culminating life structure for early adulthood: 1916-1921

In 1916, Arthur was wounded and was therefore sent back home. Klein's freedom from her husband was over for the time being. However, even though the couple were together, Klein was finding it harder and harder to remain married to Arthur. As a means of distraction, Klein immersed herself in her work. In 1919, she presented a paper at the Hungarian Psychoanalytical Society, based on observations she had made on Erich (as cited in Grosskurth, 1986). This paper was the reason for her being admitted as a psychoanalyst, however, it created controversy regarding various points of view between psychoanalysts, and it would take years before these issues were resolved. In the meantime, Klein began to take Melitta to the Society's meetings with her (Hinshelwood et al., 1997).

In 1919, an anti-Semitic movement began to grow in Europe. Because Arthur could not work, he left for Sweden that same year. Klein and the children went to Rosenberg to stay with Arthur's family (Hinshelwood et al., 1997) until 1921,

when Klein moved to Berlin with Erich. At the time, she could not afford to take her two elder children with her (Segal, 1992).

Theory suggests that Arthur's return from the war was very hard for Klein to deal with, and once again, she felt trapped by society's expectations. When she finally gained a little independence from him due to his move to Sweden and to her move to Berlin, she had to leave her children behind. At this stage, Klein felt guilty, especially regarding her children, and viewed herself as a bad mother. On a more personal level, she felt she was a failure: she was a wife who was not happy around her husband, and a mother who could not afford to live with all of her children. This indicated the presence of three unconscious polarities: destruction/creation, masculine/feminine and engagement/separateness.

Regarding the progress in her work, the researcher sustains that based on Levinson's (1996) theory, Klein was confronted with destruction/creation, masculine/feminine and young/old. Age-wise, Klein felt at a stable point in which she was young and new to psychoanalysis, but yet old enough to be respected. This also involved the polarity of masculine/feminine, for it was hard for Klein to be accepted in those days as a professional woman (Segal, 1992). Yet she achieved this, which could have brought her pride, joy and the desire to continue with her progress. Regarding destruction/creation, Klein was for once conforming to what society expected, while enjoying her own independence and success.

With regard to Klein's components, they have significantly changed from those in the former period. One of her unfilled components was now her central component. In the previous stage, Klein wished to form a career. At this stage, it was not only formed, but also rapidly developing. Regarding her peripheral components, at this point, her focus was placed on her children and a move due to a developing anti-Semitic movement. Her unfilled components also at this point include the desire for improved finances and life circumstances and, more explicitly, her freedom from Arthur. In previous stages, Klein wanted to improve her marriage whilst at this stage, she was trying to get out of it. Just from looking at the variations in Klein's components, one may witness how with time

and experience, her focus shifted to different aspects of her life.

According to Levinson's (1996) tasks for this period, Klein achieved them with success. Firstly, she created a good and solid base for herself regarding her work. This was important because her work contributed to how she established herself in the next generation. Secondly, Klein went through a period which inevitably made her think about what her wishes for the future were. Therefore, although this was a difficult phase in which Klein had serious doubts about her life decisions, regarding developmental tasks, all of her doubts were part of the process of beginning to establish herself as a senior member of society.

6.5 Mid-life transition: 1922-1927

In 1922 Klein separated from Arthur and was soon reunited with her children. Klein stated that after the separation her practice grew, although she had to fight opposition every step of the way. However, in 1923 she was elected to full membership of the Berlin Psychoanalytic Society. Her paper *The development of a child* (1923) was the first to be published by Ernest Jones. Also in 1923, Klein approached Karl Abraham and asked him to take her into analysis (Hinshelwood et al., 1997).

In 1923 Arthur and Klein attempted reconciliation, but this attempt was unsuccessful and therefore a final separation from Arthur had to take place. Regarding this separation, Klein came to the realisation that her career would be a means for independence from Arthur and from financial difficulties. One year later Melitta got married, and her leaving home became a good opportunity for Klein to finally separate from Arthur. She took Erich with her and Arthur was given custody of Hans (Grosskurth, 1986).

Grosskurth (1986) points out that in 1924, with Abraham's support, Klein started to produce work again and to deliver papers. However, she was again in conflict with some analysts who disagreed with her views. After Abraham's death in 1925, Klein was attacked more openly by members who opposed her. In addition, around this time Anna Freud, who was very critical of Klein, entered

the field of child analysis. On the other hand, Ernest Jones appeared to be very interested in her work, and Segal (1992) states that he wanted Klein to present some lectures in Britain. In July 1925, Klein spent three weeks in London presenting lectures. These were a success, and the members of the British Psychoanalytic Society were very welcoming. Klein felt blissful (Alford, 1989; Hinshelwood et al., 1997).

Descriptions based on theory suggest that Klein's separation from Arthur would have once again provided her with the free time she desired. Also, her work-related successes gave her the financial independence she needed. The welcoming from the British Psychoanalytic Society and Jones' approval of her theories created in Klein a sense of pride, which may have led to an increased confidence in herself. In other words, these were very good times both personally and professionally for Klein. Regarding the different polarities, at this stage, masculine/feminine and engagement/separateness were present. She was a successful woman in a man's world, and she had managed to maintain her independence while receiving the approval of the people surrounding her. However, there were still some people who opposed her, and these implied the presence of destruction/creation, in the sense that she was being attacked while still being creative towards her work.

According to Grosskurth (1986), in 1925 Klein met C. Z. Kloetzel and they became romantically involved. His physical likeness to Emanuel was remarkable. The affair lasted some time, but Kloetzel broke it off. Klein was devastated but soon after the breakup Klein received an invitation from Jones asking her to go to England for one year. She was thrilled and agreed.

Theoretical descriptions suggest that Klein's relationship with Kloetzel brought about the presence of destruction/creation and masculine/feminine. As a woman who had come from an unsuccessful marriage and from an unconventional relationship with her brother, Klein had taken her affair with Kloetzel as an awakening of her feminine side and as the beginning of something new and exciting. However, destruction was brought about by Kloetzel's break-up with Klein and by the way he hurt her throughout the

process. Regarding Jones' invitation to go to England, Klein was feeling her creative side re-emerging once again.

In 1926, due to her going to England and therefore improving her finances, Klein divorced Arthur. On September of that same year, she arrived in England, and Erich joined her three months later. Two months after her arrival, Klein made her first appearance at a meeting in the British Psychoanalytic Society. Soon afterwards, Klein was already beginning to plan a permanent stay. Work-wise, these were successful times as Klein was seeing her own patients and having a significant influence within the psychoanalytic field. However, in March 1927, the first of a series of attacks between Anna Freud and Klein took place. Despite these events, in October 2, 1927 Klein was nominated a member of the British Psychoanalytic Society (Segal, 1992).

From 1926, Klein was going through a stage that involved a better financial situation, good job opportunities and a joyful reencounter with her youngest son. However, she was also dealing with attacks from Anna Freud and with the separation from her other children. According to theory, this resulted in the presence of all of the polarities and for the same reasons as mentioned above, and throughout the current stage of her life. In other words, social acceptance, personal independence, attacks upon her persona and self-perceptions of her having failed as a mother. The latter also brought feelings of guilt and regret.

Descriptions regarding Klein's components suggested that during the culminating life structure for early adulthood, she had placed all of her energy and time in developing her career. At this stage, Klein had various aspects of her life which required all of her focus: her relationship with Arthur, Klein's still developing career and the opposition that this was causing, her relationship with Karl Abraham, her trip to London, and her affair with Klotzel. Klein's peripheral components also shifted and at this stage became just one: her finances. Klein's unfilled components at this point were her separation from her husband and her inability to keep all her children with her. Klein's separation from Arthur was carried through from the previous period but was finally resolved at the end of the mid-life transition.

Levinson's (1996) tasks for this period are for the individual to come to terms with the conclusion of youth and to individuate even further and in more appropriate ways for this stage and age. Regarding these tasks and according to theory, Klein moved on to the next phase successfully. Firstly, Klein's main function in life was no longer to be a caregiver. Her children had grown and therefore she could now freely pursue her career, which was not only a personal interest and success, but a means for economic independence from Arthur. Secondly, individuation from Arthur was at its highest phase considering the final separation between them. Additionally, her relationship with Kloetzel proved not only that she was independent, but also that she felt independent. According to Levinson (1996), Klein was ready to move into the next era.

6.6 Era of middle adulthood: 1922-1947

The previous era showed the presence of all of Levinson's (1996) polarities. There were various themes present and these involved: (a) Klein's relationship and the handling of the relationship with her mother, (b) the different phases in which Klein found herself regarding her children and husband, (c) her struggles with what was considered socially accepted and expected, against her own ideals about independence, (d) Klein's affair, which for a while sufficed her desire for love but which took place with someone so similar to Emanuel, (e) Klein's progress career-wise, but also the negative aspects that this progress brought about, and finally (f) Klein's financial situation which kept on evolving throughout the era. The era of middle adulthood is divided into three developmental periods including the entry life structure for middle adulthood, age 50 transition, and culminating life structure for middle adulthood.

6.6.1 Entry life structure for middle adulthood: 1928-1932

According to Grosskurth (1986), the most productive decade in Klein's life was the one from 1928 until 1938. From the disagreements with Anna and Sigmund Freud, she came out well and with the support of most of the members of the British Psychoanalytic Society. Klein had custody of Erich and shared holidays

with Hans. As from 1928 she also had Melitta, who was training in analysis with Karen Horney, with her in England.

Theory suggests that regarding the polarities, Klein was mainly experiencing the positive side of these. She felt the presence of young/old, in the sense that she was still a young member of the British Psychoanalytic Society but respected as if she had been there for decades. Regarding her children she also felt young, since the circumstances and this particular experience with them was new to her. However, she felt old enough to have earned their respect and love as a mother. If this was not the case, the children would not have gone to stay or visit her. Klein also felt the presence of creation, and this is why she was producing a lot of work and giving many lectures to her colleagues. Her work progress was also related to engagement with her colleagues and superiors, and with the fulfilment of their expectations.

Groskurth (1986) states that in 1931 Klein took on her first training analysand, Dr. W. C. M. Scott, and one year later, she published her first book, *The psychoanalysis of children*. However, the success of her book created more resentment amongst her opponents. The same year, Melitta claimed her financial and academic independence from her mother. This is when Klein's personal life started to break down, for Melitta became close to Glover, who was second to the president of the British Psychoanalytic Society and very much in opposition to Klein.

Descriptions originating from Levinson's (1996) theory suggested that these series of events most probably surprised Klein. While Melitta and Klein were living together, Klein was assisting her daughter with her work, introducing her to everyone within the British Psychoanalytic Society, and in a way, providing career advantages that Klein herself never had. Klein had to do everything on her own, while Melitta had the advantage of her mother introducing her to important people and straight into the world of psychoanalysis. Her daughter becoming allied to one of her main opponents had created internal conflicts within Klein (Groskurth, 1986), and this brought about the presence of destruction/creation. While things were fine between Klein and her daughter,

creation was in place. However, with Melitta's change in attitude, Klein experienced confusion, disappointment and pain. This was the beginning of Melitta acting destructively toward her mother.

Regarding Klein's success at this stage, descriptions derived from theory indicate the presence of creation and engagement at play. However, regarding Klein's growing opposition, theory based descriptions suggest destruction and separateness were present: destruction because certain colleagues, such as Anna and Sigmund Freud, were hurting and trying to destroy Klein's credibility regarding her theory, and separateness due to Klein's need to remain independent and separate from others regarding her work. In addition, the presence of young/old had also taken place for Klein was young, but these constant confrontations made her feel older, tired and more experienced.

Clarification based on Levinson's (1996) theory suggest a shift in Klein's components from the mid-life transition. Regarding her central components, at this stage they were Klein's daughter Melitta, Klein's career within the British Psychoanalytic Society and the publishing of her first book. With regard to her peripheral components, these shifted from her financial worries to both of her sons. Finally, it may be said at this stage in Klein's life, there were no unfilled components, either because she had achieved everything that she had previously desired until this point or because she had maintained her focus on what was currently taking place and not on what she hoped for.

Regarding Levinson's (1996) tasks for this period, although Klein encountered some difficulties, she completed the tasks successfully enough. This is due to the difficulties she encountered being part of the process of maturation and individuation. In addition, even though Klein held basically the same career and relationships, their character had evolved from the previous stage. Firstly, Klein was more established within her work and within the British Psychoanalytic Society. The problems she encountered regarding Melitta and her opposition may be viewed as a consequence of her success. Secondly, with regard to her sons, she had achieved a sort of harmony and acknowledgement as their mother. Therefore it may be said that Klein moved on to the age 50 transition

having established an initial place in a new generation and season of life.

6.6.2 Age 50 transition: 1933-1936

In 1933, Glover and Melitta joined forces in an attempt to discredit Klein and her theories. In May of the same year, Ferenczi died. Segal (1992) and Grosskurth (1986) indicate that during 1933 several debates took place within the British Psychoanalytic Society. Soon it became clear that the debates were between those who supported Anna Freud and those who supported Klein, with those members who stood by Melitta and Glover on the one side, and Klein and her followers on the other.

Theory derived descriptions indicate that Ferenczi's death, and all of the joined efforts to discredit Klein (especially those involving Melitta), brought about the presence of destruction/creation: on the one hand creation, because Klein was still fighting with the support of her followers while producing work, and on the other hand, destruction because of the death of a mentor and friend, and because of all of those in opposition to her constantly attempting to damage her reputation even further.

According to Grosskurth (1986), in April, 1934 Hans died. His death and Melitta's betrayal aroused past sorrows. All of this led Klein to focus her work for the rest of her life on loneliness, grief and loss. Additionally, according to Segal (1992), she insisted on undivided loyalty from her supporters.

Descriptions originating from Levinson's (1996) theory revealed that Klein, until the age 50 transition, suffered the deaths of the people that were most significant throughout her life: Sidione, her father, Emanuel, her mother, and several close friends. Hans' death, however, was very difficult to deal with and accept. Not only did he bring to the surface feelings of despair, loneliness and sadness, but he also brought forward feelings of guilt for Klein. Klein had felt regret and guilt throughout her life for the way that she had treated her children. She was never happy about her pregnancies, she never spent much time with the children, and at times, she could not even afford to live with them. Hans'

death presented itself as evidence of how she had failed, in her own eyes, as a mother. In addition, it was an event which indicated finality and therefore no going back. What Klein had done, her choices regarding her children, was not accepted or dealt with. From now on Klein had to learn to live with these choices and with the knowledge that Hans was dead and Melitta was barely on speaking terms with her. Furthermore, she also had to deal with the fact that she had analysed her own children and that this may have been a contributing factor for the way that her relationship with all of them had turned out. Due to all of this, the researcher believes that Klein had reached an emotional low point in her life. Therefore, theory based descriptions suggest that she was under the influence of young/old in the sense that although still young, she felt her life decisions confronting her all over again. This was depressing, exhausting and hurtful. Additionally, Klein was most likely feeling the presence of destruction/creation in the sense that her desire for approval and love from her children had been constant throughout her life. However, she always found it hard to show her children how much she loved them. This holding back on the part of Klein, could have hurt all three of them, especially at a younger age when they could not understand. At this stage, both hurt and death had taken place between Klein and her children. Finally, Klein also felt the presence of engagement/separateness. After Hans' death Klein became withdrawn, and for a while would not engage much with those close to her.

Klein's insistence on her supporters remaining completely faithful was due to the presence of engagement/separateness and destruction/creation. In a way, Klein at this stage of her life was not able to deal with further conflict and opposition. Therefore, she had to ensure that this at least did not come from those close to her. Besides, she had to feel supported by those external to her, for internally she was sad, hurt, lost and confused. The only way to deal with these emotions was by not feeling completely alone, and by immersing herself in her work, which also allowed a way to express all of this grief.

According to Grosskurth (1986), in 1934, Klein in collaboration with Joan Riviere, wrote one of her main papers on depression: *Love, hate and reparation*. In addition, Klein was conducting seminars for the education of analysands.

This same year, Klein went into analysis with Payne. Two years later, Glover publicly detached himself from Klein's theory, and Klein began to supervise Donald Winnicott, who in return was assisting Klein in analysing Erich (Hinshelwood et al., 1997).

Even though Klein was going through a very difficult time regarding her personal life, she was seeking help from a psychoanalyst and still producing work. Furthermore, she became Winnicott's supervisor, and he would become a good friend in the near future. However, there was still opposition to Klein. The description of these events, according to theory, indicate the presence of the destruction/creation polarity. Klein was undergoing a hurtful and difficult time in her life, but was also engaging her creative side. Additionally, she was at the start of a meaningful friendship.

With regard to Levinson's (1996) tasks for this period, Levinson mentions that developmental crises are common at this time. These are normally associated with unresolved problems and discrepancies from the past. It may be said that Klein experienced these crises regarding the deaths of Ferenczi and Hans, for she never really managed to overcome the deaths of loved ones in a successful manner. In addition, the crisis involving Melitta's betrayal may have been due to Klein not having been present while she was growing up, and also due to Libussa's negative comments to Melitta about Klein. Although these unresolved problems emerged at this stage in Klein's life, they made it an ideal time for Klein to evaluate the entry life structure and to carry on with her individuation with regard to herself and society. This was accomplished through her work on loneliness, loss and grief.

Theory derived descriptions show that regarding Klein's central components, there were no changes from the previous stage except that at this stage, her energy was also being used to deal with sorrows aroused by the deaths of Ferenczi and Hans. Klein's peripheral components shifted from her two sons to the arriving psychoanalysts from Europe and Klein's analysis with Payne. Klein's unfilled components went from nothing to the desire to have her son and friend alive at this stage. In addition, Klein wished for arguments within the

British Psychoanalytic Society to cease. It is evident that the most significant changes from the previous period until the present time were the deaths of Ferenczi and Hans.

According to theory, the age 50 transition is also a period to create a basis for the coming structure. Klein achieved this effectively by her work, and more specifically by her seminars for analysands, her presentation of the paper on depression, and by becoming Winnicott's supervisor. On a more personal aspect, Klein's going into analysis with Payne indicated that she was trying to improve her vision of herself and her life. The analysis may be seen as a positive way in which Klein was attempting to build a new basis. Therefore it may be said that Klein managed to accomplish the tasks of this stage well by finding her own way of developing her individuation, and of establishing a new basis through her work and personal life.

6.6.3 Culminating life structure for middle adulthood: 1937-1943

According to Grosskurth (1986), by 1937 the number of people in opposition to Klein had increased and the British Psychoanalytic Society could no longer contain both Glover and Klein. At this time, many psychoanalysts were arriving from Europe to either the USA or England, including Freud who arrived in London in June 1938. A majority of those arriving were opposed to Klein, while a minority became loyal to her and her ideas. In September 1939 Britain declared war on Germany, and in the same year Freud died. Klein moved outside London because of the bombings but carried on with her work. In May 1940 Klein's sister Emilie passed away. Both Arthur's and Emilie's deaths pushed Klein to further her theory on mourning (Grosskurth, 1986).

The researcher believes that although Klein's opposition was increasing, so was the number of her supporters. Even though tension within the British Psychoanalytic Society had increased noticeably and war could have given her an excuse to take time off work, Klein carried on producing. Therefore theory based descriptions indicate the presence of the polarity of destruction/creation: although there were many colleagues trying to prevent Klein from producing

work, she never stopped.

Regarding the deaths of Emilie and Arthur, descriptions derived from theory suggest that once again, Klein was confronted with feelings involving loss and guilt. With Arthur, the situation had become difficult, but Klein was partly responsible for this. She knew she should not have married him because they were not meant for each other, yet, she carried on with the marriage because of personal reasons. Eventually, however, Klein took responsibility for her life and left Arthur. Regarding Emilie, the situation was different. From an early age, Klein felt less loved than her siblings, but in a way, with Emilie it was worse. This may be because Klein felt more rejected by Moriz than by any of the other members of the Reizes family, while Emilie was clearly their father's favourite, and this hurt Klein intensely. At this stage, Emilie was the only survivor of Klein's nuclear family, and even though Emilie had arrived in London, Klein did not see her. This indicates that Klein's feelings of jealousy had not been resolved, and also suggests that Klein was being influenced by the polarities of young/old, destruction/creation, engagement/separateness. At this stage she could have felt young again: as young as the day that she tried to climb on her father's leg and he pushed her away, as young as when Sidione and Emanuel had to take her under their wing because she was alone and not being taken care of like her brother and sisters (Grosskurth, 1986). Klein was also hurt by her experience with Emilie, but yet she never gave up on herself. She always tried to improve herself and her situation, to become someone successful and loved in life. This indicates the presence of destruction/creation. Finally, the polarity of engagement/separateness took place with Klein attempting to integrate and socialise herself into her family while maintaining her independence.

Grosskurth (1986) mentions that Klein continued to be attacked by her opposition at the British Psychoanalytic Society. Their attack on Klein was offensive and she was furious. In addition, in 1941, Glover was made President of the British Psychoanalytic Society.

Theory based descriptions imply that these events made Klein realise that she

was in a very vulnerable position. These constant attacks, and Glover's new position, became a threat to her work and to her position within the British Psychoanalytic Society. This presented Klein with the polarities of masculine/feminine and destruction/creation. During this time, Klein had to pull together her female related emotions involving care and her more aggressive masculine emotions which would help her fight and survive. She had to combine her feminine side with her masculine side in order to emerge from this situation stronger. Destruction/creation was present in the same way as in the past. While trying to fight her opposition, Klein was attempting to remain focused on her work, and seemed to succeed (Levinson, 1986).

Kristeva (2001) mentions that Klein wrote to Jones and expressed how disappointed she was with him. She maintained that Jones should have handled things better before his semi-retirement, and should have supported her as before. Besides, she still held it against Jones that he had invited the continentals to join the British Psychoanalytic Society. Regardless of the war, the arguments within the Society carried on. This helped Klein to realise that she needed to fight back to maintain her position within the Society (Grosskurth, 1986). This could have been the reason for Klein, towards the end of 1941, making a phone call to Anna Freud in order to discuss the crisis. Still no agreement was reached and nothing was resolved. From October 1942, the discord amongst the members of the British Psychoanalytic Society were formally known as the Controversial Discussions.

Theory reveals that although Klein was still going through difficult times at work, her attitude had changed. The fervour that everyone recognised in Klein and that had been lost for some time due to her personal sorrows was now back. Her being so honest with Jones, and calling Anna at a time of such intense disagreement with her and with her theory, indicated that Klein was tired of the issues between them, and desired a civilised solution. In a way, Klein was coming to terms with her situation and attempting to move on. Therefore, it can be said that Klein was affected by the presence of young/old and destruction/creation. Although Klein was reaching her 60s, she had in a sense begun a process of change and maturation. Furthermore, even though she had

been dealing with constant aggression, her creative side was taking over.

According to theory derived descriptions, there were not many significant changes from the previous stage to the current one with regard to central components. Basically, the same ones remained, except for the publishing of her second book, which signified that although she was constantly being attacked, her career was still flourishing, despite the limits placed on both her professional and private life due to her having to seek safety on the outskirts of London because of the bombings. Peripheral components shifted from the arriving of psychoanalysts from Europe and Klein's analysis with Payne to the beginning of bombings in London and Emilie's death. Klein's unfilled component was her disappointment in Jones with regard to how he handled her problems with Glover. In the previous stage, it was Klein's losses and the desire for arguments within the British Psychoanalytic Society to cease. It is evident from the current descriptions that there were not many significant changes taking place from the age 50 transition until the culminating life structure for middle adulthood, at least not in the main area of Klein's focus.

Regarding the tasks of this stage, Klein was successful in achieving them. Although she had to face opposition, new arriving members from Europe, World War II and the death of Emilie, Klein took the initiative of fighting back in defending her beliefs and thus her fundamentals. Klein was now ready to enter the new period in her life and to set and achieve goals for this period.

6.7 Late adult transition: 1944-1946

In 1944, the Training Committee offered four recommendations, and soon after these recommendations were passed, Glover presented his resignation to the Society and it was accepted. In addition, on November 1946, it was finally agreed that there would be one Training Committee divided into three different courses. This was the end of the Controversial Discussions which had gone on for several years (Grosskurth, 1986; Kristeva, 2001).

After years of disagreement within the British Psychoanalytic Society, due to

Klein's and the opposition's significance within this Society, a solution accepted by everyone was finally approved. Regarding Klein, theory suggests that at this stage she was under the influence of all polarities: (a) masculine/feminine, due to her having managed to integrate these aspects within herself (Klein integrated her female related emotions involving care with her more aggressive masculine emotions which helped her fight and survive), it may be said that her efforts in bringing these together made her strong enough to overcome her difficulties; (b) an integration of young/old also helped Klein with her success. This polarity, as mentioned before, showed Klein's strength and maturation; (c) the destruction/creation polarity which was always present until this stage in her life, indicated and proved Klein's dedication and perseverance. Although she was going through difficult times, she always managed to overcome them, and in the process, become a stronger person; and finally, (d) engagement/separateness, proved that Klein, although very independent in her way of thinking, managed to integrate her thoughts and feelings into what was socially expected of her. She once again acquired the approval and respect of her superiors and colleagues.

Regarding Klein's components, the activity in her life seemed to have slowed down because there were fewer things to mention regarding her central, peripheral and unfilled components. At this stage, Klein's central components were the end of the Controversial Discussions and the publishing of her third book. The only peripheral component identified was Glover's resignation and there seem to be no unfilled components. Theory based descriptions suggest that since Klein was approaching her seventieth birthday and most of her life ambitions had been fulfilled, she felt this was the appropriate time to slow down and take some of the pressure away from her life.

According to Levinson's (1996) theory, the primary task of this period was to evaluate the past and for the individual to shift into the new era. Additionally, the individual created a foundation for the next period. There was no evidence whether this was achieved or not, for not many events took place at this stage of Klein's life. However, it may be argued that although it was the British Psychoanalytic Society that made the final decision, amongst others, it was

Klein's influence that pushed towards a solution regarding the Controversial Discussions. This may be viewed as one of her longstanding goals, which was finally achieved, and which would create a foundation for the next period regarding her career.

6.8 Era of late adulthood: 1944-1960

On March 30, 1952 Klein celebrated her seventieth birthday. She had begun to age visibly and to act more like her mother, especially with regard to her stubbornness and her strength of character (Kristeva, 2001). Regarding her children, she remained close to Erich, but she was never to reconcile with Melitta. Relationship-wise, Klein was not seeing anybody new, but she found out that her old lover Kloetzel had recently died. In celebration of her birthday, her followers decided to publish a special issue for her in the *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis*, but Klein rejected Winnicott's paper for this issue. In 1955 Klein established a trust and by this time, her work had been firmly established within the British field of psychoanalysis. Nevertheless, Klein was ageing and this caused her to take on fewer patients (Grosskurth, 1986). In the same year, Klein presented a paper *A study of envy and gratitude* and published *New directions in psycho-analysis* (Kristeva, 2001). Segal (1992) points out that this paper caused Winnicott to finally break away from Klein's theory.

Descriptions based on Levinson's (1996) theory indicate that in relation to Klein's ageing, Klein was developing as part of her attitude, characteristics and qualities belonging to her mother, qualities which in the past she had criticised and condemned. Even though her followers were attempting to publish an issue for Klein, she was still not willing to let them do as they wished and demanded to proofread all their papers. This created a disagreement between her and Winnicott when Klein rejected his paper. However, work-wise Klein was as successful as ever and had established both her work and a trust in her name. She even presented a paper, although this caused Winnicott to finally break away from her theory. Due to all of the above-mentioned in reference to Klein's ageing and her career, it may be said that Klein was under the presence of the

polarities of destruction/creation and young/old.

In relation to Klein's relationship with her children and to the death of Kloetzel, theory indicates that she was being affected by the polarities of masculine/feminine, engagement/separateness and destruction/creation. Klein had been hurt by Melitta and Kloetzel, but had also in turn hurt them. Furthermore, Klein always felt a desire for love regarding her children and her personal relationships. All of these situations caused Klein to have to unite both her feminine and masculine sides. In addition, once again she had to find a way to integrate her independent side with society's expectations. Descriptions according to theory reveal that Klein succeeded in all of these aspects.

Grosskurth (1986) indicates that from 1953 Klein began to work on her unpublished autobiography. During her last years she remained close to her grandchildren, and was also very close to her housekeeper. In June, 1957 Jones passed away. Klein remembered only how he had initially supported her. Three years later Klein was diagnosed with cancer of the colon and needed surgery. While in recovery, Klein fell out of her bed, and broke her hip, and due to complications from this, she died on September 22, 1960. A year after her death, *Narrative of a child analysis* was published (Grosskurth, 1986).

Theory derived descriptions indicate that even though Klein was independent throughout her life, she still managed to form a strong attachment to her relationships. Her strong character was always present, as was her caring side. This was clearly shown in how Klein reacted toward Jones, even after his death and after she had felt abandoned by him during his last years. Until her death, she carried on producing work. Klein's last years were influenced by the presence of various polarities. Her determination, her creative side, her will to fight opposition, her feelings toward Jones and her reaction after his death showed a clear presence of destruction/creation. The acceptance and love she received from those close to her, showed that Klein succeeded in integrating her independence with social recognition and approval.

According to theory based descriptions of this era and the previous ones, evidence suggests that although Klein was in the last stage of her life, several things were the focus of her time and energy. To begin with, what made up Klein's central components included her family, her career, her project of establishing a trust, the publishing of four of her books, and her now deteriorating health. The peripheral components at this stage included the deaths of Kloetzel and Jones. The unfilled components included her relationship with Melitta and her unfinished/unpublished autobiography. Many things were taking place in this phase, compared to the late adult transition in which her main focus was on the Controversial Discussions and the publishing of her third book. Since then, she attempted to publish four books. Her peripheral component in the previous stage was Glover's resignation, whereas at this stage, it was about the deaths of two significant people in her life. In the previous stage Klein had no unfilled component, at this stage she had her autobiography but most importantly, her conflict with Melitta which was never be resolved and which had been affecting her as an individual and mother for a number of years. All the above-mentioned are the final components that took place in Klein's life. This was the last period in her life and according to her components, the events that were taking place at this stage and descriptions derived from theory, determined whether her tasks had been fulfilled or not.

Levinson (1996) has two suggestions regarding the tasks at this stage. Firstly, it is important for individuals to render responsibilities. Klein accomplished this by reducing the number of her patients. However, she still presented a paper, published a book, and began her autobiography and a trust. Secondly, it is suggested that individuals confront life decisions by reconciling with their mistakes. Klein was getting along well with Erich, but she never reconciled with Melitta. This may be why she made an effort to remain close to her grandchildren and her housekeeper and not to repeat the mistakes she had possibly made with her daughter. In addition, she achieved a degree of peace concerning the deaths of both Kloetzel and Jones, especially Jones, as she chose to forget the negative aspects of their relationship and to focus on the positive ones. Finally, in this regard, her work

was firmly established and this helped Klein ignore all the difficult times and mistakes, and to focus on the accomplished end result. Due to all of this, it may be said that Klein was successful in achieving this final period's tasks.

6.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the life course of Melanie Klein from the perspective of Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. Klein's life, which has been divided according to Levinson's (1996) four eras of adult development in women and to the cross-era transitions which take place between eras, has been illuminated and analysed according to Levinson's (1996) polarities, components and developmental tasks. These have assisted the researcher in identifying significant events, experiences and issues throughout Klein's life, and in being able to interpret them.

The following chapter will bring this project to a conclusion and will provide further recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the psychobiographical research on Melanie Klein. It also addresses the limitations of the research study, the value of the study, and suggests recommendations for further research.

7.2 Summary of the research findings

The primary aim of this study was to present the reader with a basic description of Klein's life. Therefore, Klein's development was explored and described according to Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. A secondary aim was to accomplish an in-depth depiction of Klein within her particular social and historical context. Throughout the various chapters of this psychobiography, it was attempted to explore and ultimately accomplish the above-mentioned objectives.

Daniel Levinson (1996) formulated a theory which describes the important changes that occur throughout a person's life. In order to do this, he divided the life cycle into 4 different eras. Although the eras overlap, Levinson set specific ages in which a new era begins as the previous one draws near its end. The following summary indicates whether Klein's life structure development followed closely the time frame proposed by Levinson. In addition, the summary indicates whether Klein successfully completed the tasks of each period set by Levinson.

Klein was brought up in a middle-class Jewish family, although the economic situation deteriorated by the time she was a toddler. From an early age Klein suffered rejection and the loss of significant loved ones. She married, even though she was aware that she did not love her future husband. Reasons for her decision, such as approval from the family and better finances, may only

be speculated on. Klein experienced mixed feelings about her children, which may have led to the complicated relationships that she developed with them over time. As an individual, she did not have an easy life, yet she managed to discover her passion and to succeed in her professional life. Klein left a legacy of knowledge, papers and funds to the discipline of psychology. Most importantly, she left behind a new trend of thought: a theory that is still learned and applied currently by psychologists around the world.

From the above summary and from previous chapters we may conclude that although Klein had a difficult life, she still managed to overcome the majority of the tasks of the different periods in Levinson's (1996) theory. However, she was unsuccessful in fulfilling new relationships from the early adult transition (1903-1904). Furthermore, she did not manage to accomplish those tasks from the entry life structure (1905-1909). This may have been due to Klein feeling disheartened and depressed with her life in general, and due to being unable to shift her relationship with Libussa into a more independent one. Regarding the last period of her life, the era of late adulthood (1944-1960), Klein accomplished all the tasks mentioned by Levinson (1996), except for being unable to reconcile with her daughter. Klein was meant to confront her life decisions by reconciling with her mistakes. One of the many views in this respect may evolve around the idea that Klein's relationship with Melitta was not entirely Klein's fault. However, there is room for other views which may suggest otherwise. Firstly, because Klein was the adult and Melitta the child, more attempts should have taken place on the part of Klein to restore the relationship with her daughter. Secondly, as mentioned in previous chapters, Klein was not always around when her children were young. In other words, Klein did not participate significantly in their upbringing and this may have caused some resentment from her eldest child, especially because Melitta would inevitably have had the absence of her mother fresh in her memory, at least more than her two younger brothers. Thirdly, Klein analysed Melitta from a young age, and this may have placed the mother-daughter relationship in second place to Klein's analyses.

The period from 1903 until 1909 in Klein's life appear to be the most difficult regarding task accomplishment. However, as from 1909, Klein managed to fulfil all of the tasks from the various periods successfully. that is, all of the tasks except her reconciliation with Melitta, which never happened. A possible explanation for Klein failing to accomplish her developmental tasks during the first part of her life may be that at such a young age, she was unable to exercise and strengthen both her independence and individuation. She may only have been able to achieve this through experience and with the passing of the years.

With regard to the time frame proposed by Levinson (1996), Klein adhered to the different eras and periods in the life structure development in an extremely accurate manner, except for the culminating life structure for middle adulthood, which begins at age 55 and ends at age 60. In Klein's case, this period ended at age 61. However, she was still within Levinson's (1996) allowed range of variance.

Levinson's (1996) theoretical framework provides a thorough description of human development which provides a comprehensive description of adult development. Because psychobiography is a method that focuses on the entire life from birth until death (McAdams, 2000), Levinson's (1996) theory may be criticised as lacking a fair amount of information regarding childhood development. If this more detailed information were to exist, it might have been possible to provide alternative options for examining, interpreting and discussing Klein's life, especially, since Klein went through significant trauma from birth until age 17. Although this limitation was of concern to the researcher, Levinson's (1996) theory facilitated the generation of new interpretations and descriptions of Klein's entire life span, in other words, it offered a holistic perspective on her life.

7.3 Value of this study

There have been five completed biographies on Klein's life (Grosskurth, 1986 & Likierman, 2001). However, no psychobiography on Klein has ever been

undertaken until now. In other words, this study provided the first psychological and in-depth description of her entire life span. This was achieved through the application of Levinson's (1996) theory of *Adult Development in Women*. Therefore, it may be said that this study has enabled some features of Levinson's (1996) theoretical framework to be confirmed through its application to Klein's life. Levinson et al. (1978) stated that human development can be divided into several eras and transitional periods, and that there are various developmental tasks that any man or woman needs to accomplish in order to move from one period to the next. At different times of their lives, men and women will experience different polarities and will give different value to specific components, depending on their significance at any specific period (Levinson, 1996). All of Levinson's (1996) propositions have been applied in this particular research study. The application of these propositions allowed for a description and discussion of Klein's experiences by merely illuminating her life. In addition, the application of the theory granted an in-depth examination of Klein within her particular social and historical context. As a result, although Levinson's (1996) theory has its flaws, through this study more academic value and comprehension was brought to the fields of psychobiography and psychology. Finally, this study contributed to the limited amount of the psychobiographical research method in South Africa.

7.4 Limitations of this study

The most important criticisms and responses within the methodological status of the field of psychobiography were thoroughly examined in Chapter 2, section 2.4, of this study. Therefore, in this particular section, the focus will mainly be centred on the limitations of this specific research. Firstly, a limited amount of information is available to the public on Klein's entire life span. Furthermore, the information that is available on Klein in the form of biographies is mainly based on a particular biography, that of Grosskurth (1986). Unfortunately, the only way of gaining access to Klein's unfinished autobiography is by going in person to the Melanie Klein Fund and obtaining special permission. This was not attempted due to the limited funds of the

present study. Secondly, the current study is limited not only in funds, but in size and in displaying sufficient amounts of information that do justice to the nature of the subject. More specifically, although this study may provide additional understanding into Klein's theory by examining her life, it does not even touch on her theory and therefore on her main contributions to the discipline of psychology.

Finally, this study explored and described Klein's life in a holistic manner through the application of Levinson's (1996) theory. By utilising other existing theories that look at different perspectives of analysis, a more detailed inspection could have been achieved regarding diverse aspects of her life. In addition, assumptions and interpretations deduced from the sole application of Levinson's (1996) theory may be able to be tested.

7.5 Recommendation for future research

Perhaps, in furthering this research as a Doctoral thesis, it will not be as restricted as a Masters' treatise. In other words, the recommendation would be to conduct a related study on a larger scale. This would allow for more than one theory to be applied, thus granting more insight into Klein's life. Furthermore, it would allow for an in-depth examination and description of Klein's *Object Relations Theory* and other contributions she made to psychology as a discipline. Finally, the researcher suggests that this research study be considered as a basis on which to build a more complete, comprehensive and enlightening description of Klein's personality, as opposed to a final product with irrefutable evidence. Additional data in order to carry out these recommendations may be found by contacting the Melanie Klein Fund and requesting permission to examine Klein's autobiography. Furthermore, more detailed information may be gathered, if possible, by contacting Grosskurth himself – after all, he was Klein's main biographer. Similarly, one may be able to contact psychologists that worked with and knew Klein personally. Finally, there are various theories with a different focus to Levinson's (1996) that may provide diverse information on different aspects of Klein. Amongst others, a personality theory may be one of the

recommended options. For instance, the Five-Factor Model of Personality which measures extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness (Morrison, 2004).

7.6 Conclusion

This study had its own set aims, and notwithstanding the limitations and the recommendations made therein, hopefully these aims have been achieved. It helps the reader obtain a thorough description of Melanie Klein's life within her particular social and historical contexts. Levinson's (1996) theory assisted the researcher in examining Klein's life by providing in-depth descriptions of her experiences and much insight into her development. In conclusion, this study has shown the importance of portraying a person's life as unique. In present day society it is easy to lose sight of a person's individuality and to forget that individual lives and individual achievements impact on other people's lives and society. This psychobiography portrays Klein's life as unique, placing her in a specific context and describing her as an individual with significant accomplishments and failures. In addition it will be a contribution to this particular research method in South Africa and will bring more academic knowledge into the field.

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APPENDIX A

CONSENT FOR RESEARCH

Dear Marianna

Thank you for your e-mail letting us have details of your research project.

As you say you will be basing your research only on published material there is, in fact, no need for the Trustees of the Melanie Klein Trust to grant permission. They do, however, appreciate your getting in touch to let them know of your intentions.

With kind regards,

Mary Block

Administrator

Melanie Klein Trust

Email: mary2block@aol.com

APPENDIX B

TIMELINE REPRESENTING KLEIN'S WORKS

Melanie Klein wrote a significant amount of articles, papers and books. This is a schematic representation of her works according to the year in which they were published.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Article, paper or book</u>	<u>Contributions from</u>
1923	The development of a child	
1924	The role of school in the libidinal development of the child	
1926	Infant analysis	
1927	Symposium on child-analysis	
1927	The psychological principles of infant analysis	
1928	Communication: Note on the preceding communication	
1928	Early stages of the Oedipus conflict	
1929	Infantile anxiety-situations reflected in art, creative impulse	
1929	Personification in the play of children	
1930	The importance of symbol-formation in the development of the ego	
1931	A contribution to the theory of intellectual inhibition	
1932	Die psychoanalyse des Kindes	
1932	The psycho-analysis of children	
1935	A contribution to the psychogenesis of manic-depressive states	
1936	On the bringing up of children	Isaacs, S. Middlemore, M. Searl, N. Sharp, E. F.
1937	Love, hate and reparation	Riviere, J.

1940	Mourning and its relation to manic-depressive states	
1945	The Oedipus complex in the light of early anxieties	
1946	Notes on some schizoid mechanisms	
1948	A contribution to the theory of anxiety and guilt	
1948	Contributions to psycho-analysis	
1950	On the criteria for the termination of a psycho-analysis	
1950	On the criteria for the termination of an analysis	
1952	Developments in psycho-analysis	Heimann, P. Isaacs, S. Riviere, J.
1952	On the bringing up of children	Isaacs, S.
1952	The mutual influences in the development of ego and id	
1952	The origins of transference	
1953	Love, hate and reparation. Psycho-analytical epitomes no. 2	Riviere, J.
1955	New directions in psycho-analysis. The significance of infant conflict in the pattern of adult behaviour	Heimann, P. Money-Kyrle, R.
1955	New directions in psycho-analysis	Heimann, P. Money-Kyrle, R.
1957	Envy and gratitude: A study of unconscious forces	
1957	Envy and gratitude: A study of unconscious sources	
1958	On the development of mental functioning	
1960	A note on depression in the schizophrenic	
1961	Narrative of a child analysis. The conduct of the psycho-analysis of children seen in the treatment of a ten-year-old boy	
1961	Narrative of a child analysis	
1963	Our adult world and other essays	

1984	Envy and gratitude and other works 1946-1963	
1984	Love, guilt and reparation and other works 1921-1945	
1984	Narrative of a child analysis	
1984	The psycho-analysis of children	