**COLLEGE: CSS**

**COURSE: PERSONALITY**

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**CHAPTER ONE**

1. **INTRODUCTION TO PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY**

**Introduction**

*“****What sort of creatures are we?”***

Ever since the beginning of recorded history, the most significant question to be answered is that “What sort of creatures are we?” Many possibilities have been explored, with an enormous variety of concepts employed yet a satisfactory answer still is not found. Additionally, there is individual differences - Of the several billion people who presently inhabit the earth, no two individuals are exactly alike even the identical twins. One important reason for the difficulty in getting a clear answer is that human beings come in many shapes and sizes and behave in exceedingly complex ways. There are so many differences to be accounted for biological, physical, genetics, social and psychological. The vast differences among them have made it difficult, if not impossible, to identify what they share in common as members of the human race. *Personality psychology is concerned with the differences among the people*.

Therefore, this chapter will introduce you the concept of personality psychology, main patterns and elements of personality, differences in the patterns of personality and the origin and some of the salient issues regarding temperament.

**General Objectives:**

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| Upon the completion of this chapter, you should be able to:   * Realize the major concepts of personality psychology. * Distinguish the main features patterns and elements of personality. * Identify differences in the patterns of personality. * Describe the origin and characteristics of temperament. |

* 1. **The Meaning of Personality Psychology**

Personality psychology is a branch of psychology which studies about personality and individual differences. One emphasis in this field is to **construct a coherent picture of a person and his or her major psychological processes**. Another emphasis views **personality as the study of individual differences, in other words, how people differ from each other**. A third area of **emphasis examines human nature and how all people are similar to one other**. These three viewpoints merge together in the study of personality.

Personality psychology looks for answers to numerous questions like;

* In what ways do human beings differ?
* In what situations and along what dimensions do they differ?
* Why do they differ?
* How much do they differ?
* How consistent are human differences?
* Can they be measured?

Personality psychology is also known as ***personology****,* the study of the *person,* that is, the whole human individual. Most people, when they think of personality, are actually thinking of personality *differences* - types and traits and the like. This is certainly an important part of personality psychology, since one of the characteristics of persons is that they can differ from each other quite a bit. But the main ***part of personality psychology addresses the broader issue of "what is it to be a person."***

* 1. **The Meaning of Personality**

The word ***"personality"*** originates from the Greek word ***‘persona’***, which means ***mask***. The masks worn by theatrical players in ancient Greek dramas term came to encompass the actor’s roles as well. Thus, personality is the public personality that people display to those around them.The term personality has many meanings, even within psychology there is disagreement about the meaning of the term. In fact, there may be as many different meanings of the term “personality” as there are psychologists who have tried to define it,the pioneer American psychologist; Gordon Allport defined it as **“**a dynamic organization, inside the person, of **psychophysical systems** that create the person’s characteristic patterns of behavior, thoughts and feelings.” Therefore, personality refers to the overall impression that an individual makes on others, that is, a sum total or constellation of characteristics that are typical of the individual and thus observable in various social settings.

Personality can also be defined as **a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations**.

**It is the set of psychological traits and mechanisms within the individual that is organized and relatively enduring and that influences his or her interactions with, and adaptations to the environment (i.e. intra-psychic, physical, and social environment)**.

* 1. **Features of Personality**

The above definition indicates that personality is relatively enduring, consistent and unique to the individual. The following are elements of personality pattern:

1. **Personality is a set of traits or characteristics** that describe the ways in which people are different from each other.
2. **Psychological Mechanisms** refers to the processes of personality. Most Psychological Mechanisms involve information processing activity. In other word, how this is work, how people get their traits, nature or nurture, etc.
3. **Within the individual** means that personality is something that a person carries with him over time and from one situation to next. So we are stable and consistent across time and situation. Example we feel as the same person we were yesterday, last week or month.
4. **Personality is organized** because traits and mechanisms are organized or linked to one another in a coherent fashion. Suppose that you have two desires or needs you are hungry and you have to appear for a job interview. ***Our personality is organized in the sense that it contains decision rules which govern and control which needs are to be activated and which needs are to be inactive.*** So in the example the hunger need is to be inactive or passive and the need for the preparation for the interview is to be activated.
5. **Influential forces in personality** means that traits and mechanisms can act as influence how we act, how we view our selves, how we feel, how we interact with the world, how we select our environments, how we react to our circumstances so personality plays a key role in how people shape their lives.
6. **Person- environment interaction** is perhaps a difficult and complex feature of personality. Perception refers to how we see and interpret environment. Example smile of a clown and of a stranger are seen and interpreted differently one as friendly and other with suspicion.
7. **Adaptation** conveys the notion that central feature of personality concerns adaptive functioning such as accomplishing goals, coping, adjusting and dealing with challenges and problems we face as we go through life. Example**:** People who worry a lot receive a lot of social support and encouragement as a reward therefore they adapt to the concept of worrying.
8. **Different Environments**: There are three types of environments which influence our behavior, namely physical, social and intra-psychic. Now let us talk about them one by one:
9. **The physical environment** often poses challenges for people some of these are direct threats to the survival, such as extreme temperatures, snakes, spiders, heights etc.
10. **Social environment** also poses challenges such as we desire friends, mates, love, belongingness and unconditional positive regard.
11. **Intra-psychic environment**: We have memories, dreams, desires, fantasies, and a collection of private experiences we live every day. The three physical, social and Intra- psychic are the ones which are equally important for the survival of individual.
    1. **Patterns of Personality, their differences and elements**

According to Kluckhohn & Murray (1948), every individual is similar to others in all respects while in certain respects the individual is similar to others and different from others. These researchers state that there are three levels of personality analysis which are described as follow:

**Every individual is:**

**1- Like all others (the human nature level)**

This means, some traits or mechanisms are possessed by all of us. For example nearly every human being has *language skills* which allow him (her) to learn and use language, so spoken language is a universal human nature. At the psychological level all humans possess fundamental psychological mechanism for example *to live in harmony and to belong to social groups* so there are many ways in which each person is like every other person.

**2- Like some others (the level of individual and group differences)**

This second level pertains to individual and group differences. In individual differences there are people who love to go out, have parties and socialize, while we have people who want to be alone, read a book or listen to music, so there are ways or dimensions in which each person is like some others (introverts, extroverts). When we say there is group difference, people in one group may have certain personality features in common and these common features make them different from other groups. **Examples**:Different cultures, different age groups, different genders, different political parties.

**3- Like no others (the individual uniqueness level)**

There are no two similar individuals, even identical twins raised by the same parents in the same home, country and culture are different. This indicates that no two individuals have exactly the same personalities. Personality psychology focuses on the uniqueness of individual differences.

The important point is that personality psychology is concerned with all the three levels of personality analysis: Every individual is

1-Like all others (universal level)

2-Like some others (individual and group level)

3-Like no others (the individual uniqueness level)

* 1. **Temperament and Personality**

**Definitions, Origins and Characteristics of Temperament**

If you were to spend a week working in the nursery, you could probably identify the active babies, the ones who cry frequently and hopefully a few who are usually quiet and happy. Although it is possible these differences are the result of different treatment the children receive at home, but, a growing number of researchers are convinced these general behavioral styles are *present at birth*. Further, they argue that these general styles are *relatively stable and influence the development of personality traits throughout a person’s life.* But does this mean that some people are born to be sociable and others are born to be shy? Probably not! More likely we are born with broad dispositions toward certain types of behaviors. Psychologists refer to these general behavioral dispositions as temperaments*.*

*Temperament is a consistent style of behavior and emotional reactions that are present from infancy onward, presumably due to biological influences (Clonigner, 2004).*

*Temperament implies a genetic foundation for individual differences in personality. Temperaments are general patterns of behavior and mood that can be expressed in many different ways and that, depending on one’s experiences, develop into different personality traits.* How these general dispositions develop into stable personality traits depends on a complex interplay of one’s genetic predispositions and the environment that a person grows up in.

*Temperament is defined as constitutionally based individual differences in emotional, motor and attentional reactivity and self-regulation, showing consistency across situations and relative stability over time (Rothbart and Derryberry 1981).* The term *‘constitutional’* refers to links between temperament and biology. The term *‘reactivity’* refers to the latency, rise time, intensity and duration of the person’s responsiveness to stimulation. The term *‘self-regulation’* refers to processes that serve to modulate reactivity; these include behavioral approach, withdrawal, inhibition and executive or effortful attention.

Although researchers agree that temperaments are general behavioral patterns that can often be seen in newborns (Buss, 1991), they do not always agree on how to classify the different kinds of temperaments they observe (Evans & Rothbart, 2007). Indeed, researchers often disagree on the number of basic temperaments. One popular model identifies three temperament dimensions: emotionality, activity, and sociability (Buss & Plomin, 1986).

* 1. *Emotionality* refers to the intensity of emotional reactions. Children, who cry frequently, easily frightened, and often express anger are high in this temperament. As adults, these individuals are easily upset and may have a “quick temper.”
  2. *Activity* refers to a person’s general level of energy. Children high in this temperament move around a lot, prefer games that require running and jumping, and tend to fidget and squirm when forced to sit still for an extended period of time. Adults high on this dimension are always on the go and prefer high-energy activities like playing sports and dancing in their free time.
  3. *Sociability* relates to a general tendency to affiliate and interact with others. Sociable children seek out other children to play with. Adults high in this temperament have a lot of friends and enjoy social gatherings.

The process through which general temperaments develop into personality traits is complex and influenced by a large number of factors (Rothbart, 2007). Although the child’s general level of emotionality or activity points the development of personality in a certain direction, that development is also influenced by the child’s experiences as he or she grows up (Neiderhiser, & Reiss, 2008). For example, a highly emotional child has a better chance of becoming an aggressive adult than does a child low in this temperament. But parents who encourage problem-solving skills over the expression of anger may turn a highly emotional child into a cooperative, nonaggressive adult. A child low in sociability is unlikely to become an outgoing, highly gregarious adult, but that child might develop excellent social skills, be a wonderful friend, and learn to lead others with a quiet, respectful style. *In short*, *adult personalities are determined by both inherited temperament and the environment*.

Moreover, temperament influences the environment, and the environment then influences the way temperament develops into stable personality traits. Two children born with identical temperaments can grow up to be two very different people. A child with a high activity level may become an aggressive, achieving, or athletic adult. But that child will probably not become lazy and indifferent. A child does not represent a blank slate on which parents may draw whatever personality they desire. But neither is a child’s personality set at birth, leaving the parents and society to settle for whatever they get.

Temperament and personality represent two distinct but interrelated approaches to studying individuality.

**Summary**

This unit has analyzed the major issues like the meaning, characteristics and patterns of personality. Moreover, other important points have been included and the following were the main points.

* Personality psychology is a branch of psychology which studies about personality and individual differences.
* Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations (Ryckman, 2004).
* Every individual is similar to others in all respects (universal nature) while in certain respects the individual is similar to others (group similarity) and different from others (unique characteristics), this is called the levels of personality analysis.
* Temperament is defined as constitutionally based individual differences in emotional, motor and attentional reactivity and self-regulation, showing consistency across situations and relative stability over time.
* Buss & Plomin, (1986) identified three temperament dimensions: emotionality, activity, and sociability.

**CHAPTER TWO**

1. **DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY**

**Introduction**

There are a number of factors that mainly put its impact in the development of personality; we review some of the aspects stressed by various personality theorists in their attempts to explain the determinants of personality. The major determinants of personality are physical, intellectual, sexual, environmental, socio-cultural and psychological; these issues will be dealt in detail in this chapter.

**General Objectives:**

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| --- |
| After completion of this chapter, you will be able to:   * Recognize the major determinants of personality. * Distinguish the main roles of the determinants in personality development. |

* 1. **Physical Determinants**

Physical differences i.e. differences in height, weight, complexion, bodily form or defects influence personality of the individual. For example a child who is short statured may develop a feeling of inferiority if other persons tease him. Similarly if the person is overweight his playmates, class fellows and friends tease him and he will develop inferiority feelings. Additionally, physically handicapped children have no well developed personalities as compared to normal children. For example, blindness or weak eyesight, deafness or dull hearing directly influences the development of personality. But, a person who has good health, strength, energy and vigor generally develops emotionally balanced attitude towards life and takes part in various types of competition. On the other hand, the person who is physically inferior develops an unbalanced personality and generally cannot take part in various competitions.

Physical factors influence the interactions with other people, contributing personality development. The body builds (whether an individual is tin or fat pr tall or short in comparison to hi/her age group) if they are too low or too high they have an impact on personality. E.g. people who have tall and lanky bodies will be more agile and quick in their actions, so they will have good confidence as they will be unable to do normal tasks in normal time.

E.g. physical attractiveness; people who are attractive have more confidence levels and get wider acceptance of people, people are more tolerant to good looking children than of children with plain looks.

Additionally bodily health affects people’s personality. People with diabetes or high blood pressure or other health issues might be more irritable than others.

* 1. **Intellectual Determinants**

**Intelligence:** There is definitely some relationship between intelligence and personality. Intelligence is mainly hereditary. Persons who are very intelligent can make better adjustment in home, school and society than those persons who are less intelligent. Other people have a positive judgment of intellectual people. Their judgment affects the evaluation and development of personality. Research states that intellectual people (both male and female) have several desirable qualities like thoughtfulness, creativity, the ability to see within (introspection), adventures nature and they give importance to values and social problems. E.g. they have greater self control.

On the other hand superior intelligence is also the root of various special problems which affect personality development adversely. They might develop intolerance, emotional conflicts, habit of staying alone, dominant behavior of self-sufficiency, critical attitude etc.

* 1. **Sex Determinants**

**Sex differences determine people’s personality.** Males have the sex hormone of testosterone which could make their bones to be stronger and larger, and it increases anger also. Boys are generally more assertive, tough minded and vigorous. This difference might arise from the gender role that the society stated. The culture gives values, behaviors and material objects that constitute peoples way of life. Thus in comparison to gender males has better need to succeed with regard to interest and aptitudes. They show interest in machinery and outdoor activities. They prefer adventures. But females prefer less vigorous games. They are quieter, and interested in personal appearance. They have better sense of fine art. They are more injured by personal, emotional and social problems. Thus sex differences play a vital role in the development of personality of individual.

* 1. **Family Determinants**

Familial factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality. Family consists of husband and wife and their children's. Family role is very important for nurturing and personality development of their children. Family either directly or indirectly influence to person for development of individual personality. Family atmosphere if disruptive will produce disrupted, delinquent, backward and maladjusted personalities.

Family factors include:

* The number of members in the family,
* birth order of the child,
* emotional climate of the family,
* outlook of parents,
* Cultural and economic conditions of the family have an important bearing in personality formation.

In addition, Family life patternsuch as family life aims ambitions, aspirations and attitudes of parents; their emotional stability or instability; their overprotection or under protection of children- all these factors are important in personality development of the individual.

* 1. **Social Determinants**

Social factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality. It involves the reorganization of individual's in an organization or society. It refers to acquiring of wide range of personality by acquiring and absorbed by themselves in the society or an organization. Socialization process is starting from home and extending to work environment in an organization or society. It focuses on good relationships, cooperation, coordination and interaction among the members in the society or an organization or a family. In totally, environment factors consist of cultural factors, family factors, and social factors.

* 1. **Environmental Determinants**

1. ***Geographical environment and personality***: Physical or geographical conditions or areas that we dwell influence the personality of the individual. People of cold countries are industrious and hard working.
2. ***Early childhood experiences and personality***: Childhood experiences play a very important role in the development of the individual. Tensions and emotional upsetting of early life influence personality development. Methods of breast feeding and toilet training do play a significant role in the personality development as of the Freud’s theory.
3. ***Neighborhood:*** If the people in the neighborhood are cultured and educated then the child may also grow into a good person through imitation and modeling.
4. ***Friends and Companions****:* Psychologists like *Burt and Kretschmer* view that friends and companions greatly affect the personality of the child. Children of laborers go to third rate school and play with half naked children in dirty streets or slums. They live amidst hunger and poverty. This may lead to delinquency. Children of upper class may go to first rate school and their companions also belong to upper class. This may develop in them a superiority feeling for higher social status.
5. ***School****:* School plays a vital role in the development of personality:
   1. **Teacher’s personality**, i.e. his attitudes, beliefs, ideas, habits, ambitions, aspirations, sentiments and emotional maturity affect the personality development of the child.
   2. **Curriculum of schoo**l i.e. richness or drabness of curriculum also affects the personality of an individual.
   3. **Methods of teaching and co-curricular activities** also influence personality development.
   4. **General atmosphere in school:** congenial or uncongenial atmosphere influence personality development.
6. ***Radio, clubs, cinemas*** have a significant role to play in the personality development. Children can learn a lot from these agencies of education.
7. ***Names and personality***: impressive names may give us an air of superiority and poor or undesirable names are source of resentment. These names shape our ideas of ourselves and hence influence personality development.
8. ***Clothes and personality:*** if we wear funny clothes people will laugh at us and as a result we may develop inferiority complex. Our clothes should resemble with great persons whom we admire. The type of clothes we prefer also indicates our personality.
   1. **Psychological Determinants of Personality**

Psychological factors play a big role in the functioning of the human behavior and development of one’s personality. They focus on with the ways in which individuals differ from one another in their emotions, self concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their intra-psychic mechanisms. The focus should be on the origin of these differences and how these develop and how they are maintained. So traits or motives or cognitions are the raw material of personality development. The goal of the psychologist is to identify and measure the important ways in which individuals differ from one another. To conclude we can say that psychological factors are affected by hereditary and environment. Hereditary supplies the raw material, culture supplies the design, while family is the craftsman because it is the parents who carry the culture of the society to the child. Thus hereditary and environment both play very important role in the development of the personality of the individual.

**Summary**

This unit has portrayed about the major determinants of personality, their roles in shaping an individual’s personality. The main points of the unit were summarized as follows.

* Physical characteristics like differences in height, weight, complexion, bodily form or defects influence personality of the individual.
* Persons who are very intelligent can make better adjustment in home, school and society than those persons who are less intelligent. Therefore, intelligence has an impact on our personality.
* Sexual differences have a paramount contribution for type and nature of our personality. Boys are generally more assertive, tough minded and vigorous, whereas, girls are less vigorous in games. They are quieter, and interested in personal appearance.
* Family role is very important for nurturing and personality development of their children. If the family atmosphere if disruptive will produce disrupted, delinquent, backward and maladjusted personalities and the inverse is true to develop healthy personality.
* Social factors like relationships, cooperation, coordination and interaction among the members in the society are major factors which influence to determine individual personality.
* Environmental factors like the geographical area we dwell, the family environment or the early childhood experience in the family, neighborhood’s life experience, the school environment,media, clubs, cinemas, etc are important determinants of personality.
* Additionally, our given names and the type and clothes we prefer will also provide a clue about our personality.
* Psychological factors play a big role in the functioning of the human behavior and development of one’s personality i.e. our emotions, self concepts, physiological characteristics and even in their intra-psychic mechanisms will affect our personality.

**CHAPTER THREE**

1. **CHARACTER**

**Introduction**

Character refers to the sum of an individual’s qualities and characteristics which differentiate him/her from others. An individual’s character is actually an amalgamation of his/her qualities which makes him unique and helps him stand apart from the rest. In this chapter we will discuss the meaning of character, major salient features of character, autonomy and ego integrity.

**General Objectives:**

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| After completion of this chapter, you will be able to:   * Define the term character. * Identify major characteristics of character. * Be familiar with the notions of ego autonomy and integrity. |

* 1. **The Meaning and Characteristics of Character**
* **Overview:**

In this part we will talk about the meaning, characteristics and development of a character.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this part, you will be able to answer:

* What is character?
* What are the characteristics of a character?
* How the character develops?

The word ***"character"*** is derived from the Ancient Greek word ***"charakter",*** referring to a mark impressed upon a coin. Later it came to mean a point by which one thing was told apart from others. *Therefore, character refers to the sum of an individual’s qualities and characteristics which differentiate him/her from others.* An individual’s character is actually an amalgamation of his/her qualities which makes him/her unique and helps him stand apart from the rest.

Character plays an essential role in personality development. Remember personality development is not only about looking good and wearing expensive brands. It is also about developing one’s inner self and being a good human being. More than anyone else, you are answerable to yourself. Do not do anything which you yourself are not convinced of. An individual is nervous only when he is ashamed of what he is doing.

*Character is something which an individual is born with and seldom changes with time as against behavior.* For example, honesty is an individual’s inherent character which would never change irrespective of his/her situation or circumstance. Would you steal or cheat others just because you do not have enough savings with you at the moment? Absolutely NOT, but, because of it is just there in your blood.Character includes traits such as honesty, leadership, trust, courage, and patience. You can’t force an individual to be loyal towards his organization or for that matter his family members. Character is something which comes from within and is often long lived. A good character helps you develop a winning personality. In other words, a good character is the backbone of a magnetic personality which attracts other people.

*What is the difference between character and personality*? Most of the time, these two words are used interchangeably, it might be helpful for us to discuss how these two differ from each other. *Character is basically defined to be a particular system of traits that are permanent to each person.* One’s character shows on how the person acts and reacts to his or her peers; and how he or she deals everything that happens around him/her. One’s character is molded depending on his environment. If one grows up in a peaceful family-oriented atmosphere, most likely he has a good character. Whereas, personality is the one making the person react in a certain way in various situations. Basically, it is the image that one presents in front of others, thus some refers to personality as “plastic” or untrue.

Human behavior can be difficult to understand, so as character and personality. But one thing we have to understand is this; character is objective while personality is subjective. Character is something within you and is always there, for example, morals. On the other hand, one’s personality can and may change at some point in life. Take this, a person can have a good character and is known to do good things, but have a very loner and shy personality. Another person can be everyone’s best friend, but then turns out to be a traitor afterward.

* 1. **Character as a Moral Behavior**

Moral character is an evaluation of a particular individual's stable [moral](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morality) qualities. *The concept of character can imply a variety of attributes including the existence or lack of* [*virtues*](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Virtue) *such as* [*empathy*](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Empathy)*,* [*courage*](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Courage)*,* [*fortitude*](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fortitude)*,* [*honesty*](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Honesty)*, and* [*loyalty*](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Loyalty)*, or of good behaviors or* [*habits*](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Habit_%28psychology%29)*.* Moral character primarily refers to the assemblage of qualities that distinguish one individual from another, (i.e. the set of moral behaviors to which a social group adheres can be said to unite and define it culturally as distinct from others). Psychologist [Lawrence Pervin](http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Lawrence_Pervin&action=edit&redlink=1) defines moral character as "a disposition to express behavior in consistent patterns of functions across a range of situations."

Different psychologists wrote on a moral character differently, Wynne and Walberg (1984) that defined moral character as “engaging in morally relevant conduct or words, or refraining from certain conduct or words”. Others, such as Piaget (1969) focused on the source of one’s behavior as being especially important. He said that the essence of morality is respect for rules and that acting on internalized principles (autonomy) represents a higher level of morality than performance based on rules imposed by others (heteronomy).

Pritchard (1988) focused on moral character as a personality construct: “a complex set of relatively persistent qualities of the individual person, and the term has a definite positive connotation when it is used in discussions of moral education“. Berkowitz (2002) said that moral character is “an individual’s set of psychological characteristics that affect the person’s ability and inclination to function morally”.

Still others, such as Havighurst (1953) equated morality with altruism. Lickona (1991) attempted to connect psychological and behavioral components when he said that “Good character consists of knowing the good, desiring the good, and doing the good—habits of the mind, habits of the heart, and habits of action”.

* 1. **Character as an Inner Organization**

While most researchers support a multidimensional aspect to moral character, especially Lickona’s (1991) advocacy of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components, several authors support additional components. For example, Narvaez and Rest (1995) suggest that the skills of moral and character development should be considered in terms of four psychological components. They say that the focus should be on the internal processes and behavioral skills that are required for moral behavior and propose that sensitivity, judgment, and motivation emerge from the interaction of cognitive and affective processes.

* + 1. ***Ethical Sensitivity***—the perception of moral and social situations, including the ability to consider possible actions and their repercussion in terms of the people involved;
    2. ***Ethical Judgment***—the consideration of possible alternative actions and the rationale for selecting one or more as best;
    3. ***Ethical Motivation***—the selection of moral values most relevant in the situation and the commitment to act on that selection;
    4. ***Ethical Action***—the ego strength combined with the psychological and social skills necessary to carry out the selected alternative.

For Huitt (2000), moral character incorporates the underlying qualities of a person’s moral or ethical knowledge, reasoning, values, and commitments that are routinely displayed in behavior. Character is associated with the quality of one’s life, especially in terms of moral and ethical decisions and actions.

Berkowitz (2002) identified seven psychological components of the “moral anatomy,” and urged scientists and educators to begin reconstructing the “complete moral person.”

* 1. Moral behavior (pro-social behavior like sharing, donating to charity, telling the truth)
  2. Moral values (belief in moral goods)
  3. Moral emotion (feeling guilt, empathy, compassion for moral vs. immoral behavior)
  4. Moral reasoning (providing justification about right and wrong)
  5. Moral identity (accepting morality as an aspect self-image)
  6. Moral personality (enduring tendency to act with honesty, altruism, responsibility
  7. “Metamoral” characteristics meaning they make morality possible even though they are not inherently moral.
  8. **Development of Personality Characteristics**

Your experiences as you grow up contribute to your personality, or character, as an adult. Freud felt that traumatic experiences had an especially strong effect. Of course, each specific trauma would have its own unique impact on a person, which can only be explored and understood on an individual basis. But traumas associated with stage development, since we all have to go through them, should have more consistency. If you have difficulties in any of the tasks associated with the stages of weaning, potty training, or finding your sexual identity, you will tend to retain certain infantile or childish habits. This is called *fixation*.

Fixation gives each problem at each stage a long term effect in terms of our character. If you, in the first eight months of your life, are often frustrated in your need to suckle, perhaps because mother is uncomfortable or even rough with you, or tries to wean you too early, then you may develop an *oral-passive character.* An oral-passive personality tends to be rather dependent on others. They often retain an interest in "oral gratifications" such as eating, drinking, and smoking. It is as if they were seeking the pleasures they missed in infancy.

When we are between five and eight months old, we begin teething. One satisfying thing to do when you are teething is to bite on something, like mommy's nipple. If this causes a great deal of upset and precipitates an early weaning, you may develop an *oral aggressive personality*. These people retain a life-long desire to bite on things, such as pencils, gum, and other people. They have a tendency to be verbally aggressive, argumentative, sarcastic, and so on.

In the anal stage, children are fascinated with their "bodily functions." At first, they go whenever and wherever they like. And parents seem to actually value the end product of all this effort! Some parents put themselves at the child's mercy in the process of toilet training. They beg, they cajole, they show great joy when you do it right, they act as though their hearts were broken when you don't. The child is the king of the house, and knows it. This child will grow up to be an *anal expulsive (anal aggressive) personality*. These people tend to be sloppy, disorganized, and generous to a fault. They may be cruel, destructive, and given to vandalism and graffiti.

Other parents are strict. They may be competing with their neighbors and relatives as to who can potty train their child first (early potty training being associated in many people's minds with great intelligence). They may use punishment or humiliation. This child will likely become constipated as he or she tries desperately to hold it in at all times, and will grow up to be an *anal retentive personality*. He or she will tend to be especially clean, perfectionistic, dictatorial, very stubborn, and stingy. In other words, the anal retentive is tight in all ways.

There are also two *phallic personalities*, although no-one has given them names. If the boy is harshly rejected by his mother, and rather threatened by his very masculine father, he is likely to have a poor sense of self-worth when it comes to his sexuality. He may deal with this by either withdrawing from heterosexual interaction, perhaps becoming a book-worm, or by putting on a rather macho act and playing the ladies' man. A girl rejected by her father and threatened by her very feminine mother is also likely to feel poorly about herself, and may become a wall-flower or a hyper-feminine "belle." But if a boy is not rejected by his mother, but rather favored over his weak, milquetoast father, he may develop quite an opinion of himself (which may suffer greatly when he gets into the real world, where nobody loves him like his mother did), and may appear rather effeminate. After all, he has no cause to identify with his father. Likewise, if a girl is daddy's little princess and best buddy, and mommy has been relegated to a sort of servant role, then she may become quite vain and self-centered, or possibly rather masculine.

These various phallic characters demonstrate an important point in Freudian characterology: Extremes lead to extremes. If you are frustrated in some way or overindulged in some way, you have problems. And, although each problem tends to lead to certain characteristics, these characteristics can also easily be reversed. So an anal retentive person may suddenly become exceedingly generous, or may have some part of their life where they are terribly messy. This is frustrating to scientists, but it may reflect the reality of personality!

* 1. **Ego Strength and Integrity**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will clarify about ego strength, ego autonomy, and weak ego.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to:

* Distinguish ego, strength, autonomy and weakness?
* Identify the characteristics of strong, autonomous and weak ego?

Erik Erikson’s theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality in psychology. Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud’s theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson’s theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan. One of the main elements of Erikson’s psychosocial stage theory is the development of ego identity. *Ego identity* is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experience and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence also motivates behaviors and actions.

Each stage in Erikson’s theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as *ego strength or ego quality*. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy. In each stage, Erikson believed people experience a *conflict*that serves as a turning point in development. In Erikson’s view, these conflicts are centered on either developing a psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. Let’s consider about stages of development:

**Psychosocial Stage 1 - Trust vs. Mistrust**

The time from birth and one year of age and is the most fundamental stage in life. Because an infant is utterly dependent, the development of trust is based on the dependability and quality of the child’s caregivers. If a child successfully develops trust, he or she will feel safe and secure in the world. Caregivers who are inconsistent, emotionally unavailable, or rejecting contribute to feelings of mistrust in the children they care for. Failure to develop trust will result in fear and a belief that the world is inconsistent and unpredictable.

**Psychosocial Stage 2 - Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt**

The second stage of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development takes place during early childhood and is focused on children developing a greater sense of personal control. Like Freud, Erikson believed that toilet training was a vital part of this process. However, Erikson's reasoning was quite different than that of Freud's. Erikson believe that learning to control one’s body functions leads to a feeling of control and a sense of independence. Other important events include gaining more control over food choices, toy preferences, and clothing selection. Children who successfully complete this stage feel secure and confident, while those who do not are left with a sense of inadequacy and self-doubt.

**Psychosocial Stage 3 - Initiative vs. Guilt**

During the preschool years, children begin to assert their power and control over the world through directing play and other social interaction. Children who are successful at this stage feel capable and able to lead others. Those who fail to acquire these skills are left with a sense of guilt, self-doubt and lack of initiative.

**Psychosocial Stage 4 - Industry vs. Inferiority**

This stage covers the early school years from age 5 to 11. Through social interactions, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments and abilities. Children who are encouraged and commended by parents and teachers develop a feeling of competence and belief in their skills. Those who receive little or no encouragement from parents, teachers, or peers will doubt their ability to be successful.

**Psychosocial Stage 5 - Identity vs. Confusion**

During adolescence, children are exploring their independence and developing a sense of self. Those who receive proper encouragement and reinforcement through personal exploration will emerge from this stage with a strong sense of self and a feeling of independence and control. Those who remain unsure of their beliefs and desires will insecure and confused about themselves and the future.

**Psychosocial Stage 6 - Intimacy vs. Isolation**

This stage covers the period of early adulthood when people are exploring personal relationships. Erikson believed it was vital that people develop close, committed relationships with other people. Those who are successful at this step will develop relationships that are committed and secure. Remember that each step builds on skills learned in previous steps. Erikson believed that a strong sense of personal identity was important to developing intimate relationships. Studies have demonstrated that those with a poor sense of self tend to have less committed relationships and are more likely to suffer emotional isolation, loneliness, and depression.

**Psychosocial Stage 7 - Generativity vs. Stagnation**

During adulthood, we continue to build our lives, focusing on our career and family. Those who are successful during this phase will feel that they are contributing to the world by being active in their home and community. Those who fail to attain this skill will feel unproductive and uninvolved in the world.

**Psychosocial Stage 8 - Integrity vs. Despair**

This phase occurs during old age and is focused on reflecting back on life. Those who are unsuccessful during this phase will feel that their life has been wasted and will experience many regrets. The individual will be left with feelings of bitterness and despair. Those who feel proud of their accomplishments will feel a sense of integrity. Successfully completing this phase means looking back with few regrets and a general feeling of satisfaction. These individuals will attain wisdom, even when confronting death.

* 1. **Ego Autonomy, Individuation and Creativity**

We are all born without any Ego strength. For that matter, we are all born without an Ego. Being born without any sense of Ego means that at first there is no 'I,' there is only enmeshment. We come into this world still attached and enmeshed with our mother and without the ability to distinguish ourselves from her. We develop more and more of a sense of self as we face reality. Gradually, as we grow and interact with the world, we work through the stages of Ego development. This is the process by which we become an autonomous, inner-directed human being. We call this process***Individuation***.

According to Hartmann (1939), the Autonomous Ego is a conflict free zone, free from the war between the Superego and the Id, and it has its own autonomous system of drives, derived from the instinct for self preservation. A developed, Autonomous Ego is a conflict-free sphere of consciousness; there may be underlying conflicts outside this sphere that further development may resolve, but the consciousness within has a clear identity and is able to interact with the world independent of Id and Superego influences. It is free to reality test and to innovate creatively.

The history of Western civilization is, with the Ego's increasing capacity to reality test and therefore to reason and create, a story of progress from faith to reality testing. Man has gradually been discovering more about nature and how to control it. Through reality testing, for example, we no longer accept the idea that one becomes ill because of evil spirits. We have advanced to the point where we can often pinpoint the exact bacteria that are the cause of many diseases. Further, we know enough about science to prevent and cure many others.

Additionally, we have had an explosion in technology that exemplifies our ability to bend nature to our will, making what had previously been fantasies into reality. These are examples of man's direct control over our environment through scientific knowledge and our understanding of cause and effect, rather than illusory control through faith.

The Ego can only become truly Autonomous by overcoming the Superego. The Autonomous Ego, by and large, is free from the dictates of the Id and has outgrown the Superego. The Ego understands and integrates the energetic drives of the Id and sublimates them toward loving sexuality and creative activity. The Autonomous Ego creates his or her own moral code and relies on his or her own sense of right and wrong, based on rational and objective analysis. This is an [***Independent Mind***](http://www.trans4mind.com/mind-development/field-independence.html)***.***

Both Ego strength and independence from the Superego are essential for an individual to be truly creative, outside of the box of his upbringing and parental and peer standards. The Superego stands in the way of major creativity by suppressing any thought or feeling that is too unconventional or that may be subject to external criticism, so it routinely censors anything truly creative. Freedom from the Superego is a necessary prerequisite, but creativity outside the boundaries of the ordinary also requires sufficient intelligence applied to an appropriate, wide-ranging database.

Creativity research has traditionally regarded the creative process as involving a full or partial regression of the Ego to a more primitive state of consciousness. While some playful and creative activities may be characterized by voluntary and/or involuntary regressions, more meaningful creativity requires access to the unconscious imagination without a corresponding loss of Ego functions. Creativity requires a relatively intact Ego; when the Ego deteriorates, so does the creative product. Combined with Ego strength, unconscious processes such as imagination and intuition become consciously directed and work in collaboration with the integrative functions of the Ego, such as logical thought, which are related to directed creative effort and implementation.

Ego strength is the power, determination and ability to engage reality for whatever we find it to be - to accept what is as existing and to then use our cognitive-behavioral, emotional and relational skills to deal with such. Ego strength also refers to the inner personal strength by which we tolerate stress and frustration and to deal with reality without falling back to infantile defense mechanisms. A strong Ego can tolerate a difficult situation, can cope and then will look at it realistically and act on a solution. Ego strength, then, is our ability to play the Game of Life according to whatever curves life throws at us. The stronger our Ego grows, the more of a sense of self we develop and the greater our skills and resource to handle whatever comes.

* 1. **The Weak Ego and Impulsiveness**

Personality traits of a weak ego include authoritarianism, conformity, dogmatism, other directedness, other-determinism, field-dependence, not tolerating uncertainty, low self esteem, and an egocentric viewpoint. An egocentric person is self-centered, having little or no regard for interests, beliefs, or attitudes other than one's own.

In comparison, the traits of a strong ego include strength of character, inner-directedness, self-determinism, field-independence, high self-esteem, the acceptance of a plurality of ideas, and an idiocentric viewpoint. People who have an idiocentric value orientation tend to emphasize their own goals and needs over those of the groups to which they belong, and to be independent and self-reliant.

The weak ego doesn't easily face, take in, and cope with what is. Instead it fights reality, hates it, and wishes it otherwise. Expectations are unrealistic and based on inadequate understanding. Reality seems too big, too frightening, too overwhelming ... and so we avoid the encounter. We feel unresourceful, weak, fragile, unable to cope, etc. The weaker the ego-strength, the less we will engage reality and the more we will flee to superstition, wishing rather than acting, and to addictions.

* 1. **Integrity of a Character**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will explain about integrity of a character, and features of a character.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to:

* Recognize the integrity of a character.
* Identify the features of a character.

*What is integrity?*

The word **integrity** was derived from Latin adjective “***integer”*** which mean being complete or whole. When we have integrity, we do not feel dispersed or fragmented—we feel whole, confident, and secure. Let’s have a look on the essential features of a character:

**3.8.1 Characteristics of integrity**

* 1. *Integrity is a state of responsible presence or specifically being responsible in the moment.* Grounded by core values and an inner sense of what is right—the manifestations of emotional maturity—people of integrity take responsible action *spontaneously*. If it is not spontaneous, the action is not one of integrity but of practicality, influenced by what is deemed socially or politically preferable.
  2. *Integrity is wholeness, being centered and grounded in who we are, at one with ourselves and our environment*.It’s that wholeness that makes us feel whole and provides the willingness, ability, poise, presence and certainty to deal with the *entirety* of what is. Because of that unity it includes and embraces fear and thus can transform and utilize its energy. It is that all-inclusive wholeness that gives our lives depth, dimension, expanded choice, and greater richness.
  3. *Integrity is totally individual and personal*.Integrity is not something anyone can give you or take from you—*you* either have it or you do not. It has nothing to do with popularity or doing that which is deemed politically or socially correct. It’s something you have to discover within yourself.
  4. Integrity is a *conscious* choice or *our* conscious choice.Every situation we find ourselves in involves choice of some kind. Will we resist change? Will we withdraw from a confrontation? Even when confronted with difficult situations not of our own making, we can choose how to respond. We may try to convince the world and ourselves otherwise, but at some level we recognize the truth; only we are responsible for our words and actions. Integrity is a conscious choice. Lacking integrity is a conscious choice. It is our choice and depends on nothing and no one except us. True integrity is spontaneously choosing to act on our values and spontaneously taking responsibility for the consequences of those choices. Either we choose to grow and become more of who we are, or we choose to contract, becoming less and less of what we were meant to be.
  5. *Integrity is at the very heart of who we are.*We cannot create a sustainable reality that exceeds the fundamental image we have of ourselves. In other words, we make choices that naturally resonate with what we believe about ourselves. If we see ourselves as unimportant and incapable, it is impossible for us to make constructive, expansive decisions with any confidence. Alternately, if we have a healthy, positive sense of ourselves, our decisions, actions, and results naturally reflect this self-image. When we try to make decisions that are at odds with our actual self-image, the outcome will usually be short-lived, reflecting this dissonance. We will unconsciously create or allow circumstances that force our reality to align with our core self-image.
  6. *Integrity is the bedrock and the cement of our purpose, principles, and character***.** From this foundation we develop a sense of value and purpose, out of which comes a vision of what could be. In striving for this ideal vision, we become more of who we truly are. Focusing on vision helps us see possibilities, and enable us to plan with purpose and intention. Without the cement of integrity, we are left distracted, unclear about what to do, ineffective in action, and weighed down by negativity.

Our values, purpose, and vision shape our principles. Principles, in this sense, are our self-chosen boundaries of behavior; of what we will and will not do in maintaining our integrity and moving toward our vision. They provide the framework for our actions. Our character is the degree to which we adhere to our principles. When we are clear about our principles, we can *respond* rather than *react* to any situation, including a hostile or manipulative one. We can play the game without getting caught up in it. If we are not clear about our principles, we tend to *react* and feel controlled by external sources. We become an effect rather than a cause of the game. *Therefore, there is no substitute for integrity.* Without the wholeness of integrity as our bedrock, we have no substantive sense of purpose, no noble vision, no clear principles of behavior, and no character.

**3.8.2 Qualities that Distinguish People of Integrity**

Qualities that accompany integrity include presence, honesty, humility, and discernment to name a few. Let’s explore some of these qualities in greater detail.

1. *Men and women of integrity exude presence***;** they are able to be attentive and in the moment rather than distant and distracted. This quality is particularly telling as it indicates one’s ability to *make responsible choices spontaneously.* You cannot be spontaneous without being in the moment.
2. *People of integrity are honest, authentic, and trustworthy*.They are unafraid to look at themselves honestly, can recognize shortcomings in themselves, and are willing to change. They are open to learning new ideas and trying new ways of doing things. They are more able to see others as they truly are and are open to learning and growing. In contrast, people lacking integrity tend to be full of judgment and preconceived ideas, unwilling to be questioned. Where lack of humility creates tension and fear in others, true authenticity inspires confidence and trust. It is authenticity that is the basis of trust.
3. *People of integrity have humility, dignity, discernment, and wisdom*. ***Humility*** is the willingness to look at each moment afresh without the filters of fixed ideas or preconceived notions. Only with humility are we fully able to discern, differentiate, evaluate, and reach conclusions that are relatively clear of biases, prejudices, and fixed ideas. Only with humility are we able to truly expand our awareness and sensitivities. Only with humility can we grow. Humility is the opposite of “being judgmental.” Judgments, *in this sense*, are conclusions reached based on *previously* formed ideas devoid of any real discernment or evaluation of the current situation. They are reactive conclusions asserted *without* present-time observation.

***Dignity*** *is the true respect for others and ourselves. People of integrity consciously respect the dignity of others. They do so while at the same time not tolerating dysfunctional/hurtful behavior. Lack of respect for individual human dignity breeds indifference, intolerance, contempt, abuse, and injustice. People lacking integrity not only have a lack of respect for others but also for themselves. Manifestations of low self-worth and low self-esteem are signs that integrity is lacking.*

***Discernment*** *is the ability to distinguish, recognize, and prioritize clearly without prejudice or bias. Only with presence, humility, honesty, and respect for ourselves and others can discernment be optimized.*

***Wisdom*** *is the ability to see and act on the big picture without losing sight of the current picture; the ability to see and act beyond logic and reason without losing sight of logic and reason.*

1. *People of integrity are compassionate***.** Because of the above characteristics, people of integrity are sensitive to the needs, wants, and desires of others. Because they have the courage to face their own fears and suffering, they can recognize, understand, and be compassionate about the suffering of others while at the same time refrain from rewarding victimhood or creating dependencies.
2. *People of integrity also have dominion and enjoy life****.***  ***Dominion*** is the power and the ability to share that power with respect and honor. Its opposite is domination or “power over.” ***Enjoyment of Life*** is appreciating and enjoying what *is*. Seeing the humor in life. Appreciating its aesthetics and nuances. Being responsible without being serious— having fun. People of integrity have a passion for life.

**Summary**

Under this chapter, meaning, features and integrity of character is discussed in relation to personality. And key points of the chapter were summarized accordingly.

* Character refers to the sum of an individual’s qualities and characteristics which differentiate him/her from others. It is something which an individual is born with and seldom changes with time as against behavior. Whereas, personality is the image that one presents in front of others, thus some refers to personality as “plastic” or untrue. Therefore, character is something within you and is always there, for example, morals. On the other hand, one’s personality can and may change at some point in life.
* Different psychologists wrote on a moral character differently, Wynne and Walberg (1984) that defined moral character as “engaging in morally relevant conduct or words, or refraining from certain conduct or words”. Berkowitz in 2002 defined moral character as “an individual’s set of psychological characteristics that affect the person’s ability and inclination to function morally”.
* According to Huitt, moral character incorporates the underlying qualities of a person’s moral or ethical knowledge, reasoning, values, and commitments that are routinely displayed in behavior.
* Early experiences as you grow up contribute to your personality, or character, as an adult.
* Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experience and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others.
* According to Erik Erikson, if the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as *ego strength or ego quality*, unless the individual will develop weak ego.
* People with strong and autonomous ego become creative; hence they are free to test reality and to innovate creatively. In contrast, personality traits of a weak ego include authoritarianism, conformity, dogmatism, other directedness, other-determinism, field-dependence, not tolerating uncertainty, low self esteem, and an egocentric viewpoint.

**CHAPTER FOUR**

1. **SELF-CONCEPT**

**Introduction**

One characteristic that distinguishes humans from other animals is our capacity for ***reflexive thought***, the ability to reflect on the way in which we think. Reflexive thought allows us to think about who we are? And how we are perceived by others? Accordingly, we are constantly defining ourselves. Ask any person *who* they are, and they will provide an extensive list of characteristics and identities that represent how they perceive themselves. Therefore, the ***self*** is a fundamental part of every human, a symbolic construct which reflects our consciousness of our own identity. In this chapter, we outline the most important developments in theory and research on the self. We first consider how self-concept develops and how it affects how we feel and behave. Secondly, we will deal with the most salient characteristics of self concept, thirdly, contents of self image, and techniques used in studying self image and finally factors that affect self–concept will be addressed.

**General Objectives:**

|  |
| --- |
| After completion of this chapter, you should be able to:   * Be familiar with the notion of self-concept. * Recognize major salient features of self-concept. * Distinguish the contents and techniques measuring of self-concept. * Identify factors affecting self-concept. |

* 1. **The Meaning and Characteristics of Self-Concept**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will deal about the meaning, characteristics and elements of self-concept.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to answer:

* What is self concept?
* What are the major features of self concept?
* What are the main elements of self concept?

*The term self-concept is a general term used to refer to how people thinks about or perceives themselves.* It is the accumulation of knowledge about the self. Self-concept is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of "self" in relation to any number of characteristics, such as academics, gender roles and sexuality, racial identity, and many others. Beginning in infancy, children acquire and organize information about themselves as a way to enable them to understand the relation between the self and their social world. The self-concept is composed of relatively permanent self-assessments such as beliefs regarding personality traits, physical characteristics, abilities, values, goals, and roles.

The self-concept is not restricted to the present. It includes past selves and future selves. Future selves or "possible selves" represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. It is a relatively enduring set of attitudes and beliefs about both the physical self and the psychological self. And it is the totality of ideas that a person holds about the self. Self-concept is not a static state but one that develops and changes over time with life experiences and relationships that influence beliefs about the self. It includes the person’s self-knowledge, self expectations and self evaluation. Self concept guides our actions, motivations, expectations and goals for future.

Self-concepts provide another way of understanding personality. The rough outlines of your self-concept could be revealed by this request: “Please tell us about yourself.” In other words, your *self-concept* consists of all your ideas, perceptions, stories, and feelings about who you are. It is the mental “picture” you have of your own personality (Swann & Larsen McCarty, 2007).

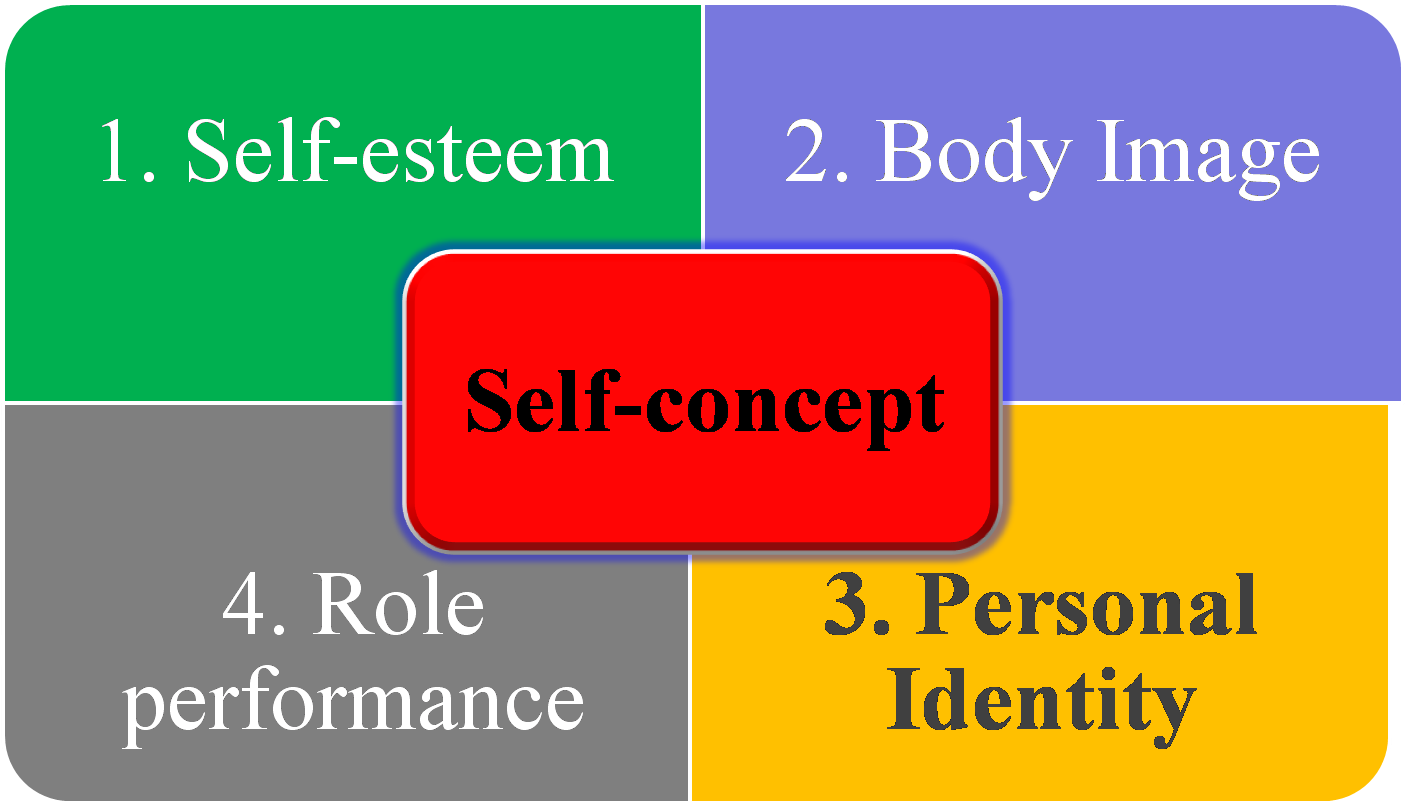
We creatively build our self-concepts out of daily experiences. Then we slowly revise them as we have new experiences. Once a stable self-concept exists, it tends to guide what we pay attention to, remember, and think about. Because of this, self-concepts can greatly affect our behavior and personal adjustment — especially when they are inaccurate (Ryckman, 2008). For instance, Elsa is a student who thinks she is stupid, worthless, and a failure, despite getting good grades. With such an inaccurate self-concept, she tends to be depressed regardless of how well she does.

There are three basic components of self-concept, which are the ideal self, the public self, and the real self. The *ideal self* is the person would like to be, such as a good, moral, and well-respected person. Sometimes, this ideal view of how a person would like to be conflicts with the *real self*(how the person really thinks about oneself, such as “I try to be good and do what’s right, but I’m not well respected”). This conflict can motivate a client to make changes toward becoming the ideal self. However, the view of the ideal self needs to be realistic and obtainable or the client may experience anxiety or be at risk for alterations in self-concept. *Public self*is what the client thinks others think of him and influences the ideal and real self. Positive self-concept and good mental health results when all three components are compatible.

A positive self-concept is an important part of an individual’s happiness and success. People with a positive self-concept have high self-confidence, accept criticism, willing to take risks and try new experiences, set attainable goals and they can achieve it. Achieving their goals reinforces their positive self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept is more likely to change unhealthy habits (such as sedentary lifestyle and smoking) to promote health than a person with a negative self-concept. A person’s self-concept is composed of evolving subjective conscious and unconscious self-assessments. Physical attributes, occupation, knowledge, and abilities of the person will change throughout the life span, contributing to changes in one’s self-concept.

* 1. **Contents of Self-Concept**

Self-concept is a global understanding of oneself, it shapes and defines who we are, the decisions we make, and the relationships we form. It is unique, dynamic, and always developing. This mental image of oneself influences a person’s identity, self-esteem, body image, and role in society. These are the main contents of self-concept.



**Fig 4.1, Contents of self-concept**

* + 1. **Self-esteem**

The term “Self-esteem” means to regard favorably, with admiration or respect. It can be defined as the degree to which one has a positive evaluation of one’s self, based on one’s perceptions of how one is viewed by others as well as one’s views about self. *Self esteem refers to the extent to which we like, accept or approve ourselves or how much we value ourselves*. Self esteem always involves a degree of evaluation and we may have either a positive or a negative view of ourselves. Itis a personal opinion of oneself and is shaped by individuals’ relationships with others, experiences, and accomplishments in life. A healthy self-esteem is necessary for mental well-being and a positive self-concept. This is achieved by setting attainable goals and successfully accomplishing the goals, resulting in an increase in self-confidence, assertiveness, and feeling valued. Since self-esteem impacts all aspects of life, it is important to establish a healthy, realistic view of oneself (Mayo Clinic, 2009).

Note that in addition to having a faulty self-concept; Elsa has low *self-esteem*(a negative self-evaluation) in the above example. A person with high self-esteem is confident, proud, and self-respecting. One who has low self-esteem is insecure, lacking in confidence, and self-critical. Like Elsa, people with low self-esteem are usually anxious and unhappy. Self-esteem tends to rise when we experience success or praise. A person who is competent and effective and who is loved, admired, and respected by others will almost always have high self-esteem (Baumeister et al., 2003). (The reasons for having high self-esteem can vary in different cultures). People who have low self-esteem typically also suffer from poor self-knowledge. Like Elsa, their self-concepts are inconsistent, inaccurate, and confused.

Individuals with low self-esteem put little value on themselves and their accomplishments. They feel that they are not good enough and that they are worth less than others and often feel ashamed of themselves. They engage in negative self-talk, frequently apologize, and seek constant reassurance. Often this type of person is a perfectionist who struggles with failure. One method of improving an individual’s low self-esteem is for the counselor to empower the client. Burkhardt and Nathaniel (2008) define *empowerment*as “a helping process and partnership, enacted in the context of love and respect for self and others, through which individuals and groups are enabled to change situations, and are given skills, resources, opportunities, and authority to do so”. Chamberlin (2008) recognized that empowerment has elements in common with concepts of self-esteem and self-efficacy. As a client becomes more empowered, one will feel more confident in one’s ability to manage one’s life, resulting in improved self-esteem and self-image

Coppersmith in 1981 identified four important components in the development of positive self-esteem. They are:

* 1. ***Acceptance/Worthiness:*** It is the amount of concern and care that a person receives from significant others. It relates to the perception, attention and affection of others.
  2. ***Power/Control:*** It is the ability to influence and control others. This makes child’s first appearance in toddlerhood and continues to develop in school-age. Toddler learns the concept of power/control by exploring their environment and manipulating objects within the environment.
  3. **Moral Worth/Virtue:** It is the adherence to moral and ethical standards. The values and morals of significant others are internalized by the preschool-age and the school-age child. In early childhood the child adopts behaviors through identification with the same-sex parent and a desire to please that parent. As they are learning to adopt the behaviors of their same-sex parent, they learn both good and bad moral.
  4. **Competence/Mastery:** It refers to successful performance or achievement. It is marked by high levels of performance, with the level and the tasks varying depending on developmental stage. When abilities are sufficient to complete a task, competence/mastery is present. The development of initiative and industry leads to feeling of competence.
     1. **Body image**

When you look in the mirror, what do you see? Your perception of how your body looks forms your body image. *Body image refers to the ways in which we perceive and experience our bodies visually, mentally, emotionally, and physically.* Body image is, therefore, formed by how we see ourselves, how we think and feel about our bodies, and how we experience our bodies’ movements and sensations. Regardless of how closely your actual figure resembles your perception; your body image can affect your self-esteem, eating and exercise behaviors, and your relationships with others. A healthy body image leads to body acceptance, which is feeling comfortable, confident and proud of your body. Developing and nurturing a healthy body image is crucial to happiness and wellness.

*An individual’s perception of physical self, including appearance, function, and ability, is known as one’s body image.* Normal growth and developmental changes may influence and alter body image, such as the physical and hormonal changes that occur during puberty and adolescence. The onset of puberty involves the emergence of secondary sex characteristics in the female and male client. While these are normal expected physical changes that occur during the adolescent stage, these changes will impact an adolescent’s body image, thus affecting self-concept.

In later adulthood, physical and hormonal changes present as thinning and graying of hair, wrinkling and loss of skin elasticity, weight gain, decrease in hearing and vision, and decrease in mobility. While some adults accept these changes as the normal process of aging, others may find themselves resisting or feeling negatively about them. These changes will naturally cause the adult to reevaluate the image they have of their body and how they feel about it. A person’s body image will continue to change throughout the growth and developmental life span stages.

Health-related factors that may affect body image include stroke, spinal cord injury, amputation, mastectomy, burns, surgical and/or procedural scarring, and loss of a body part or function. Other common physical changes that affect body image involve the development of acne and weight gain and/or loss. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2007), approximately 66% of American adults are overweight or obese. These physical issues may add stress and anxiety on the client, lowering their self-esteem and self-confidence.

* + 1. **Personal identity**

*Personal identity**is an individual’s conscious description of who he/she is.* A client’s identity is assessed by asking the person to describe oneself. This description of oneself provides the psychologist with insight into whether the client is comfortable with one’s identity. An individual who uses positive self-descriptions will exhibit a healthy self-identity. An individual’s identity is developed over time, constantly evolving, and influenced by self-awareness. *Self-awareness involves consciously knowing how the self thinks, feels, believes, and behaves at any specific time.* It is the overall understanding a person has about his /her identities (physical, emotional, cognitive images, strengths and weaknesses, etc.).

Self-awareness is the first step in creating what you want and mastering yourself. People with good self awareness are acutely aware of the impact their interconnectedness has on others and the systems around them. They can change their behavior according to a particular person or situation. Others that have not developed a good sense of self-awareness can easily transfer their likes, dislikes and preferences onto others.

**The Johari’s Window Model of self-awareness:** The Window's four regions include:

1. What is known by the person about him/herself and is also known by others - open area, *open self*, free area, free self
2. What is unknown by the person about him/herself but which others know - blind area, *blind self*, or 'blind spot'
3. What the person knows about him/herself that others do not know - hidden area, *hidden self,* avoided area, avoided self or 'facade'
4. What is unknown by the person about him/herself and is also unknown by others - unknown area or *unknown self.*



**Fig 4.2** Johari’s Window Model of self-awareness

According to Burkhardt and Nathaniel (2008), we can enhance self-awareness by developing the ability to step back and look at any situation while being aware of ourselves and how we are reacting to the situation. A client needs to be able to identify one’s personal and emotional feelings of a situation without judging oneself.

Personal identity is the organizing principle of the personality that accounts for the unity, continuity, consistency and uniqueness of a person (Carpenito, 2005). The compositions of personal identity are emotional images, cognitive images and perceptual images. Emotional images are those feelings about oneself that one experience as being consistent with the self and that feel familiar and normal. Cognitive images involve intelligence, past experiences, educational experiences and the process of thinking. Perceptual images are derived from the external sensory data and are translated into mental pictures of reality.

* + 1. **Role Performance**

*It refers to a person’s fulfillment of the roles and current responsibilities in that person’s life, and it includes the actions, thoughts, and feelings*. A role is a homogenous set of behaviors, attitudes, beliefs, principles and values that are normally defined and expected in a given social position in a group. Role is defined in terms of relationship to others & prescribed by age, sex or position in the family and society. The ability to fulfill prescribed role behaviors can affect the self-concept.

We experience many roles in our lifetime. As we pass from birth to death, we will become a child, teenager, friend, worker, and perhaps spouse or parent. Many of our roles are defined by our success, education, relationships, and career. An individual’s roleis defined as an ascribed or assumed expected behavior in a social position or group. Specific behaviors that a person exhibits within each role make up role performance. Illness, injury, and aging can lead to alterations in a person’s role. Additional alterations may include pregnancy, loss of a job, retirement, or death of a significant other. How the individual views these changes or losses will determine the impact on one’s self-concept. Individuals who view these alterations negatively are at risk for ineffective role performance and a decreased self-concept.

* 1. **Factors Affecting Self-Concept**
* **Overview:**

In this part we will discuss about the factors affecting self-concept, and techniques used to measure self-concept.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this part, you will be able to answer:

* What are the factors that affect once self concept?
* What are the techniques used to rate self concept?

Self-concept can be affected by an individual’s life experiences, heredity and culture, stress and coping, health status, and developmental stage. We need to evaluate each of these factors and the influence each has on the client’s achievement of a healthy self-concept.

1. **Life Experiences**

Life experiences, including success and failure, will develop and influence a person’s self-concept. Experiences in which the individual has accomplished a goal and achieved success will positively reinforce the development of a healthy self-concept. Difficult experiences and/or failures can negatively impact a person’s self-concept unless they have established coping strategies to deal effectively with these challenges to their self-concept. Coping strategies are learned as a person encounters and deals with various situations in life.

1. **Heredity and Culture**

Individuals typically grow up learning and integrating their family’s heredity and culture into their life. Beginning at birth, heredity and culture shape and influence a person’s self-concept. Individuals who have integrated their heredity and culture into their life tend to have a healthier self-identity and self-concept.

1. **Stress and Coping**

Everyone experiences stress at some level each day. Common stressors include financial, work-related, relationship, and health issues. Individuals react and deal with stress in different ways depending on their past experiences and success and failure with dealing with stress. Individuals who learn and use effective coping strategies to deal with stress will most likely develop a positive self-concept. People who become overwhelmed with stress may feel hopeless and powerless, leading to a feeling of low self-confidence and self-esteem. The counselor may need to teach the client effective coping strategies and techniques for handling stress.

1. **Health Status**

People tend to take their good health for granted. When they become ill, their altered health status can change their self-identity and self-concept. Alterations in body image can result from such health issues as amputation, cancer, mastectomy, trauma, or scarring. The counselor needs to monitor for changes in the client’s self-concept due to alterations in their health status.

1. **Developmental stage**

Growth and development begins at birth and continuesinto adulthood. Typically a person will achieve specificdevelopmental tasks as one passes through each stage of life.The successful accomplishment of each task will influenceand reinforce the development of a healthy self-concept. Individualswho experience developmental delays or situations inlife that prevent or delay the accomplishment of developmentaltasks can have an altered or negative self-concept.

* 1. **Techniques used to Measure Self- Concept**

Self-concept is inherently phenomenological, that is, it refers to the person's own view of himself or herself. In fact, one leading scholar in the field (Wylie, 1974) has argued that comparisons to external events are not particularly relevant in the assessment of self-concept. Accordingly, self-concept is almost always assessed through self-report. Four commonly used self-report methods are described below (Burns, 1979).

**"Rating scales"** are the most frequently used type of instrument. Most of the currently published instruments are of this type. Rating scales typically are composed of a set of statements to which the respondent expresses a degree of agreement or disagreement. Five- and seven-point Likert scales are common. Typical items might be "I am good at math" or "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself." Responses are then summed to form a score for a specific scale (e.g., math self-concept) or a measure of global self-concept.

**"Checklists"** involve having respondents check all of the adjectives that they believe apply to themselves. Because the adjectives have been assigned to a category, such as "self-favorability," based on either rational or empirical criteria, the person's choices can be tabulated to form a self-concept measure. Checklists provide interesting qualitative information, but have two shortcomings. First, responses are dichotomous (yes/no); there is no way for the respondent to indicate degree of agreement. Second, the categorization of the adjectives is done by an external party, without knowing what exact meaning the adjective has for the individual.

**"Q-sorts"** have been used extensively in self-concept research but are seldom used by practicing counselors because they are time-consuming and require considerable commitment from the client. In brief, the Q-sort technique involves having the person sort cards that contain self-descriptors (e.g., "I am strong") into a pre-defined number of piles ranging from "most like me" to "least like me." Typically, 100 or more cards would be used and each pile can contain only a pre-determined number of cards. Both quantitative and qualitative methods can be used to evaluate the results of the sorting task.

In **"free-response"** methods respondents typically complete partial statements (e.g., I feel best when...). Although some sets of these sentence-completion tasks have been published formally, complete with quantitative scoring schemes, responses more frequently are evaluated qualitatively. Free-response methods are seldom used in self-concept research but have favor with many counselors because the open-ended, qualitative nature of the task lends itself to facilitating discussion with the client. The rather low reliability of such methods, however, argues against interpreting the results as a "measure" of self-concept.

Most of the self-concept measures compare the person's response against some set of norms “norm referenced approach”, but, one researcher (Brahm, 1981) successfully used a "criterion-referenced approach" in which the child's self-efficacy beliefs were assessed repeatedly in reference to an external criterion of accuracy. Brahm argues that this assessment approach integrates self-concept with mastery learning more effectively than does the traditional norm-referenced self-concept scale. Although this is a promising idea, it remains undeveloped.

* + 1. **Considerations in the Assessment of Self-Concept**

Counselors or others who wish to assess self-concept must keep several considerations in mind, including demand characteristics of self-report measure, technical adequacy of the assessment procedure, and whether the assessment is being used for research or clinical purposes. Self-report measures make several requirements of the respondent (Burns, 1979). First, the person must have a sufficient level of self-awareness. Young children may lack confidence but may not be consciously aware of their own perceptions. Second, self-report measures also require substantial verbal competence, a skill that cannot be assumed. Third, even children are aware that some responses are more socially acceptable than others. The accuracy of self-reports is often decreased by this "social desirability" response tendency.

Technical quality of self-concept instruments demands serious consideration. Reliability and validity coefficients for personality tests are frequently considerably lower than for performance measures, such as those for cognitive ability. For some of the older self-concept measures internal consistency reliabilities, especially for subscales, are only in the .70 range. Some newer instruments, however, attain internal consistency coefficients in the .90's. To help in choosing a test, prospective test users should consult technical manuals and test reviews carefully before making a final choice.

Finally, most empirically scored self-concept measures were developed more for research than for clinical use. Normative samples are seldom anywhere near as useful as for tests of achievement or ability. Information relating test scores to problem behavior is virtually absent. Counselors should use scores from self-concept measures very cautiously when working with individual clients.

**Summary**

The chapter treats notion of self-concept, a positive self-concept is important in achieving happiness, success, and a healthy self-identity. Self-concept is a general term used to refer to how people thinks about or perceives themselves. It is the accumulation of knowledge about the self. Key points of the chapter were summarized as follows:

* Self-concept is the mental image we have about ourselves. This mental image of oneself influences a person’s identity, self-esteem, body image, and role in society. These are the main contents of self-concept.
* Self esteem refers to the extent to which we like, accept or approve ourselves or how much we value ourselves.
* An individual’s perception of physical self, including appearance, function, and ability, is known as one’s body image.
* Personal identityis an individual’s conscious description of who he is. Self-awareness is an important ingredient for identify one self. Self-awareness is the overall understanding a person has about his /her identities (physical, emotional, cognitive images, strengths and weaknesses, etc.).
* Role Performance refers to a person’s fulfillment of the roles and current responsibilities in that person’s life, and it includes the actions, thoughts, and feelings.
* People with a positive self-concept have high self-confidence, accept criticism, willing to take risks and try new experiences, set attainable goals and they can achieve it. And the opposite is true for people who negative self-concept.
* A variety of factors affecting self-concept include life experiences, heredity and culture, values and beliefs, stress and coping, health status, and developmental stage.
* Self-concept is almost always assessed through self-report. According to Burns, (1979) there are four commonly used self-report methods; these are:
* **“*Rating scales”*** typically are composed of a set of statements to which the respondent expresses a degree of agreement or disagreement.
* **"*Checklists*"** involve having respondents check all of the adjectives that they believe apply to themselves.
* *“****Q-sort technique”*** involves having the person sort cards that contain self-descriptors (e.g., "I am strong") into a pre-defined number of piles ranging from "most like me" to "least like me."
* In ***"free-response"*** methods respondents typically complete partial statements (e.g., I feel best when...).
* Self-concept assessors must keep several considerations in mind, including demand characteristics of self-report measure, technical adequacy of the assessment procedure, and whether the assessment is being used for research or clinical purposes.

**CHAPTER FIVE**

1. **FACTORS AFFECTING PERSONALITY**

**Introduction**

There are a number of factors that might positively or negative put their impact on individual’s personality development. In this section, we review some of the factors stressed by various personality theorists in their attempts to explain personality. The major factors affecting personality are biological, socio-cultural and situational; these issues will be dealt in detail in this chapter.

**General Objectives:**

|  |
| --- |
| After completion of this chapter, you should be able to:   * Identify the major factors affecting personality. * Discern their roles of those factors in personality development. |

* **Overview:**

In this section we will concentrate on factors affecting personality, and their roles in personality development.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to answer:

* What are factors affecting personality?
* What are their roles in personality development?
  1. **Biological Factors**

**Heredity:** refers to physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent. It plays an important part in determining an individual's personality. Heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structures of the genes, which are located in the chromosomes. Recent research studies shows that young children lend strong support to the power of heredity and finding shows that some personality traits may be built into the same genetic code that affects factors like height and hair color.

**Nervous System:** It is the second biological factor to determine personality. Nervous system plays a vital role in the development of personality. Man’s intellectual ability, motor ability, physical strength and ability to adjust upon the structure and modification of nervous system. Any injury to nervous system will affect the personality of the individual. Nervous system limits one’s learning capacity. So it is evident that the development of personality is influenced by the nature of nervous system.

Brain is part of the nervous system that plays an important role in determining personality. Electrical Stimulation of the Brain (ESB) and Split brain psychology results indicates that a better understanding of human personality and behavior might come from a closer study of the brain. The definite areas of the human brain are associated with pain and pleasure. Research study shows that these things are true.

**Biofeedback:** It is third biological approach to determine personality. Physiologists and psychologists felt that biological functions like brainwave patterns, gastric and hormonal secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control. Recent research shows that these functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback techniques. For this purpose, individual can learns the internal rhythms of a particular body process through electronic signals that are feedback from equipment which is wired to body. In this process, the person can learn to control the body process through questions. It is one of the interesting topics to do future research work in personality.

**Physical Features** is fourth biological factor to determine personality. It is vital ingredient of the personality, it focus an individual person's external appearance which also determined the personality. Physical features like tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white. These physical features will be influenced the personal effect on others and also affect self concept of individual. Recent research studies shows that definitely this features influence to individual personality in an organization. In totally, heredity would be fixed at birth and no amount of experience can be altering them through creation of suitable environment. Apart from this, personality characteristics are not completely dictated by heredity. There are other factors also influenced to determining personality.

**Chemical organization** is the fifth important biological factor that affects personality. Endocrine glands play an important role in the development of personality of individual. Their malfunctioning leads to various physical and mental defects.

1. **Adrenal glands**: The malfunctioning of adrenal glands causes *Addison’s disease* which causes the impairing of judgment, loss of sleep, sex, interest and weakness.  The over activity of this gland makes the individual energetic, persistent and vigorous. If this gland is under active the individual becomes indecisive, irritable and neurasthenic.
2. **Thyroid glands**: The over activity of thyroid glands makes the individual restless, irritable, worried and unstable. The under activity of this gland causes a disease known as *cretinism*. It makes the individual dull, sluggish, and lethargic.
3. **Pituitary glands**: Pituitary glands which are sometimes called master glands have their effect on personality and intelligences. They help in the growth of the body. Their under activity causes ‘Dwarfness’ and over activity causes ‘Giantness; in size; physical and mental activities are impeded.
4. **Sex glands or gonads**: They exert great influence on the sex life of the individual. If they are over active they will make the individual over sexed. On the other hand if they are under active the sex urge becomes weak.
   1. **Socio-Cultural and Economic Factors**

"Each culture expects, and trains, its members to behave in ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned". -Paul H Mussen

Cultural factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality. It refers to traditional practice, customs, procedure, norms and rules and regulation followed by the society. It significantly influence to individual behavior compared to biological factors.

Cultural factors determine attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition, cooperation, positive thinking, team spirit, and a host of the human being and discharge his/her duties towards valuable responsibilities to society. For instance, Western culture influenced Indian society. It is best example of the cultural factors also determine the personality.

To a large extent, one’s culture determines what are considered proper practices in courtship, marriage, childrearing, politics, religion, education, and justice. These, and other cultural variables, explain many important individual differences among humans, that is, differences among people of different cultures. More specifically, some theorists say that one’s personality can be viewed as a combination of the many roles one plays. If you were asked to start a blank sheet of paper with the words “I am” and then to list all of your qualities, you would have a rather extensive list. For example, you may be female, 19 years old, a college student, a Lutheran, 5 feet 8 inches tall, attractive, a Cancer, a psychology major, and so on. Each entry on your list has a prescribed role associated with it, and for each role, society has defined what is called an acceptable range of behavior (norms). If you deviate from that range, you will confront social pressure of some type. Indeed, what is considered normal behavior and what is considered abnormal is, to a large extent, determined by how you behave relative to societal expectations.

Other socio-cultural determinants of personality include the socioeconomic level of one’s family, one’s family size, birth order, ethnic identification, religion, the region of the country in which one was raised, the educational level attained by one’s parents, and the like. One simply does not have the same experiences in a financially secure home as one would have in an impoverished home. These fortuitous circumstances into which a person is born (e.g., culture, society, and family) certainly have a major impact on personality. Again, this point is one that all personality theorists accept; it is just a matter of how much each one emphasizes it. The theories of Adler, Horney, and Erikson stress the importance of socio-cultural determinants of personality.

Personality is said to be the image or mirror of culture. Both material and non- material culture play important role in shaping the personality of the individual.

* Material culture brings about the development of various material needs and goods.
* Non- material culture brings about the development of various social traditions and culture. Studies have been conducted by *Mead, Ruth Benedict, Malinowski, Baldwin, Cooley* and many others. *Mead* found that in the *“Samoa”* culture, girls are free from the stress and strain of modern society because early sexual relations are allowed. Similarly *Malinowski* has reported that adolescent period among *Trobrianders* also does not involve stress and strain because of the absence of sex taboos. In *‘Mundudumor’* culture persons are violent and aggressive, while in *‘Arapesh’*, they are responsive and mild. In *‘Tchambuli’* women are aggressive and sexually dominant, while men are submissive.

In other words *Ogburn and Nimkoof* concluded that“Biological heredity ushers infant actors on the stage of which the physical environment, the group and culture have set. The dramatic actor now begins and new born baby transforms into social person.” They further said, “Birth is the signal of experience to begin its work of converting the biological individual into social person.”

* 1. **Situational Factors**

Situational factors of personality also have a complete share in the formation of personality of an individual. Situational factors of personality are charging according to the social situations. Every person may face different situations in life, which demands change in his/her behavior. For example, a teacher may be rigid and strict with students but may not with his/her family. An officer may behave with the subordinates differently as compared to his/her friends. Personality is not the result of only one factor but every factor is responsible to give complete share in its formation. A person behave and his/her personality exists when interacts with the environment, culture, society, friends, and to those who come in contact by chance.

**Summary**

This unit has analyzed the major factors affecting personality, their roles in shaping an individual’s personality. The main points of the unit were summarized as follows.

* Biological factors like heredity, nervous system, chemical organization, biofeedback, and physical structures are the major factors that determine personality.
* Heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structures of the genes, which are located in the chromosomes.
* Man’s intellectual ability, motor ability, physical strength and ability to adjust upon the structure and modification of nervous system.
* Biological functions like brainwave patterns, gastric and hormonal secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature shown in biofeedback were beyond conscious control but, they all affect personality.
* Physical features will affect self concept of individual which in turn will affect personality of an individual.
* Endocrine glands play an important role in the development of personality of individual. Their malfunctioning leads to various physical and mental defects.
* Cultural factors are also major factors which influence to determine individual personality.

To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned.

* socio-cultural and economic determinants of personality include the socioeconomic level of one’s family, one’s family size, birth order, ethnic identification, religion, the region of the country in which one was raised, the educational level attained by one’s parents, and the likes will affect once personality.
* Situational factors are very important to change the individual behavior in a different circumstance at different situations, it also influence to personality of individual person.

**CHAPTER SIX**

**6. THEORIES OF PERSONALITY**

**Introduction**

It would not be easy to get understanding of personality without a theoretical framework. For instance, how do our thoughts, actions, and feelings relate to one another? How does personality develop? Why do some people suffer from psychological problems? How can they be helped? To answer such questions, psychologists have created a dazzling array of theories. In this chapter we will discuss the four major theoretical perspectives in relation to personality.

**General Objectives:**

|  |
| --- |
| After completion of this chapter, you should be able to:   * Realize the meaning of theory. * Distinguish the major perspectives of personality. * Identify the differences between personality theories. |

* 1. **What is theory?**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will describe about the meaning of theory, the purpose of theories and criterion used to evaluate theories of personality.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to answer:

* Define the meaning of theory.
* Identify the purpose of theories of personality.
* Distinguish criterion used to evaluate the theories of personality.

*Theory refers to set of unconfirmed hypothesis or speculation concerning reality that is not definitely known but when a theory has confirmatory data or evidence it is a fact*.Different systems of consistent constellations of concepts about personality make *theories of personality.* Each theory of personality is concerned about human nature and the goal of each theory is the understanding of the diversity and complexity of the whole person functioning in the real world.

1. A theory is useful when it can efficiently generate predictions and propositions.
2. A theory should contain two parts a cluster of relevant assumptions systematically related to each other and a set of empirical definitions.
   1. **What purpose do theories of personality serve?**

Theories of personality represent elaborate speculation or hypotheses about why people behave as they do and they serve the following functions:

1. *A personality theory is descriptive***.** In other words, a theory provides a meaningful framework (i.e. a kind of map) for simplifying and integrating all that is known about a related set of events. For example, without the benefit of theory, it would be very difficult to explain why 5-year-old boy has a romantic attraction to his mother along with undue resentment toward his father. Armed with a theory that posits the universality of these emotions at a certain stage of personality development (along with a rationale of their emergence), but at least we would be consistent in making sense of these feelings in children. A good personality theory, then, provides a meaningful context within which human behavior can be consistently described and interpreted.
2. *The second function of a personality theory is therefore to provide a basis for the prediction of events and outcomes that have not yet occurred.*
3. *Personality theories provide a means in which concepts must be testable**and capable of being confirmed or disconfirmed.* For example, what does it means to be a human being? Ideally, the concepts of a theory should be formulated to permit rigorous and precise empirical testing. A good personality theory directly stimulates psychological research. Conversely, the scientific value of theories that are untestable is still unknown.
4. Personality theorists are people, and, like the rest of us, they hold divergent views about human nature. Some theorists, for example, believe that human actions have their roots in unconscious motives whose true nature is outside the individual’s awareness and whose sources lie deeply buried in the distant past. Others believe that people are reasonably aware of their real motives and that their behavior is primarily a result of present conditions. Therefore, *the foundations of a personality theory are rooted in the basic assumptions of the theorist; a theory’s implications about human nature, i.e., about what humans are? or what it means to be a human being?*
   1. **How can we evaluate Theories of Personality?**

Given the sheer number of (many) alternative personality theories, how do we evaluate the relative merits of each? The most puzzling question that comes to your mind is what criteria can be used to evaluate a theory? We believe that six major criteria can be employed to evaluate personality theories and each personality theory should satisfy each of these criteria to some extent in order to receive a positive and satisfactory evaluation. We can compare and contrast the theories of personality in terms of the following criteria.

1. *Verifiability:*A theory is positively evaluated to the degree that its concepts lend themselves to verification by independent investigators. This means that a theory must be stated in such a way that its concepts are clearly, explicitly defined and logically related to one another so that the theory can be empirically tested. This requirement has been exceedingly difficult for personologists to demonstrate even a moderate amount of empirical validation for their theoretical positions. A good theory should be empirically testable, leading to modification of the theory if necessary.
2. *Heuristic Value:*The degree to which a theory directly stimulates a research. A theory by translating its core concepts into a form of operationalization can allow for relevant research activity. Personality theories differ immensely in their capacity to fulfill this goal. Some of the most provocative theoretical formulations of personality (e.g., Maslow’s self-actualizing theory) are practically devoid of empirical support. This state of affairs usually results from the theorist’s failure to define his or her concepts operationally i.e., in manner whereby they can readily be subjected to empirical test.
3. *Internal Consistency:*This criterion stipulates that a theory should not contradict itself that is a good theory is internally consistent way. On the whole, theories of personality reasonably satisfy this standard.
4. *Parsimony (simple):*A theory may also be judged on the basis of the number of concepts it requires to explain events within its domain. The law of parsimony states that the preferred explanation is the one which demands the fewest number of concepts, i.e., is most economical.
5. *Comprehensiveness:*This criterion refers to the range and diversity of phenomena encompassed by a theory. The more comprehensive a personality theory is the more behavioral ground it covers. The theorist should include behavioral events such as biological, emotional, cognitive, social, and cultural in human behavior. At the same time, it must be recognized that no present theory can account for all human functioning.
6. *Functional Significance***:** Finally, a theory may be evaluated on the basis of how useful it is in helping people to understand everyday human behavior. All of us are interested in knowing more about ourselves and other people. Indeed, knowledge of the personal and social insights provided by personality theorists can greatly help one’s understanding and appreciation of human nature.
   1. **Theories of Personality**

* **Overview:**

In this section we will concentrate on major theories of personality, and their difference in explaining the nature and development of personality.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to answer:

* What is the major theories personality?
* What is their difference in explaining the nature and development personality?

A personality theoryis a system of concepts, assumptions, ideas, and principles proposed to explain personality. In this chapter, we can only explore a few of the many personality theories. These are the four major perspectives we will consider:

* + 1. *Psychodynamic theories*focus on the inner workings of personality, especially internal conflicts and struggles.
    2. *Trait and type theories*attempt to learn what traits make up personality and how they relate to actual behavior.
    3. *Behavioral and social learning theories*place importance on the external environment and on the effects of conditioning and learning. Social learning theories attribute differences in personality to socialization, expectations, and mental processes.
    4. *Humanistic theories*stress on private, subjective experience, and personal growth.
    5. **Psychodynamic Theories of Personality**

*How do psychodynamic theories explain personality?*

Psychodynamic theorists are not content with studying traits. Instead, they try to probe under the surface of personality to learn what drives, conflicts, and energies animate us. Psychodynamic theorists believe that many of our actions are based on hidden, or unconscious, thoughts, needs, and emotions. Psychodynamic theories explain human behavior in terms of the interaction of various components of personality. Sigmund Freud was the founder of this school. Freud drew on the physics of his day (thermodynamics) to coin the term psychodynamics. Based on the idea of converting heat into mechanical energy, he proposed that psychic energy could be converted into behavior. Freud’s theory places central importance on dynamic, unconscious psychological conflicts.

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Figure 5.1 Sigmund Freud

**Sigmund Freud** (1856–1939) the son of a Jewish wool merchant, Freud spent most of his life in Vienna. He studied medicine and specialized in neurology. After becoming disillusioned with physical treatments for mental illness, he became interested in the notion of a ‘talking cure’. Freud went on to become the founder of psychoanalysis. He died of lung cancer in England in 1939.

**Psychoanalytic theory**,the best-known psychodynamic approach, grew out of the work of Sigmund Freud, a Viennese physician. As a doctor, Freud was fascinated by patients whose problems seemed to be more emotional than physical. From about 1890 until he died in 1939, Freud evolved a theory of personality that deeply influenced modern thought (Jacobs, 2003; Schultz & Schultz, 2005). Let’s consider some of its main features.

**The Structures of Personality**

*How did Freud view personality?* Freud’s model portrays personality as a dynamic system directed by three mental structures, *the id, the ego, and the superego***.** Let’s discuss each of them:

***The Id*:** is made up of innate biological instincts and urges. It is self-serving, irrational, impulsive, and totally unconscious. *The id operates on the pleasure principle.*That is, it seeks to freely express pleasure-seeking urges of all kinds. If we were solely under control of the id, the world would be chaotic beyond belief. The id acts as a well of energy for the entire *psyche*, or *personality*. *This energy, called libido, flows from the life instincts (or Eros).* According to Freud, libido underlies our efforts to survive, as well as our sexual desires and pleasure seeking. Freud also described a *death instinct, Thanatos,* as he called it, produces aggressive and destructive urges. Freud offered humanity’s long history of wars and violence as evidence of such urges. Most id energies, then, are aimed at discharging tensions related to sex and aggression.

***The Ego*:** is sometimes described as the “executive,” because it directs energies supplied by the id. *What is the difference between the ego and the id?* Recall that the id operates on the pleasure principle. *The ego, in contrast, is guided by the reality principle.*The ego is the system of thinking, planning, and problem solving, and deciding. It is in conscious control of the personality and often delays the id’s action until it is practical or appropriate.

***The Superego:*** The superego acts as a judge or censor for the thoughts and actions of the ego. *One part of the superego, called the conscience, reflects actions for which a* *person has been punished*. When standards of the conscience are not met, you are punished internally by *guilt* feelings. *A second part of the superego is the ego ideal. The ego ideal reflects all behavior one’s parents approved of or rewarded.* The ego ideal is a source of goals and aspirations. When its standards are met, we feel *pride.* The superego acts as an “internalized parent” to bring behavior under control. In Freudian terms, a person with a weak superego will be a delinquent, criminal, or antisocial personality. In contrast, an overly strict or harsh superego may cause inhibition, rigidity, or unbearable guilt.

**The Dynamics of Personality**

*How do the id, ego, and superego interact?* Freud didn’t picture the id, ego, and superego as parts of the brain or as “little people” running the human psyche. Instead, they are conflicting mental processes. Freud theorized a delicate balance of power among the three. For example, the id’s demands for immediate pleasure often clash with the superego’s moral restrictions. Perhaps an example will help clarify the role of each part of the personality.

Let’s say you are sexually attracted to an acquaintance. The id clamors for immediate satisfaction of its sexual desires but is opposed by the superego (which finds the very thought of sex shocking). The id says, “Go for it!” The superego icily replies, “Never even think that again!” And what does the ego say? The ego says, “I have a plan!” Of course, this is a drastic simplification, but it does capture the core of Freudian thinking. To reduce tension, the ego could begin actions leading to friendship, romance, courtship, and marriage. If the id is unusually powerful, the ego may give in and attempt a seduction. If the superego prevails, the ego may be forced to *displace* or *sublimate* sexual energies to other activities (sports, music, dancing, push-ups, and cold showers). According to Freud, internal struggles and rechanneled energies typify most personality functioning.

*Is the ego always caught in the middle?* Basically yes, and the pressures on it can be intense. In addition to meeting the conflicting demands of the id and superego, the overworked ego must deal with external reality. According to Freud, you feel anxiety when your ego is threatened or overwhelmed. *Impulses from the id cause neurotic anxiety when the ego can barely keep them under control.* It is caused by the fear that the ego will be unable to control the id instincts particularly those of a sexual or aggressive nature. *Threats of punishment from the superego cause moral anxiety***.** It occurs whenever the id strives toward active expression of immoral thoughts or acts and the superego responds with feeling of shame, guilt, and self-condemnation. *Realistic anxiety is synonymous with fear and may have a debilitating effect on the individual’s ability to cope effectively with the source of danger*. Each person develops habitual ways of calming these anxieties, and many resort to using *ego-defense mechanisms* to lessen internal conflicts. Defense Mechanisms are mental processes that deny, distort, or otherwise block out sources of threat and anxiety.

**Ego Defense Mechanisms**

The major psychodynamic functions of anxiety are to help the individual avoid conscious recognition of unacceptable instinctual impulses and to allow impulse gratification only indirectly. *Ego defense* *mechanisms help* to carry out these functions as well as to protect the person from overwhelming anxiety.

* + 1. By blocking the impulse from expression in conscious behavior
    2. By distorting it to such a degree that the original intensity is markedly reduced or deflected.

They operate an on unconscious level and are therefore self-deceptive and they distort one’s perception of reality, so as to make anxiety less threatening to the individual and they protect the ego. The ego fights a battle to stay at the top of id and super ego. The conflicts between id and super ego produce anxiety that is a threat to ego. The threat or anxiety experienced by ego is a signal that alerts the ego to use unconscious protective processes that keep primitive emotions associated with conflicts in check. These protective processes are defense mechanisms. Let’s have a look at some defense mechanisms:

***Repression*** is an attempt by the ego to keep undesirable id impulses from reaching consciousness. It occurs entirely on an unconscious level, and involves preventing unpleasant experiences that are repulsive to the ego from reaching consciousness. Repressed memories are not under the conscious control of the person.

***Suppression*** involves the individual’s active and conscious attempt to stop anxiety-provoking thoughts by simply not thinking about them. If a high school student finds herself thinking sexual thoughts about her teacher, she may actively suppress them because of her moral training. The thoughts would then be stored in the preconscious and could be reactivated and made conscious by the student through an exertion of her will.

***Denial*** refers to a person’s refusal to perceive an unpleasant event in external reality. In adults, the use of denial may be normal during times of extreme stress. For example, we may engage in denial when we are told of the death of a loved one. Our disbelief allows us to cope with the shock and to assimilate it in a more gradual and less painful manner.

***Displacement*** refers to the unconscious attempt to obtain gratification for id impulses by shifting them to substitute objects if objects that would directly satisfy the impulses are not available. For example, a young boy who is insulted by a strong teenager may not be able to retaliate for fear that the adolescent might physically hurt him. Instead, he may vent his anger on someone smaller and weaker than he is. In this case, a substitute object is sought so that the impulse can be gratified, even though aggressing against the weaker child will not be as satisfying as aggressing against the teenage antagonist.

***Sublimation*** is a form of displacement in which the unacceptable id impulses themselves are transformed, rather than the object at which they aim. The unacceptable impulses are displaced by ones that are socially acceptable (Freud, 1946). A woman with a strong need for aggression may channel her energies into activities that are socially acceptable—becoming, for example, an outstanding soldier or a world-class athlete. By so doing, she can demonstrate her superiority and domination of others, but in a way that contributes to society.

***Regression*** is a movement from mature behavior to immature behavior. That is, when the ego is threatened, the person may revert to an earlier, more infantile form of behavior as a means of coping with the stress. For example, a 6-year-old boy might start sucking his thumb or cling to his mother on the first day of school. Or a woman who learns that she has not been promoted to a higher paying job in the company may storm into her supervisor’s office and have a temper tantrum. Or a man who is having marital difficulties may leave the home he shares with his wife and move back into his parents’ house.

***Projection*** When a person protects the ego by attributing his or her own undesirable characteristics to others, we might infer that projection has taken place (Freud, 1938). For example, a girl who hates her mother may be convinced that her mother hates her. A student who cheats on examinations may continually assert that other students received high grades because they cheated. Cramer (2002) found that young adult males (but not females) who chronically used projection as a defense were distrustful, aloof, and antagonistic toward others.

***Reaction* *formation*** is the process of converting an undesirable impulse into its opposite is known as reaction formation.Freud considered it a lower form of sublimation (Freud, 1938). A man who hates his wife and yet is exceedingly kind to her would be a pertinent example. He could be said to be killing her with kindness.

***Rationalization*** is the justification of behavior through the use of plausible, but inaccurate, excuses. For example, a young athlete, dropped from the team because of lack of ability, comes to the conclusion that he did not really want to be on the team because it is going to lose so many games.

***Intellectualization*** is a process that allows individuals to protect themselves against unbearable pain. It involves dissociation between one’s thoughts and feelings. For example, a woman may conjure up an elaborate rationale to explain the death of her young husband. By citing reasons and focusing on the logic of her argument, she may avoid, for a while at least, the tremendous pain associated with such a traumatic experience.

***Undoing*** Sometimes a person who thinks or acts on an undesirable impulse makes amends by performing some action that nullifies the undesirable one. Such actions are typically irrational and can be seen in various superstitious rituals and some religious ceremonies. By performing the undoing act, the person is convinced that the wrong he or she committed has been rectified. For example, a boy who has continual thoughts about masturbation and believes that they are evil may wash his hands frequently as a means of cleansing himself.

**Levels of Awareness**

Freud’s fundamental assumption about our mental life was that it is divided into three parts: *the conscious, the preconscious, and the unconscious.*The *conscious* refers to those ideas and sensations of which we are aware. It operates on the surface of personality, and plays a relatively small role in personality development and functioning. While it is true that psychologically healthy people have a greater awareness of their experiences than do unhealthy ones, still Freud believed that even relatively mature people are governed, to a degree greater than they would care to admit, by unconscious needs and conflicts.

The *preconscious*contains those experiences that are unconscious but that could become conscious with little effort. For example, you may have forgotten the foods you had for supper yesterday, but you could probably recall them readily if you were asked to list them for a dietician who is trying to help you lose weight. The preconscious exists just beneath the surface of awareness.

In contrast, the *unconscious*operates on the deepest level of personality. It consists of those experiences and memories of which we are not aware. Such mental states remain out of awareness because making them conscious would create tremendous pain and anxiety for us. The unconscious could include sexual abuse that we experienced during early childhood at the hands of a parent, relative, or family friend. It could consist of incestuous feelings, strong emotional reactions of anger or rage toward certain authority figures, or painful feelings of shame and humiliation growing out of competitive experiences. A key point is that such repressed memories do not simply disappear once they have been thrust from awareness; they continue to operate outside awareness, and seek expression in various defensive, disguised, and distorted ways. Unconscious ideas, memories, and experiences may continually interfere with conscious and rational behavior.

**Personality Development**

*How does psychoanalytic theory explain personality development?* Freud theorized that the core of personality is formed before age 6in a series of *psychosexual stages.*Freud believed that erotic urgesin childhood have lasting effects on development. As you mightexpect, this is a controversial idea. However, Freud used the terms“sex” and “erotic” very broadly to refer to many physical sources ofpleasure.

**Freud’s Psychosexual Stages**

Freud identified four psychosexual stages, the *oral, anal, phallic, and genital***.** (He also described a period of “latency” between thephallic and genital stages. Latency is explained in a moment.) Ateach stage, a different part of the body becomes a child’s primary*erogenous zone*(an area capable of producing pleasure). Each areathen serves as the main source of pleasure, frustration, and self-expression.Freud believed that many adult personality traits can be traced to *fixations*in one or more of the stages.

*What is a fixation?* A fixation is an unresolved conflict or emotional hang-up caused by overindulgence or by frustration. As we describe the psychosexual stages you’ll see why Freud considered fixations important.

***The Oral Stage*:** During the first year of life, most of an infant’s pleasure comes from stimulation of the mouth. If a child is overfed or frustrated, oral traits may be created. Adult expressions of oral needs include gum chewing; nail biting, smoking, kissing, overeating, and alcoholism. *What if there is an oral fixation?* Fixation early in the oral stage produces an *oral-dependent personality***.** Oral-dependent persons are gullible (they swallow things easily!) and passive and need lots of attention (they want to be mothered and showered with gifts). Frustrations later in the oral stage may cause aggression, often in the form of biting. Fixations here create cynical, *oral-aggressive* adults who exploit others. They also like to argue. (“Biting sarcasm” is their gift!)

***The Anal Stage*:** Between the ages of 1 and 3, the child’s attention shifts to the process of elimination. When parents attempt toilet training, the child can gain approval or express rebellion or aggression by “holding on” or by “letting go.” Therefore, harsh or lenient toilet training can cause an anal fixation that may lock such responses into personality. Freud described the *anal-retentive (holding-on) personality* as obstinate, stingy, orderly, and compulsively clean. The *anal-expulsive (letting-go) personality*is disorderly, destructive, cruel, or messy.

***The Phallic Stage*:** Adult traits of the *phallic personality*are vanity, exhibitionism, sensitive pride, and narcissism (self-love). Freud theorized that phallic fixations develop between the ages of 3 and 6. At this time, increased sexual interest causes the child to be physically attracted to the parent of the opposite sex. *In males this attraction leads to an Oedipus conflict. In it, the boy feels a rivalry with his father for the affection of his mother.* Freud believed that the male child feels threatened by the father (specifically, the boy fears castration). To ease his anxieties, the boy must *identify*with the father. Their rivalry ends when the boy seeks to become more like his father. As he does, he begins to accept the father’s values and forms a conscience.

*What about the female child? Girls experience an Electra conflict. In this case, the girl loves her father and competes with her mother.* However, according to Freud, the girl identifies with themother more gradually.Freud believed that females already feel castrated. Because ofthis, they are less driven to identify with their mothers than boysare with their fathers. This, he said, is less effective in creating aconscience. This particular part of Freudian thought has beenthoroughly (and rightfully) rejected by modern experts in thepsychology of women. It is better understood as a reflection of themale-dominated times in which Freud lived.

***Latency stage*:** According to Freud there is a period of latencyfrom age 6 to puberty. Latency is not so much a stage as it is a quiet time during which psychosexual development is dormant. Freud’s belief that psychosexual development is “on hold” at this time is hard to accept. Nevertheless, Freud saw latency as a relatively quiet time compared with the stormy first 6 years of life.

***The Genital Stage*:** At puberty an upswing in sexual energies activates all the unresolved conflicts of earlier years. This upsurge, according to Freud, is the reason why adolescence can be filled with emotion and turmoil. The genital stagebegins at puberty. It is marked, during adolescence, by a growing capacity for responsible social–sexual relationships. The genital stage ends with a mature capacity for love and the realization of full adult sexuality.

**Critical Comments on Freud’s Theory**

As bizarre as Freud’s theory might seem, it has been influential for several reasons.

* First, it pioneered the idea that the first years of life help shape adult personality.
* Second, it identified feeding, toilet training, and early sexual experiences as critical events in personality formation.
* Third, Freud was among the first to propose that development proceeds through a series of stages.

***Is the Freudian view of development widely accepted?***

Few psychologists wholeheartedly embrace Freud’s theory today. In some cases Freud was clearly wrong. His portrayal of the elementary school years (latency) as free from sexuality and unimportant for personality development is hard to believe. His idea of the role of a stern or threatening father in the development of a strong conscience in males has also been challenged. Studies show that a son is more likely to develop a strong conscience if his father is affectionate and accepting, rather than stern and punishing. Freud also overemphasized sexuality in personality development. Other motives and cognitive factors are of equal importance.

Freud has been criticized for his views of patients who believed they were sexually molested as children. Freud assumed that such events were merely childhood fantasies. This view led to a longstanding tendency to disbelieve children who have been molested and women who have been raped (Brannon, 1996).

Another important criticism is that Freud’s concepts are almost impossible to verify scientifically. The theory provides numerous ways to explain almost any thought, action, or feeling *after* it has occurred. However, it leads to few predictions, which makes its claims difficult to test. Although more criticisms of Freud could be listed, the fact remains that there is an element of truth to much of what he said (Jacob, 2003). Because of this, some clinical psychologists continue to regard Freudian theory as a useful way to think about human problems.

* + - 1. **The Neo-Freudians**

Freud’s ideas quickly attracted a brilliant following. Just as rapidly, the importance Freud placed on instinctual drives and sexuality caused many to disagree with him. Those who stayed close to the core of Freud’s thinking are called *neo-Freudians* (*neo* means “new”). *Neo- Freudians*accepted the broad features of Freud’s theory but revised parts of it. Some of the better-known neo-Freudians are Karen Horney, Anna Freud (Freud’s daughter), Otto Rank, and Erich Fromm.

Other early followers broke away more completely from Freud and created their own opposing theories. This group includes people such as Alfred Adler, Harry Sullivan, and Carl Jung. For now, let’s sample four views. The first represents an early rejection of Freud’s thinking (Adler). The second embraces most but not all of Freud’s theory (Horney). The third involves a carryover of Freudian ideas into a related but unique theory (Jung). And the fourth is Erich Fromm’s work.

1. **Alfred Adler (1870–1937)**

Adler broke away from Freud because he disagreed with Freud’s emphasis on the unconscious, on instinctual drives, and on the importance of sexuality. Adler believed that we are social creatures governed by social urges, not by biological instincts (Shulman, 2004). According to Adler, Individual Psychology is a science that attempts to understand the experiences and behavior of each person as an organized entity. He believed that all actions are guided by a person’s fundamental attitudes toward life.

**The Struggle for Perfection**

*In Adler’s view, the main driving force in personality is a striving for superiority***.** This striving, he said, is a struggle to overcome imperfections or inferiority, an upward drive for competence, completion, and mastery of shortcomings. People have a purpose in life, to attain perfection and are motivated to strive toward attainment of this ideal. This movement toward perfection or completion, this is known as the *struggle* *for* *perfection*. Adler’s efforts is to understand “that mysterious creative power of life, the power which expresses itself in the desire to develop, to strive and to achieve and even to compensate for defeats in one direction by striving for success in another”

*What motivates “striving for superiority”?* Adler believed that everyone experiences feelings of inferiority. This occurs mainly because we begin life as small, weak, and relatively powerless children surrounded by larger and more powerful adults. Feelings of inferiority may also come from our personal limitations. The struggle for superiority arises from such feelings. Although everyone strives for superiority, each person tries to *compensate* for different limitations, and each chooses a different pathway to superiority. Adler believed that this situation creates a unique *style of life*(or personality pattern) for each individual.

According to Adler the core of each person’s style of life is formed by age 5. (Adler also believed that valuable clues to a person’s style of life are revealed by the earliest memory that can be recalled. You might find it interesting to search back to your earliest memory and contemplate what it tells you.) However, later in his life Adler began to emphasize the existence of a *creative self***.** By this he meant that humans create their personalities through choices and experiences.

***Creative Evolution and Social Interest***: *Creative Evolution*is an active, continuous movement and adaptation to the external world—a compulsion to create a better adaptation to the environment, to master it. We are all born with the potential for social feeling or interest, Adler believed, but it can only come to fruition with proper guidance and training. He defined *social interest* as “a striving for a form ofcommunity which must be thought of as everlasting, as it could be thought of if mankind had reached the goal of perfection” (Adler, 1973). By striving for others’ goals, we help ourselves as well. This striving also implies respect and consideration for all human beings.

***Style of Life and the Creative Self***: Two concepts—the style of life and the creative self—are closely interrelated in Adlerian theorizing. The style of life, originally called the *life plan or guiding image, refers to the unique ways in which people* pursue their goals. The concept of the creative selfimplies that people create their own personalities, by actively constructing them out of their experiences and heredities. As Adler saw it, individuals are the artists of their own personalities (Adler, 1978). Healthy people are generally aware of the alternatives available to them in solving problems and choose to act in a rational and responsible manner.

**How can we develop healthy personality?**

There are three basic problems of life that everyone must meet in order to function in a healthy psychological way; namely,

* *The problems of society or communal life, work, and love*,
* *Parental Influence in Early Childhood* (Both parents play crucial roles in the development of their children); and
* *Birth Order* (The way the child is treated uniquely by his or her parents in relation to his/her birth order affects their personality).

**What are the causes for unhealthy personality?**

There are three major sets of environmental factors that may give rise to severely destructive or neurotic life goals are: organ inferiority, neglect or rejection, and pampering.

* **Organ inferiority**: interpreting the deficiency in many ways and felling worthlessness.
* **Neglect or rejection:** being emotionally detached from the children.
* **Pampering**: overindulge their children by persistently gratifying every wish they have without requiring them to make any effort to reciprocate.

**How to develop constructive life style?**

Individuals are likely to learn the importance of equality and cooperation between people, and to develop goals in accord with social interest. “Honesty is the best policy” and “do unto others as you would have them do unto you”. Healthy person could change his or her fictional finalisms or guiding self-ideals if circumstances demanded it i.e. healthy person lives by principles, but is realistic enough to modify them under exceptional circumstances.

**Types of constructive life styles**

Adler employed a simple classification scheme to help people understand the nature of destructive and constructive lifestyles more fully.

***The ruling type*** lacks social interest and courage. Their striving for personal superiority is so intense that they typically exploit and harm others; they need to control others in order to feel powerful and significant. As children, ruling types want to exclude stronger children and play only with weaker children, so that they can dominate. When they become adults, they want to be conquerors; they want to lord it over their spouses. As parents, they order their children to obey “because I said so!” As leaders of teenage gangs, they are arrogant and vain; they like to threaten their followers: They may also try to control people through the use of money, in the belief that everyone has a price (Mosak, 1977). Adler cited juvenile delinquents, suicidal individuals, and drug addicts as prime examples of the ruling type.

***The getting type***s are relatively passive and make little effort to solve their own problems. Instead, they rely on others to take care of them. Children of many affluent, permissive parents are given whatever they demand; growing up in such an environment, they have little need to do things for themselves, and little awareness of their own abilities to be productive or to give to others. Lacking confidence in themselves, they attempt to surround themselves with people who are willing to accede to their requests. Getting types frequently use charm to persuade others to help them (Mosak, 1977).

***The avoiding type*** lacks the confidencenecessary for solving crises. Instead of struggling with their problems, they typically try to sidestep them, thereby avoiding defeat. Such individuals are often self-absorbed; they are inclined to daydream and create fantasies in which they are always superior (Adler, 1930).

***The socially useful type*** grow upin families where the members are helpful and supportive of each other, treat each other with respect and consideration, and are disinclined to handle stress and problems through conflict and aggression (Leak &Williams, 1991). Instead they have the courage to face their problems directly as a means of solving them. As adults, their orientation to family members is based on respect, affection, and friendship and not on manipulation and game playing (Leak & Gardner). Socially useful people are psychologically healthy. They face life confidently and are prepared to cooperate with others, contribute to the welfare of others, and build a better community. They see a life goal of “making a lot of money” as unimportant. In short, they act in accordance with social interest (Crandall, 1980; Leak, Millard, Perry, & Williams, 1985).

1. **Carl Jung’s Analytic Psychology (1875–1961)**

Carl Jung was a student of Freud’s, but the two parted ways as Jung began to develop his own ideas. Like Freud, Jung called the conscious part of the personality the ego. His theorymay be the most unusual theory in the entire body of work on personality. Although it provides numerous insights into personality functioning, it is very difficult to understand. It is complex, esoteric, and, in many respects, obscure. Part of the problem is that Jung read widely in a number of different disciplines and drew upon materials from psychology, psychiatry, literature, physics, chemistry, biology, archaeology, philosophy, theology, mythology, history, anthropology, alchemy, and astrology in his attempts to understand human functioning. Still another difficulty lies in Jung’s own failure to write clearly.

**Concepts and Principles of Jungian Theory**

Jung referred to the total personality as the ***psyche****.*He conceived of it as a nonphysical space that has its own special reality. Through the psyche, psychic energy flows continuously in various directions. Most importantly, psychic energy is considered an outcome of the conflict between forces within the personality. Without conflict there is no energy and no life. Love and hatred of a person can exist within a psyche, creating tension and new energy that seeks expression in behavior. Thus, he conceived of the psyche as a general entity that operates according to the *principle of opposites.*

According to the *principle of opposites*the various structures of the psyche are continually opposed to one another**.** Psychic energy is real and used interchangeably with libido. To him, libido is a general *life process energy***,** of which sexual urges are only one aspect. Psychic energy is considered an outcome of the conflict between forces within the personality. Libido also operates according to the principles of equivalence and entropy.

The *principle of equivalence*states that “for a given quantity of energy expended or consumed in bringing about a certain condition, an equal quantity of the same or another form of energy will appear elsewhere”. In other words, an increase in some aspect of psychic functioning is met by a compensatory decrease in functioning in another part of the psyche, and a decrease in some aspect of psychic functioning is met by a compensatory increase in functioning in another area of the psyche. An increase in concern with occupational success might mean an equivalent loss of concern with one’s spiritual life, and vice versa. Jung’s position is similar in this respect to Freud’s notion of displacement.

The *principle of entropy*refers to the process within the psyche whereby elements of unequal strength seek psychological equilibrium. If energy is concentrated in the ego, for example, tension will be generated in the psyche to move energy from the conscious to the unconscious in order to create a balance. Consider the example of an outgoing student who acts as if life consists only of beer parties and endless social activities. Suddenly, he becomes bored and restless and begins to reflect on the meaning and direction of his life. He begins to explore inner experiences that were previously unconscious. As a result of these contemplations, he may reduce his social activities and increase the time he devotes to his studies, thereby becoming a more serious student, though still not a social isolate. The critical point is that any one-sided development of the personality creates conflict, tension, and strain, whereas a more even distribution produces a more fully mature person.

***Archetypes*** are themes (symbols/images) that have existed in all cultures throughout history; it is the tendency or predisposition to respond to certain experiences in specific ways. E.g. men and women in every culture have inherited a tendency to respond to ambiguous and threatening situations with some form of an all-powerful being that we call God. God is a universal symbol; such symbols, though real, can never be completely understood (Jung, 1958). Archetypes are, essentially, thought-forms or ideas that give rise to visions projected onto current experiences. For example, one of the primary archetypes is the mother–child relationship, which is characterized by the mother’s protection of the child. Dissolution of this bond must ultimately occur if the person is to attain adulthood. Jung suggested that the bond is broken in many primitive cultures when young men undergo rituals of rebirth (Jung, 1961).

***What kind of archetypes are there?***There are different kinds, persona is the first that refers mask we wear in order to function adequately in our relationships with other people. This mask may take as many forms as the roles we play in our daily routines. It also aids in controlling evil forces in the collective unconscious. Presumably, the persona is an archetype because it is a universal manifestation of our attempt to deal appropriately with other people. It is “a compromise between the demands of the environment and the necessities of the individual’s inner constitution”.

The ***shadow*** isanother archetype***,*** indicates the dark, evil**,** hidden side of our natures. The shadow represents the evil, unadapted, unconscious, and inferior part of our psyches. It has two main aspects—one associated with the personal unconscious, the other with the collective unconscious. In*personal unconscious,* the shadow consists of all those experiences that a person rejects on moral and/or aesthetic grounds. In*collective unconscious*, the shadow consists of universal personifications of evil within our psyches. Jung believed that all men and women have elements of the opposite sex within them. Each man has a feminine side, and each woman has unconscious masculine qualities. The feminine archetype in man is called the ***anima*;** the masculine archetype in woman is labeled as ***animus*.** Like all archetypes, the anima and animus can function in either constructive or destructive ways.

***The self*** is the “destiny within us” involves a process that Jung called the “way of individuation”. The self is the final goal of our striving. The movement toward self-realization is a very difficult process, and one that can never be fully attained. After all, the self is an archetype, and archetypes can never be fully understood or realized.

***What is the difference between the ego and the self?*** The***self*** refers to the total psyche or entire personality. It consists of consciousness and unconsciousness, whereas the***ego*** is only part of the total psyche and consists of consciousness. The ego can illuminate the entire personality, allowing the self to become conscious and thus to be realized. E.g., if you have an artistic talent of which your ego is not conscious, nothing will happen to it. If your ego, however, notices your artistic talent, you can now work to develop and realize it. Thus, the ego can help identify the hidden, unconscious potentials of the person and work to facilitate their realization. With help from the ego, conflicts are more likely to be resolved, and greater balance within personality is likely to be attained. With the attainment of balance, a new center or midpoint—the self—evolves within the personality.

**How healthy personality develops?**

The aim of individual development is self-realization, the integration of all aspects of the psyche. In such a state, there is an increased understanding and acceptance of one’s unique nature. This balanced state involves the evolution of a new center (the self) to replace the old one (the ego). The ego is not useless or obsolete in the final system; it exists, but in balance with the other aspects of the psyche.

Not all archetypes are equally developed within the psyche. Those that are well formed exert a strong influence on personality functioning; those that are not well developed exert only minimal influence. Other major archetypes in the Jungian system include the persona, shadow, anima and animus, self, and introversion/extraversion. Although introversion and extraversion are considered by many theorists not to be archetypes, Jung believed that they are innate dispositions, albeit ones often molded by experience (Jung, 1923).

**Jungian Theory of Psychological Types**

Jung proposed that people, in their attempt to evolve toward selfhood, people, adopt different ways of relating to experience. They adopt different attitudes toward life and utilize different psychological processes or functions to make sense out of their experiences. The two fundamental attitudes in Jung’s typology are ***extraversion*** and ***introversion*.** *Extraversion* refers to “an outgoing, candid, and accommodating nature that adapts easily to a given situation, quickly forms attachments, etc.” *Introversion* signifies “a hesitant, reflective, retiring nature that keeps itself to itself shrink from objects, is always slightly on the defensive, etc.”

Jung points out that people are not purely introverted or extraverted; rather, each person has both introverted and extraverted aspects. Moreover, both attitudes involve complex variations, including ***dominant*** characteristics (conscious) and ***inferior*** characteristics (unconscious). Alongside the basic attitudes of introversion and extraversion, Jung postulated four functions, or ways in which people relate to the world: sensing, thinking, feeling, and intuiting. ***Sensing*** is the initial, concrete experiencing of phenomena without the use of reason (thinking) or evaluation (feeling). ***Thinking*** proceeds from this point to help us understand events through the use of reason and logic. It gives us the meaning of events that are sensed. ***Feeling*** gives us an evaluation of events by judging whether they are good or bad, acceptable or unacceptable. Finally, in the mode of ***intuiting*** we rely on hunches whenever we have to deal with strange situations in which we have no established facts. Jung called thinking and feeling the ***rational*** functions becausethey involve making judgments about experiences. Sensation and intuition he labeled the ***irrational*** functions because they involve passively recording experiences without evaluating or interpreting them.

Out of the two basic attitudes and four functions, Jung fashioned an eightfold classification **theory of psychological types.**

1. *The* ***extraverted thinking type*** ischaracterized by a need to make all his life-activities dependent on intellectual conclusions, this kind of man [lives by an] intellectual formula. By this formula are good and evil measured and beauty and ugliness determined. If the formula is wide enough, this type may play a very useful role in social life, either as a reformer. But the more rigid the formula, the more does he develop into a complainer, a crafty reasoner, and a self righteous critic.
2. *The* ***introverted thinking type*, “**likehis extraverted counterpart, is strongly influenced by ideas, though his ideas have their origin not in objective data but in his subjective foundation. He will follow his ideas like the extravert, but in the reverse direction: “inwards and not outwards”. The introverted thinker appears cold, aloof, and inconsiderate of others. In addition, he or she tends to be inept socially and inarticulate in attempts to communicate ideas.
3. ***Extraverted feeling type*** as one who lives according to “objective situations and general values”. The feelings and behavior of such individuals are controlled by social norms—that is, by the expectations of others. As a consequence, their feelings change from situation to situation and from person to person. Jung believed that women were the best examples of this type. A prime example would be a college woman who breaks her engagement because her parents object to the man. Her feelings toward the young man are based on her parents’ judgments. If they like him, fine; if they do not, she feels compelled to reject him. In such people, thinking is largely repressed. These women are good companions and excellent mothers.
4. ***The introverted feeling type*:** According to Jung, women are also the prime examples of this type**.** “They are mostly silent, inaccessible, and hard to understand: often they hide behind a childish or banal mask, and their temperament is inclined to melancholy. They neither shines nor reveals themselves” (Jung, 1923). Although they appear unfeeling toward other people, in reality they are capable of an intense emotion, originating in the collective unconscious that can erupt in religious or poetic form.
5. ***The extraverted sensing type*:** Jung visualized men as the prime examples of the extraverted sensing type. This type is primarily reality oriented and typically shuns thinking and contemplation. Experiencing sensations becomes almost an end in itself. Each experience serves as a guide to new experience. Such people are usually outgoing and jolly and have a considerable capacity for enjoyment, some of which revolves around good food. In addition, they are often refined aesthetes, concerned with matters of good taste in painting, sculpture, and literature, as well as food and physical appearance. Such an individual who becomes over in love with of an object—for example, food or physical appearance—develops into a “crude pleasure-seeker or immoral”
6. ***The introverted sensing type*** is an irrational type guided by the “intensity of the subjective sensation—excited by the objective stimulus” (Jung, 1923). These people seem to overreact to outside stimuli. They may take harmless comments from others and interpret them in imaginative or bizarre ways. They may also appear rational and in complete control of their actions because they are unrelated to objects in the environment, including other people. Such types may also treat the objective world (external reality) as mere appearance, or even as a joke. Libido from primordial images affects their perception of events. Positive manifestations of libido are found in creative persons; negative manifestations are seen in psychotics.
7. ***The extraverted intuitive type*:** capacity to exploit external opportunities. ***In Jung’s words*,** they have a “keen nose for anything new and in the making” (Jung, 1923). Politicians, merchants, contractors, and speculators are examples of this type; women are more likely to have such an orientation than are men (Jung, 1923). On the positive side, these people are the initiators and promoters of promising enterprises, and often inspire others to great accomplishments. But there are also serious dangers for people with this orientation. Although they may cheer up and encourage others, they do little for themselves. And because they are impatient and always seeking new possibilities, they often do not see their actions through to completion.
8. ***The introverted intuitive type*:** An intensification of intuition in the introverted intuitive type often results in estrangement from external reality. Such people may be considered unknowable even by close friends. On the positive side, they may become great visionaries and mystics; on the negative side, they may develop into artistic cranks who advocate distinctive language and visions. Such people cannot be understood easily, and their ability to communicate effectively is further limited because their judgment functions (thinking and feeling) are relatively repressed.

**What is Neurosis and Psychosis?**

Progress toward self-realization is not automatic. If the person grows up in an unhealthy and threatening environment, where the parents use harsh and unreasonable punishment, growth is likely to be stifled. Repressed evil forces within the psyche may also erupt without warning to produce personality dysfunction. Under these conditions, the outcome may be neurosis or psychosis.

In Jung’s view, neurosis and psychosis differ primarily in the severity of their consequences. Both result from one-sided development, in which repressed forces create problems in functioning. In all eight psychological types discussed earlier, intense repression of one of the four functions would probably result in a form of neurosis. For example, when thinking is repressed in the introverted feeling type, Jung argued, the thinking function may eventually project itself onto objects, thus creating problems for the person. Because the thinking function is archaic and undifferentiated, the person’s judgment about the object or objects is bound to be gross and inaccurate. Such a person is unable to reason accurately about the intentions of others.

1. **Karen Horney (1885–1952)**

Karen Horney remained faithful to most of Freud’s theory, but she resisted his more mechanistic, biological, and instinctive ideas. For example, as a woman, Horney rejected Freud’s claim that “anatomy is destiny.” This view, woven into Freudian psychology, held that males are dominant or superior to females. Horney was among the first to challenge the obvious male bias in Freud’s thinking (Eckardt, 2005). Horney also disagreed with Freud about the causes of neurosis. Freud held that neurotic (anxiety-ridden) individuals are struggling with forbidden id drives that they fear they cannot control. Karen Horney developed a theory based on two concepts: ***Basic Anxiety* -** anxiety created when a child is born into the bigger and more powerful world of older children and adults. ***Neurotic Personalities* –** maladaptive ways of dealing with relationships, especially parent child relationship-based on hostility or rejection.

*Horney’s view was that a core of basic anxiety occurs when people feel isolated and helpless in a hostile world.* These feelings, she believed, are rooted in childhood. Trouble occurs when an individual tries to control basic anxiety by exaggerating a single mode of interacting with others.

Karen Horney has listed ten neurotic needs or ten abnormal trends in people. They are:

* 1. The neurotic need for affection and approval.
  2. The neurotic need for a partner who will run one’s life.
  3. The neurotic need to live one’s life within narrow limits.
  4. The neurotic need for power.
  5. The neurotic need to exploit others.
  6. The neurotic need for social recognition.
  7. The neurotic need for personal admiration.
  8. The neurotic need for ambition and personal achievement.
  9. The neurotic need for self sufficiency and independence.
  10. The neurotic need for perfection and unassailability.

All normal people experience all the above ten needs but a normal satisfies one need at a time and then moves on to others. The neurotic person hangs on to one need even when it is not fulfilled, he still is fixated over it and invests all his energy in it and ignores all his other needs.

*What do you mean by “mode of interacting”?* According to Horney, each of us can move *toward* others (by depending on them for love, support, or friendship), we can move *away* from others (by withdrawing, acting like a “loner,” or being “strong” and independent), or we can move *against* others (by attacking, competing with, or seeking power over them). Horney believed that emotional health reflects a balance in moving toward, away from, and against others. In her view, emotional problems tend to lock people into overuse of one of the three modes an insight that remains valuable today. Let’s describe the modes of interaction in detail.

**1-Moving Towards People**

In this pattern of adjustment, individual moves towards people in order to satisfy his needs for affection and approval, for a dominant partner to control one’s life and to live one’s life within narrow limits. This is a type of person who is complaint type, who says that if I give in, I shall not be hurt. This type of person needs to be liked, wanted, desired, loved, welcomed, approved, appreciated, to be helped, to be protected, to be taken care of and to be guided. This type of person is friendly, most of the time and represses his aggression.

**2-Moving Against People**

In this adjustment mode, the neurotic need for power for exploitation of others is for prestige and for personal achievements are to be fulfilled, when an individual moves against people. This is a hostile type of a person who thinks that if he has power, no one can hurt him.

**3-Moving Away from People**

In this adjustment mode, the neurotic need for self sufficiency, perfection, independence and UN-assail ability are classified. This person is a detached type, who says that if I withdraw, nothing can hurt me. These three adjustment patterns are basically are incompatible, for example, one cannot move against, towards and away from people at the same time. The normal person has greater flexibility he uses one adjustment mode to another as conditions and situations demand. The neurotic person cannot easily move from one adjustment mode to another, rather he is less flexible and ineffective in moving from one adjustment mode to another.

1. **Erich Fromm (1900-1980)**

*He was born in 1900 in Frankfurt, Germany. His father was a business man and, according to Erich, rather moody. His mother was frequently depressed. In other words, like quite a few of the people we've looked at, his childhood wasn't very happy. Like Jung, Erich came from a very religious family, in his case orthodox Jews. Fromm himself later became what he called an atheistic mystic. He studied sociology, psychology and philosophy at the University of Heidelberg**where he earned**his Ph.D. degree at the age**of 22. After completing his**training at the psychoanalytic institute, he and Frieda Fromm-Reichmann helped to found the Frankfurt psychoanalytic institute. In 1934, Fromm moved to the United States and began a psychoanalytic practice in New York, where he also resumed his friendship with Karen Horney, whom he had known in Germany. Much of his later years were spent in Mexico and Switzerland. Finally, He died in 1980.*

**Major Concepts Fromm’s Theory**

Fromm believed that humans have been torn away from their prehistoric union with nature and left with no powerful instincts to adapt to a changing world. But because humans have acquired the ability to reason, they can think about their isolated condition-Fromm called this situation as the *human dilemma.*

**The Burden of Freedom**  
As the only animal possessing self-awareness, human beings are what Fromm called the "freaks of the universe.” Historically, as people gained more political freedom, they began to experience more isolation from others and from the world and to feel free from the security of a permanent place in the world. As a result, freedom becomes a burden, and people experience basic anxiety, or a feeling of being alone in the world.

**Mechanisms of Escape**  
In order to reduce the frightening sense of isolation and aloneness, people may adopt one of three mechanisms of escape:

1. Authoritarianism, or the tendency to give up one's independence and to unite with a powerful partner;
2. Destructiveness, an escape mechanism aimed at doing away with other people or things;
3. Conformity or surrendering of one's individuality in order to meet the wishes of others.

**Positive Freedom**  
The human dilemma can only be solved through positive freedom, which is the spontaneous activity of the whole, integrated personality, and which is achieved when a person becomes reunited with others.

**Human Needs**  
According to Fromm, our human dilemma cannot be solved by satisfying our animal needs. It can only be addressed by fulfilling our uniquely human needs, an accomplishment that moves us toward a reunion with the natural world. Fromm identified five of these distinctively human or existential needs.

1. ***Relatedness*:** First is relatedness, which can take the form of (1) submission, (2) power, and (3) love. Love, or the ability to unite with another while retaining one's own individuality and integrity, is the only relatedness need that can solve our basic human dilemma.
2. ***Transcendence***: Being thrown into the world without their consent, humans have to transcend their nature by destroying or creating people or things. Humans can destroy through malignant aggression, or killing for reasons other than survival, but they can also create and care about their creations.
3. ***Rootedness***: Rootedness is the need to establish roots and to feel at home again in the world. Productively, rootedness enables us to grow beyond the security of our mother and establish ties with the outside world. With the nonproductive strategy, we become fixated and afraid to move beyond the security and safety of our mother or a mother substitute.
4. ***Sense of* *Identity***: The fourth human need is for a sense of identity, or an awareness of ourselves as a separate person. The drive for a sense of identity is expressed nonproductively as conformity to a group and productively as individuality.
5. ***Frame of Orientation***: By frame of orientation, Fromm meant a road map or consistent philosophy by which we find our way through the world. This need is expressed nonproductively as a striving for irrational goals and productively as movement toward rational goals.

**Character Orientations**  
People relate to the world by acquiring and using things (assimilation) and by relating to self and others (socialization), and they can do so either non-productively or productively.

* + - 1. **Non-productive Orientations**

Once individuals have turned away from freedom, they *are*headed toward an unproductive adjustment to life, the nature of which depends on the dominant mechanism of escape they have chosen. Fromm identified four nonproductive strategies that fail to move people closer to positive freedom and self-realization.

1. *People with receptive character*are the passive receivers who seek a magic helper to solve their problems for them. They may seem to be friendly, optimistic, and even helpful, but their prime concern is actually to win favor and approval.
2. *People with an exploitative orientation*also believe that the source of good lies outside themselves, but they aggressively take what they want rather than passively receiving it.
3. *People with hoarding characters*try to save what they have already obtained, including their opinions, feelings, and material possessions. They are distant and even remote toward others, valuethrift, and may regard miserliness as a virtue.
4. *People with a marketing orientation*see themselves as commodities and value themselves against the criterion of their ability to sell themselves. They have fewer positive qualities than the other orientations because they are essentially empty.
   * + 1. **The Productive Orientation**

As Fromm believed there is only one basic human problem-namely, the overcoming of separateness and the transcendence of one's individual Life so he saw only one constructive resolution to that problem namely, the productive orientation. Psychologically healthy people work toward positive freedom through productive work, love, and reasoning. Productive love necessitates a passionate love of all life which is called ***biophilia***. Whereas, ***necrophilia* --** the love of death.

**What is Personality Disorders?**  
Unhealthy people have non-productive ways of working, reasoning, and especially loving. Fromm recognized three major personality disorders:

* 1. Necrophilia, or the love of death and the hatred of all humanity,
  2. Malignant narcissism, or a belief that everything belonging to one's self is of great value and anything belonging to others is worthless; and
  3. Incestuous symbiosis or an extreme dependence on one's mother or mother surrogate is the main types of personality disorders.
     1. **Trait Theories of Personality**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will concentrate on major trait theories of personality, and how they explain about the nature and development of personality.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to:

* List major trait theories of personality.
* Describe about trait theories personality.

*What are traits?* Traitsare descriptors used to label personality have their origins in the ways we describe personality in everyday language. In the early years of personality theory, many theorists used the term *types* to describe differences between people.

*Are some personality traits more basic or important than others?*

The trait approach is currently the dominant method for studying personality. Psychologists seek to describe personality with a small number of key traits or factors. How many words can you think of to describe the personality of a close friend? Your list might be long, as we have noted, traits are stable qualities that a person shows in most situations (Matthews, Deary, & Whiteman, 2003). For example, if you are usually friendly, optimistic, and cautious, these qualities are traits of your personality.

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Association, personality traits are "enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself that are exhibited in a wide range of social and personal contexts." Theorists generally assume that a) traits are relatively stable over time, b) traits differ among individuals (e.g. some people are outgoing while others are shy), and c) traits influence behavior. The most common models of traits incorporate three to five broad dimensions or factors.

* 1. **Gordon Allport’s Traits Theory (1897-1968)**

*Are there different types of traits?*

Yes, psychologist Gordon Allport (1961) identified several kinds of traits. *Common traits*are characteristics shared by most members of a culture. Common traits tell us how people from a particular nation or culture are similar, or which traits a culture emphasizes. In America, for example, competitiveness is a fairly common trait. Among the Hopi of Northern Arizona, however, it is relatively rare. Of course, common traits don’t tell us much about individuals. Although many people are competitive in American culture, various people you know may rate high, medium, or low in this trait. Usually we are also interested in *individual traits***,** which describe a person’s unique qualities.

Allport also made distinctions between *cardinal traits, central traits,* and *secondary traits. Cardinal traits*are so basic that all of aperson’s activities can be traced to the trait. For instance, compassionwas an overriding trait of Mother Teresa’s personality. Likewise,Abraham Lincoln’s personality was dominated by the cardinaltrait of honesty. According to Allport, few people have cardinaltraits. *Central traits*are the basic building blocks of personality. Surprisinglysmall number of central traits can capture the essence ofa person. For instance, just six traits would provide a good description of Mr. X’s personality: dominant, sociable, honest, cheerful, intelligent, and optimistic. When college students were asked to describe someone they knew well, they mentioned an average of seven central traits (Allport, 1961). *Secondary traits*are more superficial personal qualities, such as food preferences, attitudes, political opinions, musical tastes, and so forth.

**Personality Development**

In Allport’s theory, personality development centers on the concept of the self. Substituting the term *proprium* for self, Allport used it to mean a sense of what is “peculiarly ours,” including “all aspects of personality that make for inward unity” (Allport, 1955). In his view, the proprium, or self, develops continuously from infancy to death and moves through a series of stages. He acknowledged that it is a slippery concept, and that it has been used by different investigators in different ways. It has also encountered vigorous opposition from many psychologists. Wundt, the eminent 19th-century structuralist, thought the concept of self or ego or soul was hindering progress in psychology and declared that he favored a “psychology without a soul” (Allport, 1955).

Wundt’s objection, which was shared by many behaviorists who came after him, was that some investigators assign a primary, reified role to the term *self,* treating it as an actual entity that can direct behavior. An example of such reification might be: “Her strong sense of self caused her to give up smoking.” Her behavior is explained in terms of her strong self. Allport agreed that such reification is damaging to psychology because there is no actual entity within the person called the self that causes behavior, but he maintained that we *must* use the term because the one certain criterion we have of our identity and existence is our sense of self. It is a fundamental experience; if we discard it, we discard the essence of personality.

* 1. **Raymond B. Cattell’s Theory of Factor Analysis (1906–1998)**

*How can you tell if a personality trait is central or secondary?* Raymond B. Cattell (1906–1998) tried to answer this question by directly studying the traits of a large number of people. Cattell began by measuring visible features of personality, which he called *surface traits.*Soon, Cattell noticed that these surface traits often appeared together in groups. In fact, some traits clustered together so often that they seemed to represent a single more basic trait. Cattell called these deeper characteristics, or dimensions, *source traits*(Cattell, 1965). They are the core of each individual’s personality. Cattell identified 16 source traits. According to him, all 16 are needed to fully describe a personality. Source traits are measured by a test called the *Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire* (often referred to as the 16 PF). Like many personality tests, the 16 PF can be used to produce *a trait profile***,** or graph of a person’s score on each trait. Trait profiles draw a “picture” of individual personalities, which makes it easier to compare them.

**Factor analysis**

Cattell rightfully can be called a “psychometrist of personality,” because he placed such heavy emphasis on the use of testing and statistical techniques. We have already seen how he used factor analysis to derive personality traits. To apply the factor-analytic procedures, however, investigators must first collect masses of data from large numbers of people. Cattell relied on three major procedures to obtain such data: the L-data, Q-data, and T-data methods.

**L-data,** or life-record data, refers to the measurement of behavior in actual, everyday situations. Such data might include records that show the number of automobile accidents the person has had over the past 20 years, her marks in school, the number of civic organizations of which she is or has been a member, and so forth. Because some L-data might be very difficult to obtain, the investigator may be forced to take secondhand data, in the form of ratings by someone who knows the person well. Thus, different aspects of the person’s behavior—such as her dependability on the job, her level of dissatisfaction with the job, her friendliness to coworkers—might be assessed by means of trait ratings (on 10-point scales, for example) by coworkers and friends. The second source of information is called **Q-data,** or questionnaire data. Such information is often gathered in an interview situation, in which respondents fill out paper-and-pencil tests from which trait scores can be derived. The 16 PF is an excellent source of Q-data.

The third type of data, called **T-data,** is based on objective tests. Information is gathered by an observer in a standard test situation and is then scored. Whereas Q-data are based on self-reports that can be faked by the subject, T-data are essentially unfakeable. For example, if a person is asked on a questionnaire whether or not he ever cheats on examinations, he may report that he never does so, even though he does. If he is asked to respond to a Rorschach test, however, the inkblots are ambiguous and the subject does not know the dimensions on which his responses will eventually be scored (Cattell, 1965).

***Defining Personality***

Cattell defined personality as “that which tells what [a person] will do when placed in a given situation” (Cattell, 1965). Consistent with his mathematical analysis of personality, Cattell then presented the definition as a formula:

***R* = *f*(*S*, *P*)**

This mean the behavioral response (*R*) of a person is a function (*f)* of the situation (*S*) confronted and the individual’s personality (*P*). Cattell expanded his theorizing to include the ways in which situations, in conjunction with personality traits, influence behavior (Cattell, 1980).

**Traits, Consistency, and Situations**

*Does that mean that to predict how a person will act, it is better to focus on both personality traits and external circumstances?* Yes, it’sbest to take both into account. Personality traits are quite consistent.Also, they can predict such things as job performance, dangerousdriving, or a successful marriage (Funder, 2006). Yet, *situations* also greatly influence our behavior. For instance, it would beunusual for you to dance at a movie or read a book at a footballgame. Likewise, few people sleep in roller coasters or tell off-colorjokes at funerals. However, your personality traits may predictwhether you choose to read a book, go to a movie, or attend afootball game in the first place. Typically, traits *interact* with situationsto determine how we will act (Mischel, 2004).

In a *trait-situation interaction,*external circumstances influence the expression of a personality trait. For instance, imagine what would happen if you moved from a church to a classroom to a party to a football game. As the setting changed, you would probably become louder and more boisterous. This change would show situational effects on behavior. At the same time, your personality traits would also be apparent: If you were quieter than average in church and class, you would probably be quieter than average in the other settings, too.

**Personality Development**

Unlike any of the other theorists, Cattell discussed prenatal influences on personality in detail. It is known, for example, that children born with Down syndrome, a chromosomal abnormality, have limited intelligence and severely restricted behavior patterns. Metabolic abnormalities can also lead to mental retardation. Injuries to the head at birth can produce deficiencies in intelligence and motor coordination, or even paralysis. In addition to biological influences on personality, Cattell discussed the tremendous impact of the environment, especially at later stages of development. At first, biological and maturational influences are paramount. Research has shown that, in both motor and verbal learning, untaught twins achieve the same levels of performance as those who have been thoroughly trained (Cattell, 1950); that is, untrained children learn certain skills very rapidly once they are mature enough to do so, and quickly achieve levels of proficiency equal to those of their well-trained counterparts. As the person grows older, however, the environment has an increasing impact on personality formation.

* 1. **Hans J. Eysenck’s Personality Typology (1916-1997)**

A different model was proposed by Hans Eysenck, who believed that just three traits such as extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism were sufficient to describe human personality. Differences between Cattell and Eysenck emerged due to preferences for different forms of factor analysis, with Cattell using oblique, Eysenck orthogonal, rotation to analyze the factors that emerged when personality questionnaires were subjected to statistical analysis.

Eysenck’s typologyis hierarchically organized, and consists of types, traits, and habits. Types are most abstract, followed by traits, and then habits. Specifically, each of the type concepts is based on a set of observed inter-correlations among various traits. Each trait, in turn, is inferred from inter-correlations among habitual responses. Habitual responses, in turn, are based on specific observable responses. For example, extraversion is based on observed inter-correlations among traits such as sociability, impulsivity, activity, liveliness, and excitability. Each of these traits is inferred from inter-correlated habitual responses such as going to parties, liking to talk to people, going to films on the spur of the moment, and so forth. These habits are themselves inferred from observable specific responses—actual occasions when the person went to a party, talked to people, and so forth.

To accomplish this goal, Eysenck suggested that we must integrate the two approaches by:

* 1. Identifying the main dimensions of personality;
  2. Devising means of measuring them; and
  3. Linking them with experimental, quantitative procedures. Only in this way, Eysenck believed, can we claim to be testing theories using a scientific perspective (Eysenck, 1997).

On the basis of numerous factor analyses of personality data gathered from different subject populations all over the world, Eysenck derived two factors that could readily be labeled introversion/extraversion and stability/neuroticism. Later, on the basis of other statistical analyses, he postulated a third dimension, impulse control/psychoticism (Eysenck, 1982). These three dimensions, according to Eysenck, are the major individual difference types most useful in describing personality functioning.

**Personality Development**

In Eysenck’s view, human beings are biosocial creatures; that is, people are born with certain innate predispositions to respond in particular ways to the environment, but these predispositions can be altered to some extent by socialization demands. Thus, the environment and our genes interact to produce behavior; biological factors typically play the stronger role in personality development.

* 1. **Lewis Goldberg’s Big Five Factors Theory**

Today, the Big Five Factors forms the basis to assessment of personality with questionnaires such as the NEO-PI which consists 300 items, being used widely in occupational psychology (Costa & McCrae, 1992). It was developed on the work of Cattell and others, Lewis Goldberg proposed a five-dimension personality model, nicknamed the "Big Five":

* + 1. *Extraversion* rates how introverted or extroverted each person is.
    2. *Neuroticism* refers to negative, upsetting emotions. People who are high in neuroticism tend to be anxious, emotionally “sour,” irritable, and unhappy. It is the opposite of emotional stability.
    3. *Agreeableness* refers to how friendly, nurturing, and caring a person is, as opposed to cold, indifferent, self-centered, or spiteful.
    4. A person who is *conscientious* is self-disciplined, responsible, and achieving. People lows on these factors are irresponsible, careless, and undependable.
    5. *Openness to experience* is being open to new ideas and changes vs. traditional and oriented toward routine. For ease of remembrance, this can be written as OCEAN.
  1. **William Sheldon’s Somatotype Theory**

Sheldon (1954) categorized people into three groups according to body types and related these physical differences to differences in personality. He looks at the physique or body type (soma) for the explanation of human behavior. **Endomorphic** body types are plump and round with a tendency to be relaxed and outgoing. **Mesomorphic** physiques are strong and muscular, rectangular in shape and usually energetic and assertive in personality. The athlete, adventurer, or professional soldier might best be endowed with this type of physique. **Ectomorphic** body types are tall and thin and tend to have a fearful and restrained personality. Not only is it unlikely that personality can be mapped to body type, but the idea that all people can be allocated to a small number of categories is challenged by modern trait theories.

**Critics on Traits Theories**

Trait models have been criticized as being purely descriptive and offering little explanation of the underlying causes of personality. Eysenck’s theory, however, does propose biological mechanisms as driving traits, and modern behavior genetics researchers have demonstrated a clear genetic substrate to them. Another potential weakness with trait theories is that they lead people to accept oversimplified classifications, or worse offer advice, based on a superficial analysis of one’s personality. Finally, trait models often underestimate the effect of specific situations on people’s behavior. It is important to remember that traits are statistical generalizations that do not always correspond to an individual’s behavior.

* + 1. **Behavioral and Social Learning Theories**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will focus behavioral and social learning theories of personality, and how they clarify about the nature and development of personality.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to:

* Identify behavioral and social learning theories of personality.
* Illustrate about behavioral and social learning theories personality.

*What do behaviorists emphasize in their approach to personality?*

After exploring psychodynamic theories, you might be relieved to know that behavioral theorists explain personality through straightforward concepts, such as learning, reinforcement, and imitation. Behavioral and social learning theories are based on scientific research, which makes them powerful ways of looking at personality.

*How do behaviorists approach personality?*

Actually, the behaviorist position is not nearly that mechanistic, and its value is well established. Behaviorists have shown repeatedly that children can *learn* things like kindness, hostility, generosity, or destructiveness. Behavioral personality theoristsemphasize that personality is no more (or less) than a collection of learned behavior patterns. Personality, like other learned behavior, is acquired through classical and operant conditioning, observational learning, etc.

Behaviorists explain personality in terms of the effects external stimuli have on behavior. It was a radical shift away from Freudian philosophy. Operant conditioning was developed by B. F. Skinner who put forth a model which emphasized the mutual interaction of the person or "the organism" with its environment. Skinner believed that children do bad things because the behavior obtains attention that serves as a reinforcer. For example: a child cries because the child’s crying in the past has led to attention. These are the response, and consequences. The response is the child crying, and the attention that child gets is the reinforcing consequence.

John B. Watson, The Father of American Behaviorism, made four major assumptions about radical Behaviorisms:

* + - 1. *Evolutionary Continuity*: The laws of behavior are applied equally to all living organisms, so we can study animals as simple models of complex human responses.
      2. *Reductionism*: All behaviors are linked to physiology.
      3. *Determinism*: Animals do not respond freely, they respond in a programmed way to external stimuli. Biological organisms respond to outside influences.
      4. *Empiricism*: Only our actions are observable evidence of our personality. Psychology should involve the study of observable (overt) behavior.

All behaviorists focus on observable behavior. Thus there is no emphasis on unconscious motives, internal traits, introspection, or self analysis. Behavior modification is a form of therapy that applies the principles of learning to achieve changes in behavior.

**How Situations Affect Behavior?**

Situations vary greatly in their impact. Some are powerful. Others are trivial and have little effect on behavior. The more powerful the situation, the easier it is to see what is meant by *situational* *determinants.* For example, each of the following situations would undoubtedly have a strong influence on your behavior: an armed person walks into your classroom; you accidentally sit on a lighted cigarette; you find your lover in bed with your best friend. Yet even these situations could provoke very different reactions from different personalities. That’s why behavior is always a product of both prior learning and the situations in which we find ourselves (Mischel, Shoda, & Smith, 2004).

Ultimately, what is predictable about personality is that we respond in consistent ways to certain *types of situations.* Consider, for example, two people who are easily angered: One person might get angry when she is delayed (for example, in traffic or a checkout line) but not when she misplaces something at home; the other person might get angry whenever she misplaces things but not when she is delayed. Overall, the two women are equally prone to anger, but their anger tends to occur in different patterns and different types of situations (Mischel, 2004).

* + 1. **Dollard’s and Miller’s Stimulus-Response Theory**

*How do these theorists view the structure of personality?* The behavioral view of personality can be illustrated with an early theory proposed by John Dollard and Neal Miller (1950). In their view, *habits* (learned behavior patterns) make up the structure of personality. As for the dynamics of personality, habits are governed by four elements of learning: *drive, cue, response,* and *reward.* A *drive* is any stimulus strong enough to goad a person to action (such as hunger, pain, lust, frustration, or fear). *Cues*are signals from the environment. These signals guide *responses* (actions) so that they are most likely to bring about *reward*(positive reinforcement).

**View of Personality Development**

*How do learning theorists account for personality development?*

Many of Freud’s ideas can be restated in terms of learning theory.Dollard and Miller (1950) agree with Freud that the first 6 yearsare crucial for personality development, but for different reasons.Rather than thinking in terms of psychosexual urges and fixations,they ask, “What makes early learning experiences so lasting intheir effects?” Their answer is that childhood is a time of urgentdrives, powerful rewards and punishments, and crushing frustrations.Also important is *social reinforcement***,** which is based onpraise, attention, or approval from others. These forces combineto shape the core of personality.

*How does that relate to personality?*

Let’s say a child named Amina is frustrated by her older brother Kedir, who takes a toy from her. Amina could respond in several ways: She could throw a temper tantrum, hit Kedir, tell Mother, and so forth. The response she chooses is guided by available cues and the previous effects of each response. If telling Mother has paid off in the past, and the mother is present, telling again may be her immediate response. If a different set of cues exists (if Mother is absent or if Kedir looks particularly menacing), Amina may select some other response. To an outside observer, Amina’s actions seem to reflect her personality. To a learning theorist, they simply express the combined effects of drive, cue, response, and reward.

*Doesn’t this analysis leave out a lot?* Yes. Learning theorists first set out to provide a simple, clear model of personality. But in recent years they have had to face a fact that they originally tended to overlook: People think. The new breed of behavioral psychologists whose views include perception, thinking, expectations, and other mental events are called social learning theorists. Learning principles, modeling, thought patterns, perceptions, expectations, beliefs, goals, emotions, and social relationships are combined in ***social learning theory*** to explain personality (Mischel, Shoda, & Smith, 2004).

**Critical Situations for Personality Development**

Dollard and Miller believe that during childhood four ***critical situations*** are capable of leaving a long lasting imprint on personality.These are:

* 1. Feeding,
  2. Toilet or cleanliness training,
  3. Sextraining, and
  4. Learning to express anger or aggression.

*Why these factors have special importance?* Feeding serves as an illustration. If children are fed when they cry, it encourages them to actively manipulate their parents. The child allowed to cry without being fed learns to be passive. Thus, a basic active or passive orientation toward the world may be created by early feeding experiences. Feeding can also affect later social relationships because the child learns to associate people with pleasure or with frustration and discomfort. Toilet and cleanliness training can be a particularly strong source of emotion for both parents and children. Rashad’s parents were aghast the day they found him smearing feces about with joyful abandon. They reacted with sharp punishment, which frustrated and confused Rashad. Many attitudes toward cleanliness, conformity, and bodily functions are formed at such times. Studies have also long shown that severe, punishing, or frustrating toilet training can have undesirable effects on personality development (Christophersen & Mortweet, 2003). Because of this, toilet and cleanliness training demand patience and a sense of humor.

*What about sex and anger?* When, where, and how a child learns to express anger and sexual feelings can leave an imprint on personality. Specifically, permissiveness for sexual and aggressive behavior in childhood is linked to adult needs for power (Mc Clelland & Pilon, 1983). This link probably occurs because permitting such behaviors allows children to get pleasure from asserting themselves. As we saw in the last chapter, sex training also involves learning socially defined “male” and “female” gender roles which also affect personality (Pervin, Cervone, & John, 2005).

* + 1. **Albert Bandura’s Social Learning Theory**

Albert Bandura, a social learning theorist suggested that the forces of memory and emotions worked in conjunction with environmental influences. He developed a *reciprocal determinism model* that consists of three main factors: behavior, person/cognitive, and environment these factors can interact to influence learning: Environmental factors influence behavior, behavior affects the environment; person (cognitive) factors influence behavior, and so on. The effect of each of the three components is conditional on the others. For example, the environment is a potentiality whose effects depend on the organism's understanding of it and behavior in it. Similarly, a person plays different roles and has different expectations across different situations, people seek out and create the environments to which they respond, and behavior itself contributes to defining the environment and the person's understanding of who he or she is.

Here, Bandura is suggesting, in part, that people do not simply react to the external environment; rather, external factors influence behavior only through the mediation of a person's cognitive processes. By altering their environment or by creating conditional self-inducements, people influence the stimuli to which they respond. In the social learning view of *reciprocal determinism*, behavior, environmental forces, and personal characteristics all function as "interlocking determinants, of each other."

**Self-Efficacy**

An ability to control your own life is the essence of what it means to be human. Because of this, Albert Bandura believes that one of the most important expectancies we develop concerns ***self-efficacy*** (a capacity for producing a desired result). You’re attracted to someone in your psychology class. Will you ask him or her out? You’re thinking about learning to keyboard. Will you try it this winter? You’re beginning to consider a career in psychology. Will you take the courses you need to get into graduate school? In these and countless other situations, efficacy beliefs play a key role in shaping our lives by influencing the activities and environments we choose (Bandura, 2001; Schultz & Schultz, 2005).

**Self-Reinforcement**

One more idea deserves mention. At times, we all evaluate our actions and may reward ourselves with special privileges or treats for “good behavior.” With this in mind, social learning theory adds the concept of self-reinforcement to the behaviorists view. ***Self-reinforcement*** refers to praising or rewarding yourself for having made a particular response (such as completing a school assignment). Thus, habits of self-praise and self-blame become an important part of personality (Schultz & Schultz, 2005). In fact, self-reinforcement can be thought of as the social learning theorist’s counterpart to the superego.

**Imitation and Modeling**

From birth onward, children are labeled as boys or girls and encouraged to learn sex-appropriate behavior (Denmark, Rabinowitz, & Sechzer, 2005). According to social learning theory, identification and imitation contribute greatly to personality and identity development. Through identification children become emotionally attached to admired adults, especially those who provide love and care. Identification typically encourages***imitation*,** a desire to act like the admired person. Many “male” or “female” traits come from children’s attempts to imitate a same-sex parent with whom they identify.

*If children are around parents of both sexes, why don’t they imitate behavior typical of the opposite sex as well as of the same sex?* Learning takes place vicariously aswell as directly. This means that we can learn without directreward by observing and remembering the actions of others. Butthe actions we choose to imitate depend on their outcomes. Forexample, boys and girls have equal chances to observe adults andother children acting aggressively. However, girls are less likelythan boys to imitate directly aggressive behavior (shouting at orhitting another person). Instead, girls are more likely to rely onindirectly aggressive behavior (excluding others from friendship,spreading rumors). This may well be because the expression ofdirect aggression is thought to be inappropriate for girls. As a consequence,girls rarely see direct female aggression rewarded orapproved (Richardson & Green, 1999). In others words, “girl fighting”is likely a culturally reinforced pattern (Brown, 2005).

Intriguingly, over the last few years, girls have become more willing to engage in direct aggression as popular culture presents more and more images of directly aggressive women (Artz, 2005). We have considered only a few examples of the links between social learning and personality. Nevertheless, the connection is unmistakable. When parents accept their children and give them affection, the children become sociable, positive, and emotionally stable, and they have high self-esteem. When parents are rejecting, punishing, sarcastic, humiliating, or neglectful, their children become hostile, unresponsive, unstable, and dependent and have impaired self-esteem (Triandis & Suh, 2002).

* + 1. **Cognitive Theories of Personality**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will describe about cognitive theories of personality, and how they explain about the nature and development of personality.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to:

* Discern out major cognitive theories of personality.
* Express about cognitive theories personality.

In cognitivism, behavior is explained as guided by cognitions (e.g. expectations) about the world, especially those about other people. Cognitive theories are theories of personality that emphasize cognitive processes such as thinking and judging. Early examples of approaches to cognitive style are listed by Baron (1982). These include Witkin’s (1965) work on field dependency, Gardner’s (1953) discovering people had consistent preference for the number of categories they used to categorize heterogeneous objects, and Block and Petersen’s (1955) work on confidence in line discrimination judgments. Baron relates early development of cognitive approaches of personality to ego psychology. More central to this approach have been the following key concepts:

* Self-efficacy work, dealing with confidence people have in abilities to do tasks (Bandura, 1997);
* Locus of control theory (Lefcourt, 1966; Rotter, 1966) dealing with different beliefs people have about whether their worlds are controlled by themselves or external factors;
* Attributional style theory (Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale, 1978) dealing with different ways in which people explain events in their lives. This approach builds upon locus of control, but extends it by stating that we also need to consider whether people attribute to stable causes or variable causes, and to global causes or specific causes.
  + - 1. **Albert Ellis’s Theory**

Albert Ellis, an American cognitive-behavioral therapist, is considered by many to be the grandfather of cognitive behavioral therapy. In 1955 Ellis developed Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT), which later came to be known as Rational Therapy (RT). REBT required that the therapist help the client understand and act on the understanding that his personal philosophy contains common irrational beliefs that lead to his own emotional pain. Because thinking and emotion have a cause and effect relationship, Ellis believes that the thoughts we have become our emotions and the emotions we have become our thoughts. The basic theory of REBT is that majority of people create their own sort of emotional consequences because to sustain an emotion it must have had some form of thought.

**Ellis’s View of Human Nature**

Humans have potential for both ***rationality*** (straight, positive thinking like we can be happy, positive, loving, self preserving and self actualizing) and ***irrationality*** (crooked thinking such as being superstitious, intolerant, perfectionist, involved in self blame, avoidance of self actualization.)

Ellis in 1979 listed some key assumptions about humans such as:

1. People have biological and cultural tendency to think irrationally and to disturb themselves;
2. Humans are unique in the way they invent their irrational beliefs and continue to be disturbed by them;
3. People themselves condition themselves to be disturbed rather than the environment or external factors; and
4. People have the capacity and potential to change themselves by changing their cognition, emotion and behavior to remain minimum disturbed for the rest of their lives.

He stated that through constant self talk, self evaluation and self assessment, human beings develop emotional and behavioral difficulties such as need or desire for love, approval and success; this hinders the self growth and self actualization. It seems that Ellis is being Freudian in his approach, with emphasis on biological nature of humans but he rejects Freud’s and says that humans are not completely controlled by instincts

**Theory of Personality**

Ellis is interested in studying the biological Social and psychological factors that make humans vulnerable to disturbances that can be cognitive, emotive and behavioral in nature. Ellis’s A-B-C theory of personality focuses on the biological and social factors that cause emotional disturbance. In Ellis’s A-B-C theory of personality (A), is the activating event which is followed by (B), the belief system that the person holds and then (C), the emotional consequence. What the theory states is that (A) does not cause (C); but that (B) causes (C). The emotional consequences are caused by what the person believes in. An example would be if a person is walking outside and a stranger in a car pulls up next to them asking for directions (A), and the persons’ belief system is that any stranger in a car that wants directions wants to hurt you (B) so therefore the person fears the person in the car is going to hurt them (C).

**Example**

Assume, Abeba gets an A+ grade on her Psychology test (activating event-A)

Now this good grade will make her belief that she has ability for understanding Psychology (belief-B) As a result she decides to become a Psychologist (consequence-C)

Inversely, if you she scores an F grade on her psychology test (activating event-A)

The grade make her, to believe that she don’t understand the field thence (belief-B)

And as consequence, she will decide to quit her education (consequence-C).

* + - 1. **Julian Rotter’s Theory**

The “cognitive behaviorism” of social learning theory can be illustrated by three concepts proposed by Julian Rotter: the psychological situation, expectancy, and reinforcement value (Rotter & Hochreich, 1975). Let’s examine each. *Suppose that someone asked you for trips, how do you respond?* Your reaction probably depends on whether you think it was planned or an accident. It is not enough to know the setting in which a person responds. We also need to know the person’s ***psychological situation*** (how the person interprets or defines the situation). As another example, let’s say you score low on an exam. Do you consider it a challenge to work harder, a sign that you should drop the class, or an excuse to get drunk? Again, your interpretation is important.

Secondly, our actions are also affected by an ***expectancy*,** or anticipation, that making a response will lead to reinforcement. To continue the example, if working harder has paid off in the past, it is a likely reaction to a low test score. But to predict your response, we would also have to know if you *expect* your efforts to pay off in the present situation. In fact, expected reinforcement may be more important than actual past reinforcement. And what about the *value* you attach to grades, school success, or personal ability? The third concept, ***reinforcement******value*,** states that we attach different subjective values to various activities or rewards. You will likely choose to study harder if passing your courses and obtaining a degree is highly valued. This, too, must be taken into account to understand personality.

|  |
| --- |
| ***Activity:* *Rate Self-Reinforcement***  *Check the statements in the list that apply to you.*  *\_\_ I often think positive thoughts about myself.*  *\_\_ I frequently meet standards that I set for myself.*  *\_\_ I try not to blame myself when things go wrong.*  *\_\_ I usually don’t get upset when I make mistakes because I learn from them.*  *\_\_ I can get satisfaction out of what I do even if it’s not perfect.*  *\_\_When I make mistakes I take time to reassure myself.*  *\_\_ I don’t think talking about what you’ve done right is too boastful. or*  *Praising yourself is healthy and normal.*  *\_\_ I don’t think I have to be upset every time I make a mistake.*  *\_\_My feelings of self-confidence and self-esteem stay pretty steady*. |

People who agree with most of these statements tend to have high rates of self-reinforcement (Heiby, 1983). Self-reinforcement is closely related to high self-esteem. The reverse is also true: Mildly depressed college students tend to have low rates of self-reinforcement. It is not known if low self-reinforcement leads to depression, or the reverse. In either case, higher rates of self-reinforcement are associated with less depression and greater life satisfaction (Seybolt & Wagner, 1997).

* + 1. **Humanistic Theory of Personality**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will stress humanistic theories of personality, and how they explain about the nature and development of personality.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to:

* List major trait theories of personality.
* Describe about trait theories personality.

*How do humanistic theories differ from other perspectives?*

Humanistic theories pay special attention to the fuller use of human potentials and they help bring balance to our overall views of personality. Humanismfocuses on human experience, problems, potentials, and ideals. It is a reaction to the rigidity of traits, the pessimism of psychoanalytic theory, and the mechanical nature of learning theory. At its core is a positive image of what it means to be human.

Humanists reject the Freudian view of personality as a battleground for instincts and unconscious forces. Instead, they view human nature as inherently good. (***Human nature*** consists of the traits, qualities, potentials, and behavior patterns most characteristic of the human species.) Humanists also oppose the machinelike overtones of behaviorism. We are not, they say, merely a bundle of moldable responses. Rather, we are creative beings capable of *free choice* (an ability to choose that is not determined by genetics, learning, or unconscious forces). In short, humanists seek ways to encourage our potentials to flourish.

In humanistic psychology it is emphasized that people have free will and that they play an active role in determining how they behave. Accordingly, humanistic psychology focuses on subjective experiences of persons as opposed to forced, definitive factors that determine behavior. To a humanist the person you are today is largely the product of all the choices you have made. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers were proponents of this view, which is based on the "phenomenal field" theory of Combs and Snygg (1949). Humanists also emphasize immediate ***subjective experience*** (private perceptions of reality), rather than prior learning. They believe that there are as many “real worlds” as there are people. To understand behavior, we must learn how a person subjectively views the world what is “real” for her or him.

*Who are the major humanistic theorists?*

Many psychologists have added to the humanistic tradition. Of these, the best known are Abraham Maslow (1908–1970) and Carl Rogers (1902– 1987). Let’s begin with a more detailed look at this facet of thinking.

* + 1. **Abraham Maslow’s Theory (1908–1970)**

Abraham Maslow became interested in people who were living unusually effective lives. How were they different? To find an answer, Maslow began by studying the lives of great men and women from history, such as Albert Einstein, William James, Jane Addams, Eleanor Roosevelt, Abraham Lincoln, John Muir, and Walt Whitman. From there he moved on to directly study living artists, writers, poets, and other creative individuals. Along the way, Maslow’s thinking changed radically. At first he studied only people of obvious creativity or high achievement. However, it eventually became clear that a housewife, clerk, student, or someone like us could live a rich, creative, and satisfying life. *Maslow referred to the process of fully developing personal potentials as* ***self-actualization*** *(Maslow, 1954).* The heart of self-actualization is a continuous search for personal fulfillment (Ewen, 2003; Reiss & Havercamp, 2005).

Maslow spent much of his time studying what he called "self-actualizing persons", those who are "fulfilling themselves and doing the best that they are capable of doing". Maslow believes that all who are interested in growth move towards self-actualizing (growth, happiness, satisfaction) views. A self-actualizer is a person who is living creatively and fully using his or her potentials. In his studies, Maslow found that self-actualizers share many similarities. Whether famous or unknown, well-schooled or uneducated, rich or poor, self-actualizers tend to fit the following profile: Characteristics of self-actualizers according to Maslow include the following key dimensions;

1. *Efficient perceptions of reality***.** Self-actualizers are able to judge situations correctly and honestly. They are very sensitive to the fake and dishonest.
2. *Comfortable acceptance of self, others, nature.*Self-actualizers accept their own human nature with all its flaws. The shortcomings of others and the contradictions of the human condition are accepted with humor and tolerance.
3. *Spontaneity.*Maslow’s subjects extended their creativity into everyday activities. Actualizers tend to be unusually alive, engaged, and spontaneous.
4. *Task centering.*Most of Maslow’s subjects had a mission to fulfill in life or some task or problem outside of themselves to pursue. Humanitarians such as Albert Schweitzer and Mother Teresa represent this quality.
5. *Autonomy.*Self-actualizers are free from reliance on external authorities or other people. They tend to be resourceful and independent.
6. *Continued freshness of appreciation.*The self-actualizer seems to constantly renew appreciation of life’s basic goods. A sunset or a flower will be experienced as intensely time after time as it was at first. There is an “innocence of vision,” like that of an artist or child.
7. *Fellowship with humanity.*Maslow’s subjects felt a deep identification with others and the human situation in general.
8. *Profound interpersonal relationships.*The interpersonal relationships of self-actualizers are marked by deep, loving bonds (Hanley & Abell, 2002).
9. *Comfort with solitude.*Despite their satisfying relationships with others, self-actualizing persons value solitude and are comfortable being alone (Sumerlin & Bundrick, 1996).
10. *Non-hostile sense of humor.*This refers to the wonderful capacity to laugh at oneself. It also describes the kind of humor a man like Abraham Lincoln had. Lincoln probably ever made a joke that hurt anybody. His wry comments were a gentle prodding of human shortcomings.
11. *Peak experiences.*All of Maslow’s subjects reported the frequent occurrence of **peak experiences** (temporary moments of self-actualization). These occasions were marked by feelings of ecstasy, harmony, and deep meaning. Self-actualizers reported feeling at one with the universe, stronger and calmer than ever before, filled with light, beautiful and good, and so forth. In summary, self-actualizers feel safe, non-anxious, accepted, loved, loving, and alive.

Maslow and Rogers emphasized a view of the person as an active, creative, experiencing human being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships, and encounters. They disagree with the dark, pessimistic outlook of those in the Freudian psychoanalysis ranks, but rather view humanistic theories as positive and optimistic proposals which stress the tendency of the human personality toward growth and self-actualization. This progressing self will remain the center of its constantly changing world; worlds that will help mold the self but not necessarily confine it. Rather, the self has opportunity for maturation based on its encounters with this world. This understanding attempts to reduce the acceptance of hopeless redundancy.

*What steps can be taken to promote self-actualization?* Maslow made few specific recommendations about how to proceed. There is no magic formula for leading a more creative life. Self-actualization is primarily a *process,* not a goal or an end point. As such, it requires hard work, patience, and commitment. Nevertheless, some helpful suggestions can be gleaned from his writings (Maslow, 1954, 1967, 1971). Here are some ways to begin:

1. ***Be willing to change*.** Begin by asking yourself, “Am I living in a way that is deeply satisfying to me and that truly expresses me?” If not, be prepared to make changes in your life. Indeed, ask yourself this question often and accept the need for continual change.
2. ***Take responsibility*.** You can become an architect of self by acting as if you are personally responsible for every aspect of your life. Shouldering responsibility in this way helps end the habit of blaming others for your own shortcomings.
3. ***Examine your motives*.** Self-discovery involves an element of risk. If your behavior is restricted by a desire for safety or security, it may be time to test some limits. Try to make each life decision a choice for growth, not a response to fear or anxiety.
4. ***Experience honestly and directly.*** Wishful thinking is another barrier to personal growth. Self-actualizers trust themselves enough to accept all kinds of information without distorting it to fit their fears and desires. Try to see yourself as others do. Be willing to admit, “I was wrong,” or, “I failed because I was irresponsible.”
5. ***Make use of positive experiences*.** Maslow considered peak experiences temporary moments of self-actualization. Therefore, you might actively repeat activities that have caused feelings of awe, amazement, exaltation, renewal, reverence, humility, fulfillment, or joy.
6. ***Be prepared to be different*.** Maslow felt that everyone has a potential for “greatness,” but most fear becoming what they might. As part of personal growth, be prepared to trust your own impulses and feelings; don’t automatically judge yourself by the standards of others. Accept your uniqueness.
7. ***Get involved.*** With few exceptions, self-actualizers tend to have a mission or “calling” in life. For these people, “work” is not done just to fill deficiency needs, but to satisfy higher yearnings for truth, beauty, community, and meaning. Get personally involved and committed. Turn your attention to problems outside yourself.
8. ***Assess your progress.*** There is no final point at which one becomes self-actualized. It’s important to gauge your progress frequently and to renew your efforts. If you feel bored at school, at a job, or in a relationship, consider it a challenge. Have you been taking responsibility for your own personal growth? Almost any activity can be used as a chance for self-enhancement if it is approached creatively.
   * 1. **Carl Rogers’ Self Theory (1902– 1987)**

Carl Rogers, another well-known humanist, also emphasized the human capacity for inner peace and happiness. The***fully functioning******person****,* he said, lives in harmony with his or her deepest feelings and impulses. Such people are open to their experiences and they trust their inner urges and intuitions (Rogers, 1961). Rogers believed that this attitude is most likely to occur when a person receives ample amounts of love and acceptance from others.

**Personality Structure and Dynamics**

Rogers’ theory emphasizes the***self*,** a flexible and changing perception of personal identity. Much behavior can be understood as an attempt to maintain consistency between our *self-image* and our actions. (Your ***self-image*** is a total subjective perception of your body and personality.) For example, people who think of themselves as kind tend to be considerate in most situations.

*Let’s say I know a person who thinks she is kind, but she really isn’t. How does that fit Rogers’ theory?* According to Rogers, weallow experiences that match our self-image into awareness, wherethey gradually change the self. Information or feelings inconsistentwith the self-image are said to be *incongruent.* Thus, a person whothinks she is kind, but really isn’t, is in a state of ***incongruence*.** Inother words, there is a discrepancy between her experiences andher self-image. As another example, it would be incongruent tobelieve that you are a person who “never gets angry,” if you spendmuch of each day seething inside. Experiences seriously incongruent with the self-image can be threatening and are often distorted or denied conscious recognition. Blocking, denying, or distorting experiences prevents the self from changing. This creates a gulf between the self-image and reality. As the self-image grows more unrealistic, the incongruent person becomes confused, vulnerable, dissatisfied, or seriously maladjusted. In line with Rogers’s observations, a study of college students confirmed that being *authentic* is vital for healthy functioning. That is, we need to feel that our behavior accurately expresses who we are (Sheldon, 1997). Please note, however, that being authentic doesn’t mean you can do whatever you want. Being true to yourself is no excuse for acting irresponsibly or ignoring the feelings of others.

When your self-image is consistent with what you really think, feel, do, and experience, you are best able to actualize your potentials. Rogers also considered it essential to have congruence between the self-image and the ***ideal self.*** The ideal self is similar to Freud’s ego ideal. It is an image of the person you would most like to be.

*Is it really incongruent not to live up to your ideal self?* Rogers was aware that we never fully attain our ideals. Nevertheless, the greater the gap between the way you see yourself and the way you would like to be, the more tension and anxiety you will experience. He emphasized that to maximize our potentials, we must accept information about ourselves as honestly as possible. In accord with his thinking, researchers have found that people with a close match between their self-image and ideal self tend to be socially poised, confident, and resourceful. Those with a poor match tend to be depressed, anxious, and insecure (Boldero, 2005).

According to psychologists Hazel Markus and Paula Nurius (1986), our ideal self is only one of a number of ***possible selves*** (persons we could become or are afraid of becoming). Annette, who was described earlier, is an interesting personality, to say the least. Annette is one of those people who seem to have lived many lives in the time that most of us manage only one. Like Annette, you may have pondered many possible personal identities. (Remind “Stories Telling about Ourselves.”) Possible selves translate our hopes, fears, fantasies, and goals into specific images of who we *could* be. Thus, a beginning law student might picture herself as a successful attorney, an enterprising college student might imagine himself as an Internet entrepreneur, and a person on a diet might imagine both slim and grossly obese possible selves. Such images tend to direct our future behavior (Oysterman, 2004).

Of course, almost everyone over age 30 has probably felt the anguish of realizing that some cherished possible selves will never be realized. Nevertheless, there is value in asking yourself not just “Who am I?” but also “Who would I like to become?” As you do, remember Maslow’s advice that everyone has a potential for “greatness,” but most fear becoming what they might.

**Humanistic view about Personality Development**

*Why do mirrors, photographs, video cameras, and the reactions of others hold such fascination and threat for many people?* Carl Rogers’s theory suggests it is because they provide information about one’s self. The development of a self-image depends greatly on information from the environment. It begins with a sorting of perceptions and feelings: my body, my toes, my nose, I want, I like, I am, and so on. Soon, it expands to include self-evaluation: I am a good person; I did something bad just now, and so forth.

*How does development of the self contribute to later personality functioning?* Rogers believed that positive and negative evaluationsby others cause children to develop internal standards of evaluationcalled ***conditions of worth*.** In other words, we learn thatsome actions win our parents’ love and approval whereas others arerejected. More important, parents may label some *feelings* as bad orwrong. For example, a child might be told that it is wrong to feelangry toward a brother or sister — even when anger is justified. Likewise, a little boy might be told that he must not cry or show fear, two very normal emotions. Learning to evaluate some experiences or feelings as “good” and others as “bad” is directly related to a later capacity for self-esteem, positive self-evaluation, or ***positive self-regard*,** to use Rogers’ term. To think of yourself as a good, lovable, worthwhile person, your behavior and experiences must match your internal conditions of worth. The problem is that this can cause incongruence by leading to the denial of many true feelings and experiences.

He believed that congruence and self-actualization are encouraged by replacing conditions of worth with ***organismic valuing*** (a natural, undistorted, full-body reaction to an experience). Organismic valuing is a direct, gut-level response to life that avoids the filtering and distortion of incongruence. It involves trusting one’s own feelings and perceptions. Organismic valuing is most likely to develop; Rogers felt, when children (or adults) receive ***unconditional positive regard*** (unshakable love and approval) from others. That is, when they are “prized” as worthwhile human beings, just for being themselves, without any conditions or strings attached. Although this may be a luxury few people enjoy, we are more likely to move toward our ideal selves if we receive affirmation and support from a close partner (Drigotas et al., 1999).

* 1. **Personality Theories an Overview and Comparison**

*Which personality theory is right?* Each theory has added to our understanding by organizing observations of human behavior. Nevertheless, theories can’t be fully proved or disproved. We can only ask, “Does the evidence tend to support this theory or disconfirm it?” Yet although theories are neither true nor false, their implications or predictions may be. The best way to judge a theory, then, is in terms of its *usefulness.* Does the theory adequately explain behavior? Does it stimulate new research? Does it suggest how to treat psychological disorders? Each theory has fared differently in these areas (Pervin, Cervone, & John, 2005).

**Trait Theories**

Traits are very useful for describing and comparing personalities. Many of the personality tests used by clinical psychologists are based on trait theories. However, trait theories tend to have a circular quality. For example, how do we know that a young woman named Seble has the trait of shyness? Because we frequently observe Seble avoiding conversations with others. And why doesn’t Seble socialize with others? Because shyness is a trait of her personality. And how do we know she has the trait of shyness? Because we observe that she avoids socializing with others. So on.

**Psychoanalytic Theory**

By present standards, psychoanalytic theory seems to exaggerate the impact of sexuality and biological instincts. These distortions were corrected somewhat by the neo-Freudians, but problems remain. One of the most telling criticisms of Freudian theory is that it can explain any psychological event *after* it has occurred. But beforehand it offers little help in predicting future behavior. For this reason, many psychoanalytic concepts are difficult or impossible to test scientifically (Schick & Vaughn, 1995).

**Behavioral and Social Learning Theories**

Learning theories have provided a good framework for personality research. Of the major perspectives, the behaviorists have made the best effort to rigorously test and verify their ideas. They have, however, been criticized for understating the impact that temperament, emotion, thinking, and subjective experience have on personality. Social learning theory answers some of these criticisms, but it may still understate the importance of private experience.

**Humanistic Theory**

A great strength of the humanists is the attention they have given to positive dimensions of personality. As Maslow (1968) put it, “Human nature is not nearly as bad as it has been thought to be. It is as if Freud supplied us with the sick half of psychology and we must now fill it out with the healthy half.” Despite their contributions, humanists can be criticized for using “fuzzy” concepts that are difficult to measure and study objectively. Even so, humanistic thought has encouraged many people to seek greater self-awareness and personal growth. Also, humanistic concepts have been very useful in counseling and psychotherapy.

In the final analysis, we need all four major perspectives to explain personality. Each provides a sort of lens through which human behavior can be viewed. In many instances, a balanced picture emerges only when each theory is considered.

Table 6.3 Final overview of the principal approaches to personality

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Theoretical**  **Approach and**  **Major Theorists** | **Conscious Versus**  **Unconscious**  **Determinants of**  **Personality** | **Nature (Hereditary**  **Factors) Versus Nurture**  **(Environmental Factors)** | **Free Will Versus Determinism** | **Stability Versus Modifiability** |
| **Psychodynamic**  **(Freud, Jung,**  **Horney, Adler)** | *Emphasizes the*  *Unconscious* | *Stresses innate, inherited*  *structure of personality while*  *emphasizing importance of*  *childhood experience* | *Stresses determinism, the view that*  *behavior is directed and caused by*  *factors outside one’s control* | *Emphasizes the stability of*  *characteristics throughout a*  *person’s life* |
| **Trait (Allport,**  **Cattell, Eysenck)** | *Disregards both*  *conscious and*  *unconscious* | *Approaches vary* | *Stresses determinism, the view that*  *behavior is directed and caused by*  *factors outside one’s control* | *Emphasizes the stability of*  *characteristics throughout a*  *person’s life* |
| **Learning (Skinner,**  **Bandura)** | *Disregards both*  *conscious and*  *unconscious* | *Focuses on the environment* | *Stresses determinism, the view that*  *behavior is directed and caused by*  *factors outside one’s control* | *Stresses that personality*  *remains flexible and resilient*  *throughout one’s life* |
| **Humanistic**  **(Rogers, Maslow)** | *Stresses the*  *conscious more*  *than unconscious* | *Stresses the interaction*  *between both nature and*  *nurture* | *Stresses the freedom of individuals*  *to make their own choices* | *Stresses that personality*  *remains flexible and resilient*  *throughout one’s life* |

**Summary**

This chapter offers only an overview of the world of personality. It has examined different theoretical explanations of why we show consistency in our behavior, thoughts and actions and why these consistencies make us different from each other. The main points of the chapter were summarized as follows:

* Psychoanalytic theorists focus on unconscious processes and the impact of early childhood experience; in contrast, humanistic theorists emphasize on conscious human experience and positive aspects of behavior.
* Freud produced hypothetical models of the structure of the mind, the way personality works and the ways in which it develops. Psychoanalytic theories are not testable in the same way as modern scientific psychology.
* *Neo- Freudians*accepted the broad features of Freud’s theory but revised parts of it. They disagree with him on instinctual drives and sexuality that he placed strong emphasis, but they stress on the role social and other developmental factors.
* Trait theorists have been concerned with the labeling and measurement of personality dimensions, based on assumptions of stable genetic and biological explanations for personality. The complex way in which genes and environment determine personality has presented an important puzzle for personality theory.
* Social–cognitive theories provide an explanation for differences in personality in terms of the ways we process information and perceive our social world.
* Humanistic theories focus on subjective experiences of persons as opposed to forced, definitive factors that determine behavior.
* Within psychology the complexities of how our personality develops and determines our behavior have resulted in a number of differing theoretical perspectives and debates. These debates – about interactions between genes and environment, biology and experience, the person and the situation – will continue to engage psychologists in the twenty-first century.
* Personality theorists are concerned with identifying generalizations that can be made about consistent individual differences between people’s behavior and the causes and consequences of these differences.

**CHAPTER SEVEN**

* 1. **PERSONALITY MEASUREMENTS**

**Introduction**

Personality psychology was a latecomer among the various disciplines within psychology. Before it was adopted as a subject for study, however, it was already well established as a topic of discussion in the public domain. People have always been practicing personality psychology whether they have recognized it or not. When we seek the right person for a mate, our judgment of his or her personality is indispensable in evaluating our hoped-for compatibility. And are personnel directors really doing anything other than analyzing the applicant’s personality during a job interview? Similarly, when we describe a physician as a “good doctor,” have we really assessed the caliber of his or her medical knowledge? Or are we saying that we are satisfied with the doctor’s professional persona? When we listen to political speeches, how do we rate the orators? Are we looking at their command of the issues or their political intelligence? Or is it essentially their personality that we appraise? In most cases, it would seem the latter. These examples illustrate the omnipresence of informal personality assessment. It is a subject of universal interest and continual relevance in all human interactions. On the other hand, although the study of personality is compelling and important, personality as such is also very hard to pin down.

In this chapter we will discuss about the nature, type and the importance of personality assessment tools in the personality psychology specifically and the field of psychology in general.

**General Objectives:**

|  |
| --- |
| After completion of this chapter, you will be able to:   * Realize about personality measurements. * Differentiate the personality assessment tools. * Know when and how to administer personality assessments. |

* 1. **Personality Assessment**
* **Overview:**

In this section we will discuss about the nature type and ways of administering personality assessments.

* **Objectives:**

Upon the completion this section, you will be able to answer:

* What is the importance of personality assessments?
* Can you the types of personality assessments?
* How can we administer the assessment tools?

*How do psychologists measure personality?* Measuring personality can help predict how people will behave atwork, at school, and in therapy. To capture a personality asunique characteristic of an individual, they are expected to know *how personality is “measured”.* Psychologists use interviews, observation, questionnaires, and projective tests to assess personality (Burger, 2008). Each method has strengths and limitations. For this reason, they are often used in combination.

Formal personality measures are refinements of more casual ways of judging a person. At one time or another, you have probably “sized up” a potential date, friend, or roommate by engaging in conversation (interview). Perhaps you have asked a friend, “When I am delayed I get angry. Do you?” (Questionnaire). Maybe you watch your professors when they are angry or embarrassed to learn what they are “really” like when they’re caught off-guard (observation). Or possibly you have noticed that when you say, “I think people feel . . . ,” you may be expressing your own feelings (projection).

Personality measurement and assessment procedures are useful in understanding the person. They are broadly categorized as objective as well as projective tests. Objective tests include:

• Interviews

• Observation

• Rating scales

• Personality tests

* + 1. **Objective Personality Tests**

1. **Interviews**

The interview is the most commonly used procedure in psychological assessment. Interviews provide an opportunity to ask people for their own descriptions of their problems. Interviews also allow clinicians to observe important features of a person’s appearance and nonverbal behavior. In an ***interview*,** direct questioning is used to learn about a person’s life history, personality traits, or current mental state (Sommers-Flanagan & Sommers-Flanagan, 2002). In an *unstructured interview,* conversation is informal and topics are taken up freely as they arise. In a *structured interview,* information is gathered by asking a planned series of questions.

*How are interviews used?* Interviews are used to identify personality disturbances; to select people for jobs, college, or special programs; and to study the dynamics of personality. Interviews also provide information for counseling or therapy. For instance, a counselor might ask a depressed person, “Have you ever contemplated suicide? What were the circumstances?” The counselor might then follow by asking, “How did you feel about it?” or, “How is what you are now feeling different from what you felt then?”

In addition to providing information, interviews make it possible to observe a person’s tone of voice, hand gestures, posture, and facial expressions. Such “body language” cues are important because they may radically alter the message sent, as when a person claims to be “completely calm” but trembles uncontrollably.

**Computerized Interviews**

If you were distressed and went to a psychologist or psychiatrist, what is the first thing she or he might do? Typically, a *diagnostic* *interview* is used to find out how a person is feeling and what complaints or symptoms he or she has. In many cases, such interviews are based on a specific series of questions. Because the questions are always the same, some researchers have begun to wonder, “Why not let a computer ask them?” The results of computerized interviews have been promising. In one study, people were interviewed by both a computer and a psychiatrist. Eighty-five percent of these people thought the computer did an acceptable interview (Dignon, 1996). Another study found that a computerized interview was highly accurate at identifying psychiatric disorders and symptoms. It also closely agreed with diagnoses made by psychiatrists (Marion, Shayka, & Marcus, 1996). Thus, it may soon become common for people to “Tell it to the computer,” at least in the first stages of seeking help (Peters, Clark, & Carroll, 1998).

**Limitations of Interview**

Interviews give rapid insight into personality, but they have limitations.

* For one thing, interviewers can be swayed by preconceptions. A person identified as a “housewife,” “college student,” or “high school athlete,” may be misjudged because of an interviewer’s personal biases.
* Second, an interviewer’s own personality, or even gender, may influence a client’s behavior. When this occurs, it can accentuate or distort the person’s apparent traits (Pollner, 1998).
* A third problem is that people sometimes try to deceive interviewers. For example, a person accused of a crime might try to avoid punishment by pretending to be mentally disabled.
* A fourth problem is the ***halo effect*,** which is the tendency to generalize a favorable (or unfavorable) impression to an entire personality (Lance, LaPointe, & Stewart, 1994). Because of the halo effect, a person who is likable or physically attractive may be rated more mature, intelligent, or mentally healthy than she or he actually is. The halo effect is something to keep in mind at job interviews. First impressions do make a difference (Lance, LaPointe, & Stewart, 1994).

Even with their limitations, interviews are a respected method of assessment. In many cases, interviews are the first step in evaluating personality and an essential prelude to therapy. Nevertheless, interviews are usually not enough and must be supplemented by other measures and tests (Meyer et al., 2001).

1. **Direct Observation and Rating Scales**

Observational skills play an important part in most assessment procedures. Sometimes the things that we observe confirm the person’s self-report, and at other times the person’s overt behavior appears to be at odds with what he or she says. Observational procedures may be either informal or formal. Informal observations are primarily qualitative. The clinician observes the person’s behavior and the environment in which it occurs without attempting to record the frequency or intensity of specific responses. Although observations are often conducted in the natural environment, there are times when it is useful to observe the person’s behavior in a situation that the psychologist can arrange and control.

*Wouldn’t observation be subject to the same problems of misperception as an interview?* Yes. Misperceptions can be a difficulty,which is why rating scales are sometimes used. *A* ***rating scale*** is a list of personality traits or aspects of behavior thatcan be used to evaluate a person. Rating scales limit the chancethat some traits will be overlooked while others are exaggerated(Synhorst et al., 2005). Perhaps they should be a standard procedurefor choosing a roommate, spouse, or lover!

1. **The Mental Status Examination**

The mental status examination involves systematic observation of an individual’s behavior. This type of observation occurs when one individual interacts with another. Mental status examination can be structured and detailed. It covers five categories:

* Appearance and behavior
* Thought Process
* Mood and affect.
* Intellectual Function
* Perception of person, place and time.

The mental status examination tells us how people think, feel and behave and how these actions might contribute to explain their problems. So actually, we are doing behavioral assessment of people. This behavioral assessment is done by using direct observation of an individual’s thought, feelings and behavior in situations or context where the individual is having problems.

1. **Rating Scales**

A rating scale is a procedure in which the observer is asked to make judgments that place the person somewhere along a dimension. Ratings can also be made on the basis of information collected during an interview. Rating scales provide abstract descriptions of a person’s behavior rather than a specific record of exactly what the person has done. These are assessment tools, which are used before the treatment to assess changes in patient’s behavior after the treatment. Brief psychiatric rating scales are usually used and completed by hospital staff to assess an individual on different constructs related with physical or psychological illness.

1. **Behavioral Coding Systems**

Rather than making judgments about where the person falls on a particular dimension, behavioral coding systems focus on the frequency of specific behavioral events. For example, a psychologist working with hospitalized mental patients might note the frequency of a patient’s aggression, self-care, speech, and unusual behaviors. Some adult clients are able to make records and keep track of their own behavior—a procedure is known as self-monitoring. Behavioral assessments can also be used to probe thought processes. In one study, for example, couples were assessed while talking with each other about their sexuality. Couples with sexual difficulties were less likely to be receptive to discussing their sexuality and more likely to blame each other than were couples with no sexual difficulties (Kelly, Strassberg, & Turner, 2006).

1. **Personality Questionnaires**

Personality questionnairesare paper-and-pencil tests that reveal personality characteristics. Questionnaires are more objective than interviews or observation. (An **objective test** gives the same score when different people correct it.) Questions, administration, and scoring are all standardized so that scores are unaffected by any biases an examiner may have. However, this is not enough to ensure accuracy. A good test must also be reliable and valid. A test is **reliable** if it yields close to the same score each time it is given to the same person. A test has **validity** if it measures what it claims to measure. Unfortunately, many personality tests you will encounter, such as those in magazines or on the Internet, have little or no validity.

* + 1. **Projective Personality Tests**

Projective tests take a different approach to personality. Interviews, observation, rating scales, and inventories try to directly identify overt, observable traits (Leichtman, 2004). By contrast, projective tests seek to uncover deeply hidden or *unconscious* wishes, thoughts, and needs. As a child you may have delighted in finding faces and objects in cloud formations. Or perhaps you have learned something about your friends’ personalities from their reactions to movies or paintings. If so, you will have some insight into the rationale for projective tests.

Psychoanalytic personality theorists have developed several assessment measures known as projective tests. They include a variety of methods in which ambiguous stimuli, such as pictures of people, or things are presented to a person who is asked to describe what he or she sees. The theory here is that people ‘project’ their own personality, their needs, their wishes, their desires and their unconscious fears on other people and things such as ink blots, pictures, sometimes vague and sometimes structure. Everyone sees something different in a projective test, and what is perceived can reveal the inner workings of personality. Projective tests have no right or wrong answers, which makes them difficult to fake (Leichtman, 2004).

Moreover, projective tests can be a rich source of information, because responses are not restricted to simple true/false or yes/no answer. Some of the most widely used projective tests are Rorschach Ink Blot Test, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), and the Rotter’s Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB).

* + 1. **The Rorschach Inkblot Test**

*Is the inkblot test a projective technique?* The inkblot test, or ***Rorschach*** (ROAR-shock) ***Technique***, is one of the oldest and mostwidely used projective tests. Developed by Swiss psychologist HermannRorschach in the 1920s, it consists of 10 standardized inkblots.These vary in color, shading, form, and complexity. Projective techniques such as the Rorschach test were originally based on psychodynamic assumptions about the nature of personality and psychopathology and impulses of which the person is largely unaware.

*How does the test work?* First, a person is shown each blot and asked to describe what she or he sees in it. Later the psychologist may return to a blot, asking the person to identify specific sections of it, to expand previous descriptions, or to give new impressions about what it contains. Obvious differences in content — such as “blood dripping from a dagger” versus “flowers blooming in a basket” — are important for identifying personal conflicts and fantasies. But surprisingly, content is less important than what parts of the inkblot are used to organize images. These factors allow psychologists to detect emotional disturbances by observing how a person perceives the world (Hilsenroth, 2000).



**Figure 7.1: Sample Rorschach Card**

More recent Considerable emphasis was placed on the importance of unconscious motivations and conflicts approaches to the use of projective tests view the person’s descriptions of the cards as a sample of his or her perceptual and cognitive styles. This test consists of ten standardized ink blot cards. That serves as ambiguous stimuli. The examiner presents the inkblot cards one by one to the person being examined, who responds by telling what he or she sees. The therapists may encourage the subject to give more detailed answers and you may get different responses on the same inkblot. Exner’s system of administering and scoring the Rorschach inkblot test specifies how the card should be presented, what should the examiner say and how the responses should be recorded.

* + 1. **The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)**

Another popular projective test is the **Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)** developed by personality theorist Henry Murray(1893–1988) which consists of 20 sketches depicting various scenes and life situations. During testing, a person is shown each sketch andasked to make up a story about the people in it. The story should have a title, a beginning, a middle part and an end. Later, the personlooks at each sketch a second or a third time and elaborates onprevious stories or creates new stories.

To score the TAT, a psychologist analyzes the content of the stories. Interpretations focus on how people feel, how they interact, what events led up to the incidents depicted in the sketch, and how the story will end. For example, TAT stories told by bereaved college students typically include themes of death, grief, and coping with loss (Balk et al., 1998). A psychologist might also count the number of times the central figure in a TAT story is angry, overlooked, apathetic, jealous, or threatened. Here is a story written by a student to describe. The girl has been seeing this guy her mother doesn’t like. The mother is telling her that she better not see him again. The mother says, “He’s just like your father.” The mother and father are divorced. The mother is smiling because she thinks she is right. But she doesn’t really know what the girl wants. The girl is going to see the guy again, anyway. As this example implies, the TAT is especially good at revealing feelings about a person’s social relationships (Alvarado, 1994; Aronow, Altman Weiss, & Reznikoff, 2001).



**Figure2. Sample TAT Picture**

**Thematic Apperception Test (TAT):** A projective personality test in which people are asked to make up stories from a set of ambiguous pictures.

There have been several variations of the TAT for different groups e.g. CAT- Children Apperception Test and SAT a Senior Apperception Technique.

* + 1. **Rotter’s Incomplete Sentence Blank Test (RISB)**

This test consists of a series unfinished sentences that people are asked to complete, usually it is considered a good spring board to explore and pinpoint areas of an individual’s life that are problematic or conflicting. The sentences are usually, I wish \_\_\_\_\_. My father is \_\_\_\_\_\_. Girls are \_\_\_\_\_. Home is a place \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. This test explores an individual’s social, familial and general attitudes towards life. This test has 40 items which are in form of incomplete sentences. This test has qualitative and quantitative scoring procedures.

**Advantages of Projective Tests:** Projective tests can provide an interesting source of information regarding the person’s unique view of the world, and they can be a useful supplement to information obtained with other assessment tools. To whatever extent a person’s relationships with other people are governed by unconscious cognitive and emotional events, projective tests may provide information that cannot be obtained through direct interviewing methods or observational procedures.

**Limitations of Projective Tests:** Although projective tests have been popular, their validity is considered lowest among tests of personality (Wood et al., 2003). Objectivity and reliability (consistency) are also low for different users of the TAT and Rorschach. Lack of standardization in administration and scoring is also serious problem. Little information is available on which to base comparisons to normal adults or children. Some projective procedures, such as the Rorschach, can be very time-consuming. Note that after a person interprets an ambiguous stimulus, the scorer must interpret the person’s (sometimes) ambiguous responses. In a sense, the interpretation of a projective test may be a projective test for the scorer!

**Summary**

This chapter has portrayed the variety of issue related with personality assessments, the main points under the chapter were summarized as follows:

* People have always been practicing personality psychology whether they have recognized it or not. When we seek the right person for a mate, our judgment of his or her personality is indispensable in evaluating our hoped-for compatibility. Therefore, psychologists use interviews, observation, questionnaires, and projective tests to assess personality
* Measuring personality can help predict how people will behave atwork, at school, and in therapy.
* Personality measurement and assessment procedures are broadly categorized as objective as well as projective tests; objective tests have clearly established responses, questions, administration, and scoring are all standardized so that scores are unaffected by any biases an examiner may have and gives the same score when different people correct it.
* By contrast, projective tests seek to uncover deeply hidden or *unconscious* wishes, thoughts, and needs. Projective tests have no right or wrong answers, which makes them difficult to fake. They can be a rich source of information, because responses are not restricted to simple true/false or yes/no answer.