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Personality Psychology

PSY405

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Personality Psychology PSY405

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Lesson 1

THE NATURE OF PERSONALITY THEORY

"**What sort of creatures are we?"**

Ever since the beginning of recorded history, the most significant riddle or question to be answered is the "What sort of creatures are we?" A great many avenues have been explored, with an enormous variety of concepts employed yet a satisfactory answer still is not there.

1-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.

Example:

The convicted terrorist or murderer, the priest, the corrupt politician.

Thus it is hard to imagine what "human nature" or characteristics or traits these fellow human beings have in common, and when we expand our horizons to include people of other cultures, we find even greater diversity in values, aspirations, and styles of life.

Psychology along with Astrology, theology, philosophy, and the life sciences are but a few of the many disciplines that the quest to understand human nature. Some of these avenues have proved to be dead ends, while others are just beginning to flourish.

Today the problem to understand human nature is more pressing than ever, huge population explosion, global unrest, ecological pollution, racial prejudice, poverty are brought about by the behavior of people. It may not be overstating the case, therefore, to say that the quality of human life in the future, indeed our very survival, may depend upon an increased understanding of human nature. Psychology is deeply committed to this undertaking.

Objectives of Personality Psychology

The science of psychology is directly concerned with the problem of understanding human personality *within the framework of the science of psychology.*

Scientifically based concepts and methods of personality psychology will ultimately prove to be of most value in understanding the complex nature of human behavior.

(1) To have a general, integrated and clear concept about Personality

(2) To understand personality assessment

(3) To identify several important Theories of Personality

(4) To identify key themes in Theories of Personality.

What makes personality psychology a science?

The process of converting speculations or opinions or beliefs about human nature into concepts that can be studied and tested empirically it is a process beset by many hazards; indeed, efforts to establish a "science of persons". It may seem fascinating to try to gain insight into the causes of our behavior and development.

Psychologists resist to objectifying personality within the field of psychology, because it undermines human uniqueness and complexity instead, they concentrate on the qualities of human beings such as literature, art, history and religion which may each provide valuable insights into human behavior.

A second objective of personality psychology is to help people live their lives more fully and satisfyingly by finding ways to promote more healthy patterns of growth. These efforts include new forms of

psychotherapy, various special learning programs, and changes in the psychological environment intended to permit people to develop to their full potential.

Theories of Personality

Different systems of consistent constellations of concepts called *theories of personality.* Each theory is 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. Theory refers to unsubstantiated hypothesis or speculation concerning reality that is not definitely known but when a theory has confirmatory data or evidence it is a fact.

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

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. A theory should not only describe past and present events but also predict future ones. 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 This purpose clearly implies that a theory's concepts must be *testable* and capable of being confirmed or disconfirmed. For example, a theory should furnish a basis for predicting specific changes in Raymond's behavior as a function of parental treatment. What will happen if his mother actively encourages these feelings? Not only should such general predictions be possible but, 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.

What does it means to be a human being?

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. Whatever each theorist's specific beliefs may be, we contend that personality theorists have different basic assumptions about human nature, and that their theories can be distinguished from one another on this basis (Abraham Maslow and Sigmund Freud) - Our point is simply that 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?

How we can evaluate Personality Theories?

Given the sheer number of 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 will describe these criteria, compare and contrast the theories in terms of these six 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.

What are the influences Personality development?

1. Genetics
2. Environment (learning)
3. Culture and Society
4. Self awareness
5. Traits
6. Unconscious Mechanisms

The Meaning of "Personality"

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

- We often hear remarks that some people have a pleasing personality while others have charming and fascinating personality.
- Some political leaders have charismatic personality while others have repulsive and annoying personality.

- So the question comes to your mind that

In our daily language hear such comments as “A lot of personality” and “B has a great personality and C has more personality.”

Personality has also been viewed as the individual’s most striking or dominant characteristics. In this sense, a person may be said to have an “aggressive personality” or a “shy personality,” meaning that his or her most distinctive attribute appears to be aggressiveness or shyness. So 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. When one describes T as having a “terrific personality,” one may be referring to his pleasant disposition, his sincerity, or his willingness to help others.

What is personality?

Personality refers to characteristic ways a person behaves and thinks. So, 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.

Example:

- A is shy and timid
- B is sensitive and gets upset easily
- C is suspicious of friends and family
- D is confident and successful

The word “personality” in English is derived from the Latin *persona I*t 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. This view is similar with that of the layperson who equates personality with charm, social poise, popularity, physical attractiveness, and a host of other socially desirable characteristics.

A quick overview of the meaning of personality in psychology can be gained by briefly considering the views offered by a few recognized theorists in the field. For instance, Carl Rogers views personality in terms of self, an organized, permanent, subjectively perceived entity which is at the very heart of all our experiences. Gordon Allport defines personality as that which an individual really is, an internal “something” that guides and directs all human activity. For Erik Erikson, life proceeds in terms of a series of psychosocial crises, and personality is a function of their outcome. George Kelly regards personality as the individual’s unique way of “making sense” out of life experiences. Still another conception is that of Sigmund Freud who described the structure of personality as composed of three elements- the id, ego, and superego.

These different conceptions clearly indicate that the meaning of personality in psychology extends far beyond the original “superficial social image” concept. It refers to something much more essential and enduring about a person. Beyond this basic point of agreement, theoretical definitions of personality have other features in common.

1. Most definitions depict personality as some kind of hypothetical structure or organization. In other words, personality is an abstraction based on inferences derived from behavioral observation.

2. Most definitions stress the need to understand the meaning of individual differences. With the word “personality,” the palpable uniqueness in all individuals is indicated.

3. Most definitions emphasize the importance of viewing personality in terms of a life history, or developmental perspective and social experiences, and changing environmental circumstances. -- Personality Psychology as a Field of Study

What distinguishes personality psychology from the other psychological domains is its attempt to *synthesize* and *integrate* the principles of other areas of psychology. For example, in the psychology of perception, the basic structures and processes underlying how people perceive and interpret the world

around them are examined. The personality psychology as a field of study combines these principles in an effort to understand human behavior.

To be comprehensive, a personality theory must incorporate all the principles of general psychology that influence or determine an individual's behavior and experience fall within the domain of the *personologist*, a term that has been used to designate both personality theorists and researchers (Murray, 1938).

In light of all this, it is evident that no other area of psychology attempts to cover as much territory as the field of personality the focus of study has been nothing less than the total individual. Given such an ambitions goal, YOU can rightfully expect the study of personality to be an exciting and challenging undertaking.

Modern Personality Theory

Current conceptions of personality have been shaped by many events. To see personality theory in a meaningful perspective, it is necessary to examine some of the more important historical and contemporary influences upon it.

Historical Factors: The Past

Of the many historical forces that have coalesced to produce contemporary psychology, four appear to have been direct and major influences upon current personality theory- *European* Clinical Medicine, *behaviorism, psychometrics and gestalt psychology.* After examining these historical factors, more contemporary sources of influence upon personality will be discussed.

1-European Clinical Medicine how ever the clinical medicine of eighteenth- and nineteenth-century Europe (particularly France) had the most direct influence upon the structure of twentieth-century personality theory. The European clinical medicine of that time primarily dealt with the understanding, classification, and treatment of mental disorders.

1- Based upon the French physician Philippe Pinel (1745-1826) was able to conceive of psychotic personality disorders in terms of brain dysfunction.

2- This physicalistic conception of psychoses set in motion a scientifically based attempt to classify psychotic disorders, as illustrated in the work of the German physician Emil Kraepeline (1856-1926), as well as a widespread series of humanitarian reforms in the treatment of psychotics.

3- European clinical medicine, then, furnished the intellectual climate in which Freud was to develop his unique psychoanalytic techniques and classify personality disorders, and its therapeutic approaches to the treatment of disturbed persons, has left and indelible imprint upon modern personality theory.

2- Psychometrics:

Psychometrics, or psychological measurement, has significantly helped to make a *science* of psychology. Before the advent of psychometrics, it was not possible, or even conceivable, to measure aspects of human psychological functioning, e.g., intelligence, aptitudes, interests, motives, personality traits. Now, within certain limitations, such measurements can be obtained. When psychological testing was introduced, the field of personality acquired the potential for quantification and measurement of its concepts. In brief, psychometrics made possible meaningful research in personality.

Consider a personologists who wishes to study the relationship between need for affiliation or friendship and a person's vocational interests. Without psychometric tools, he or she would have to be content with simply speculating that people with a high affiliation need are probably interested in occupations that permit close interpersonal contact. But his could never be known

for sure. With current psychological measurement techniques, a personality researcher can quantify both degree of their relationship in the group studied.

3- Behaviorism:

Behaviorism as a school of psychology was founded in 1913 by the American psychologist John B. Watson (1878-1958). It became an extraordinarily influential movement in American psychology and, although the days of psychology schools are distinctly over, its pervasive influences are still quite evident today. The historical roots of behaviorism are deep. Watson and Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1849- 1936) who was most influential in setting the stage for the focus of contemporary behaviorist approaches to personality.

Stimulated by such giants as Edwin Guthrie (1896-1959), Clark Hull (1884-1952), and Edward Tolman (1886-1959), all of whom developed their own elaborate theories of learning, and their imprint upon personality theory, therapy, and research has been great. Social learning theories such as that of Albert Bandura also reflect the influence of behaviorism.

4- Gestalt Psychology:

The German noun *gestalt* cannot precisely be translated into English. The closest approximations of its meanings are the words "form," "figure," "shape," "configuration," "structure." Gestalt psychology as a distinct school was founded in 1912 by the German psychologist Max Wertheimer (1880-1943). His ingenious and varied experiments upon the *holistic* nature of perception stimulated Kurt Koffka (1886-1941) and Wolfgang Kohler (1887-1967), two of his experimental subjects and colleagues, to develop and extend the principles of gestalt, psychology to psychological spheres other than perception. For example, where the behaviorists emphasized elements, the gestaltists stressed wholes.

Gestalt psychology, then, stresses the impossibility of understanding complex psychological processes by attempting to break them down into their component parts. The whole is greater than, and different from, the sum of its parts.

Many psychologists view personality as an organized dynamic whole that cannot be reduced to the sum of its parts. Holistic conceptions of this type are an integral part of the theories of Alfred Adler, Gordon Allport, Abraham Maslow, and Carl Rogers.

What's happening at present?

While the shape of today's personality field has been determined by historical factors, new directions in personality will result from events occurring now. Any discipline that studies the behavior of people must, to remain open to factors that have direct implications for understanding human nature. In a world of constant change, these factors are numerous indeed.

1- Cross-cultural research has forced a reevaluation of the generalizability of psychological findings from one culture and/or subculture to another; what holds true for American college students may not apply to young people in the other part of the world.

2- Because of recent increased interest in the study of cognitive, or thinking, processes, human conceptual abilities are becoming a more salient aspect of personality theory.

3- The factor of *constant social change* is forging new directions for personality theory and research, while *computer technology* (Loehlin, 1968) continues to open up new and exciting research possibilities.

4- On a broader scale, the *person revolution* of the 1970s has brought about a deeper awareness of the relativity of values, life-styles, and the meaning of life itself. These are but a few of the diverse contemporary influences upon the personality field; many forces, both within and outside the boundaries of psychology, will continue to shape its development.

There have been and will continue to be important developments in many areas and disciplines that are highly relevant to an understanding of the nature of human beings.

Summary

Theories of personality represent organized attempts to contribute significantly to our understanding of human nature from within the province of psychology.

There is presently, no general agreement within the field on a substantive definition of the term "personality." One's definition of personality depends upon one's theory of personality, and personality

theories can be evaluated in terms of six criteria: verifiability, heuristic value, internal consistency, parsimony, comprehensiveness, and functional significance. The field of personality is distinguished within psychology by its attempt to synthesize and integrate important principles from all areas of psychology.

The emergence and development of the personality field is firmly rooted in the historical factors that have shaped modern psychology. Four major historical factors-European clinical medicine, psychometrics, behaviorism and gestalt psychology- appear to have been particularly important influences upon personality theory as it exists today. Significant contemporary sources of influence upon this field can be found both within and outside of psychology.

Personality theories are founded upon certain basic assumptions about the nature of human beings. Differences among personality theorists on these assumptions constitute the principal basis for the differences among their respective personality theories. In this chapter, nine basic assumptions concerning human nature were specified and discussed: *freedom-determinism, rationality-irrationality, holism-elementalism, constitutionalism-environmentalism, changeability-unchangeability, subjectivity-objectivity, proactivity-reactivity, homeostasis-hetrostasis, and knowability-unknowability.*

Psychometrics, or psychological measurement, has significantly helped to make a *science* of psychology. Before the advent of psychometrics, it was not possible, or even conceivable, to measure aspects of human psychological functioning, e.g., intelligence, aptitudes, interests, motives, personality traits. Now, within certain limitations, such measurements can be obtained. When psychological testing was introduced, the field of personality acquired the potential for quantification and measurement of its concepts. In brief, psychometrics made possible meaningful research in personality.

Lesson 2

PERSONALITY MEASUREMENT

Personality measurement and assessment procedures are useful in understanding the person. They include:

- Interviews
- Observation
- Rating scales
- Personality tests
- Projective 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.

- **Structured Interviews**

Assessment interviews vary with regard to the amount of structure that is imposed by the clinician. Some are relatively open-ended, or nondirective. Structured interviews, in which the clinician must ask each patient a specific list of detailed questions, are frequently employed for collecting information that will be used to make diagnostic decisions and to rate the extent to which a person is impaired by psychopathology. Structured interviews list a series of specific questions that lead to a detailed description of the person's behavior and experiences. Structured interview schedules provide a systematic framework for the collection of important diagnostic information, but they don't eliminate the need for an experienced clinician

2. Observational Procedures

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.

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.

3. 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. There are two point rating scales.

4. 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. Some adult clients are able to make records and keep track of their own behavior—a procedure known as self-monitoring.

5. Personality Inventories

Personality inventories present an elaborate picture of an individual's overall personality including the traits, the characteristics, the tendency and the styles that are thought to underlie behavior.

The questions in personality inventories are presented in form of statements. These statements are the items of personality test. Many personality inventories are available such as MMPI Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. This test was develop in 1940 and published in 1943. It is based on empirical approach i.e. the collection and evaluation of data. The individual is presented with statements and the answers have options like true, false and cannot say. Some of the statements from MMPI are following:

- I cry easily
- I am happy most of the time.
- I believe, I am being followed

MMPI consisted of 550 items. MMPI consists of ten clinical scales, meaning that it diagnosis people on ten clinical disorders. It has got four validity scales, which include

- Lie scale
- The F Scale, Infrequency scale,
- K scale, The Defensiveness Scale
- The Can not say scale

They consist of a series of straightforward statements; the person being tested is typically required to indicate whether each statement is true or false in relation to an individual.

Some personality inventories are designed to identify personality traits in a normal population, and others focus more specifically on psychological problems.

The most extensively used personality Inventory is the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). The inventory was revised several years ago, and it is currently known as the MMPI-2.

The MMPI-2 is based on 567 statements that cover topics ranging from physical complaints and psychological states to occupational preferences and social attitudes. Scoring of the MMPI-2 is objective.

After the responses to all questions are totaled, the person receives a numerical score on each of 10 clinical scales as well as on four validities.

The MMPI not only diagnoses a person on ten clinical scales it also detects sources of invalidities like lying, carelessness, defensiveness on part of respondent. It attempts to present all information in form of a profile of scores. This profile of scores across all ten clinical scales and four validity scales is presented as deviations from general population norms. The normal scale score is a T-score of 50 any score above 50 is a sign of pathology.

Before considering the possible clinical significance of a person's MMPI-2 profile, the psychologist will examine a number of validity scales, which reflect the patient's attitude toward the test and the openness and consistency with which the questions were answered.

The L (Lie) Scale is sensitive to unsophisticated attempts to avoid answering in a frank and honest manner.

Examples of items of MMPI-II:

1. I like automobile magazines.
2. I wake up with lots of energy most mornings.
3. I am startled by loud noises.

6. Projective Personality 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. Projective tests are based on psychoanalytic theory. They have been and they still remain, controversial. Some of the most widely used projective tests are Rorschach Ink Blot Test, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), House Tree Person (HTP) and the Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB).

In projective tests, the person is presented with a series of ambiguous stimuli. The known projective test, introduced in 1921 by Hermann Rorschach, a Swiss psychiatrist, is based on the use of inkblots. 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.

More recent Considerable emphasis was placed on the importance of unconscious motivations — 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.

The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) consists of a series of drawings that depict human figures in various ambiguous situations. The person is asked to describe the identities of the people in the cards and to make up a story about what is happening. Morgan and Murray at the Harvard Psychological Clinic developed the TAT. It consists of 31 cards, 30 with pictures on them and one blank card. The picture card is shown to the subject and the therapist asks the subject to tell a dramatic story about the picture. The instructions of the test begin 'this is a test of imagination, one form of intelligence. Let your imaginations have its way as in a fairy story and tell what the people in the picture card are doing.' The story should have a title, a beginning, a middle part and an end. The basic assumption is that most of the subjects will reveal their unconscious mental processes, their needs, desires on the characters of their stories about the pictures. Their have been several variations of the TAT for different groups e.g. CAT- Children Apperception Test and SAT A Senior Apperception Technique.

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.

House Tree and Person (HTP)

This is a test which tells us about the evaluations of the drawings based on the quality and shape of the drawing, solidity of a pencil line, location of the drawing on the paper, the size of the figure, features of the figures, use of the background and comments made by the respondent during the drawing task. The house reflects individual's interpersonal relationships, the tree reflects ego development and functioning and the Person reflects the individual self perception and perception of the other gender.

Advantages of Projective Tests: Some people may feel more comfortable talking in an unstructured situation than they would if they were required to participate in a structured interview or to complete the lengthy MMPI. 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: Lack of standardization in administration and scoring is a 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. The reliability of scoring and interpretation tends to be low. Many self-report inventories, rating scales, and behavioral coding systems have been designed for the assessment of marital relationships and family systems. One popular self-report inventory is the Family Environment Scale (FES), which is composed of 90 true–false items and was designed to measure the social characteristics of families.

Lesson 03

MAIN PERSPECTIVES

Personality is a commonly used term with no universally accepted definition. It refers generally to the pattern of psychological and behavioral characteristics that distinguishes each person from everyone else.

Personality can be approached or studied using the four perspectives:

1-Psychodynamic

2-Dispositional

3-Behavioral

4-Humanistic

Personality assessment is done by following tools:

- Observation
- Interview
- Tests
    - Objective Tests (e.g. MMPI-2)
    - Projective Tests

Projective tests include:

- Rorschach inkblot test
- Thematic Apperception test-TAT
- Rotter's incomplete sentence blank-RISB
- word association test- WAT
- House Tree Person-HTP

Psychometrics:

Psychometrics, or psychological measurement, has significantly helped to make Psychology a *science.* Before the advent of psychometrics, it was not possible, to measure aspects of human psychological functioning, e.g., intelligence, aptitudes, interests, motives, personality traits. Now, within certain limitations, such measurements can be obtained. When psychological testing was introduced, the field of personality acquired the potential for quantification and measurement of its concepts. In brief, psychometrics made possible meaningful research in personality.

- Why does a friendly person get nasty and mean?
- What makes a person confident and optimistic even under stressful situation?

To address these questions Psychologists employ assessment methods.

Personality measurement and assessment procedures are useful in understanding the person.

Personality assessment is done by following tools:

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1- observation:

The observation of people's behavior can be done with their permission

- Observation
- Home
- Visiting a home to observe family interactions at meal time
- School
- Watching children at play ground
- Self
- Asking people to keep a track of or monitor themselves by keeping a record
- Hospital

The hospital nurse or a family member is to observe the patient's behavior related to taking medicine, food and responding to people

The clinician observes the person's behavior and the environment in which it occurs without attempting to change 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 (laboratory).

Observational Procedures:

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.

2. 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 or personality. Interviews also allow clinicians to observe important features of a person's appearance and nonverbal behavior. Interviews vary with regard to the amount of structure that is imposed by the clinician.

- 1-Some are relatively open-ended, or nondirective.
- 2- some are directive

Structured interviews, in which the clinician must ask each patient a specific list of detailed questions, are frequently employed for collecting information that will be used to make diagnostic decisions and to rate the extent to which a person is impaired by psychopathology. Structured interviews list a series of specific questions that lead to a detailed description of the person's behavior and experiences. Structured interview schedules provide a systematic framework for the collection of important diagnostic information, but they don't eliminate the need for an experienced clinician

3. 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. Some adult clients are able to make records and keep track of their own behavior—a procedure known as **self-monitoring.**

4. Personality Inventories/ personality tests (objective tests):

Personality inventories present an elaborate picture of an individual's overall personality including the traits, the characteristics, the tendency and the styles that are thought to underlie behavior. The questions in personality inventories are presented in form of statements. These statements are the items of personality test. Many personality inventories are available such as MMPI Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. This test was develop in 1940 and published in 1943. It is based on empirical approach i.e. the collection and evaluation of data. The individual is presented with statements and the answers have options like true, false and cannot say. Some of the statements from MMPI are following:

- I cry easily
- I am happy most of the time.
- I believe, I am being followed

MMPI consisted of 550 items. MMPI consists of ten clinical scales, meaning that it diagnosis people on ten clinical disorders. It has got four validity scales,

Which include:

- Lie scale
- The F Scale Infrequency scale
- K scale-Defensiveness Scale
- The Can not say scale

The most extensively used personality Inventory is the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). The inventory was revised several years ago, and it is currently known as the MMPI-2.The MMPI-2 is based on 567 statements that cover topics ranging from physical complaints and psychological states to occupational preferences and social attitudes. Scoring of the MMPI-2 is objective.

6. Projective Personality 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. Projective tests are based on psychoanalytic theory. They have been and they still remain, controversial. Some of the most widely used projective tests are Rorschach Ink Blot Test, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), House Tree Person (HTP) and the Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB).

- In **projective tests,** the person is presented with a series of ambiguous stimuli.
- The known projective test, introduced in 1921 by Hermann **Rorschach, a Swiss psychiatrist, is based on** the use of inkblots.
- Projective techniques such as the Rorschach test were originally based on psychodynamic assumptions about the nature of personality and psychopathology.
- Considerable emphasis was placed on the importance of unconscious motivations —conflicts and impulses of which the person is largely unaware.
- More recent 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 inkblots 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.

The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT): consists of a series of drawings that depict human figures in various ambiguous situations.

The person is asked to describe the identities of the people in the cards and to make up a story about what is happening. Morgan and Murray at the Harvard Psychological Clinic developed the TAT. It consists of 31 cards, 30 with pictures on them and one blank card. The picture card is shown to the subject and the therapist asks the subject to tell a dramatic story about the picture. The instructions of the test begin 'this is a test of imagination, one form of intelligence. Let your imaginations have its way as in a fairy story and tell what the people in the picture card are doing.' The story should have a title, a beginning, a middle part and an end. The basic assumption is that most of the subjects will reveal their unconscious mental processes, their needs, desires on the characters of their stories about the pictures. There have been several variations of the TAT for different groups e.g. CAT- Children Apperception Test and SAT A Senior Apperception Technique.

Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blank Test

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.

House Tree and Person (HTP)

This is a test which tells us about the evaluations of the drawings based on the quality and shape of the drawing, solidity of a pencil line, location of the drawing on the paper, the size of the figure, features of the figures, use of the background and comments made by the respondent during the drawing task. The house reflects individual's interpersonal relationships, the tree reflects ego development and functioning and the Person reflects the individual self perception and perception of the other gender.

- **Advantages of Projective Tests:** Some people may feel more comfortable talking in an unstructured situation than they would if they were required to participate in a structured interview or to complete the lengthy MMPI. 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:** Lack of standardization in administration and scoring is a 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. The reliability of scoring and interpretation tends to be low.

Personality can be approached or studied using the four perspectives:

- 1-Psychodynamic
- 2-Dispositional
- 3-Behavioral
- 4-Humanistic

Perspectives of psychology

1- The psychodynamics approach was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior

Freud believed that personality has three components-id, ego and super ego. He also emphasized on the role of ego defense mechanisms which keep these conflicts at the unconscious level. He further talked about psycho sexual stages of development-such as oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital stage.

There are other psychodynamic theorists who differed from Freud such as:

- Jung
- Adler
- Karen Horney

2- The dispositional Approach:

This Approach assumes that personality is made up of a set of stable internal characteristics that guide behavior. These characteristics are described as personality types but more often each person's unique combination of traits, factors or needs. These inherited tendencies or traits are the raw material which is molded into a unique personality by the environment.

3- The Behavioral Approach:

This Approach assumes that personality is a unique pattern of learned behavior that people display in various situations. This perception is advocated by Watson and Skinner. There are certain behaviorists who include the role of learned patterns of thinking as well-such ad cognitive-behavioral approach whish emphasizes on behavior as the outcome of person-situation interactions.

4- The Humanistic Approach

It is based on the assumption that personality is determined by the unique ways in which each individual views the world. These perceptions of the person form a personal vision of reality and guides behavior of the person to reach its fullest human potential. This Approach is represented in the theories of Carl Rogers and Maslow.

Lesson 4

SIGMUND FREUD: A PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY OF PERSONALITY

His main contributions are as follows:

1. Theory of personality
2. Method of treatment- Psychoanalysis
3. Set of clinical observations (e.g., defenses)
4. Methods of investigation (free association, dream analysis)

Freud's Theory of Personality-Major Assumptions

1. **Psychic determinism**--all our behavior has a purpose
2. **Unconscious motivation**--universally accepted
3. **Freud emphasized the *predominance* of unconscious** motives and processes -

   Recent translation into cognitive psychology

The Theory of Consciousness

Original theory is based on experience with hypnosis and early treatment of hysteria. Sigmund Freud, a young Viennese physician, he theorized that individuals are in a perpetual state of conflict motivated by their unconscious sexual and aggressive urges.

Freud with his active writing and clinical practice developed:

(1) The first comprehensive personality theory

(2) An extensive body of clinical observations based on his therapeutic experience and self-analysis

(3) A compelling method for treating mental or behavioral disorders

(4) A procedure for the investigation of mental processes which are almost inaccessible in any other way. Freud's personality theory and its underlying assumptions will be examined.

Biographical Sketch

Sigmund Freud was born May 6, 1856, at Freiberg, a small Austrian town now part of Czechoslovakia. When he was four years old, his family suffered financial setbacks and moved to Vienna. He remained a resident of that city until he migrated to England in 1938. He was the oldest of seven children, although his father had two sons by a former marriage and was a grandfather when Sigmund was born.

From a very early age, Freud excelled as a student. Despite the limited financial position of his family which forced all members to live in a crowded apartment, Freud had his own room and even an oil lamp to study by. The rest of the family made do with candles. Like other young people of his time, he had a classical education, studying Greek and Latin and reading the classics of various countries. He had a superb command of the German language and fluency in French, English, Spanish, and Italian.

Freud recalled that he often had childhood dreams of becoming a great Austrian general or minister of state. He reluctantly decided upon a medical career and entered the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Vienna in 1873. He received his M.D. degree in 1881. In 1880 he began working with Breuer.

The year 1885 marked an important turning point in Freud's career, for it was then that he went to Paris to study hypnosis a method of treatment which eliminated hysterical neurotic symptoms. Freud later rejected hypnosis as a therapeutic technique and developed the method of Free Association, resistance, dream analysis, transference and counter- transference.

In 1886 he married Martha Bernays he had six children and his daughter Anna Freud is a famous child psychiatrist. In 1895 he published book called studies in Hysteria and in 1897 he began his self analysis but the year 1900 is important because his most famous book called interpretation of dreams was published. In 1909 Freud was invited by Stanley Hall to deliver a series of lectures on Psychoanalysis this provided him

an opportunity to familiarize his brand of psychology internationally. He in 1923 discovered he had cancer of the mouth and went through some 33 operations he died in 1939.

Levels of Consciousness

(How Personality Is Organized?)

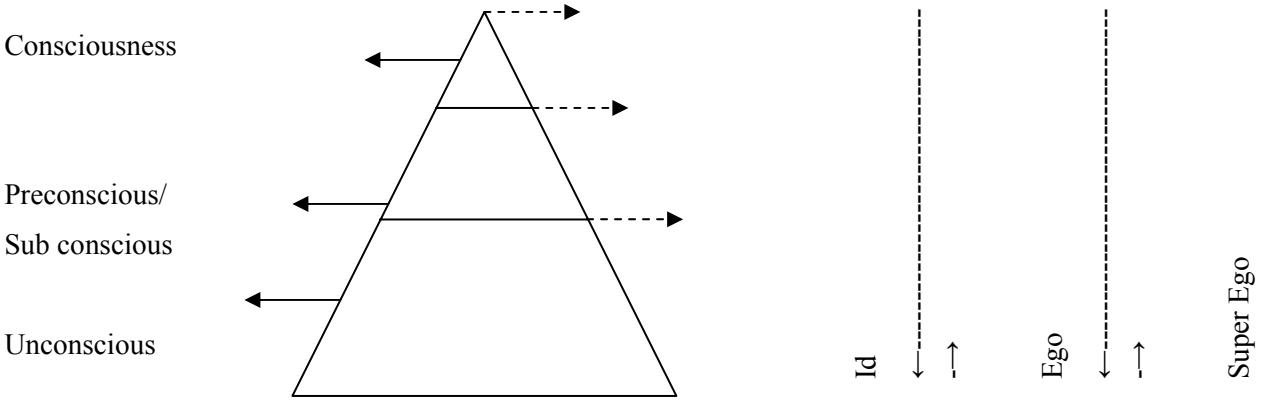
For a long time in the theoretical development of psychoanalysis, Freud employed a topographical model of personality organization. According to this model, psychic life can be represented by three levels of consciousness-the conscious, the preconscious, and the unconscious. Freud used this mental "map" of the mind to describe the degree to which mental events such as thoughts and fantasies vary in accessibility to awareness.

The ***conscious*** **level** includes all the sensations and experiences of which we are aware at any given moment. Freud insisted that only a small part of mental life (thoughts, perceptions, feelings, memories) is contained in the realm of consciousness. Whatever the content of conscious experience may be for a given person at a given time, it is the result of a selective screening process largely regulated by external cues. Moreover, it is actually conscious only for a brief time and can be quickly submerged into preconscious or unconscious levels as the person's attention shifts to different cues. In short, the conscious represents a small and limited aspect of personality.

The ***preconscious*** **domain**, sometimes called "available memory," encompasses all experiences that are not conscious at the moment but which can readily be summoned into awareness either spontaneously or with a minimum of effort. This might include memories of everything you did last week, your Social Security number, all the towns you ever lived in, your favorite foods, and a host of other past experiences. In Freud's view, the preconscious bridges the unconscious and conscious regions of the mind. For example, under the influence of certain therapeutic techniques, unconscious material may emerge into the preconscious and from there become conscious.

The deepest and major stratum of the human mind is the ***unconscious.*** Freud was not the first to focus attention on the importance of unconscious processes in understanding human actions; several eighteenth- and nineteenth-century philosophers had suggested the influence of unconscious experience on behavior. Unlike his philosophical predecessors, however, Freud gave the concept of an unconscious life an empirical status. Specifically, he contended that the unconscious must not be conceived as a hypothetical abstraction but rather as a reality which can be demonstrated and thus proved. Freud firmly believed that the really significant aspects of human behavior are shaped and directed by impulses and drives totally outside the realm of awareness. Not only are these forces unconscious, but there is great resistance within the individual to their ever becoming conscious. In contrast to preconscious modes of thought, unconscious ones are completely inadmissible to awareness, yet they largely determine the actions of people. However, unconscious material may be expressed in disguised or symbolized form, an insight that Freud utilized in his work with disturbed persons. Psychoanalysis thus emphasizes the interpretation of fantasies and dreams as avenues for deeper understanding of the unconscious processes underlying behavior.

Levels of Consciousness:



According to this triangle, the top smallest part is the conscious experience the middle small layer is subconscious and the largest portion is unconscious.

According to Freud that part of the mind about which we are aware is consciousness but it is a small part of mental life. You are listening to me it is your conscious mental activity. The preconscious are thoughts or activities that are easily made conscious by an effort to remember or say, you have the present lecture's handout in front of you and you are conscious that you are writing on it. The largest segment is the unconscious not easily reachable / accessed yet it gives rise on to important needs and influences our behavior.

Example:

All your nightmares, phobias, fears which influence you but why you have them is because of the unconscious, you don't have an answer. Freud suggested ways / techniques of reaching the unconscious

Example:

You stand near a river, the top water is the conscious part, fill out some muddy water in container, it is the sub-conscious and when you dug the river bed and find something buried in it well that is the unconscious part.

The Anatomy of Personality

The concept of unconscious mental processes was central to Freud's early description of personality organization. However, during the early 1920s he revised his conceptual model of mental life and introduced three basic structures in the anatomy of personality: id, ego, and super ego.

The Id:

The word "id" comes from the Latin word for "it" and refers exclusively to the biological component of personality. The id is the mental agency containing everything inherited, present at birth, and fixed in the individual's constitution- especially sexual and aggressive instincts. It is raw, animalistic, and unorganized, knows no laws, obeys no rules and remains basic to the individual throughout life.

Freud identified two mechanisms the id employs to rid the personality of tension: *reflex action* and *primary process.* In the former, the id responds automatically to sources of irritation, thereby promptly removing the tension which the irritant elicits. Examples of such inborn reflex mechanisms are sneezing, coughing, and blinking. Id is the unorganized reservoir of wishes or passions related to our sexual and aggressive drives, it strives for immediate gratification that bypasses demands of reality, order logic and reason. The Id is like a child when it wants something it wants it there and then without regard for consequences, so Id operates on pleasure principle.

This refers to Greek concept of hedonism meaning pleasure. The energy within the Id is labeled as the libido. The Id has its own characteristic way of processing information, cognitive style referred as primary process. The thinking patterns of Id are illogical, irrational, emotional immature and purely selfish.

The Ego:

The ego is that portion of the psychic apparatus that seeks to express and gratify the desires of the id in accordance with the restrictions of both outer reality and the superego. The ego acquires its structure and functions from the id, having evolved from it, and proceeds to borrow some of the id's energy for its own use in response to the demands of the environment. Ego thus assures the safety and self- preservation of the organism. In its battle for survival against both the external world and the instinctual demands of the id, ego must continuously differentiate between things m the mind and things in the outer world of reality. The hungry man in search of food, for example, must distinguish between a mental Image of food and an actual perception of food if tension reduction is to occur.

The ego operates according to the reality principle and the cognitive operations of the ego are characterized by logic, reason and are referred as the secondary process. The ego is the master control, it tries to resolve conflicts between t he demands of Id with in the permitted boundaries of super ego.

The ego has the role to mediate conflict between the Id and super ego according to realities of the world. If it mediates successfully, we see an intelligent, creative individual who is well adjusted while if ego is unsuccessful either Id or super ego will be strong.

If Id is strong, we see an antisocial criminal and if super ego is strong we see a pure, rigid, nonflexible individual. Super ego is the storehouse of moral and ethical standards taught by parents, teachers and culture (it also refers to the conscience of the psyche). It operates according to the moral Principle when we do something wrong, when ethical, moral standards are violated than super ego generates guild.

Example:

You go to a garden where you see red roses you face intra-psychic conflict

Id→	Ego↔	Super Ego
I want red rose and I want it now.	I can afford to buy red roses from flower shop	Stealing is bad. The sign says don't pluck flowers.

Example:

You go to a store you see a lovely jacket but the price is high but no one is looking you face intra-psychic conflict:

Example:

Id→	Ego↔	Super Ego
I want the jacket and I want it now.	I have to be realistic I cannot afford the jacket.	Stealing is bad.

The Superego

In order for a person to function constructively in society, he or she must acquire a system of values, norms, ethics, and attitudes which are reasonably compatible with that society. These are acquired through the process of "socialization," and in terms of the structural model of psychoanalysis are developed through the formation of a superego. The superego is the last major system of personality to be developed and represents an internalized version of society's norms and standards of behavior. In Freud's view, the human organism is not born with a superego; rather, children must incorporate it through interactions with parents, teachers, and other 'formative" figures. As the moral-ethical arm of personality, the superego results from the child's prolonged dependence upon parents. It makes its formal appearance w en the child is said to know right from wrong, good from bad, moral from immoral.

Lesson 5

INSTINCT: WHAT MOTIVATES HUMAN BEHAVIOR?

Accordance with the *law of conservation of Energy (i.e. energy may be converted from one state to another, but is all the same energy).*Freud accepted this principle of nature, translated it into psychological terms, and theorized that the source of psychic energy derives from neurophysiologic states of excitation. He further postulated that each individual has a limited amount of such energy avai1able for mental activity, and that the goal of all human behavior was the reduction of tension created by the unpleasant accumulation of energy over time. For example, if most of your energy is presently being expanded to recognize the words on this page, then little is left for other types of mental activity like daydreaming or viewing a TV program.

A Matter of Life and Death

Freud recognized the existence of two basic groups of them-*life* and *death* instincts. The former group includes all the forces which serve to maintain. Vital life processes and assures propagation of the species. Because of the significance attributed to them in the psychic organization of individuals, the *sex instincts* were singled out by Freud as the most salient of the life instincts for the development of personality. The energy force underlying the sexual instincts is called *libido* (from the Latin *word* for "wish" or "desire") or *libidinal energy.*

The other group represents destructive side of the personality.

Human Development Viewed Psychosexually

The psychoanalytic theory of development is based on two premises. The first, the *genetic* approach, emphasizes that adult personality is shaped by various types of early childhood experiences. The second is that a certain amount of sexual energy (libido) is present at birth and thereafter progresses through a series of *psychosexual* stages that are rooted in the instinctual processes of the organism.

The formation of personality; *oral, anal*, *phallic,* and *genital.* A period of *latency,* normally occurring between the ages of 6 or 7 and the onset of puberty, was included by Freud in the overall scheme of development, but, technically speaking, it is not a stage. The first three stages of development extend from birth to 5 years of age and are called *pregenital* stage.

The Oral Stage (birth-to -18 months):

The *oral* stage of psychosexual development extends throughout the first year of life. Infants are totally reliant upon others for survival; dependence is their only way of obtaining instinctual gratification. The mouth is obviously the body structure most frequently associated at this time with both reduction of biological drives and pleasurable sensations.

The Anal Stage (18 months to 3 years) :

During the second and third years of life, the focus of libidinal energy shifts from to the anal region. Young children derive considerable pleasure from both the retention and expulsion of feces and gradually learn to enhance this pleasure by delaying bowl movements (i.e. allowing minor pressure to be exerted against the lower intestine and anal sphincter).

The Phallic Stage (3 years to 5 years):

During the fourth and fifth years, the child's libidinal interest one again shift to a new erogenous zone of the body, the genitals. During this phallic stage of psychosexual development, children can be observed examining their sex organs.

The Latency Period (5 years to 12 years):

Between the ages of 6 or 7 and the onset of adolescence, the child passes through a period of comparative sexual quiescence. During the *latency* period, the libido is sublimated i.e. channeled into nonsexual activities such as intellectual interests, athletics, and peer relationships.

The Genital Stage (12 years -puberty):

With the advent of puberty comes a resurgence of sexual and aggressive impulses coupled with an increased awareness of and interest in the opposite sex. The initial *phase* of the *genital* stage (a period extending from adolescence until death) is brought about by biochemical and physiological changes in the organism. The reproductive organs mature, and the endocrine system secretes hormones that result in secondary sex characteristics (e.g., beards in males, breast development in females).

The Nature of Anxiety

Freud's initial interest in the phenomenon of anxiety was motivated by his interest in explaining neurotic symptoms and treating people suffering from them. This Interest at first led him to propose that anxiety is a consequence of inadequately discharged libidinal energy. He further theorized that the state of increased tension resulting from blocked libido and un-discharged excitation was converted into and manifested by anxiety neuroses.

Types of Anxiety

Realistic Anxiety:

The emotional response to threat and/ or perception of real dangers in the external environment (e.g., poisonous snakes, wild animals, earthquakes, final examinations) is called *realistic*, or *objective,* anxiety. It is essentially synonymous with fear and may have a debilitating effect on the individual's ability to cope effectively with the source of danger.

Neurotic Anxiety:

An emotional response to the threat that id impulses will become conscious is called *neurotic* anxiety. 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. The small child quickly learns that active discharge of his or her libidinal or destructive urges will be met by threats of retaliation from parents or other social agents.

Moral Anxiety:

When the ego is threatened by punishment from the superego, the ensuing emotional response is called *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.

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 or coping styles.

Coping Styles

Id

↓

Ego

↑

Super ego

Sublimation: According to Freud, *sublimation* is an ego defense that enables the individual adaptively to divert impulses so that they may be expressed via socially approved thoughts or actions. Sublimation is considered to be the only healthy, constructive strategy against objectionable impulses because it allows the ego to change the aim or object (or both) of impulses without inhibiting their expression.

Repression: Freud regarded *repression* as the primary ego defense. Described as selective forgetting, repression completely obstructs the expression of unconscious sexual and aggressive impulses so that they cannot be admitted to awareness, at least as long as they remain objectionable to the person. Hence, no tension reduction is permitted.

Projection: As a defense mechanism, *projection* ranks next to repression in terms of theoretical importance. It refers to the process of unconsciously attributing one's own unacceptable impulses, attitudes, and behaviors to other people or to the environment. Projection thus enables us to blame someone or something else for our own shortcomings.

Displacement: In *displacement,* when viewed specifically as a defense mechanism (as opposed to the more general meaning of the term described earlier in this chapter), the expression of an instinctual impulse is redirected from a more threatening person or object to a less threatening one. For example, the student angered by his professor instead swears at his roommate. Or the child scolded by her parents proceeds to hit her little sister, kick her dog, or smash her toys.

Rationalization: Another important way in which the ego attempts to cope with frustration and anxiety is to distort reality and thus protect self-esteem. *Rationalization* refers to "fallacious reasoning" in that it misrepresents irrational behavior In order to make it appear rational and thus justifiable to oneself and others. One's mistakes, poor judgments, and failures can be explained through the magic of rationalization.

Reaction Formation: Sometimes the ego can control or defend against the expression of a forbidden impulse by consciously expressing its opposite. This is known as *reaction formation*. As a defensive process it operates in tow steps: first, the unacceptable impulse is repressed: next, the opposite is expressed on a conscious level.

Regression: Still another common defense mechanism that we use to defend ourselves against anxiety, *regression* involves a reversion to an earlier stage of psychosexual development or to a mode of expression that is simpler and more childlike. It is a way of alleviating anxiety by retreating to an earlier period of life.

Techniques of Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis is a therapeutic process which reveals unconscious mental process and conflicts through catharsis and insight.

1. Free association: The patient is asked to lie on a couch and the therapist sits behind the client, then the patient is asked to give a running account of his thought pattern uninterrupted without social censoring it. This technique brings to the conscious level emotionally loaded material that at times can be painful, threatening to be discussed at conscious level.

2. In his book interpretation of the dreams in1900 he refers to the **dream analysis** as a process in which the contents of the dream usually the id impulses (wishes) related to the unconscious conflicts. The therapist interprets the contents of dreams and relates them to various unconscious wishes.

Example:

Suppose you go to the bazaar and you want to buy a very expensive pair of shoes, costing a fortune. Your mother refuses to buy and says that you are out of your mind. So at night, you dream that you are owner of that shoe shop so your id desire has been fulfilled in a dream.

3. The **relationship between the patient with the therapist** / clinician / psychoanalyst / counselor is very important.

Patient → therapist

Relationship

The patient may relate with therapist positively as with an important person in his life like parents, teachers, and friends. We label it as **positive transference** phenomenon.

The patient may relate negatively with the therapist with anger resentment or dislike. We say negative transference has occurred. The patient may at times like the therapist while at times resent him so an ambivalent transference takes place. The therapist (is human) he also at times projects his feelings, emotion usually positive ones towards the patient this is counter transference. This should not happen.

Therapist	**←**	**Client**	**Ambivalent (positive negative).**
Therapist	**→**	**Client**	**Counter transference**

4. In his book The Psychopathology of Every Day Life he talks about **the slip of tongue and pen**.

Freudian slips means you wanted to say something but you said something wrong or embarrassing say Freud went to USA to deliver lectures on Psychoanalysis and a professor introduced him as Dr. Fraud, though he apologized but that is a Freudian slip.

5. Humor is an essential part of psyche.

What sort of humor do you read and enjoy? For Freud humor is mostly related to death and sex two unknown areas of your life about which you are not sure.

Lesson 6

PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY OF SIGMUND FREUD

A gigantic intellectual, a controversial figure, a person criticized more then any person in field in psychology.

1. Theory of personality
2. Method of treatment- Psychoanalysis
3. Set of clinical observations (e.g., defenses)
4. Methods of investigation (free association, dream analysis)

Basic Concepts

1. Psychic determinism--all our behavior has a purpose/goal.

Example: Eat to get energy, help others to get appreciation

2. Freud emphasized the ***predominance*** of unconscious motives and processes
3. Recent translation into cognitive psychology

The core elements of his approach include.

1. Levels of consciousness or theory of consciousness
2. Analysis of mental structures
3. Psychosexual stages of development.
4. Defense mechanisms
5. Means of tapping the unconscious

Levels of Consciousness

How personality is organized?

According to this model, psychic life can be represented by three levels of consciousness-the conscious, the preconscious, and the unconscious. Freud used this mental "map" of the mind to describe the degree to which mental events such as thoughts and fantasies vary in accessibility to awareness.

The ***conscious*** **level** includes all the sensations and experiences of which we are aware at any given moment. Freud insisted that only a small part of mental life (thoughts, perceptions, feelings, memories) is contained in the realm of consciousness.

The ***preconscious*** **domain**, sometimes called "available memory," it contains all experiences that are not conscious at the moment but which can readily be summoned into awareness either spontaneously or with a minimum of effort. This might include memories of everything you did last week, your Social Security number, all the towns you ever lived in, your favorite foods, and a host of other past experiences.

The deepest and major stratum of the human mind is the ***unconscious.*** Freud was not the first to focus attention on the importance of unconscious processes in understanding human actions; several eighteenth- and nineteenth-century philosophers had suggested the influence of unconscious experience on behavior.

Example:

All your nightmares, phobias, fears which influence you but why you have them is because of the unconscious, you don't have an answer. Freud suggested ways / techniques of reaching the unconscious.

They include Free Association, dream analysis and hypnosis.

Example:

You stand near a river, the top water is the conscious part, fill out some muddy water in container, it is the sub-conscious and when you dug the river bed and find something buried in it well that is the unconscious part.

Freud recognized the existence of two basic groups of them-*life* and *death* instincts. The former group includes all the forces which serve to maintain. Vital life processes and assures propagation of the species. Because of the significance attributed to them in the psychic organization of individuals, the *sex instincts* were singled out by Freud as the most salient of the life instincts for the development of personality. The energy force underlying the sexual instincts is called *libido* (from the Latin *word* for "wish" or "desire") or ***libidinal energy.***

Instinct is an inherited condition that gives our behavior direction.

Two kinds of instincts:

1. Life instinct or Eros: bodily needs, survival, pleasure (libido)

2. Death instinct or Thanatos: aggression, self-destructiveness

The Id is like a child when it wants something it wants it there and then without regard for consequences, so Id operates on pleasure principle.

This refers to Greek concept of hedonism meaning pleasure. The energy within the Id is labeled as the libido.

The Ego

The ego is that portion of the psychic apparatus that seeks to express and gratify the desires of the id in accordance with the restrictions of both outer reality and the superego. The ego acquires its structure and functions from the id, having evolved from id, and proceeds to borrow some of the id's energy for its own use in response to the demands of the environment.

Ego thus assures the safety and self- preservation of the organism. In its battle for survival against both the external world and the instinctual demands of the id, ego must continuously differentiate between things in the mind and things in the outer world of reality.

Super ego is the moral arm of the personality.

The ego has the role to mediate conflict between the Id and super ego according to realities of the world. If it mediates successfully, we see an intelligent, creative individual who is well adjusted while if ego is unsuccessful either Id or super ego will be strong.

Id present at birth

Completely unconscious

Primary process thinking (dreams); understand via analysis

Pleasure principle--the Id wants it and the Id wants it now!!

Ego

Constrained by real world

Standards of Superego

Uses ***secondary process*** thinking to follow ***reality principle***

Human Development Viewed Psychosexually

The psychoanalytic theory of development is based on two premises. The first, the *genetic* approach, emphasizes that adult personality is shaped by various types of early childhood experiences. The second is that a certain amount of sexual energy (libido) is present at birth and thereafter progresses through a series of *psychosexual* stages that are rooted in the instinctual processes of the organism.

***Psychosexual* stages** include oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital.

- Each stage has typical problem
- At each stage, the “right amount” of libidinal satisfaction must occur
- Danger of fixation or regression

- Basis of character types
- Major event = Oedipal complex

The formation of personality-*oral, anal*, *phallic,* and *genital.* A period of *latency,* normally occurring between the ages of 6 or 7 and the onset of puberty, was included by Freud in the overall scheme of development, but, technically speaking, it is not a stage. The first three stages of development extend from birth to 5 years of age are called *pregenital* stage.

The Oral Stage (birth-to -18 months):

The *oral* stage of psychosexual development extends throughout the first year of life. Infants are totally reliant upon others for survival; dependence is their only way of obtaining instinctual gratification. The mouth is obviously the body structure most frequently associated at this time with both reduction of biological drives and pleasurable sensations.

The Anal Stage (18 months to 3 years) :

During the second and third years of life, the focus of libidinal energy shifts from mouth to the anal region. Young children derive considerable pleasure from both the retention and expulsion of feces.

The Phallic Stage (3 years to 5 years):

During the fourth and fifth years, the child's libidinal interest one again shift to a new erogenous zone of the body, the genitals. During this stage development of oedipal complex and Electra complex takes place.

The Latency Period (5 years to 12 years):

Between the ages of 5 or 7 and the onset of adolescence, the child passes through the *latency* period; the libido is sublimated i.e. channeled into nonsexual activities such as intellectual interests, athletics, and peer relationships.

The Genital Stage (12 years -puberty):

With the advent of puberty comes a resurgence of sexual and aggressive impulses coupled with an increased awareness of and interest in the opposite sex. The initial *phase* of the *genital* stage (a period extending from adolescence until death) is brought about by biochemical and physiological changes in the organism. The reproductive organs mature, and the endocrine system secretes hormones that result in secondary sex characteristics (e.g., beards in males, breast development in females).

The Nature of Anxiety

Freud's initial interest in the phenomenon of anxiety was motivated by his interest in explaining neurotic symptoms and treating people suffering from them.

Types of Anxiety

(1) Realistic Anxiety

(2) Neurotic Anxiety

(3) Moral Anxiety

Anxiety = threat

Reality: danger in external world

Neurotic: fear of id out of control

Moral: fear of conscience

Ego defends against anxiety--often unconscious, more and less mature/primitive

Realistic Anxiety: The emotional response to threat and/ or perception of real dangers in the external environment (e.g., poisonous snakes, wild animals, earthquakes, final examinations) is called *realistic*, or *objective,* anxiety. It is essentially synonymous with fear and may have a negative effect on the individual's ability to cope effectively with the source of danger.

Neurotic Anxiety: 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. The small child quickly learns that active discharge of his or her libidinal or destructive urges will be met by threats of retaliation from parents or other social agents

Moral Anxiety:When the ego is threatened by punishment from the superego, the ensuing emotional response is called *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.

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 or coping styles.

Coping Styles

Id

↓

Ego

↑

Super ego

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.

Kinds of Ego Defense Mechanisms

(1) Repression

(2) Regression

(3) Reaction formation

(4) Displacement

(5) Projection

Techniques of Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis is a therapeutic process which reveals unconscious mental process and conflicts through catharsis and insight.

1. Free association: The patient is asked to lie on a couch and the therapist sits behind the client, then the patient is asked to give a running account of his thought pattern uninterrupted without social censoring it. This technique brings to the conscious level emotionally loaded material that at times can be painful, threatening to be discussed at conscious level.

2. Dream analysis: It refers to the process in which the contents of the dream usually the id impulses (wishes) related to the unconscious conflicts. The therapist interprets the contents of dreams and relates them to various unconscious wishes.

Example:

Suppose you go to the bazaar and you want to buy a very expensive pair of shoes, costing a fortune. Your mother refuses to buy and says that you are out of your mind. So at night, you dream that you are

owner of that shoe shop so your id desire has been fulfilled in a dream. The relationship between the patient with the therapist / clinician / psychoanalyst / counselor is very important.

3. The patient may relate with therapist positively as with an important person in his life like parents, teachers, and friends. We label it as **positive transference** phenomenon.

The patient may relate negatively with the therapist with anger resentment or dislike. We say negative transference has occurred. The patient may at times like the therapist while at times resent him so an

ambivalent transference takes place. The therapist (is human) he also at times projects his feelings, emotion usually positive ones towards the patient this is counter transference. This should not happen.

4. Freudian slips means you wanted to say something but you said something wrong or embarrassing say Freud went to USA to deliver lectures on psychoanalysis and a professor introduced him as Dr. Fraud, though he apologized but that is a Freudian slip.

5. Humor is an essential part of psyche.

What sort of humor do you read and enjoy? For Freud humor is mostly related to death and sex two unknown areas of your life about which you are not sure

Lesson 7

THEORY OF CARL JUNG

(Analytical Psychology)

Biographical Sketch

Carl Jung was born in 1875 in a Swiss village. Religion was a strong theme running through his early life, may be because his eight uncles and his father was a pastor in a Swiss church.

Jung saw his mother as a dominating person. His parents were most of the time fighting which caused Jung to isolate himself from the family which caused him to rely on his dreams vision and fantasies. When Jung was 10 year's old, he carved out a wooden man from a ruler and kept it in a little wooden case and dressed him in black coat, boots and a top hat. This figure was a refuge for Jung whenever he was depressed and troubled, he would visit him and share his secret with this refuge figure.

Jung believed in dual aspect of his personality, one as a school boy and one as the wise old man and the wise old man was about one hundred year's old than the school boy who was apparently the real person. Jung by profession was a doctor. Jung developed a strong relationship with Freud after reading Freud's book called The Interpretation of Dreams. Jung began to apply his ideas in his therapy. Jung wrote a number of letters to Freud. Freud invited him to visit him and to accompany him to America to deliver a series of lectures at Clark University on Psycho-analysis. The relationship between Jung and Freud initially flourished because Freud named Jung as the president of his Psycho-analytic society. But the relationship soon suffered a setback when Jung began to criticize Freud's overemphasis on psycho-sexual development. Jung advised Freud that even the liberal American audience did not like Freud's emphasis on sex. The two broke-up and Jung called it as the dark years of his life when he began to explore his own theory of personality with emphasis on ego, collective un-conscious, personal un-conscious and archetypes. IN 1909 Freud was invited by Stanley Hall to come to America and introduce his Psychoanalysis to the American audience. Jung accompanied Freud to America during his visit to America Jung noted that even the liberal American audience did not approve Freud's over emphasis on sexual interpretation and on unconscious motives in each and every behavior pattern. All in good faith Jung advised Freud not to emphasize on sex, unconscious and childhood experiences, Freud ignored and soon broke his relations with him and as a punishment the president-ship of the Psychoanalytic society was given to Adler.

Concepts of the Theory

Libido: Libido is the driving force of the personality. It is the general biological life energy that is concentrated in solving different problems as they arise. For Jung, Libido is the creative life force that leads to continuous psychological growth of the person, when we are engaged in activities such as eating, sleeping, studying, walking, and talking, all these needs require energy and Libido is that store house which provides energy for all our physical, psychological and spiritual needs. For Freud, Libido is the main sexual aggressive force or energy, while for Jung the Libidinal energy is the life energy, not just required for sex and aggression.

Equivalence: The principle of Equivalence is the first law of the thermo dynamics (Thermo mean heat and dynamics mean the movement so it refers to the flow of heat). The first law of thermo-dynamics states that the amount of energy in a system is fixed. It is also called law of conservation of energy. Now our psyche-individual also possesses psychic-energy which is Libido and the amount of Libido is fixed. Energy may change form but its total amount will remain the same. You may invest your energy in one activity say studying more and sleep less while another student may sleep more and study less. So energy is simply changing its form but its total amount remains the same**.** Example

The conscious and unconscious are the two aspects of the individual which use energy - libido. when you concentrate more on conscious activities like talking , walking, socializing then libido is being utilized in conscious but it can be used for unconscious activity so psychical energy is changing forms only.

Entropy:

This is the second law of thermo-dynamics, which says that there is tendency towards equalization of energy within a system, for example, all components of the psyche have a tendency to equalize their energy

level e.g. the conscious and the un-conscious are the components of the psyche and there will be a tendency that the energy levels of the two components should be equal.

Principles of Opposites:

According to Newton to every action, there is an equal opposite reaction which is the third law of motion. For Hegel everything carries its own negation or antithesis, we can say, that the un-conscious is the opposite of the conscious, the rational is the opposite of the irrational, and the introvert is the opposite of the extrovert, as far as our psychical system is concerned.

Components of Personality

Ego:

Ego is our every conscious experience. It is our thinking, feeling, remembering, perceiving. So it is responsible for every thing, we do. Ego is responsible for our everyday functions and activities.

- It is our sense of identity.

Example:

- All your daily activities and your personal identity as student of VU are due to ego.

The personal un-conscious consists of repressed or forgotten or not vary vivid or clear memories. It consists of clusters of emotionally loaded thoughts which Jung labeled as complexes. A complex is a personally disturbing cluster of ideas connected together by a common feelings or emotions e.g. the mother complex or the father complex or the power complex or the money complex is a thought which is given a lot of importance by the person and he would invest a lot of energy in activities related with the mother complex or any other which is important to him. Jung reformed Wundt's word association test. This test reveals and detects complexes by studying the common response patterns among mother and daughter, father and son, thus showing that a family background has an influence in forming the concept of complex.

The Collective Unconscious: It refers to our ancestral experiences, memories from untold millions of years, so it is fragments of all human history that we inherit from our forefathers. Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes. An archetype is an inherited predisposition to respond to certain aspects of the world in certain ways. This concept is the crowning principle of Jung's theory. Jung gave us the following archetypes:

Persona, Anima, Animus, Shadow and Self

The Persona: Persona is the mask. It is a Greek word which means the mask or cover which the actors use to wear on the stage. It refers to individual's public personality. It is our very polite and full of manner public personality. Personal may deceive other people but is only a small part of our psyche. It should not be mistaken and taken as the complete whole person. The persona and the real person that is the public personality and the real personality should be closer to one another for a good healthy adjustment.

Anima: This is the female component of the male psyche. It comes in to existence because of the experiences that women have had with men over centuries. It facilitates women to have the better understanding of the other gender. Secondly, it provides a framework within which males interact with females.

Animus: The animus is the masculine component of the female psyche. The male who has a strong animus would help him in taking care of all domestic chores which females are competent in.

Shadow: It is the darkest, deepest part of the psyche or the animal side of the human psyche. As the word shadow shows, it is the devil, the monster, the evil, the destructive, damaging, revengeful side of you and me.

Self: The self is that component of the psyche that strives to unite, harmonize and integrate all components of the psyche in to one whole. When this process takes place, we say that the individual has self actualized or he has achieved his life goal.

Lesson 8

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL TYPES

Even those people, who have not read Jung, are familiar with his famous psychological types. Which are discussed in his famous book, the psychological types, published in 1921, his main focus is on two types, introverts, extroverts. Types refer to orientation or the way an individual interacts with other people.

Introverts: The introverts are quiet, imaginative, more interested in staying at home alone, reading or enjoying one's own company. The introverts are usually labeled as self-centered or book worms and preferring indoor activities.

Extroverts: Extroverts tend to be sociable, outgoing, an interested in parties, picnics, people and group activities. They are the ones who loved to be socialized and visit other's rather than staying alone. Along with these two orientations there are some four functions of our thinking process as well, such as sensing, thinking, feeling, intuiting. So we get eight types of people, such as thinking extrovert, feeling extrovert, sensing extrovert, intuiting extrovert, thinking introvert, feeling introvert, sensing introvert, intuiting introvert.

Stages of Development

Childhood:

From birth to adolescence: During this period the psychic energy is used in learning to walk, to talk and other skills of survival, than this energy is spend in learning to educate.

Young Adulthood:

From Adolescence to forty years: During this stage, one selects one's profession, gets married, raise children, and relate to the community. At this level, the person is usually is energetic, outgoing, passionate and loving.

Middle Ages:

From about forty to later years: This is the most important stage, because almost all biological and physical needs are satisfied and now individual strives to find meaning in life. So, after material development, spiritual development begins to take shape.

Life after Retirement:

After active work, one finds refuge in the need to help others, so the task of finding a new meaning provides energy to continue living further.

Life Goal:

The goal of life is the harmony of the psyche that is combining various parts of the personality in to one. This is also called the transcendent function or the self.

Individuation:

On the other hand, individuation is the exact opposite of the life goal. Individuation is becoming aware of each and every part of the psyche such as the anima, animus, shadow, and self.

Causality:

According to Jung, adult personality should be understood in terms of past experiences which guide us, and provide solution to our problems but our behavior is also guided by teleology that is human behavior is always guided by past as well as by future. So past experiences push us forward and future goals pull us ahead.

Synchronicity:

When you dream of a person and shortly in the near future, the person appears in front of you, when you dream of a place and you visit it in future, when you dream of an event and the event takes place, this is called meaningful coincidence. The example Abraham Lincoln, who needed Blackstone's commentaries.

Research Techniques:

1. Word Association Test: He redesigned Wundt's word association test and used it extensively with his patient's.
2. Dream Analysis: For Jung a dream is just what it appears to be. It provides individual with an awareness and understanding of his problem and solution to the problem as well.
3. For Jung, personal unconscious, collective unconscious and archetypes are very important. The unity of all these into self is the goal of life.
4. Jung's personality theory has a background of history, religion and anthropology (culture and civilization).
5. There is emphasis on personality development following a stage of development where spiritual development is emphasized.

Comparison with Freud:

FREUD	JUNG
Freud's theory is biological in nature	His theory is psychological and social in emphasis
Emphasis on sex and aggression	Emphasis on unification of different component of the psyche
Dreams have manifest and latent meaning	Dreams are what in individual sees them
Stages of development are five, beginning from birth up till adolescence	Stages of development are four, focuses from birth till retirement
Psychological types are not provided	Psychological types are provided, introverts and extroverts

Lesson 9

ALFRED ADLER

(Individual Psychology)

Biographical Sketch

Adler was born in Vienna, Austria in 1870, he was second of six children and he had severe rivalry with his older brother who was very athletic and the model child of the family. Alder thought of himself as ugly and short. He had miserable childhood. He suffered from rickets which prevented him to take part in sports. When he was five years old, he suffered from Pneumonia. He heard the doctor's say to his parents, you boy is lost. After getting better, he decided to become a medical doctor. Adler read Freud's book called *The Interpretation of Dreams*, and he wrote a paper supporting this book. Freud invited Adler to join the psycho-analytic society and to become the president of the Society. This was Adler's biggest mistake to become the president of the psycho-analytic society. Soon he began to find that Freud could not take criticism and would become very aggressive and abusive. After breaking from Freud, Adler coined the term Individual Psychology and began developing his own theory of personality. Initially, Adler's work was focused on problems of child rearing, education and other every day problems. Adler's theory is still pursued by his daughter Alexandra and son Kurt who practiced their father's brand of psychology in New York.

Individual Psychology:

The term individual psychology refers to the fact that individuals are unique, they characterize by inner harmony and a striving force to cooperate with fellow humans. It does not mean that human beings are selfish, aggressive and motivated to satisfy their own biological motives. His theory focuses on the whole individual, the whole is more than the sum of its parts. And we dissect we distort the harmony of the whole. Thus Adler seems to be talking, like a Gestaltian.

Organs of Inferiority and Compensation:

According to Adler, some of us are born with weak eyes, others with weak stomach, some with weak hearts and still other with damaged limbs. These biological deficiencies or shortcomings create problem for people. An individual with organ inferiority compensates for this particular weakness by concentrating on its development or by emphasizing other functions which make up for the weakness. For example, a blind person may concentrate on development of his auditory skills or focused more on some other modality such as touch or feeling. We have many examples, Helen Keller who was blind, deaf, worked hard and focused on her sense of touch. Beethoven, who was toned deaf, created the best music in the world.

Feeling of Inferiority:

For Adler, all of us staff life with feelings of inferiority, because we are completely dependent on adults for our survival. This feeling of being weak and inferior stimulates and creates intense desire to seek power and to overcome feeling of inferiority. Are feeling of inferiority bad? It is a fact, which is the driving force in all humans. One feels inferior and therefore, strives to become powerful and tries to accomplish more. Therefore all humans experience the feeling of being inferior but in some, it creates neurosis, a need to succeed under all circumstances and conditions.

Striving for Superiority:

Striving for superiority is individual's superiority to strive for a superior or a perfect society. This could be beneficial as well as harmful, if a person concentrates on fulfilling his personal needs and ignores the needs of others, and the society then he suffers from superiority complex i.e. one individual tries to be domineering, arrogant and tries to deceive others. This is a self centered selfish individual.

Style of Life:

All humans strive for superiority, but how superiority is sought depends upon a person's unique circumstances. The means by which a particular individual attempts to gain superiority is called the style of life. A person's life style provides him with his identity. It determines how he will solve his problems, what future goals he will pursue and how he will attain them. A healthy style of life permits a person to live in

harmony with others and to contribute towards the advancement of the society. A mistaken style of life is based on one selfish motives and ignorance towards betterment of society. The style of life evolves early in life so the child can overcome his feelings of inferiority and strive for perfection and pursue the betterment of the society. Adler believed that style of life develops early in childhood, whereas Erikson sees style of life as self identity and it develops during late adolescence.

Lesson 10

INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY

Fictional Finalism

All of us are guided by the fictions or fictional believes or ideas which make our life significant and organized. These fictional themes are very useful for the person to deal with is problems of existence. These fictions can include, If I have enough money, I will be happy, if only I can get my Masters degree, every thing will be fine, if I can write a good book, I will be famous. The concept of fictional finalism according to Adler is a guiding self ideal. These ideals are invented by the individual to make his life more significant and meaningful healthy people change their fictions when circumstances want them too. Where as the neurotic individuals hangs on to the same fictional ideal through out their lives. These goals, ideals or plans provide a means of living in more effective and constructive life.

Social Interest:

Social interest is an innate need of all human to live in harmony, peace and friendship with others and to make a perfect society. Every individual has a degree of or potential for social interest. If this potential is realized, the person will be successful. All humans have three major problems, which require a well developed social interest:

1. Occupational Tasks, which required the person's help to advance the society.
2. Societal tasks. This required the cooperation of other human beings and it provides security and welfare to all human beings.
3. Love and marriage tasks. This requires mutual living together as a family based on love and passion. Adler, Horney and Erikson, all agree that social interests and satisfaction of this need relate to presence or absence of adjustment problems in life.

Mistaken Styles of Life:

An individual, who seeks personal superiority and self goal, only suffers superiority complex (from mistaken style of life) and he who is overwhelmed by feeling of inferiority he suffers from inferiority complex.

Adler classified four types of people according to the degree of social interest.

i. The ruling dominant type.

The focus over here is to dominate and rule people and to suppress them.

ii. The getting leaning type.

This type expects every thing to be done from others and gets every thing from others either politely or rudely.

iii. The avoiding type.

This type avoids failure by never attempting anything at all.

iv. Social useful type.

This is a type of person who works in harmony and cooperation with other and leads a rich and purposeful life.

Creative Self:

Heredity and environment provide are the raw materials which the individual uses in his unique creative way to develop and determine his relationship with the world. For Freud humans are not free to choose one's destiny rather all human behavior is determined where as Adler thinks that humans are free to choose destiny.

Methods of Studying an Individual:

For Adler birth order, first memories and dream analysis are methods of studying the mental life of an individual.

Birth Order:

The first born, second born, youngest born, and the only born. The first born is the crown prince, a status which no one can shake .He enjoys a unique position. He is the focus of attention until the second child is born. The second born is involved in a rat race from the first day of his life, he is extremely ambitious and achieves every task before the first born to get the love of parents. The only born child is like a child that is never going to be dethroned at least by a sibling. The only born child when enters the school learns that he is not the center of the attention. The only born child is the most spoiled child. This child is pampered by parents a lot.

First Memories:

First memories according to Adler are the earliest recollections of an individual, which are very important and significant to the individual. An individual chooses to remember only those memories that represent an important theme in the individual's life. Adler's own first memories were related to his illness or death in the family.

Dream Analysis:

Dreams are important because they provide the individual with ways and means of dealing with life's problem. They help the individual to plan for his future.

Goal of Psychotherapy:

For Adler, lifestyle focuses on one way of looking at things and this mode of perception persists unless the person runs into major problems, this is a faulty life style so a new life style which contains social interest.

Evaluation:

- 1- Adler focuses on wholeness or holistic existence of humans.
- 2- For Adler personality is not completely determined by inheritance and environment but it is creative self which allows us to be what we choose to be.
- 3- His theory is used by counselors, therapists and educators.

Comparison with Freud:

FREUD	ADLER
Freud's theory is biological in nature	• His theory emphasizes on the psychological and social aspect of the individual.
Emphasis on sex and aggression	Emphasis on style of life, social interest and self.
Future goals are unimportant	Future goals are important.
Dreams are used to detect contents of unconscious mind.	Dreams are used as problem solving mechanisms.

Goal of psychotherapy is to discover repressed early memories	Goal of psychotherapy is to encourage healthy lifestyle by incorporating social interest.
Personality is completely determined by heredity and environment	Humans are partially free to determine their personality

Lesson 11

KAREN HORNEY

Horney developed a theory based on two concepts:

1- Basic Anxiety

2- Neurotic Personality

1- Basic Anxiety - anxiety created when a child is born into the bigger and more powerful world of older children and adults.

2- Neurotic Personalities – maladaptive ways of dealing with relationships, especially parent child relationship-based on hostility or rejection.

A woman and a parent focus on the concept of:

1- Child's feeling of insecurity creates anxiety

2- Faulty parent child relationship creates neurotic personality

Concepts of Theory

1- Basic Hostility and Basic Anxiety

2- Adjustment to Basic Anxiety

3- Classified people according to ten neurotic needs in three categories.

4- Relationship between Real Self and Ideal Self

5- Adjustment Techniques

6- Goal of Therapy

Karen Horney was born in 1885 when she was twelve year's old, she was treated by a doctor who impressed her so much that she decided to become a doctor herself.

During the economic depression years in America people were worried about their jobs, not having enough money to pay the rent, to provide good education to their children, to provide good medical care to their children and to buy food. It was this philosophy that Karen Horney began to develop her own theory of personality.

1- Basic Hostility and Basic Anxiety

In 1937, Karen Horney wrote a book called "The Neurotic Personality of our Time" in this book, Karen Horney tried to discuss that a child has two basic needs, which are safety and satisfaction

2- Adjustment to Basic Anxiety

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

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 ones life with in 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 un-assailability.

3- In 1945, Karen Horney in her book "Our Inner Conflicts" classified ten neurotic needs in three categories.

1-Moving Towards People

2-Moving Against People

3-Moving Away from People

4- Relationship between Real Self and Ideal Self

The real self represents all those things that are true about an individual, the ideal self reflects what one would like to become. So the real self is the actual you and the ideal self is that what you aspire to become. The relationship between real self and ideal self is important.

Example

The real self and the ideal self actually are the two sides of the same coin.

5- Adjustment Techniques

Freud's ego defense mechanisms and Karen Horney's adjustment techniques are the same. However, Karen Horney has added few new and usable techniques of adjustment which are:

- Blind Spots
- Rationalization
- Excessive self-control
- Compartmentalization
- Externalization
- Arbitrary Rightness
- Elusiveness
- Cynicism

6- Goal of Therapy

In her book called *Self Analysis*, Karen Horney says, "that many people do not have emotional problems because they learn to minimize conflict and try to maintain a relationship between their real and ideal self.

So the goal of psychotherapy is create a realistic relationship between the real self and ideal self." Those people who accept themselves what they really are, they develop realistic goals for future and they have peace and harmony with themselves.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Karen Horney was born in 1885 when she was twelve year's old, she was treated by a doctor who impressed her so much that she decided to become a doctor herself. After becoming a doctor, she received psycho-analytic training at Berlin. Then she began practicing psycho-analysis. In 1932 she came to America, in New York she started her private practice and trained psycho-analysts. While practicing psycho-analysis, Karen Horney soon discovered that Freud's theory did not fit the problems that people were having during the economic depression in America. People were worried about their jobs, not having enough money to pay the rent, to provide good education to

their children, to provide good medical care to their children and to buy food. It was this philosophy that Karen Horney began to develop her own theory of personality.

BASIC HOSTILITY AND BASIC ANXIETY

In 1937, Karen Horney wrote a book called "The Neurotic Personality of our Times" in this book, Karen Horney tried to discuss that a child has two basic needs, which are safety and satisfaction and the child is dependent on the parents for their satisfaction and gratification. The child is helpless and dependent in the early years of his life. Two things can happen, the parent can demonstrate true love and affection towards the child and satisfy his safety and satisfaction need or they can be indifferent towards the child, rejects the child, be hostile towards the child, show obvious preference to another child, show unfair, punishment towards the child, ridicule the child, humiliate the child, have un kept promises to the child or isolate the child from the others. A child who is abused and rejected, develops hostility towards his parents, he tries to repress this hostility and generalizes it towards the entire world and all the people in it. When a child experiences love and warmth he will develop normally. But when he is abused, rejected, he will develop a neurotic behavior or an unhealthy personality.

Adjustment to Basic Anxiety

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

1. The neurotic need for affection and approval.
2. The neurotic need for a partner who will run ones life.
3. The neurotic need to live ones life with in 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.

In 1945, Karen Horney in her book "Our Inner Conflicts" classified ten neurotic needs in three categories.

1-Moving Towards People

2-Moving Against People

3-Moving Away from People

LESSON 12

ADJUSTMENT TO BASIC ANXIETY

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In 1945, Karen Horney in her book "Our Inner Conflicts" classified ten neurotic needs in three categories.

1-Moving Towards People

2-Moving Against People

3-Moving Away from People

Let us discuss each of them

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.

Relationship between Real Self and Ideal Self

The real self represents all those things that are true about an individual, the ideal self reflects what one would like to become. So the real self is the actual you and the ideal self is that what you aspire to become. The relationship between real self and ideal self is important. The real self and the ideals self actually are the two sides of the same coin. For the normal person, the real self and the ideal self are closely related and not far apart. Whereas for the neurotic persons, the real self and the ideal self are far away and the ideal self is un-realistic, un-reachable more of a dream. So ideal self is like an illusion that does not reflect a reality and that needs to be changed and modified. For the normal person, the ideal self is realist, changeable and reachable.

Adjustment Techniques

Freud's ego defense mechanisms and Karen Horney's adjustment techniques are the same. However, Karen Horney has added few new and usable techniques of adjustment which are:

1-Blind Spots

Let us take an example, you are extremely intelligent student and you responded to your teacher's question very stupidly, so this experience hurts your ego. Therefore, you are going to deny it and ignore it because it is not in accordance with your idealized self image of an intelligent person. Now this experience is a disowned one and it will reappear as a blind spot in your personality. You will not accept it and it will reappear as a problem in your personality. This is similar to Sigmund Freud's repression.

2-Rationalization

It is giving good reasons or making good excuses to protect your ego. So rationalization by Freud and Horney are the same. Let's take an example: A student works very hard for CSS but fails in it. He says, "I don't want to be a civil servant, all civil servants are corrupt since I am an honest person I do not want to be a civil servant". The story of the fox and the grapes is another example of rationalization.

3-Excessive Self-Control

Excessive self-control is actually rigid self control at all costs. Guarding one's self, against anxiety by controlling, any expression of emotion. In real life a puritan character has been created who maintains tight emotional control under all circumstances.

Example

An individual under extreme grief and depression expresses no emotion.

An individual under state of extreme happiness shows no emotion.

4-Compartmentalization

It means dividing your life in to various compartments, one set of rules controls one compartment and another set of rules controls another compartment. For example, a teacher does not permit his students to cheat in the class, but the same teacher while playing a game of cards cheats with his colleagues. So there is one set of rules which applies to one compartment and another set of rules which applies to another compartment of his personality.

5 - Externalization

Externalization is similar to Freud's projection. In projection, individual blames others for his own shortcoming. For example, a student did not prepare for his exams properly, and after getting a low grade, would say, the teacher was against me or the question paper was out of the course, instead of seeing the fact that the preparation was insufficient. Our team lost the match, because the umpire was against us while the fact is that our penalty corner conversion was poor.

6- Arbitrary Rightness

To the person utilizing this adjustment technique, the worst thing a person can be is indecisive or ambiguous. When issues arise that have no clear solution one way or the other, the person arbitrarily chooses one solution, thereby ending debate. An example would be when a mother says "You're not going out Friday night and that's the end of it" A person using this adjustment will arrive at a position and when

doing so all debate ends. The position the person takes becomes the truth and therefore cannot be challenged. The person no longer needs to worry about what is right and wrong or what is certain and uncertain.

7 - Elusiveness

This technique is the opposite of arbitrary rightness. The elusive person never makes a decision about any thing. If one is never committed to anything, one can never be wrong, and if one is never wrong, one can never be criticized. If a person decides to go to college and fails, there is no excuse. If, however, the decision to go to college is delayed, because of lack of money, or any other reason, this technique is called elusiveness, where the person never makes a decision about any thing.

8 - Cynicism

Cynics are individuals who do not believe in the value of any thing rather they try to make every individual realize the meaninglessness of their goals and objectives. Karen Horney believed that Cynics are individuals who derive pleasure by making an individual realize that he is worthless and his goals and aims in life are meaningless.

Goal of Psychotherapy

In her book called *Self Analysis*, Karen Horney says, "that many people do not have emotional problems because they learn to minimize conflict and try to maintain a relationship between their real and ideal self. So the goal of psychotherapy is create a realistic relationship between the real self and ideal self." Those people who accept themselves what they really are, they develop realistic goals for future and they have peace and harmony with themselves.

Comparison of Freud and Karen Horney:

FREUD	KAREN HORNEY
For Freud, early childhood experiences are extremely important because personality development takes place in the early years of childhood.	For Karen Horney, child's relationship to his parents is very important and that determines whether or not the child would develop the basic anxiety.
Freud emphasized the importance of unconscious motivation in the development of personality.	For Karen Horney, basic anxiety leads to development of neurosis and causes basic hostility, which is unconscious.
For Freud, all conflicts attempted to satisfy biological drives. His emphasis on sex and aggression as the primary biological motive.	Karen Horney deemphasized the biological motives and focused on a need for a feeling of security in the child is important.
For Freud, males are superior and he discussed the Electra complex and Oedipus complex in detail.	Karen Horney totally rejected this concept and said that anatomy is not destiny. Males are not superior. They are equal to females.
For Freud, personality changed rarely takes place in adult life.	While for Karen Horney all of us have capacity to change in fundamental ways.

Lesson 13

ERIK ERIKSON

He developed a theory based on:

1- Social rather than sexual relationships,

2-which covers the entire life span of an individual.

Example

The focus is the individual's

1- Social Relationships such as that of peers, friends, colleagues etc.

2- Entire Life Span- such as from birth till retirement and beyond.

Concepts of Theory

1-Anatomy and Destiny

2-Ego Psychology

3-Eight stages of Human Development

4-Goal of Psychotherapy

1-Anatomy and Destiny

1-According to Erickson biology or genetics is one strong determinant of personality but culture is another important determinant

2-Thus biologically determined differences between the two sexes can be explained as result of social expectations or cultural expectations.

2- Ego Psychology

The ego according to Erikson is in the service of the Id but in this process of serving id, it develops its own functions. It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as ego psychology.

His entire theory is a description of how the ego gains or looses strength in the developmental process.

According to Freud Id is in conflict with the Ego where as according to Erikson ego is in the service of the Id but in this process of serving id, it develops its own functions.

Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment.

For Freud, the real job of the ego is to find realistic ways to satisfy all the impulses of the id while not offending or developing a conflict with super ego. So for Freud, ego is the master control and its tries to establish a balance between id and super ego. The ego according to Erikson is in the service of the Id but in this process of serving id, it develops its own functions. It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as ego psychology. His entire theory is a description of how the ego gains or looses strength in the developmental process. He has given the descriptions of eight developmental stages, through which, all individuals pass and what happens to the ego during each of these stages is important.

3-Eight stages of Human Development

According to Erikson, every individual passes through eight stages of development and sequence of the eight stages is genetically determined and it is unchangeable. This is labeled as epigenetic principle.

Epigenetic Principle

This Epigenetic Principle states that a sequence of growth is genetically determined and that each stage, once developed, gives rise to the next.

Each stage of development is characterized by crisis which can have a positive or a negative resolution.

A positive resolution strengthen the ego makes it stronger and helps the individual in the adaptation process.

On the other hand a negative resolution weakens the ego and hinders or inhibits the adaptation process.

In **positive resolution** of the crises we see a healthy individual with a strong Ego which helps in adaptation and adjustment to all situations.

In **negative resolution** of crises we see an individual who is maladjusted.

Identity is the sense of who you are and where you are going in life. The emergence of identity is the end of childhood and beginning of adulthood.

Identity crisis is the crises in fifth stage of development where an individual gains either positive or negative identity.

Positive identity means a person if fully aware of who he is and what his goals in life are –certainly not contrary to goals of society.

All behaviors of children which are rewarded

Negative identity is an identity that is contrary to the goals of society.

Those entire thing that child is warned not to become.

Stages of Development

1-Basic Trust versus basic mistrust (from birth to one year).

2-Autonomy versus shame and doubt (from one to three years).

3-Initiative versus Guilt (four to five years).

4-Industry versus inferiority (six to eleven years).

5-Identity versus role confusions (From twelve to twenty years).

6-Intimacy versus isolation (from twenty to twenty four years).

7-Generativity versus stagnation (from twenty five to sixty five).

8- Ego integrity versus despair (sixty five to death).

4-Goal of Psychotherapy

According to Erikson, the patient's ego should be strengthen to such a level at which it can cope with life's problems. Rehabilitation can be more effective and economical if the clinician focuses on patient's life plan and advice him to strengthen the elements of his ego identity.

Evaluation

1-It is a psychosocial theory.

2-For Erikson, it is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy of ego; we call his theory as ego psychology.

3-For Erikson, the conscious does not neglect the unconscious and it takes into account the social experience as well.

4-For Erikson, healthy people successfully pass through the eight stages of development and acquire hope, will, competence, fidelity, love, care and wisdom.

5-For Erikson, religion is something that people need and human use religion to make the events of their lives more understandable and less threatening.

Application

His theory had made important contributions to the areas of

1-Psychotherapy

2- Education

3-Child rearing and development

4- One application of his theory is study of major historical figures which is labeled as psychohistory.

He analyzed historical figures such as Adolph Hitler, Martin Luther, and Mahatma Gandhi and tried to study these historical figures through the great events of history.

Biographical Sketch

Eric Erikson was born of Danish parents in Germany in 1902. Erikson's personal feelings of not belonging to his family were related to the fact that both his mother and step father were Jewish. In school he was referred to as a Jew. So we can say that even as a boy, he was working on his concept on identity crisis. The year 1927, is the turning point in his life. He was first hired as an artist, then as a teacher and finally, Anna Freud if he would like to be trained as a child analyst. Erikson accepted her offer. Erikson was impressed by her and in 1964 he dedicated his book *Insight and Responsibility* to her. In 1939, Erikson came in contact with anthropologist like Ruth Benedict and Margaret Mead. From then he become aware about personality development and began developing his personal theory of personality. Erikson made several contributions to Psychology; one application of his theory of development to study of major historical figures is labeled as psychohistory. He analyzed historical figures such as Adolf Hitler, Martin Luther, and Mahatma Gandhi and tried to study these historical figures through the great events of history.

Erikson summarized his research on 10 to 12 years old boys and girls in California, the children were asked by Erikson to construct on the table an exciting scene out of an imaginary moving picture. The children were allowed to use various toys, figures and various shaped blocks. One fifty children constructed 450 scenes and only six or seven scenes with toys and dolls were given names of actress or actresses, rest of the scenes were created by imagination. Secondly, there were common themes and elements in the scenes created by boys which differed markedly from the scenes created by the girls. For example, girls created static and peaceful scenes whereas, boys created scenes with animals and dangerous men. The scenes created by boys had high walls, high towers and cannons. This tendency surprised Erikson and made him very easy, for Erikson biology was never the only factor that determined how a person perceives and acts upon the world, social factors are also very important. So, according to Erikson, the biologically determined differences of behavior between the two genders can better be explained as a result of social and cultural expectations.

Another important point in his theory is that males are neither better than females nor vice versa. The only important difference between males and females is that both compliment each other or there are cultures such as ours where the male role has been glorified which the female finds very unfortunate.

1-Anatomy and Destiny

1- 1-According to Erickson biology or genetics is one strong determinant of personality but culture is another important determinant

2- 2-Thus biologically determined differences between the two sexes can be explained as result of social expectations or cultural expectations.

2- Ego Psychology

For Freud, the real job of the ego is to find realistic ways to satisfy all the impulses of the id while not offending or developing a conflict with super ego. So for Freud, ego is the master control and its tries to establish a balance between id and super ego. The ego according to Erikson is in the service of the Id but in this process of serving id, it develops its own functions. It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as ego psychology. His entire theory is a description of how the ego gains or

looses strength in the developmental process. He has given the descriptions of eight developmental stages, through which, all individuals pass and what happens to the ego during each of these stages is important.

Lesson 14

ERIK ERIKSON

He developed a theory based on:

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2- The entire life span of an individual.

Concepts of Theory

1-Anatomy and Destiny

2-Ego Psychology

3-Eight stages of Human Development

4-Goal of Psychotherapy

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Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment.

3-Eight stages of Human Development

According to Erikson, every individual passes through eight stages of development and sequence of the eight stages is genetically determined and it is unchangeable. This is labeled as epigenetic principle.

Each stage of development is characterized by crisis which can have a positive or a negative resolution.

A positive resolution strengthen the ego makes it stronger and helps the individual in the adaptation process.

On the other hand a negative resolution weakens the ego and hinders or inhibits the adaptation process.

1-Basic Trust versus basic mistrust (from birth to one year).

2-Autonomy versus shame and doubt (from one to three years).

3-Initiative versus Guilt (four to five years).

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According to Erikson, the patient's ego should be strengthen to such a level at which it can cope with life's problems. Rehabilitation can be more effective and economical if the clinician focuses on patient's life plan and advice him to strengthen the elements of his ego identity.

Evaluation

It is a psychosocial theory.

For Erikson, it is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy of ego; we call his theory as ego psychology.

For Erikson, the conscious does not neglect the unconscious and it takes into account the social experience as well.

For Erikson, healthy people successfully pass through the eight stages of development and acquire hope, will, competence, fidelity, love, care and wisdom.

For Erikson, religion is something that people need and human use religion to make the events of their lives more understandable and less threatening.

Application

His theory had made important contributions to the areas of

1-Psychotherapy,

2- Education,

3-Child rearing and development

4-one application of his theory is study of major historical figures which is labeled as psychohistory.

He analyzed historical figures such as Adolph Hitler, Martin Luther, and Mahatma Gandhi and tried to study these historical figures through the great events of history.

Human Development

According to Erikson, every individual passes through eight stages of development and sequence of the eight stages is genetically determined and it is un-changeable. This is labeled as epigenetic principle. According to this principle, everything that grows has a ground plan and that out of this ground plan, the parts arise and each part grows up until all parts have grown to form a whole. Each stage of development is characterized by crisis. The crisis at each stage of development has a positive and a negative resolution. A positive resolution strengthen the ego makes it stronger and helps the individual in the adaptation process. On the other hand a negative resolution weakens the ego and hinders inhibits the adaptation process. A negative resolution lowers the likelihood that the next crisis will be resolved effectively. It is the social environment that determines whether or

not the crisis associated with any stage is resolved positively it is therefore labeled as psycho-social stages of development as compared to Freud's psycho-sexual stages of development.

Basic Trust versus basic mistrust (from birth to one year).

If crisis is successfully resolved hope emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, fear emerges.

Autonomy versus shame and doubt (from one to three years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, self control, will power emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, self doubt emerges.

Initiative versus Guilt (four to five years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, director and purpose emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, feelings of unworthiness emerge.

Industry versus inferiority (six to eleven years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, competence emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, incompetence emerges.

Identity versus role confusions (From twelve to twenty years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, fidelity emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, uncertainty emerges.

Intimacy versus isolation (from twenty to twenty four years).

If crisis is successfully resolved, capacity for love emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, hatred and disgust emerges.

Generativity versus stagnation (from twenty five to sixty five).

If crisis is successfully resolved, care emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, selfishness emerges.

Ego integrity versus despair (sixty five to death).

If crisis is successfully resolved, wisdom emerges and if unsuccessfully resolved, feeling despair and meaninglessness emerges.

In these eight stages of development, there are useful traits that emerge if each crisis is resolved successfully.

Goal of Psychotherapy

According to Erikson, the patient's ego should be strengthen to such a level at which it can cope with life's problems. Rehabilitation can be more effective and economical if the clinician focuses on patient's life plan and advice him to strengthen the elements of his ego identity.

Comparison of Erikson and Freud:

FREUD	ERIKSON

For Freud, there is a psycho-sexual theory of development.	For Erikson, there is a psycho-social theory of development.
For Freud, ego is important. It is the master control. It maintains a balance between the id and super ego.	For Erikson, The ego is in the service of the Id but in this process of serving id, it develops its own functions. It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment, since Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as ego psychology.
For Freud, the unconscious mind, the unconscious conflicts are important.	For Erikson, the conscious does not neglect the unconscious and it takes into account the social experience as well.
For Freud, psycho-therapy helps in the understanding of unconscious mechanisms using the techniques such as dream analysis and free association.	For Erikson, healthy people successfully pass through the eight stages of development and acquire hope, will, competence, fidelity, love, care and wisdom.
For Freud, he took a very dim view of religion and said that it was nearly a collective neurosis based on fears and desires.	For Erikson, religion is something that people need and human use religion to make the events of their lives more understandable and less threatening.

Evaluation

In this theory, there is focus on a very useful guide to understanding personality and there is communication between therapist and patient keeps moving, leading to new and surprising insights and to the person's greater responsibility for himself. His theory is a psycho-social developmental theory where an individual passes through eight comprehensive stages of development. He utilized his theory to analyze the lives of several well known historical figures and created new discipline called psycho-history. His theory had made important contributions to the areas of psycho-therapy, education, child rearing and development and the analysis of historical figures.

Lesson 15

SULLIVAN'S INTERPERSONAL THEORY

The organization of personality consists of interpersonal events and interpersonal behavior.

Sullivan's Theory focuses on:

1-Personality as hypothetical entity

2- This personality is a part of an interpersonal situation and interpersonal behavior.

Example

Personality of a University teacher or a student

Now the personality development of a university teacher or a student is the result of interpersonal situations or events.

The word interpersonal refers to relationship between two or more people or events that take place between people.

Example

Child's relation with family

Friends or Neighbors.

Core Concepts

1- Dynamism

2- Energy Transformation

a- Self System

b- Personifications

3-Cognitive Process

Experience Occurs in Three Modes These are:

a- Prototaxic

b- Parataxic

c- Syntaxic

4-The Dynamics of Personality

5-The Development of Personality

6-Research

a- Interview

b- Research on Schizophrenia

Harry Stack Sullivan: Biographical sketch

Harry Stack Sullivan was born in 1892 in Norwich, near New York and died in1949 in Paris.

He received his medical degree in 1917 and served with the armed forces in World War I.

In 1922 he met William Alanson White, a leader in American Neuropsychiatry.

Then he conducted investigations in Schizophrenia that established his reputation as a clinician.

Harry Stack Sullivan was the creator of a new viewpoint that is known as the interpersonal theory

of Psychiatry. Its major tenet as it relates to personality is "the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize a human life".. Personality is a hypothetical entity that cannot be isolated from interpersonal situations, and interpersonal behavior is all that can be observed as personality

Sullivan sees the individual as the object of study because the individual does not and cannot exist apart from his or her relations with other people. From the first day of life, the baby is a part of an interpersonal situation, and throughout the rest of its life it remains a member of a social field. Even a wild cat who has resigned from society carries with him into the wilderness memories of former personal relationships that continue to influence his thinking and acting.

Sullivan does not deny the importance of heredity and maturation in shaping the organism; he feels that human is the product of social interactions. More over, the interpersonal experiences of a person may alter his or her purely physiological functioning, so that even the organism loses its status as a biological entity and becomes a social organism with its own socialized ways of breathing, digesting, eliminating, circulating, and so forth.

For Sullivan, the science of psychiatry is allied with social psychology, and his theory of personality bears the imprint of his strong preference for social psychological concepts and variables.

Sullivan insists repeatedly that personality is a purely hypothetical entity, "an illusion," which cannot be observed apart from interpersonal situations. The unit of study is the interpersonal situation and not the person. The organization of personality consists of interpersonal events rather than intra-psychic ones. Personality only manifests itself when the person is behaving in relation to one or more other individuals. These people do not need to be present; in fact they can even be illusory or nonexistent figures.

Dynamism is the smallest unit that can be employed in the study of the individual. It is defined as "the relatively enduring pattern of energy transformations, which recurrently characterize the organism in its duration as a living organism" An energy transformation is any form of behavior. It may be overt and public like talking, or covert and private like thinking and fantasying.

Because dynamism is a pattern of behavior that endures and recurs, it is about the same thing as a habit. This means that a new feature may be added to a pattern without changing the pattern just as long as it is not significantly different from the other contents of the envelope. It is significantly different it changes the pattern into a new pattern. For example, two apples may be quite different in appearance and yet be identified as apples because their differences are not important. However, an apple and a banana are different in significant respects and consequently form two different patterns.

1-The Self-System

Anxiety is a product of interpersonal relations, being transmitted originally from the mother to the infant and later in life by threats to one's security. To avoid or minimize actual or potential anxiety, people adopt various types of protective measures and supervisory controls over their behavior. One learns, for example, that one can avoid punishment by conforming to parents' wishes. These security measures form the self-system that sanctions certain forms of behavior (the good-me self) and forbids other forms (the bad-me self).

The self-system as the guardian of one's security tends to become isolated from the rest of the personality; it excludes information that is incongruous with its present organization and fails thereby to profit from experience. Since the self guards the person from anxiety, it is held in high esteem and is protected from criticism. As the self-system grows in complexity and independence, it prevents the person from making objective judgments of his or her own behavior and it glosses over obvious contradictions between what the person really is and what the self-system says he or

she is. In general, the more experiences people have with anxiety, the more inflated their self-system becomes and the more it becomes dissociated from the rest of the personality. Although the self-system serves the useful purpose of reducing anxiety, it interferes with one's ability to live constructively with others.

2-Personifications

A personification is an image that an individual has of him or herself or of another person. It is a complex of feelings, attitudes, and conceptions that grows out of experiences with need-satisfaction and anxiety.

For example, the baby develops a personification of a good mother by being nursed and cared for by her. Any interpersonal relationship that involves satisfaction tends to build up a favorable picture of the satisfying agent. On the other hand, the baby's personification of a bad mother results from experiences with her that evokes anxiety. The anxious mother becomes personified as the bad mother. Ultimately, these two personifications of the mother along with any others that may be formed, such as the overprotective mother, fuse together to form a complex personification.

3-Cognitive Process

Sullivan's unique contribution regarding the place of cognition in the affairs of personality is his threefold classification of experience.

Experience, he says, occurs in three modes; these are

Prototaxic

Parataxic

Syntaxic

1-Prototaxic experience "may be regarded as the discrete series of momentary states of the sensitive organism". This type of experience is similar to the "stream of consciousness," the raw sensations, images, and feelings that flow through the mind of a sensate being. They have no necessary connection" among themselves and possess no meaning for the experiencing person.

Example

The prototaxic mode of experience is found in its purest form during the early months of life and is the necessary precondition for the appearance of the other two modes.

2-The Parataxic mode of thinking consists of seeing causal relationship between events that occur at about the same time but which are not logically related. When ever a black cat comes my way I face disaster, we see causal connections between experiences that have nothing to do with one another.

Lesson 16

SULLIVAN'S INTERPERSONAL THEORY

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Example

All superstitions, for instance, are examples of parataxic thinking.

3-The third and highest mode of thinking is the syntaxic, which consists of consensually validated symbol activity, especially of a verbal nature. A consensually validated symbol is one which has been agreed upon by a group of people as having a standard meaning. Words and numbers are the best examples of such symbols. The syntaxic mode produces logical order among experiences and enables people to communicate with one another.

In addition to this Sullivan emphasizes the importance of foresight in cognitive functioning. "Man, the person, lives with his past, the present and the neighboring future all clearly relevant in explaining his thought and action" Foresight depends upon one's memory of the past and interpretation of the present.

4-The Dynamics of Personality

Sullivan, in common with many other personality theorists, conceives of personality as an energy system whose chief work consists of activities that will reduce tension.

a-Tension

Sullivan begins with the familiar conception of the organism as a tension system that theoretically can vary between the limits of absolute relaxation, or euphoria as Sullivan prefers to call it, and absolute tension as exemplified by extreme terror.

There are two main sources of tension:

(1) Tensions that arise from the needs of the organism, and

(2) Tensions that result from an anxiety.

Needs are connected with the physiochemical requirements of life; they are such conditions as lack of food or water or oxygen that produce a disequilibrium in the economy of the organism.

Needs may be general in character, such as hunger, or they may be more specifically related to a zone of the body, such as the infant's need to suck.

Needs arrange themselves in a hierarchical order; those lower down on the ladder must be satisfied before those higher on the ladder can be accommodated. One result of need reduction is an experience of satisfaction. The typical consequence of prolonged failure to satisfy the needs is a feeling of apathy that produces a general lowering of the tensions.

b- Anxiety

Anxiety is the experience of tension that results from real or imaginary threats to one's security. In large amounts, it reduces the efficiency of the individuals in satisfying their needs, disturbs interpersonal relations, and produces confusion in thinking. Anxiety varies in intensity depending upon the seriousness of the threat and the effectiveness of the security operations that the persons have at their command.

Severe anxiety is like a blow on the head; it conveys no information to the person but instead produces utter confusion and even amnesia. Less severe forms of anxiety can be informative. In fact, Sullivan believes that anxiety is the first great educative influence in living.

5-The Development of Personality

Sullivan spells out the sequence of interpersonal situations to which the person is exposed in passing from infancy to adulthood, and the ways in which these situations contribute to the formation of personality.

Stages of Development

Sullivan spells six stages in the development of personality. They are (**1) infancy, (2) childhood, (3) the juvenile era, (4) preadolescence, (5) early adolescence, and (6) late adolescence.**

1**) Infancy**

The period of infancy extends from birth to the appearance of articulate speech. It is the period in which the oral zone is the primary zone of interaction between the baby and its environment. Nursing provides the baby with its first interpersonal experience.

The other characteristic features of the stage are

1-transition from a prototaxic to a parataxic mode of cognition,

2- the organization of personifications such as the bad, anxious, rejecting, frustrating mother and the good, relaxed, accepting, satisfying mother,

3-the differentiation of the baby's own body so that the baby learns to satisfy its tensions independently of the mothering one, for example, by thumb sucking, and

4- the learning of coordinated movements involving hand and eye, hand and mouth, and ear and voice.

2) Childhood

The transition from infancy to childhood is made possible by the learning of language and the organization of experience in the syntaxic mode. Childhood extends from the emergence of articulate speech to the appearance of the need for playmates.

The development of language permits, among other things, the fusion of different personifications, for instance, the good and bad mother, and the integration of the self-system into a more coherent

structure.

3- Juvenile Era

- **It extends throughout the most of the school years.**
- **One acquires social subordination to authority figures outside of family .**
- **one becomes competitive and cooperative.**

4- Preadolescence

The self-system begins to develop the conception of gender: the little boy identifies with the masculine role as prescribed by society, the little girl with the feminine role. The growth of symbolic ability enables the child to play at being a grownup- Sullivan calls these as-if performances dramatizations-and to become concerned with various activities both overt and covert that serve the purpose of warding off punishment and anxiety- Sullivan calls these preoccupations.

5- Early Adolescence

The main problem of the period of early adolescence is the development of a pattern of heterosexual activity. The physiological changes of puberty are experienced by the youth as feelings of lust; out of these feelings the lust dynamism emerges and begins to assert itself in the personality. The lust dynamism involves primarily the genital zone, but other zones of interaction such as the mouth and the hands also participate in sexual behavior. There is a separation of erotic need from the need for intimacy; the erotic need takes as its object a member of the opposite sex while the need for intimacy remains fixated upon a member of the same sex. If these two needs do not become divorced, the young person displays a homosexual rather than a heterosexual orientation. Sullivan points out that many of the conflicts of adolescence arise out of the opposing needs for sexual gratification, security, and intimacy.

6-Late adolescence

The period of late adolescence constitutes a rather prolonged initiation into the privileges, duties, satisfactions, and responsibilities of social living and citizenship. The full complement of interpersonal relations gradually takes form and there is a growth of experience in the syntaxic mode that permits a widening of the symbolic horizons. The self-system becomes stabilized, more effective sublimations of tensions are learned, and stronger security measures against anxiety are instituted.

When the individual has ascended all of these steps and reached the final stage of adulthood, he or she has been transformed largely by means of their interpersonal relations from an animal organism into a human person. One is not an animal, coated by civilization and humanity, but an animal that has been so drastically altered that one is no longer an animal but a human being—or, if one prefers, a human animal.

6-Characteristic Research and Research Methods

As a young psychiatrist, Sullivan discovered that the method of free association did not work satisfactorily with schizophrenics because it aroused too much anxiety. Other methods were tried but these also proved to provoke anxiety that interfered with the communication process between patient and therapist. Sullivan became interested in studying the forces that impede and facilitate communication between two people. In so doing, he found that the psychiatrist was much more than an observer; he or she was also a vital participant in an interpersonal situation. The psychiatrist had his or her own apprehensions, such a professional competence and personal problems, to deal with. As a result of this discovery Sullivan developed his conception of the therapist as a participant observer.

a-The Interview

The psychiatric interview is Sullivan's term for the type of interpersonal, face to face situation that takes place between the patient and the therapist. There may be only one interview or there may be a sequence of interviews with a patient extending over a long period of time. Sullivan defines the interview as "a system, or series of systems, of interpersonal processes, arising from participant observation in which the interviewer derives certain conclusions about the interviewee". How the interview is conducted and the ways in which the interviewer reaches conclusions regarding the patient form the subject matter of Sullivan's book, the psychiatric interview (1954).

Sullivan divides the interview into four stages: (1) the formal inception, (2) reconnaissance, (3) detailed inquiry, and (4) the termination.

The interview is primarily a vocal communication between two people. Not only what the person says but how he or she says it, rate of speech, and other expressive behavior- are the chief sources of information for the interviewer. The interviewer should be alert to subtle changes in the patient's vocalizations (e.g., changes in volume) because these clues often reveal vital evidence regarding the patient's focal problems and attitudinal changes towards the therapist. In the inception, the interviewer should avoid asking too many questions but should maintain an attitude of quiet observation. The interviewer should try to determine the reasons for the patient's coming and something about the nature of the patient's problems.

b-Research on Schizophrenia

In his association with the Sheppard and Enoch Pratt Hospital in Maryland, during the years 1924 to 1931, reveal Sullivan's great talents for making contact with and understanding the mind of the psychotic. Empathy was a highly developed trait in Sullivan's personality, and he used it to excellent advantage in studying and treating the victims of schizophrenia.

Lesson 17

CONSTITUTIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Constitutional psychology looks at the physique or soma or body type as possible explanation of human behavior.

Sheldon's Somatotype Theory

Sheldon looks at the physique or body type (soma) for the explanation of human behavior.

Sheldon defines:

1- A discrete Number of Physical

2- Temperamental variables that he considers of primary importance in representing human behavior.

A complete description of the process of somatotyping the male body is contained in Sheldon's *Atlas of men* (1954) which includes representative somatotype photographs of over one thousand men derived from a total sample of 46,000 photographs.

The physical measurements provide rat*ings for* the *five different areas of* the *body:* head-neck, chest-trunk, arms, stomach-trunk, and legs.

Core Concepts of Sheldon's Theory

1- The Structure of Physique

Dimensions of Physique

Primary Components of Physique

1- Endomorphy

2- Mesomorphy

3- Ectomorphy

2-The Secondary Components

- Dysplasia.
- Female Somatotyping

3- The Analysis of Behavior (Personality)

- Dimensions of Temperament
- Primary Components of Temperament

4- The Relation of Physique to Behavior (Personality)

1-Factors Mediating the Physique- Temperament Association

2-Biological and Genetic Orientation

3-Unconscious Processes

5- Characteristic Research and Research Methods

1-Physique and Mental Disorder

2-Physique and Delinquency

6-Evaluation

Sheldon's Constitutional Psychology

The constitutional psychologist is one who looks to the biological substratum of the individual for factors that are important to the explanation of human behavior.

Sheldon's Constitutional Psychology

Theories that suggest a relation between physique and behavior antedate by many centuries the birth of academic psychology. Not only did these formulations begin in the dim past but more surprisingly many of them show a remarkable correspondence to formulations that are still popular. The individual who is generally credited with having begun work in this area is Hippocrates who suggested not only a typology of physique but also a temperament typology and a conception of humors that is highly congruent with the current emphasis upon the importance of endocrine secretions as determinants of behavior. He suggested a twofold classification of physiques, dividing subjects into those who were short and thick and those who were long and thin.

In the measurement of physique Kretschmer was surprisingly systematic and painstaking. As the result of it, Kretschmer arrived at a conception of three fundamental types of physiques.

1-The first type is called asthenic and refers to a frail, linear physique.

2-The second physique type is the athletic which a muscular vigorous physique is.

3-The third type is the pyknic physique which is characterized by plumpness.

In addition to the three types outlined above an additional type was added-the dysplastic. This includes the small group of cases where There are strikingly deviant aspects to the individual's build so that they appear to even the casual observer as "rare, surprising and ugly."

Ernst Kretschmer provides an indispensable backdrop against which Sheldon's formulations and procedures evolved. Although it is true that Sheldon's work is vastly superior in many respects to that of his predecessors, it is unlikely that his achievements could have been accomplished without the imaginative and painstaking efforts of these earlier figures

William H. Sheldon

Sheldon was born in the year 1899 in Warwick, Rhode Island, where he grew up in a farm setting. The rural atmosphere of his early life and his close relationship with his father, who was a naturalist and animal breeder, had a lasting effect upon his values and upon his view of human behavior.

Sheldon's professional writings follow a remarkably consistent main stream. With only two interesting excursions, they represent an attempt to identify and describe the major structural components of the human body (The varieties of human physique, 1940), the major components of temperament (The varieties of temperament, 1942), and the application of these findings to the area of delinquency (Varieties of delinquent youth, 1949). Sheldon returned to the problem of description of physique in his Atlas of men (1954) and several other publications. Up until the time of his death Sheldon was actively working on an "Atlas of Women," an "Atlas of Children," and a volume concerned with physique and organic disease.

In Sheldon's theory we find a clear and vigorous exposition of the crucial importance of the physical structure of the body as a primary determinant of behavior. Moreover, he identifies a set of objective variables that can be used as a bridgehead for describing physique and behavior. Furthermore, his techniques for assessing the structural characteristics of the body involve the use of standard photographs and a much more carefully specified and reproducible procedure than that of his predecessors.

1-The Structure of Physique

One of the fascinations of Sheldon's theory of personality lies in its simplicity and specificity. Sheldon defines a discrete number of physical and temperamental variables that he considers of primary importance in representing human behavior.

Dimensions of Physique

Primary Components of Physique

After a considerable period of carefully examining and judging these pictures Sheldon and his associates concluded that, with a list of three, they had exhausted the possibilities of discovering new components. These three dimensions became the core of the technique for assessing the physical structure of the body.

The first component was *endomorphy.* The individual who is high in this component and low in both of the others is characterized by softness and a spherical appearance. Consistent with the softness and rounded quality is an underdevelopment of bone and muscle and a relatively low surface-mass ratio. Such an individual has a low specific gravity and floats high in the water. The fact that the digestive viscera are highly developed in this physique and that the functional elements of those structures develop primarily from the endodermal embryonic layer accounts for the use of the term endomorphy.

The second component was referred to as *mesomorphy.* A physique heavily developed in this component, and showing a decrement in both the other components, is hard and rectangular, with a predominance of bone and muscle. The *mesomorphic* body is strong, tough, resistant to injury, and generally equipped for strenuous and exacting physical demands. The athlete, adventurer, or professional soldier might best be endowed with this type of physique. The dominant portions of this physique have derived primarily from the mesodermal embryonic layer, hence the term mesomorphic.

The third component was labeled *ectomorphy.* An individual who is at the upper extreme in this component and low in the other components is linear and fragile, characterized by flatness of the chest and delicacy of the body. He is usually thin and lightly muscled. Relative to his mass the ectomorph has more surface area than the other types of physique; he shows a preponderance of surface over mass. He also has the largest brain and central nervous system in proportion to his size. From this, Sheldon reasons that his physique is made up, more so than the other physiques, of tissues that have derived from the ectodermal embryonic layer. The ectomorph, because of his large proportionate surface area, is overexposed to external stimulation.

The physical measurements not only lead to an over-all score for each of the components; they also provide *ratings for* these components for *five different areas of* the *body:* head-neck, chest-trunk, arms, stomach-trunk, and legs. A complete description of the process of somatotyping the male body is contained in Sheldon's *Atlas of men* (1954) which includes representative somatotype photographs of over one thousand men derived from a total sample of 46,000 photographs.

In his major publication of recent years, Sheldon has presented (Sheldon, Lewis, and Tenney, 1969) a full discussion of these basic somatotype variables together with a series of tables (The Basic Tables for Objective Somatotyping) that permit one to establish the correct somatotype given scores on the three variables. An abbreviated version of this monograph (Sheldon, 1971) provides the historical context of this work and a brief summary of the new procedure.

The *somatotype* of the individual is the patterning of the primary components of physique as expressed by three numerals derived from the seventeen measures mentioned above, or some equivalent set of operations, viewed against an adequate history of the individual. The first of

these numerals always refers to endomorphy, the second to mesomorphy, and the third to ectomorphy. The numerals range from 1 to 7 with J representing the absolute minimum of the component and 7 the highest possible amount. Thus, an individual rated 7-1-1 is extremely high in endomorphy and very low in mesomorphy and very low in ectomorphy. An individual rated 4-6-1 is about average in endomorphy and very high in mesomorphy but markedly deficient in ectomorphy.

2-The Secondary Components

One of the most important of the secondary components is *dysplasia.* Borrowing the term from Kretschmer, Sheldon uses it to refer to "any inconsistent or uneven mixture of the three primary components in different regions of the body" (1940, p. 68). Thus, it is a measure of disharmony between different areas of the physique, for example, head and neck of one somatotype and legs of another. The measure of dysplasia is arrived at by taking the separate somatotype ratings for the five regions of the body and summing the differences for each of the components among the five areas of the body. In other words, it represents the amount of discrepancy in the somatotype as computed for each of the five areas of the body. One can derive separate dysplasia scores for each of the three components as well as a total score. Preliminary findings indicate that there is more dysplasia associated with the ectomorphic component than with either of the other two components, and also more dysplasia observed in the female physique than in the male physique. Sheldon (1940) also reports that there is more dysplasia among psychotics than among college students.

Female Somatotyping

The bulk of the initial work that was done with Sheldon's physical dimensions was carried out with males.

In his first volume on physique Sheldon (1940) states that the evidence then available indicates that the same seventy-six somatotypes seemed to occur among women as had been observed among men, although probably with different frequencies. He also suggests that endomorphy, and endomorph, combined with ectomorphy, are more common among women; while mesomorphy, and mesomorphy combined with endomorphy, are more common among men.

Lesson 18

SHELDON'S SOMATOTYPE THEORY

- **Constitutional Psychology**
- **Sheldon's Somatotype Theory**

Constitutional Psychology

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- 3- Ectomorphy

2-The Secondary Components

- Dysplasia.
- Female Somatotyping

3-The Analysis of Behavior (Personality)

Dimensions of Temperament

1- Primary Components of Temperament

2- The Secondary Components

4-The Relation of Physique to Behavior (Personality)

1-Factors Mediating the Physique- Temperament Association

2-Biological and Genetic Orientation

3-Unconscious Processes

5- Characteristic Research and Research Methods

1-Physique and Mental Disorder

2-Physique and Delinquency

6-Evaluation

- We had discussed the following with you

- So now let us talk about lecture no 18
- which begins from the concept of

3-The Analysis of Behavior (Personality)

Given a stable means of assessing the physical aspects of the human build, the constitutional psychologist must still devise or borrow some method of assessing behavior in order to explore the relation between physique and personality.

Dimensions of Temperament

Initially the literature of personality, especially that having to do with specifying human traits, was carefully inspected, and a list of 650 traits was extracted. The list was increased by adding variables derived from the investigator's own observations and then was sharply reduced through combining overlapping dimensions and eliminating those that seemed of no significance. In the end Sheldon and his co-workers had a total of 50 traits that seemed to them to represent all of the specific phenomena that had been dealt with by the original 650 traits.

Primary Components of Temperament

The results of the correlation analysis revealed three major clusters or groups of traits that included twenty-two of the original fifty items. The first group included traits of relaxation, love of comfort, pleasure in digestion, dependence on social approval, deep sleep, and need of people when troubled.

The traits spanned by the second cluster included assertive posture, energetic characteristic, need of exercise, directness of manner, unrestrained voice, quality of seeming older, need of action when troubled.

Finally, there was a third group of traits, including restraint in posture, overly fast reaction, sociophobia, inhibited social address, resistance to habit, vocal restraint, poor sleep habits, youthful intentness, need of solitude when troubled.

4-The Relation of Physique to Behavior (Personality)

We have now seen how Sheldon identified what he considered to be the basic components of physique (structure) and temperament (function).

Factors Mediating the Physique- Temperament Association

We accept here the existence of a marked relation between measures of physique and measures of important behavioral attributes, and inquire into what has led to this striking congruence. One may reason that an individual who is endowed with a particular type of physique is likely to find certain kinds of responses particularly effective while an individual with another type of physique will find it necessary to adopt other modes of response.

The individual with a frail ectomorphic body cannot successfully adopt an aggressive, domineering manner in relation to most people, whereas it may be perfectly possible for the oversized mesomorph to do so. Further, the child with a small stomach, or low thresholds for pain, may be exposed to characteristic experiences that are strikingly different from those typical for individuals of different physical characteristics. Given a particular physique and a normal environment, the individual finds certain kinds of responses are relatively often rewarded and certain other kinds of responses are usually punished. This implies that the individual will develop patterns of behavior

that will show similarity to the behavior of other people, who because of sharing the same kind of physiques have had similar sets of experiences.

Another possibility is that the relation between physique and temperament is mediated by commonly accepted stereotypes or the social-stimulus value within the culture in regard to the sort of behavior to be expected of individuals with different kinds of physique.

Biological and Genetic Orientation

Many personality theorists have chosen to place a heavy emphasis upon the psychobiological nature *of* human behavior (Murray, Murphy, and Freud)

In many respects the details of Sheldon's position may be considered to stem from a conviction that biological factors are *of* overwhelming importance in accounting for human behavior and his consequent decision to attempt the measurement of important elements of this biological foundation of behavior. As we have seen from his distinction between the somatotype and the morphogenotype, the measurement *of* physique is merely a means *of* estimating the underlying biological factors that have such a heavy influence upon the course of life. All things considered, it seems safe to say that Sheldon's position revolves more closely about biological determinants *of* behavior than does that *of* any other contemporary personality theorist.

Unconscious Processes

The importance of unconscious determinants of behavior is accepted by Sheldon but he is inclined to equate these determinants to underlying biological factors. Presumably if the individual knew more about the structure of his body and the biological factors at work within it, he would be more conscious of the forces that impel his behavior.

5-Characteristic Research and Research Methods

More than most personality theorists Sheldon's formulations are embedded in empirical studies. We have already gained a rather representative view of his investigations in the process of noting how he set about the formulation and measurement of physique and temperament.

Let us deal briefly with two further studies in which he investigated mental disorder and delinquency against the background offered by somatotype measurement.

1-Physique and Mental Disorder

Constitutional psychology not only gives promise of providing new vistas of understanding in the study of normal human behavior; it also offers the possibility of understanding better, and perhaps alleviating or preventing, various psychological and social abnormalities.

After examining the state of psychiatric diagnosis he concluded that it would not be possible to approach the study of physique in relation to mental disorder.

2-Physique and Delinquency

Sheldon's eight-year study of delinquent youth was conducted to provide a kind of background against which to compare his findings from the study of normal college youth. The investigation was carried out at the Hayden Goodwill Inn, a resident rehabilitation home for boys in Boston, Massachusetts. During the three years from 1939 to 1942 approximately four hundred young men were studied by Sheldon and his collaborators and, from this sample, two hundred were selected for a follow-up study after the war on the basis of completeness of information and clear evidence of delinquency. All of the subjects were examined by means of the Somatotype Performance Test and assigned somatotype ratings as well as ratings on the secondary components of physique.

Even though some personality theorists have chosen to dwell upon these factors, they have, in general, shown little inclination to implement the crucial biological factors. Thus we may largely

credit Sheldon with reminding psychologists that the behaving human has physique, and further that this physique provides valuable clues to an underlying set of determinants, which in the end may prove quite as collaboration between biological and behavioral scientists and the growing awareness on the part of psychologists of the importance of biological factors has served to make Sheldon's position far more acceptable today than it was a decade or so ago.

6-Evaluation

- we may largely credit Sheldon with reminding psychologists that the behaving human has physique, and this physique provides valuable clues to an underlying set of determinants, which may prove quite as collaboration between biological and behavioral scientists and the growing awareness on the part of psychologists of the importance of biological factors has served to make Sheldon's position far more acceptable today than it was a decade or so ago.
- In any final evaluation of Sheldon's theory it is important to consider the wealth of empirical studies that have been conducted by Sheldon and stimulated by his writings.
- Ultimately the value of a theory can best be measured by its empirical impact and no one can deny that Sheldon's findings and formulations have provoked dozens or perhaps hundreds of related studies.
- Sheldon's work is of assured interest to psychologists whatever its shortcomings may be it has led to findings with which the future must reckon.

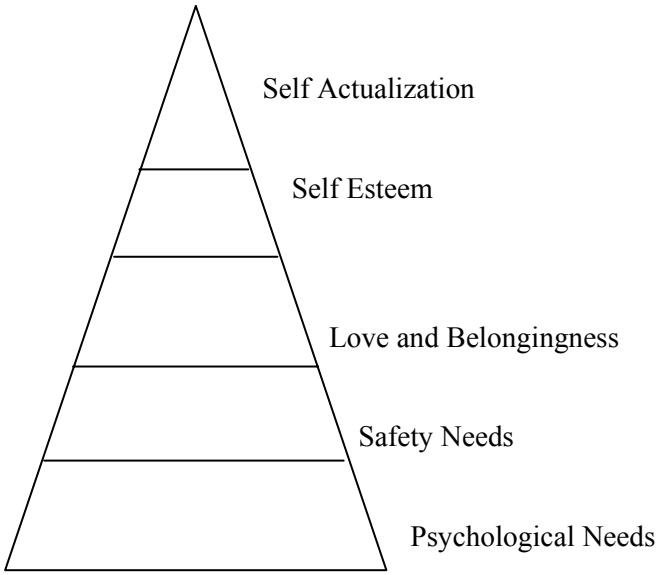
Lesson 19

MASLOW'S THEORY

Humanistic view puts the emphasis on the positive aspects of life, free choices and personal growth experiences. Abnormality results from refusal to accept personal responsibility for one's own actions and thoughts. So human behavior is caused by the choices we make voluntarily. The Humanistic assume that human nature is inherently good and they blame abnormal / aggressive behavior caused by the society but not by the individual.

Is Maslow a humanistic Psychologist?

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) postulated a hierarchy of needs beginning with physiological needs at the bottom and self actualization at the top. An individual must meet the basic needs before trying to meet the higher needs.



Maslow's Theory (Hierarchy of needs)

The triangle or pyramid has a broad base and narrow top, so majority of individuals are involved at fulfilling basic needs and only few reach the top i.e. self actualization means that we can reach our highest potential in all areas of functioning if we had freedom to grow. Majority of the people are involved in fulfilling the needs at the lower level and it is very few who reach the top. Examples are Quaid-e-Azam, Dr. Abdul Salam, and Javed Miandad.

Do you want to reach the top?

Certainly all of us involved in this process of self actualization, but it is very few who reach the top.

Basic Concepts of Humanistic Psychology

1-The Individual as an Integrated Whole

2-Irrelevance of Animal Research

3-Man's Inner Nature

4-Human Creative Potential

5-Emphasis on Psychological He

4- Maslow's Hierarchical Theory of Motivation

1-Physiological Needs

2-Safety needs

3-Belongingness and Love Needs

4-Self-Esteem Needs

5-Self-Actualization Needs

Why Can't All People Achieve Self-Actualization?

Differences between basic needs and meta-needs.

7- Empirical Validation of Humanistic Theory Concepts

8-What Are Self-Actualizers Like?

(Sixteen characteristics of self actualizers)

9-Self-Actualizers Aren't Angels

10-What is goal of psychotherapy?

11- Summary

12-Evaluation

Biographical Sketch

Abraham Harold Maslow was born April 1, 1908, in Brooklyn, New York. His parents were uneducated Jewish immigrants from Russia who dreamed of a better life for their son than theirs had been. Maslow, the eldest of seven children, was strongly encouraged by his parents to be academically successful.

Maslow's decision to study psychology at Wisconsin was largely affected by the behaviorism of John Watson. Maslow's enthusiasm for behaviorism literally vanished when the first of two daughters was born. Evidently, the complex behavior displayed by Maslow's own children convinced him that Behaviorist Psychology was more relevant to understanding animals than humans.

As a member of the American Psychological Association he was president of the Division of Personality and Social Psychology, and was elected president of the entire association for 1967-1968. Maslow was also a founding editor of both the *Journal* of *Humanistic Psychology* and the *Journal* of *Transpersonal Psychology,* and he served as consulting editor of numerous other scholarly periodicals. Maslow was vitally interested in growth psychology.

The majority of Maslow's books were written within the last ten years of his life and include *Toward a Psychology* of *Being* (1962); *Religions, Values, and Peak Experiences* (1964); *Eupsychian Management: A Journal* (l965b); *The Psych'ology* of *Science: A Reconnaissance* (1966); *Motivation and Personality* (1970, 2d edition); and *The Farther Reaches* of *Human Nature* (1971, a collection of articles previously published by Maslow in various psychological journals). A volume compiled with the assistance of his wife and entitled *Abraham H. Maslow: A Memorial Volume* was published posthumously in 1972.

Basic Tenets of Humanistic Psychology

The term "humanistic psychology" refers to *third force in psychology.* Although proponents of this movement represent a wide range of views, they do share certain fundamental conceptions of human nature.

Existential philosophy is concerned with man as an individual and the unique problems of human existence. Man is literally one who exists as being-in-the-world, consciously and painfully aware of his own existence and eventual nonexistence (death).

1-The Individual as an Integrated Whole

One of the most fundamental aspects of humanistic psychology- and Maslow's version of it-is that each individual must be studied as an integrated, unique, organized whole. In fact, Maslow's theory was primarily developed as a revolt against those theories (especially behaviorism) that deal in bits and pieces

of behavior while ignoring the person as a unified whole.

2-Irrelevance of Animal Research

Advocates of humanistic psychology recognize a profound difference between human and animal behavior. For them, human beings are more than just animals; they are special kinds of animal. Highly significant from a humanistic perspective, then, is the fact that there are no rat, pigeon, monkey, or even dolphin personologists- only humans have the capacity to theorize about humans.

3-Man's Inner Nature

Freud's theory implicitly assumed that man basically has an evil character, human impulses, if not controlled, will lead to the destruction of others as well as the self. One might not be able to appreciate this view while being mugged in Central Park; however, from the humanistic perspective, the evil, destructive, and violent forces in people arise from a bad environment rather than from any inherent rottenness on their part.

4-Human Creative Potential

The primacy of human creativity is perhaps the most significant concept of humanistic psychology. Maslow (1950) merits the distinction of being the first to call attention to the fact that the most universal characteristic of the people he studied or observed was creativeness. One need not write books, compose music, or produce art objects to be creative. Comparatively few people do. Creativity is a universal human function and leads to all forms of self-expression. Thus, for example, there can be creative homemakers, disc jockeys, shoe salespersons, business executives, and even college professors!

5-Emphasis on Psychological Health

Maslow consistently argued that none of the available psychological approaches to the study of behavior does justice to the *healthy* human being's functioning, mode of living, or life goals. In particular, he strongly criticized Freud's preoccupation with the study of neurotic and psychotic individuals. For example, the nature of graduate students would hardly become evident by studying high school dropouts exclusively. In fact, such a study would be much more likely to discover what graduate students are *not* like than what they are like.

Maslow's Hierarchical Theory of Motivation

Maslow believed that much of human behavior can be explained by the individual's tendency to seek personal goal states that make life rewarding and meaningful. In fact, motivational processes are the heart of his personality theory. Maslow (1970) depicted the human being as a "wanting animal" who rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction. If nirvana exists, it is temporary. In Maslow's system, as one personal desire is satisfied, another surfaces to take its place. When a person satisfies this one, still another clamors for satisfaction. It is characteristic of human life that people, are almost always desiring something.

Maslow proposed that human desires (i.e., motives) are innate and that they are arranged in an ascending hierarchy of priority or potency.

In this need-hierarchy conception of human motivation. The needs are, in order of potency: (1) basic physiological needs; (2) safety needs; (3) belongingness and love needs; (4) self-esteem needs; and (5) self-actualization needs, or the need for personal fulfillment. Underlying this scheme is the assumption that low-order needs must be at least somewhat satisfied before an individual can become aware of or motivated by higher-order needs.

For instance, he noted that some creative people have pursued the development and expression of their special talents despite serious hardships and social ridicule. There are also people whose values and ideals are so strong that they are willing to suffer hunger or thirst or even die rather than renounce them. For example, social reformers have continued their struggles despite harrassment, jail sentences, physical deprivation, and, often, certain death. In general, however, the lower the need in the hierarchy, the greater its strength or priority tends to be.

Let's examine each of Maslow's need categories.

1-Physiological Needs: The most basic, powerful, and obvious of all human needs is the need for physical

survival. Included in this group are the needs for food, drink, oxygen, activity and sleep, sex, protection from extreme temperatures, and sensory stimulation. These physiological drives are directly concerned with the biological maintenance of the organism and must be gratified at some minimal level before the individual is motivated by higher-order needs.

2-Safety needs: Once the physiological needs have been satisfied, an individual becomes concerned with a new set, often called the *safety or security* needs. The primary motivating force here is to ensure a reasonable degree of certainty, order, structure, and predictability in one's environment. Maslow suggested that the safety needs are most readily observed in infants and young children because of their relative helplessness and dependence on adults. Infants, for instance, respond fearfully if they are suddenly dropped or startled by loud noises or flashing lights. Experience and education eventually neutralize such apparent dangers, e.g., "I am not afraid of thunder and lightning because I know something about them." The urgency of safety needs is also evident when a child experiences bodily illnesses of various kinds. A child with a broken leg will temporarily experience fears, have nightmares, and manifest a need for protection and reassurance not evident before the accident.

3-Belongingness and Love Needs: The *belongingness* and *love* needs constitute the third hierarchical level. These needs emerge primarily when the physiological and safety needs have been met. An individual motivated on this level longs for affectionate relationships with others, for a place in his or her family and / or reference groups. Group membership becomes a dominant goal for the individual. Accordingly, a person will feel keenly the pangs of loneliness, friendlessness, and rejection, especially when induced by the absence of friends, relatives, a spouse, or children. Students who attend college far from home fall prey to the effects of belongingness needs, striving with great intensity to be recognized within a group regardless of its size.

4-Self-Esteem Needs: When one's needs for being loved and for loving others have been reasonably gratified, their motivating force diminishes, paving the way far *self-esteem* needs. Maslow divided these into two subsidiary sets: self-respect and esteem from others. The farmer includes such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence, and freedom. An individual needs to know that he or she is worthwhile- capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life. Esteem from others includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, fame, reputation, and appreciation. In this case people need to be appreciated for what they can do, i.e., they must experience feelings of worth because their competence is recognized and valued by significant others.

5-Self-Actualization Needs: Finally, if all the foregoing needs are sufficiently satisfied, the need for self-actualization comes to the fore. Maslow characterized *self-actualization* as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming. The person who has achieved this highest level presses toward the full use and exploitation of his or her talents, capacities, and potentialities. Self-actualization is a person's desire for self-improvement, his or her drive to make actual what he or she is potentially. In short, to self-actualize is to become the kind of person one wants to become-to reach the peak of one's potential: "A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. He must be true to his own nature".

In other words, self-actualization generates fulfillment, but it also generates fear of responsibilities and the unknown.

Why can't all people achieve self-actualization?

According to Maslow; most, if not all, of mankind needs and seeks inner fulfillment. His own research led him to conclude that the impulse toward realizing one's potentialities is both natural and necessary. Yet only a few-usually the gifted- ever achieve it (less than I percent of the population Maslow estimated). In part, he believed that this extremely unfortunate state of affairs exists because many people are simply blind to their potential; they neither know that it exists nor understand the rewards of self-enhancement. Rather, they tend to doubt and even fear their own abilities, thereby diminishing their chances of becoming self-actualized. In addition, the social environment often stifles self-fulfillment.

Maslow's meta-motivational theory

He has given a meta-motivational theory which differentiates between basic needs and meta-needs. The basic needs are hunger, thirst, affection, and security, self esteem while the meta-needs include justice,

goodness, beauty, and order.

The basic needs have a hierarchy but meta-needs do not have a hierarchy rather they are instinctual just like basic needs when they are not fulfilled individual becomes sick.

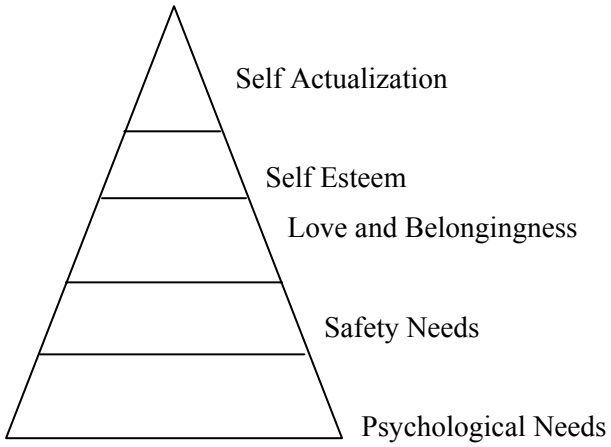
Lesson 20

MASLOW'S THEORY

Humanistic view puts the emphasis on the positive aspects of life, free choices and personal growth experiences. Abnormality results from refusal to accept personal responsibility for one's own actions and thoughts. So human behavior is caused by the choices we make voluntarily. The Humanistic assume that human nature is inherently good and they blame abnormal / aggressive behavior caused by the society but not by the individual.

Is Maslow a humanistic psychologist?

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) postulated a hierarchy of needs beginning with physiological needs at the bottom and self actualization at the top. An individual must meet the basic needs before trying to meet the higher needs.



Maslow's theory (Hierarchy of needs)

The triangle or pyramid has a broad base and narrow top, so majority of individuals are involved at fulfilling basic needs and only few reach the top i.e. self actualization means that we can reach our highest potential in all areas of functioning if we had freedom to grow. Majority of the people are involved in fulfilling the needs at the lower level and it is very few who reach the top. Examples are Quaid-e-Azam, Dr Abdul Salam, Javed Miandad.

Do you want to reach the top?

Certainly all of us involved in this process of self actualization, but it is very few who reach the top.

Basic Concepts of Humanistic Psychology

1-The Individual as an Integrated Whole

2-Irrelevance of Animal Research

3-Man's Inner Nature

4-Human Creative Potential

4-Maslow's Hierarchical Theory of Motivation

1-Physiological Needs

2-Safety needs

3-Belongingness and Love Needs

4-Self-Esteem Needs

5-Self-Actualization Needs

Why Can't All People Achieve Self-Actualization?

(Differences between basic needs and meta-needs.)

6-EMPIRICAL VALIDATION OF HUMANISTIC THEORY CONCEPTS

7-What Are Self-Actualizers Like?

(Sixteen characteristics of self actualizers)

8-Self-Actualizers Aren't Angels

9-What is goal of psychotherapy?

10-Summary

11- Evaluation

Empirical Validation of HUMANISTIC THEORY CONCEPTS

To date, efforts aimed at verifying Maslow's humanistic conceptions of personality have focused primarily on two areas: (1) the hierarchy of needs and (2) the concept of self-actualization. Empirical attention has been given to only these two areas because they constitute the greater part of Maslow's contributions to personology. Regrettably, other aspects of Maslow's theory have received virtually no empirical support. In particular, there is no evidence to substantiate the notion that the various meta needs emerge or become dominant once the basic needs have been gratified. At the same time, however, it should be emphasized that Maslow's metamotivational theory has had a decided impact on the thinking of many investigators in a variety of disciplines.

Maslow divided his subjects into three categories. Examples of the first category, "fairly sure cases," included Jefferson, Lincoln, Spinoza, Einstein, and Eleanor Roosevelt. Category two of "partial cases" consisted of five contemporary individuals who fell short somewhat of self-actualization but still could be used for study. Their names were not revealed. Finally, a "potential or possible cases" category included people who appeared to be striving toward self-actualization but who never quite attained it, e.g., Franklin, Whitman, G. W. Carver, Renoir, Pablo Casals, and Adlai Stevenson. Maslow regarded all these individuals as rare specimens of psychological health who could be used as touchstones to explore the farther reaches of human nature.

What Are Self-Actualizers Like?

All Self-Actualizing individuals posses the following characteristics

1. Efficient Perception of Reality

Perhaps the most universal characteristic of these superior people is their unusual ability to perceive other people correctly and efficiently, to see reality *as it is* rather than *as they wish it to be.* They have a better perception of reality and more comfortable relations with it. They are less emotional and more objective about their perceptions; they do not allow their desires and hopes to distort their observations.

2. Acceptance of Self, Others, and Nature

The healthy person displays a sense of respect for self and others. Without feeling undue concern, he or she accepts his or her own nature in a stoic style, with all its shortcomings, frailties, and weaknesses. There is also freedom from overriding guilt, crippling shame, and debilitating anxiety.

3. Spontaneity, Simplicity, Naturalness

The behavior of self-actualizing people is marked by spontaneity and simplicity, by an absence of artificiality or straining for effect. This does not imply consistently unconventional behavior. It is the

person's *inner life* (thoughts, impulses, etc.) that is unconventional, natural, and spontaneous.

4. Problem Centering

Without exception, Maslow found his subjects to be committed to some task, duty, vocation, or beloved job which they regarded as important. That is, they are not ego-centered but rather oriented toward problems beyond their immediate needs, problems to which they are dedicated in the sense of "a mission in life.

5. Detachment: Need for Privacy

This kind of individual prefers solitude and privacy and even seeks it to a greater extent than the average person. In social encounters he or she is often viewed by "normal" people as aloof, reserved, snobbish, and cold. This is because self-actualizers do not *need* other people in the usual sense of friendship. They rely completely upon their inner resources and remain unruffled by that which produces turmoil in others.

This quality of detachment encompasses other aspects of b,ehavior as well. For instance, since they are able to concentrate more intensely than ordinary people,

They may become absentminded and oblivious to outer surroundings. They remain calm and serene during periods of personal misfortune. Maslow explained that this' comes in part from the self-actualizer's tendency to stand by his or her own interpretation of situations instead of relying upon what other people think or feel about matters. .

6. Autonomy: Independence of Culture and Environment

As characteristics already discussed would suggest, self-actualizing people are not dependent for their main satisfactions on the physical and social environment. Rather, they rely on their own potentialities and latent resources for growth and development. For example, truly self-actualizing college students do not really *need* the "right" academic atmosphere on campus to learn. They can learn anywhere because they have *themselves* of course, some campus "atmospheres" may be better than others in this respect; the point here is that the self-actualizer does not require a particular type of environment before he or she can learn, or, for that matter, do almost anything else. In this sense, the self-actualizer is a self-contained unit.

Healthy people also have a high degree of self-direction and "free will." They regard themselves as self-governed, active, responsible, and self-disciplined agents in determining their own destinies. They are strong enough to be oblivious to others' opinions and affection; thus, they shun honors, status, prestige, and popularity. Such extrinsic satisfactions are perceived as less significant than self-development and inner growth. Of course, attaining this point of relative independence depends upon having been loved and respected in the past, e.g., satisfying lower-level needs.

7. Continued Freshness of Appreciation.

Maslow discovered that healthy, mature adults exhibit a capacity to appreciate even the most ordinary events in their lives with a sense of newness, awe, pleasure, and even ecstasy. They seldom become bored with life experiences:

8. Peak or Mystic Experiences

Maslow observed that self-actualizing individuals commonly had what he called *peak experiences* (also termed "oceanic feeling"). This term refers to moments of intense excitement and high tension as well as to those of relaxation, peacefulness, blissfulness, and stillness. Representing the most ecstatic moments of life, such occurrences usually come from love and sexual climax, bursts of creativity, insight, discovery, and fusion with nature. These people can "turn on" without artificial stimulants. Just being alive turns them on.

9. Social Interest

Even though self-actualizers are sometimes troubled, saddened, and even enraged by the shortcomings of the human race, they experience a deep feeling of kinship with humanity. Consequently, they have a genuine desire to help improve the lot of their fellows. This nurturant attitude is evidenced by a feeling of compassion, sympathy, and affection for all humanity.

10. Interpersonal Relations

Self-actualizing people tend to form deeper and closer personal relationships than those of the "average"

adult. Similarly, those with whom they associate are likely to be healthier and closer to self-actualization than the average person. That is, self-actualizers are more inclined to associate closely with others of similar character, talent, and capacity ("birds of a feather").

11. Democratic Character Structure

Maslow described his subjects as being "democratic" in the deepest sense. Since they are free of prejudice, they tend basically to respect all persons. Further, they are willing to learn from anybody who is able to teach them, irrespective of class, education, age, race, or political beliefs.

12. Discrimination between Means and Ends.

In their day-to-day living, self-actualizing individuals show less confusion, inconsistency, and conflict than the average person about what is right or wrong, good or bad. They have definite moral and ethical standards, although very few of them are religious in the orthodox sense of the term.

13. Sense of Philosophical Humor.

Another characteristic common to Maslow's subjects was a distinct preference for philosophical or cosmic humor. Whereas the average person may enjoy humor that pokes fun at another's inferiority, that hurts or ridicules someone, or that is "off-color," the healthy person typically finds humor expressing the foolishness of humanity in general most appealing. Lincoln's humor serves as a relevant example.

14. Creativeness

Not surprisingly, Maslow found that, without exception, creativity was more prominent in self-actualizers than in others. However, the creativeness manifested by his subjects was different from unusual talent or genius as reflected in poetry, art, music, or science. Maslow likened it to the natural creativeness found in children.

15 Resistances to Enculturation

Finally, Maslow observed that his superior subjects are in harmony with their culture and yet maintain a certain inner detachment from it. Essentially autonomous beings, they make their own decisions, even if they are at odds with popular opinion. This resistance to enculturation does not mean that self-actualizers are unconventional in all realms of behavior. For instance, they remain well within the limits of conformity concerning choice of clothes, speech, food, and the manner of doing things, which are not really important enough to prompt objection.

Self-Actualizers Aren't Angels

As *imperfect* human beings, self-actualizers are just as susceptible to silly, non-constructive, and wasteful habits as the rest of humanity. They, too, can be obstinate, irritable, boring, petulant, selfish, or depressed, and they are by no means immune from superficial vanity, undue pride, and partiality to their own friends, family, and children. Temper outbursts are not unusual.

What is goal of psychotherapy?

Any means of any kind that can help to restore the person to path of self actualization and development along the lines that his inner nature dictates.

Summary

Humanistic psychology, or the third force movement, has given rise to an image of humanity in psychology radically different from that of either psychoanalysis or behaviorism. Heavily influenced by existential philosophy, humanistic psychology has as its basic tenets the individual as an integrated whole, the irrelevance of animal research, the perception of the person as a basically good, creative being, and an emphasis on the study of psychological health.

One major statement of humanistic psychology, the theory of Abraham Maslow, depicts human motivation in terms of a hierarchy of ascending priorities. Lower (more basic) needs in the hierarchy must be satisfied before higher-level needs emerge as dominant energizing forces in the individual's behavior. In order of potency, Maslow's hierarchy of human needs is: (1) physiological; (2) safety; (3) belongingness and love;

(4) self-esteem; and (5) self-actualization. The humanistic nature of Maslow's theory is epitomized in the self-actualization level, the highest fulfillment of self.

Maslow's basic assumptions concerning human nature are reasonably strong and generally explicit. Maslow's humanistic theory reflects (1) a strong commitment to the assumptions of freedom, rationality, holism, changeability, subjectivity, proactivity, heterostasis, and unknowability and (2) a slight commitment to the constitutionalism assumption.

Empirical research generated by Maslow's theory has tended to fall into two main areas: (1) the hierarchy of needs, and (2) the concept of self-actualization.

Evaluation

1- Humanistic –Holistic approach in Personality.

2- A Meta-motivational theory of personality.

3- He has given sixteen characteristics of self actualizing persons.

4- He has focused on healthy persons instead of sick population.

Lesson 21

ROGERS PERSON CENTERED APPROACH

Client Centered Approach or

Client Centered Therapy

Self Theory of Personality

1- Phenomenological theory of personality is that a person's behavior is obtained through observation of his internal frame of reference. why an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in a given way, it is necessary to know how that person perceives and interprets the world.

2- Humanistic

Humanistic view puts the emphasis on the positive aspects of life, free choices and personal growth experiences.

Example:

In order to understand the personality of my Pakistani students I have to study their frame of reference and see how they think , feel and behave.

So I have to put myself in their position and understand their personality

(empathy).

3-Actualizing tendency

An innate need to survive, grow and enhance one's self.

4- Fully Functioning Person is Rogers' view of the Good Life

It is a term used by Rogers to designate individuals who are using their capacities and talents, realizing their potentials.

1-Biographical Sketch

2-Actualizing tendency

3-Rogers phenomenological position

4-Concept of self

5-Need for positive regard

6-Conditions of worth

7-Unconditional positive regard

8-Experience of threat and process of defense

- Threat
- Anxiety

9-Defense mechanisms

10-Fully functioning person

Five characteristics:

1-Openness to experience

2-Experiential living

3-Organismic trusting

4-Experiential freedom

5-Creativity or psychological maturity

11-Rogers view of science and research

12-Measuring self concept

13-Personality organization

14-Client centered therapy

15-Psychotherapy and gardening

16-Student centered teaching

17-Summary

18-Evaluation

Roger's Person Centered Approach

A Phenomenological Theory of Personality

Phenomenology is the study of the individual's subjective experience, feelings, and private concepts as well as his or her personal views of world and self. As a disciplined effort to explain why each of us experiences and relates to the world as we do, phenomenological psychology today has one of its most articulate spokesmen in Carl Rogers. For Rogers, behavior is utterly dependent upon how one perceives the world-that is, behavior is the result of immediate events as they are perceived and interpreted by the individual. Such an approach to personology emphasizes the self and its characteristics. Indeed, Rogers' theory is often referred to as a self theory of personality because, for him, "the best vantage point for understanding behavior is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself" (Rogers, 1951, p. 494).

Biographical Sketch

Carl Ransom Rogers was born January 8, 1902, in Oak Park, Illinois, a suburb of Chicago. He was the fourth of six children five of whom were hoys. His father was a civil engineer and contractor who achieved financial success in his profession, so the family was economically secure throughout Rogers' childhood and early youth.

Rogers has written several books on counseling and personality, including Psychotherapy and Personality Change (with R. Dymond, 1954), On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy (1961), Freedom to Learn: A View of What Education Might Become (1969), Carl Rogers on Encounter Groups (1970), Becoming Partners: Marriage and Its Alternatives (1972), and Carl Rogers on Personal Power (1977). His autobiography appears in A History of Psychology in Autobiography (Volume 5, 1967, pp. 341-384). Carl Rogers is unquestionably one of the most influential American psychologists.

On the basis of his clinical experience, Rogers has concluded that the inner-most core of human nature is essentially purposive, forward-moving, constructive, realistic, and quite trustworthy. He regards the person as an active force of energy oriented toward future goals and self-directed purposes, rather than a creature pushed and pulled by forces beyond his or her control

Rogers contends that Christianity has nourished the belief that man is innately evil and sinful. Moreover, it is his contention that this negative view of humanity has been reinforced by Freud, who presented a portrait of the person with an id and an unconscious which would, if permitted expression, manifest itself in incest, homicide, thievery, rape, and other horrendous acts. According to this view, humanity is basically and fundamentally irrational, non-socialized, selfish, and destructive of self and others. Rogers (I957a) agrees that people occasionally express a variety of bitter and murderous feelings, abnormal impulses, and bizarre and antisocial actions. Thus, when people are functioning fully, when they are free to experience and to satisfy their inner natures, they show themselves to be positive and rational creatures those can be trusted to live in harmony with themselves and others. Aware that his view of human nature, may be considered to be nothing more, than naive optimism.

In sum, Rogers has a profound (almost religious) sense of respect for human nature. He posits that the human organism has a natural tendency to move in the direction of differentiation, self-responsibility, cooperation, and maturity. The expression of this basic nature, according to Rogers, allows for the continuation and enhancement of the individual and the species.

Actualizing Tendency as Life's Master Motive

In line with his positive view of human nature, Rogers hypothesizes that all behavior is energized and directed by a single, unitary motive which he calls the actualizing tendency

Certain definitive characteristics mark the actualizing tendency. First, it is rooted in the physiological processes of the entire body (i.e., it is a biological fact, not a psychological tendency). At an organic level this inborn tendency involves not only the maintenance of the organism by meeting deficiency needs (air, food, water) but also the enhancement of the organism by providing for development and differentiation of the body's organs and functions, its growth and continual regeneration. Of even greater significance for the human personality is the motivating force which the actualizing tendency provides for increased autonomy and self-reliance, for enlarging one's field of experience, and for being creative.

Additionally, Rogers maintains that the actualizing tendency is common to all forms of life, it is characteristic not only of human beings, or only of animals, but of all living things. It is the essence of life.

Rogers' Phenomenological Position

It has already been noted that Rogers' theory is illustrative of the phenomenological approach to personality. A phenomenological position holds that what is real to an individual (i.e., what reality is thought, understood, or felt to be) is that which exists within that person's internal frame of reference, or subjective world, including everything in his or her awareness at any point in time. It follows that an individual's perceptions and experiences not only constitute that person's reality but also form the basis for his or her actions; one responds to events in accordance with how one perceives and interprets them. For example, a thirsty man stranded in the desert will run as eagerly to a pool of water that is a mirage as to a real pool. Similarly, two people observing an identical set of circumstances may later recall two very different outcomes, which is often the case with "eyewitness" accounts of unidentified flying objects, traffic accidents, and other unexpected events.

One important implication of a phenomenological perspective for a theory of personality is that the best understanding of a person's behavior is obtained through observation of his or her internal frame of reference. To explain why an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in a given way, it is necessary to know how that person perceives and interprets the world. Subjective experience is thus the key to understanding behavior. This means that the most important object of psychological study is a person's subjective experiences, because these experiences alone are the ultimate causal agents of behavior.

Finally, Rogers' choice of a phenomenological approach to personality theory reflects his belief that the complexity of behavior can only be understood by reference to the entire person. In other words, Rogers espouses a holistic view of personality, the view that a person behaves as an integrated organism and that his or her unity cannot be derived from atomistic (i.e., reductionistic) approaches to behavior. As will become evident in the ensuing discussion, Rogers' commitment to a holistic point of view is manifest in practically every facet of his thought.

Concept of Self: Who am I anyway?

The self is the most important construct in Rogers' theory of personality; indeed, the concept of self is indispensable to an appreciation of Rogers' view of human behavior.

The conscious perceptions, and values of the concept "I" or "me." The self-concept denotes the individual's conception of the kind of person he or she is. The self-concept is one's image of oneself. Especially included are awareness of being (what I am) and awareness of function (what I can do).

The self-concept includes not only one's perceptions of what one is like but also what one thinks one ought to be and would like to be. This latter component of the self is called the ideal self. The ideal self represents the self-concept that the individual would. Most like to possess. It is basically equivalent to the superego in Freudian theory.

Rogers postulates that when the self is first formed, it is governed by the organismic valuing process alone. In other words, the infant or child evaluates each new experience in terms of whether it facilitates or impedes his or her innate actualizing tendency. For instance, hunger, thirst, cold, pain, and sudden loud noises are negatively valued, since they interfere with the maintenance of biological integrity. Food, water,

security, and love are positively valued; they favor the enhancement of the organismic tendency. In a sense, the organismic valuing process is a monitoring system that keeps the human infant on the proper course of need, satisfaction. Infants evaluate their experiences according to whether or not they like them, whether they are pleasing or displeasing, and so on. Such evaluations result from their spontaneous responses to direct experiences, i.e., they are completely "natural."

Need for Positive Regard

Rogers contends that all persons possess a basic desire to experience attitudes such as warmth, respect, admiration, love, and acceptance from significant people in their lives. This need for positive regard develops as the awareness of self emerges, and it is pervasive and persistent. It is first seen in the infant's need to be loved and cared for, and is subsequently reflected in the person's satisfaction when approved by others and frustration when disapproved. Roger indicates that positive regard may be either learned or innately given to all persons, and although he prefers the former explanation (i.e., that it is a secondary learned motive), its origin is irrelevant to his theory.

Conditions of Worth

Given the fact that a child has a compelling need for Positive regard, she becomes increasingly sensitive to or influenced by the attitudes. For example, such is the case when a father tells his son that bringing home a straight "A" report card will not only earn him an increase in his weekly allowance but also excuse him from having to wash the family car and mow the grass. Conditional positive regard is also manifest in many other types of human relationships involving the giving or withholding of approval and support.

Rogers states rather forcefully that conditions of worth imposed on a child are detrimental to his or her becoming a fully functioning person. This is because the child tries to attain standards set by others rather than to identify and attain what she or he really is or wants to be. Thus, he comes to evaluate himself and his worth as an individual (what is valuable and what is not valuable about himself) in terms of only those of his actions, thoughts, and feelings that received approval and support.

Unconditional Positive Regard

While it is obvious that no person is completely devoid of conditions of worth, Rogers feels that it is possible to give or (receive positive regard irrespective of the worth placed on specific aspects of a person's behavior. This means that a person is accepted and respected for what he or she is without any ifs, ands, or buts.' Such unconditional positive regard is strikingly evident in a mother's love for her child when-regardless of the child's actions, thoughts, and feelings- he or she is genuinely loved and respected. She loves the child because it is her child, not because the child has fulfilled any specific condition or lived up to a **Specific Expectation**

> It can be seen, then, that Rogers' emphasis on unconditional positive regard as the ideal approach to child rearing does not imply an absence of discipline, social constraints, or other forms of behavioral control. What it does mean is providing an atmosphere in which a child is valued and loved for exactly what he or she is- a precious human being. When children perceive themselves in such a way that no self-experience is more or less worthy of positive regard than any other, they are experiencing unconditional positive self-regard.

Lesson 22

ROGERS PERSON CENTERED APPROACH

Client Centered Approach or

Client Centered Therapy

Self Theory of Personality

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2- Humanistic

Humanistic view puts the emphasis on the positive aspects of life, free choices and personal growth experiences.

EXAMPLE

In order to understand the personality of my Pakistani students I have to study their frame of reference and see how they think , feel and behave.

So I have to put myself in their position and understand their personality

(empathy).

3-Actualizing tendency

An innate need to survive, grow and enhance one's self.

4-Fully functioning person is Rogers' view of the good life

It is a term used by Rogers to designate individuals who are using their capacities and talents, realizing their potentials.

1-Biographical Sketch

2-Actualizing tendency

3-Rogers phenomenological position

4-Concept of self

5-Need for positive regard

6-Conditions of worth

7-Unconditional positive regard

8-Experience of threat and process of defense

- Threat
- Anxiety

9-Defense mechanisms

10-Fully functioning person

Five characteristics

1-Openness to experience

2-Experiential living

3-Organismic trusting

4-Experiential freedom

5-Creativity or psychological maturity

11-Rogers view of science and research

12-Measuring self concept

13-Personality organization

14-Client centered therapy

15-Psychotherapy and gardening

16-Student centered teaching

17-Summary

18-Evaluation

Roger's Person Centered Approach

Experience of Threat and the Process of Defense

In Rogers' theory, threat exists when a person recognizes an incongruity between his or her self-concept (and its incorporated conditions of worth) and actual experience. Experiences incongruent with the self-concept are perceived as threatening; they are kept from entering awareness because the individual's personality is no longer a unified whole. Thus, if an individual views himself as an honest person and he behaves dishonestly, he is in a state of threat.

Anxiety is thus an emotional response to threat which signals that the organized self-structure is in danger of becoming disorganized if the discrepancy between it and the threatening experience reaches awareness. The anxiety-ridden individual is one who dimly perceives that the recognition or symbolization of certain experiences would force a drastic change in his or her current self-image.

Rogers (l959) defines the process of defense as the behavioral response of the of the organism to threat; the goal of defense is the maintenance of the current self-structure: "This goal is achieved by the perceptual distortion of the experiences in awareness, in such a way as to reduce the incongruity between the experience and the structure of the self, or by the denial of any experience thus denying any threat to the self" (Rogers, 1959, pp. 204-205).

The Defense Mechanisms

Grade "F" on an examination. The Student can maintain her self-concept intact by saying "The professor has unfair grading practices" or "I just had bad luck." Rogers occasionally refers to such selective perceptions or distortions as rationalization.

Rogers' View of The Good Life

The Fully Functioning Person

"Fully functioning" is a term used by Rogers to designate individuals who are using their capacities and talents, realizing their potentials, and moving toward complete knowledge of themselves and their full range of experiences. Rogers specifies five major personality characteristics common to people who are fully functioning. They briefly discussed

1- The first and foremost characteristic of the fully functioning person is openness to experience. To be open to experience is the polar opposite of defensiveness. Individuals who are completely open to experience are able to listen to themselves, to experience what is going on within themselves without threat. They are acutely aware of their own feelings (but not self-consciously), they do not try to suppress them; they often act upon them, and even if they do not act upon them, they are able admit them to awareness.

2- The second characteristic of the optimally functioning person listed by Rogers involves what he terms existential living. This is the global quality of living fully in each and every moment of one's existence. By doing so, each moment of one's life is perceived as new- different from all that existed before. Thus, as Rogers (1961) describes it, what a person is or will be in the next moment grows out of that moment and cannot be predicted in advance by the person or others (the correspondence with existential philosophy is quite clear here.

3-Still another attribute of a fully functioning person is what Rogers calls organismic trusting. This dimension of the good life is best illustrated in the context of decision making. Specifically, in choosing the course of action to take in any situation, many people rely upon a code of social norms laid down by some group or institution (e.g., the church), upon the judgment of others (from spouse and friends to Ann Landers).

4- The fourth characteristic of the fully functioning person noted by Rogers is experiential freedom.

This facet of the good life involves the sense that one is free to live one's life in any way one chooses. It is subjective freedom, a feeling that of one's own volition one is able to playa responsible part in shaping one's world. At the same time, Rogers does not deny that a person's behavior is heavily influenced by his or her biological makeup, social forces, and past experiences, which, in fact, determine the choices that are made.

5- The final characteristic associated with optimal psychological maturity is creativity.

For Rogers, the person who is involved in the good life would be the type from whom creative products (ideas, projects, actions) and creative living would emerge.

Rogers' View of Science and Research

Rogers is strongly committed to phenomenology as a basis for developing a science of persons and as a method of examining the empirical validity of theoretical concepts. It will be recalled that phenomenology refers to a disciplined effort to understand the essence of a person's subjective experience- specifically, how people come to know and understand their world and themselves.

Measuring the Self-Concept: The Q Sort

William Stephenson (1953), a colleague of Rogers' at the University of Chicago, developed a general methodology, called the Q technique, for investigation an individual's self-concept.

Accordingly, they adopted the Q sort, a specific rating procedure devised by Stephenson, as one of their basic research tools in gathering data about therapeutic improvement.

What is the Q sort?

Essentially it is a method of studying systematically one's views about oneself and one's relationships with others. The subject is given a deck of cards, each containing a printed statement or adjective concerning some personality characteristic. The cards may contain such self-referent statements as "I am an aggressive person," "I like to be with other people," "I am emotionally mature." Or the items might be "methodical," "inventive," "sincere," "quick-witted." The subject's task is to sort the cards into a series of categories (usually seven in number), each corresponding to a point along a continuum ranging from those attributes which are most like to those which are least like him or her. The chief feature of the method is that the subject must sort the cards according to some prearranged or forced distribution.

Research-oriented Rogerians generally have their subjects Q-sort the statements twice: once for self-description and once for ideal self-description. For the self-sort, subjects are instructed to sort the cards to describe themselves as they see themselves at the present time. This self-sort depicts the subject's experience of herself as she is. Following completion of the self-sort, the subject then is instructed to use the same cards to describe the kind of person she would most like to be-her ideal person. This second sort is called the ideal-sort.

Q-sort data can be analyzed in several ways. However, the product-moment correlation coefficient is the most commonly used statistic for indicating the degree to which an individual's self-concept and ideal self-concepts are congruent or divergent.

Personality Disorganization and Psychopathology

Thus, personality disorganization and psychopathology occur when the self is unable to defend against threatening experiences. Persons undergoing such disorganization are commonly tagged "psychotic." They manifest behaviors which are to an objective observer bizarre, irrational, or "crazy." Rogers posits that psychotic behavior is often congruent with the denied aspects of experience, rather than with the self-concept. For example, a person who has kept his sexual impulses under rigid control, denying that they

were a part of his self-image, may make obvious sexual moves toward those whom he encounters.

Rogers' person-centered therapy attempts to reestablish a more harmonious relationship between the self-concept and the total organism and to facilitate a greater degree of congruence between the self-concept and the phenomenal field of experience.

Evolution of Rogerian-- Therapy : From Techniques to Relationships

With the publication in 1951 of his book Client-Centered Therapy, Rogers' approach progressed further and came to be known primarily by this label as it still is today in some circles. While still retaining his nondirective techniques, Rogers at this time was emphasizing the importance of the clients' perceptions, of therapeutically entering the clients' world of subjective experience and focusing upon the clients' perceptions of themselves, their lives, and their problems. Hence the term "client-centered". Since that time, however, Rogers' approach has evolved to still another level. He has become more concerned with the issue of precisely what conditions must be met before the client can begin to resolve his or her problems. As stated earlier, he discovered that the relationship between therapist and client is the most important aspect underlying personality change; consequently, he funneled all his efforts on this in the late 1950s (Rogers, 1957b, 1958, 1959) and continues to do so today. again, it shou1d be stressed that Rogers' changes in thinking in this regard represent a progressive evolution to a more comprehensive and meaningful level rather than an abandonment of old, outmoded concepts. At present, the "label" which best captures the essence of the newer developments is "person-centered therapy (Rogers, 1977). This newer term more accurately reflects the evolution of Rogers' thought-from techniques to relationships.

Audio and Video Recording of therapy sessions was by Rogers started so that students and trainees can benefit in training.

Psychotherapy and Gardening

So Rogers' person-centered therapy (supported by empirical research) reflects his image of human nature in general and the role of the therapist in particular. Upon reflection, one is tempted to draw an analogy between person-centered therapy and gardening. When one recalls Rogers' background in agriculture, the analogy becomes even more compelling. Concluding his acceptance speech for the 1973 APA Distinguished Professional Contribution Award, Rogers drew the analogy for us:

And then I garden. Those mornings when I cannot find time to inspect my flowers, water the young shoots I am propagating, pull a few weeds, spray some destructive insects, and pour just the proper fertilizer on some budding plants, I feel cheated. My garden supplies the same intriguing question I have been trying to meet all my professional life: What are the effective conditions for growth? But in my garden, though the frustrations are just as immediate, the results, whether success or failure, are more quickly evident. And when, through patient, intelligent, and understanding care I have provided the conditions that result in the production of a rare or glorious bloom, I feel the same kind of satisfaction that I have felt in the facilitation of growth in a person or in a group of persons.

Student Centered Teaching

Rogers is of the view that education system is based on faulty assumptions

about the learner

1- who must be given huge information,

2- without any active participation on part of the learner

. Teacher is a facilitator of education who creates an atmosphere conducive to learning.

Summary

Reflecting a close affinity with humanistic psychology, Rogers holds that the inner-most core of human nature is essentially benevolent, purposive and trustworthy. These basic attributes of human nature will surface if the proper conditions encourage the fulfillment of the individual's innate potential. In Rogers' system, all human motives are subsumed under a single master motive-the actualizing tendency-the innate tendency of the individual to actualize, maintain, and enhance himself or herself. .

Within the broad context of the humanistic movement, Rogers' particular theoretical position is

phenomenological. He holds that the only reality, from the person's perceptual vantage point, is subjective reality-the person's private world of experience. And central to that subjective world is the concept of self, Rogers' most important personological construct. In his system, elements important in self-concept development are the need for positive regard, conditions of worth, and unconditional positive regard.

Rogers argues that most ways of behaving that an individual adopts are consistent with her self-concept. Threat exists when a person senses an incongruity between her self-concept and total organismic experience; she then attempts to defend herself by means of perceptual distortion and denial. When the incongruence between self-concept and actual experience becomes too great, personality disorganization and psychopathology result. In sharp contrast, persons who are open to their experience, fully trust it, and are freely moving in the direction of actualizing themselves are termed "fully functioning" in Rogers' system.

Rogers' basic assumptions concerning human nature are generally strong, explicit, and reflective of the fundamental cleavage between phenomenology and behaviorism in American psychology. Rogers' phenomenological theory reflects (I) a strong commitment to the assumptions of freedom, rationality, holism, changeability, subjectivity, proactivity, heterostasis, and unknowability and (2) a moderate commitment to the constitutionalism assumption. .

Rogers' phenomenological theory, particularly its psychotherapeutic aspects, has stimulated an enormous amount of research. In this chapter, a primary method of studying the self-concept, the Q sort, was discussed along with illustrative research bearing upon aspects of the self-concept. Brief attention was also given to Rogers' view of science.

In the concluding section, Rogers' unique and widely employed approach to psychotherapy, person-centered therapy, was described as it has evolved over the years. Emphasizing the critical importance of the relationship between therapist and client, Rogers' five conditions for positive personality change were listed and discussed.

Evaluation

1- It is phenomenological and humanistic.

2- Focus on unconditional positive regard.

3- Person centered therapy.

4- Student centered teaching approach.

a- freedom to learn

b- teacher as facilitator.

Application

His theory can be applied to education, marriage and family.

Lesson 23

ROGERS PERSON CENTERED APPROACH

Client Centered Approach

or

Client Centered Therapy

Self Theory of Personality

1- Phenomenological theory of personality is that a person's behavior is obtained through observation of his internal frame of reference. why an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in a given way, it is necessary to know how that person perceives and interprets the world.

2- Humanistic

Humanistic view puts the emphasis on the positive aspects of life, free choices and personal growth experiences.

Example:

In order to understand the personality of my Pakistani students I have to study their frame of reference and see how they think , feel and behave.

So I have to put myself in their position and understand their personality

(empathy).

3- Actualizing tendency is an innate need to survive, grow and enhance one's self.

4- Fully functioning person is Rogers' view of the good life

It is a term used by Rogers to designate individuals who are using their capacities and talents, realizing their potentials.

1-Biographical Sketch

2-Actualizing Tendency

3-Rogers Phenomenological Position

4-Concept of Self

5-Need for Positive Regard

6-Conditions of Worth

7-Unconditional Positive Regard

8-Experience of Threat and Process of Defense

- Threat
- Anxiety

9-Defense Mechanisms

10-Fully Functioning Person

Five characteristics:

i) 1-Openness to experience

ii) 2-Experiential living

iii) 3-Organismic trusting

iv) 4-Experiential freedom

v) 5-Creativity or psychological maturity

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12-Measuring self concept

13-Personality organization

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15-Psychotherapy and gardening

16-Student centered teaching

17- Summary

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Rogers ideas related to personality came from his clinical practice just like that of Freud's and Kelly's.

So for Rogers therapy has always been very important to him and his personality theory developed as he tried to understand the principles that were operating during the therapeutic process and secondly as tried to be an effective therapist and counselor.

Roger's description of the therapeutic process has changed throughout his clinical practice.

First, he referred to it as the nondirective approach which focused on clients' ability to solve their own problems if they were given the proper atmosphere for doing so.

The next, label that he gave to therapy was Client Centered Therapy. Now instead of providing an atmosphere where client can solve his problems. Now, therapy was a joint venture where the client and the therapist were both involved.

In this stage the therapist actively tried to understand the client's phenomenological field or the internal frame of reference of the client. It was labeled as the experiential phase.

currently the Rogers thinking has labeled as the person centered approach, the emphasis is on the total

person rather than looking at person as merely as a student or as client.

Conditions that Rogers feels are necessary for therapy:

1-The client and the therapist are in a psychological contact.

2- The client is in state of incongruence so he is anxious.

3- The therapist must show empathetic understanding of the client using client's frame of reference.

4- The therapist must give unconditional positive regard to the client.

5-The client must perceive that the therapist is giving him unconditional positive regard.

If therapy moves in right direction then following changes in the client can be observed.

1- Clients will express their feelings related to life with freedom.

2- Clients become accurate in description of their experiences.

3- Clients detect the incongruity of their concept of self and experiences.

4- Unconditional positive regard will allow them to experience incongruity without distorting or denying them.

5-Clients will be aware of the feeling which have been denied or distorted in past.

6-Clients concepts of self become reorganized and are able to include experiences previously denied.

7-Clients are less threatened by experiences which were they are less defensive.

8- Clients experience themselves more and more.

9- Therapy is successful when clients do not take into account the conditions of worth.

10-Clients perceive therapist's unconditional positive regard

Skinner and Rogers Debate

On September 4th 1955, the members of American Psychological Association saw at their annual meeting in Chicago, a debate between Rogers and Skinner.

Rogers representing the subjective approach and belief that humans are innately good, free to choose their destiny in life.

Skinner representing the objective approach and behavior could be explained in terms of stimulus and response.

Both men agreed that behavioral science was growing as field which was a good sign.

Skinner emphasized on control of behavior from outside where as Rogers was of the opinion that such an environment should be created where humans feel free to self actualize.

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Student Centered Teaching

Rogers feels that education system is in a poor shape and he criticized the American education system harshly.

It treats the student as an object and the teacher as an authority figure.

All information is to given to the student in a highly structured environment.

All students are eager to learn and they can learn and will learn when they are placed in a non threatening environment which is characterized by unconditional positive regard.

Learning will become faster and will be retained better if the material to be learned has personal relevance and significance for the student.

Teacher is a facilitator of education who creates an atmosphere conducive to learning.

Rogers is of the view that education system is based on faulty assumptions

about the learner:

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2- The focus is on unconditional positive regard.

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4-Student Centered Teaching Approach.

a- Freedom to learn

b- Teacher as a Facilitator.

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Recap

Rogers Person Centered Approach

Client Centered Approach

or

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12-Measuring self concept

13-Personality organization

14-Client centered therapy

15-Psychotherapy and gardening

16-Student centered teaching

17-Summary

18-Evaluation

Lesson 24

KELLY'S COGNITIVE THEORY OF PERSONALITY THEORY

1-Kelly's theory is phenomenological it focuses on the internal frame of reference of the individual.

2-It is cognitive because it studies mental events.

3-It is existential because it emphasized the future and individual's freedom to choose,

4- Humanistic since it focuses on creative powers and optimistic about people's ability to solve their problems.

For Kelly an individual's behavior and thoughts are guided by a set of personal constructs that are used in predicting future events.

A person's processes (behavior and thinking) are channelized by ways that he anticipates reality.

Examples of constructs include "good versus bad," "friendly versus hostile." These constructs are the ones which many people use to construe events in their daily lives.

Core concepts of George Kelly's Cognitive Theory of Personality

1- The Psychology of Personal Construct

2- Biographical Sketch

3- Cornerstones of Cognitive Theory

- i- Constructive Alternativism
- ii- People as Scientists

4-Personal Construct Theory

- i- Constructs: Templets for Reality
- ii- Formal Properties of Constructs
- iii- Types of Constructs

5- Personality: The Personologist's Construct?

6- Motivation: Who Needs It?

7- A postulate and some corollaries

8- Channelizing Processes

9- Individuality and Organization

10- To Construe or Not to Construe: That Is the Question

11- C-P-C Cycle

12- Change in a Construct System

13- Social Relationships and Personal Constructs

14- Role Construct Repertory Test: Assessing Personal Constructs

15- Application:

- 1-Emotional States –Anxiety , Guilt, Hostility.
- 2-Psychological Disorders

16- Psychological Health and Disorder

17- Fixed-Role Therapy

18- Summary

19- Evaluation

George Kelly: A Cognitive Theory of Personality

Kelly's theory is phenomenological it focuses on the internal frame of reference of the individual. It is cognitive because it studies mental events. It is existential because it emphasized the future and individual's freedom to choose, and humanistic since it focuses on creative powers and optimistic about people's ability to solve their problems.

For Kelly an individual's behavior and thoughts are guided by a set of personal constructs that are used in predicting future events.

A person's processes (behavior and thinking) are channelized by ways that he anticipates reality.

1-The Psychology of Personal Construct

It is a fundamental fact of life that human beings are thinking animals. Indeed, man's intellectual processes are so self-evident that all personality theories in some way acknowledge their effects on behavior. George Kelly, a practicing clinical psychologist, was the first personologist to emphasize the cognitive or knowing aspects of human existence as the dominant feature of personality. According to his theoretical system, the Psychology of Personal Constructs, a person is basically a scientist, striving to understand, interpret, anticipate, and control the personal world of experience for the purpose of dealing effectively with it. This view of human behavior as scientist-like is the hallmark of Kelly's theory:

Mankind, whose progress in search of prediction and control of surrounding events stands out so clearly in the light of the centuries, comprises the men we see around us every day. The aspirations of the scientist are essentially the aspirations of all men (Kelly, 1955, p. 43).

Kelly admonished his fellow psychologists not to proceed as if their subjects were passive "reactors" to external stimuli. He reminded them that their subjects also behave like scientists, inferring on the basis of the past and hypothesizing about the future. His own thinking, highly original and different from the dominant forms of psychological thought prevalent in America in his day, has greatly contributed to recent major innovations in cognitive personality theory.

2- Biographical Sketch

George Alexander Kelly was born in Perth, Kansas, on April 28, 1905, the only child of farm parents. His father was a Presbyterian minister who turned to farming because of ill health. Kelly's early education was limited to a one-room country school. His parents later sent him to Wichita, Kansas, where in the course of four years he attended four different high schools. Kelly's parents were religiously devout, hardworking, and firmly opposed to evils such as drinking, card playing, and dancing. Kelly's family was imbued with traditional Midwestern values and aspirations, and Kelly himself was afforded considerable attention as an only child.

Kelly's career as an academic psychologist began at Fort Hays Kansas State College. There he rose to become an associate professor of psychology in 1943. During his twelve-year period he developed a program of traveling psychological clinics that allowed both him and his students opportunities to implement new approaches to behavior problems encountered in the state's school system. This experience also stimulated numerous ideas that were later incorporated into his formulations of personality and psychotherapy. In particular, it was during this period that Kelly abandoned the Freudian approach to understanding personality. His clinical experiences taught him that people in the Midwest were more victimized by prolonged drought, dust storms, and economic setbacks than by libidinal forces.

During World War II, as a naval aviation psychologist, Kelly headed a training program for local civilian pilots. His interest in aviation continued at the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery of the Navy in Washington, D.C., where he remained in the Aviation Branch until 1945. That year he was appointed associate professor at the University of Maryland.

In addition to his distinguished career as a teacher, scientist, and theorist, Kelly held many positions of leadership among American psychologists. He served as president of both the Clinical and Counseling Divisions of the American Psychological Association. He was also instrumental in formulating the American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology, an organization devoted to the further

upgrading of professional psychologists, and served as its president from 1951 through 1953. He received invitations to teach and lecture at universities throughout the world. During the concluding years of his life, Kelly contributed much of his time to international affairs. For example, financed by a grant from the Human Ecology Fund, he and his wife traveled around the world during 1960-1961 applying his personal construct theory (to be discussed shortly) to the resolution of international problems.

3- Cornorstones of Cognitive Theory

The central theme of this volume is that any personality theory necessarily involves certain philosophical assumptions about human nature. That is, the way a personologist chooses to view his or her subject matter, the human organism, will largely determine his or her model of the person. Unlike most personologists, George Kelly explicitly acknowledged that all conceptions of human nature, including his own, are founded on basic assumptions. Kelly developed his personal constructs theory on the basis of a single philosophical assumption-constructive constructive alternativism.

i-Constructive Alternativism

Kelly's major premise was that all humans act like scientists in that way they attempt to reduce uncertainty by developing theories (construct system) which allow them to anticipate future events accurately. Individuals interpret, explain, or predict, the events in their lives by utilizing his constructs. A construct is a category of thought that describes how events are similar to each other and yet different from other events. All individuals are free to choose, create whatever constructs they choose in their attempts to give meaning to their experiences. This freedom to choose constructs is called constructive alternativism. So we are free to choose constructs but once chosen or selected we are bound to them.

Now that people of all ages are exploring alternative life-styles and ways of under standing things, George Kelly's vintage-l955 theory appears to have been curiously ahead of its time. Kelly's underlying philosophy, constructive alternativism, furnishes a dazzling array of options for people seeking, alternatives to the commonplace. In fact, the philosophy practically demands that people do so.

As a doctrine, constructive alternativism asserts that all present interpretations of the universe are subject to revision or replacement. Nothing is sacred. There are no politics, religions, economic principles, social mores, or even college administrative policies that are absolutely and unalterably "right." All would be changed if people simply saw things differently. Kelly argues that there is no such thing as an interpretation free, view of the world. A person's perception of reality is always subject to interpretation.

ii- People as Scientists

Kelly's major premise was that all humans act like scientists in that way they attempt to reduce uncertainty by developing theories (construct system) which allow them to anticipate future events accurately. Individuals interpret, explain, or predict, the events in their lives by utilizing his constructs.

Kelly's theory is a contemporary cognitive approach to the study of personality, one which emphasizes the manner in which individuals perceive and interpret people and things in their environments. Construct theory thus focuses on the processes that enable people to understand the psychological terrain of their lives. From this cognitive perspective, Kelly proposed a model of personality based on the analogy of a person as a scientist. Specifically, he theorized that, like the scientist who studies the human subject also generates working hypotheses about reality with which she or he tries to anticipate and control the events of life.

Kelly did not propose that every person is literally a scientist who attends to some limited aspect of the world and employs sophisticated methods to gather and assess data. That analogy would have been foreign to his outlook. But he did suggest that all persons are scientists in that they formulate hypotheses and follow the same psychological processes to validate or invalidate them as those involved in a scientific enterprise (Kelly, 1955). Thus, the basic premise underlying personal construct theory is that science constitutes a refinement of the aims and procedures by which each of us works out a way of life. The aims of science are to predict, to modify, and to understand events (i.e., the scientist's main goal is to reduce uncertainty). Not only the scientist, every person shares these same aims. We are all motivated to anticipate the future and make plans based on expected outcomes.

4-Personal Construct Theory

The heart of Kelly's cognitive theory lies in the manner in which individuals perceive and interpret people and things in their environments. Labeling his approach personal construct theory, Kelly focused on the psychological processes which enable the person to order and understand the events of his or her life.

i-Constructs: Templets for Reality

A construct is a category of thought that describes how events are similar to each other and yet different from other events. All individuals are free to choose, create whatever constructs they choose in their attempts to give meaning to their experiences. This freedom to choose constructs is called constructive alternativism. So we are free to choose constructs but once chosen or selected we are bound to them.

Scientists formulate theoretical constructs to describe and explain the events with which they are concerned. In Kelly's personological system, the key theoretical construct is the term Construct itself:

Man looks at his world through transparent patterns or templets which he creates and then attempts to fit over the realities of which the world is composed. The fit is not always very good. Yet without such patterns the world appears to be such an undifferentiated homogeneity that man is unable to make any sense out of it (Kelly, 1955, pp. 8-9).

It is these "transparent patterns or templets" which Kelly designated personal constructs. Stated otherwise, a construct is a category of thought by which the individual construes, or interprets, his or her personal world of experience. It represents a consistent way for the person to make sense of some aspect of reality in terms of similarities and contrasts. Examples of personal constructs include "excitable versus calm," "refined versus vulgar," "intelligent versus stupid," "good versus bad," "religious versus nonreligious," and "friendly versus hostile." These constructs are ones which many people use to construe events in their daily lives.

ii-Formal Properties of Constructs

Kelly proposed that certain formal properties characterize all constructs. First, a construct resembles a theory in that it encompasses a particular domain of events. This range of convenience consists of all events for which a particular construct may be relevant or applicable- that is, a given construct has relevance for some events but not for others. The construct dimension "scholarly versus not scholarly," for example, is quite applicable to understanding a vast array of intellectual and scientific accomplishments but is hardly appropriate for construing the relative merits of being married or single. Kelly noted that the predictive efficiency of a construct is seriously jeopardized whenever it is generalized beyond the range of events for which it was intended. Thus, all constructs have a limited range of convenience, though the scope of the range may vary widely from construct to construct. The construct "good versus bad" has a wide range of convenience since it applies to most situations requiring personal evaluation. In contrast, the construct "virginity versus prostitution" is substantially narrower in scope.

iii-Types of Constructs

Kelly also suggested that personal constructs can be classified according 'to the nature of the control they implicitly exercise over their elements. A construct which freezes ("preempts") its elements for membership exclusively in its own realm Kelly termed a preemptive construct. This is a type of pigeonhole construct; what has been placed in one pigeonhole is excluded from any other. Preemptive construing may be likened to the "nothing but" kind of thinking characteristic of a rigid person. Ethnic labels illustrate the use of preemptive Constructs. For instance, if a person is identified as a Chicano, then she or he may be thought of by some as nothing but a Chicano. Or, to a lesser degree, once a professor has been labeled as "hard-nosed," some students may disregard the possibility of thinking of him or her in other ways, e.g., as a person with tender feelings for his Or her children, artistic hobbies, or social reform pursuits. Preemptive thought represents a kind of denial of the right of both others and ourselves to re-view reinterpret, and see in a fresh light some part of the world around us (Bannister and Fransella, 1971).

5- Personality: The Personologist's Construct?

Kelly never offered an explicit definition of the term "personality." However, he discussed the concept in general terms in one paper, stating that personality is "our abstraction of the activity of a person and our

subsequent generalization of this abstraction to all matters of his relationship to other persons, known and unkn0wn, as well as to anything else that may seem particularly valuable" (1961, pp. 220-221). Kelley thus believed that personality is an abstraction made by personologists of the psychological processes they observe in others. It is not a separate entity to be discovered by them. Furthermore, Kelly argued that personality is by its very nature embedded in a person's interpersonal relationships. Meshing these two ideas and adding one of our own, a more pointed definition of personality within Kelly's system is possible; specifically, an individual's personality is nothing more or less than his or her construct system. One uses constructs to interpret one's world of experience and to anticipate future events; indeed, personality consists of the constructs one uses to anticipate the future. To understand another person involves knowing something about the constructs he or she employs, the events subsumed under these constructs, and the way in which they are organized in relation to one another to form a construct system. In short, to know someone's personality is to know how she or he construes personal experience.

Lesson 25

CORE CONCEPTS OF GEORGE KELLY'S COGNITIVE THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Recap (Lecture No. 24)

1-Kelly's theory is phenomenological it focuses on the internal frame of reference of the individual.

2-It is cognitive because it studies mental events.

3-It is existential because it emphasized the future and individual's freedom to choose,

4-Humanistic since it focuses on creative powers and optimistic about people's ability to solve their problems.

For Kelly an individual's behavior and thoughts are guided by a set of personal constructs that are used in predicting future events.

A person's processes (behavior and thinking) are channelized by ways that he anticipates reality.

Examples of constructs include "good versus bad," "friendly versus hostile." These constructs are the ones which many people use to construe events in their daily lives.

Core concepts of George Kelly's Cognitive Theory of Personality

1- The Psychology of Personal Construct

2- Biographical Sketch

3- Cornorstones of Cognitive Theory

- i-Constructive Alternativism
- ii- People as Scientists

4- Personal Construct Theory

- i-Constructs: Templets for Reality
- ii-Formal Properties of Constructs
- iii-Types of Constructs

5- Personality: The Personologist's Construct?

6- Motivation: Who Needs It?

7- A postulate and some corollaries

8- Channelizing Processes

9- Individuality and Organization

10- To Construe or Not to Construe: That Is the Question

11- C-P-C Cycle

12- Change in a Construct System

13- Social Relationships and Personal Constructs

14- Role Construct Repertory Test: Assessing Personal Constructs

15- Application:

- 1-Emotional States –Anxiety, Guilt, Hostility.
- 2-Psychological Disorders

16- Psychological Health and Disorder

17- Fixed-Role Therapy

18- Summary

19- Evaluation

(Start of Lecture 25)

7- A Postulate and Some Corollaries

The formal structure of personal construct theory is both economical and parsimonious in that Kelly advanced his central tenets by using one fundamental postulate and eleven elaborative corollaries.

i) The construction corollary states that constructs are formed on the basis of common themes in our experiences.

ii) The individual corollary states that constructs are contained within other constructs.

iii) The organization corollary individuals differ in the in how they construe events but how they organize constructs.

iv) The dichotomy corollary states how certain events are similar and also how those events are contrasted with other events.

v) The choice corollary states that those constructs are chosen that best define and extend one's construct (generalizing) system.

vi) The range corollary states that each construct has a range of convenience consisting of the events to which the construct is relevant.

vii) The experience corollary states it is not physical experience that is important rather the process of construct forming, revising and testing of one's construct system.

viii) The modulation corollary says some constructs are permeable , open to experience than other constructs.

ix) The fragmentation says while trying new constructs the people can be inconsistent.

x) The commonality says for two people to be similar they must construct their concepts in similar manner.

xi) The sociality says that in order to play a role one must determine what other person expects and then act in accordance with the expectations.

8-Channelizing Processes

Each personality theorist seems to have a language of his or her own when describing human behavior. Kelly is no exception, as can be seen in his fundamental postulate: "A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events".

9-Individuality and Organization

The individuality corollary appears particularly helpful in understanding the uniqueness of personality: "Persons differ from each other in their construction of events" (Kelly, 1955, p. 55). For Kelly, no two people, whether they be identical twins or supposedly similar in outlook, will approach and interpret the same event in exactly the same way. Each person construes reality through his or her unique personal construct "goggles." Hence, differences between people are rooted in their construing events from different perspectives.

Examples

Consider the traditional differences of opinion between political parties on such issues as welfare, military spending, taxation, forced racial integration, and capital punishment. Or reflect on why students may disagree with professors, professors with department chairpersons, department chairpersons with deans, and everybody with college presidents. Or what is popularly called the "generation gap"- the fundamental differences of viewpoint between parents and their offspring- a situation which, in Kelly's theory, might more properly be labeled a "personal construct gap."

10-To Construe or Not to Construe: That Is the Question

Kelly's choice corollary describes how people make these selections: "A person chooses for himself that alternative in a dichotomized construct through which he anticipates the greater possibility for extension and definition of his system" In other words, one will choose the construct pole that renders the event most understandable-the one that will contribute most to the predictive efficiency of one's construct system.

11- C-P-C Cycle

When individuals are confronted with a novel situation, they apply the CPC cycle. In the Circumspection phase of the cycle people think over a number of constructs that they feel may be appropriate to the situation. In the preemption phase they choose those concepts that seem relevant. In the control phase they act on the basis of the constructs chosen in the preemption phase.

circumspection-preemption-control (C-P-C) cycle, which involves a sequential progression from construction to overt behavior. In the first phase of the C-P-C cycle, the circumspection phase, an individual considers a number of different constructs as they relate to a particular situation-that is, she contemplates the various possibilities facing her in a propositional fashion. This is analogous to looking at all sides of the question. (Recall that a propositional construct is open to new experiences.) The preemption phase follows when the individual reduces the number of alternative constructs (hypotheses) to ones most appropriate to the problem. Here she decides which of the preemptive alternatives to use. Finally, during the control phase of the cycle, she decides on a course of action and its accompanying behavior. The choice is made, in other words, based on an estimate of which alternative construct is most likely to lead to extension and definition of the system.

12-Change in a Construct System

A construct system enables an individual to anticipate events as accurately as possible.

Kelly postulated that a change in One's construct system occurs most often when one is exposed to novel or unfamiliar events which do not confirm to one's existing system Of constructs. Accordingly, the experience corollary states: "A person's construct system varies as he successively construes the replication of events" (1955, p. 72).

13-Social Relationships and Personal Constructs

Kelly asserted in his individuality corollary, people differ as a result of the way they interpret situations, then it follows that they may be similar to others to the extent that they construe experiences in similar ways.

Thus, if two people view the world in the same way (i.e., are similar in their constructions of personal experiences), they are likely to behave in similar ways. The essential point is that people are similar neither because they have experienced similar events nor because they manifest similar behavior: they are similar because events have approximately the same psychological meaning for them.

14-Role Construct Repertory Test: Assessing Personal Constructs

Kelly (1955) developed the Role Construct Repertory Test to identify the important constructs a person uses to construe significant people in his or her life. More importantly, the Rep Test was originally devised as a diagnostic instrument to assist the therapist in understanding a client's construct system and the way the client uses it to structure his or her personal and material environment.

Table 9-1 Role Title List Definitions for the Gridform of the Rep Test

	Role titles	Definitions
1	Self	Yourself
2	Mother	Your mother or the person who has played the part of a mother in your life
3	Father	Your father or the person who has played the part of a father in your life
4	Brother	Your brother who is nearest your own age, or if you have no brother, a boy near your own age who was most like a brother to you during your early teens

5	Sister	Your sister who is nearest your own age or, if you have no sister, a girl near your own age who was most like a sister to you during your early teens
6	Spouse	Your wife (or husband) or, if you are not married, your closest present friend of the opposite sex
7	Accepted teacher	The teacher who influenced you most when you were in your teens
8	Rejected teacher	The teacher whose point of view you found most objectionable when you were in your teens
9	Boss	An employer, supervisor, or officer under whom you worked during a period of great stress
10	Doctor	Your physician
11	Pitied person	The person whom you would most like to help or for whom you feel most sorry
12	Rejecting person	A person with whom you have been associated, who, for some unexplained reason, appeared to dislike you
13	Happy person	The happiest person whom you know personally
14	Ethical person	The person who appears to meet the highest ethical standards whom you know personally
15	Intelligent person	The most intelligent person whom you know personally

15- Application:

1-Emotional States

2-Psychological Disorders

Emotional States:

Kelly retained but redefined several traditional psychological concepts of emotion in terms relevant to cognitive theory.

Anxiety:

It is thus, the vague feeling of apprehension and helplessness commonly labeled as anxiety is, for Kelly, a result of being aware that one's available constructs are not applicable to anticipating the events one encounters. Anxiety is created (experienced) only when one realizes that one has no constructs with which to interpret an event. Kelly often facetiously referred to a person in this state as being "caught with his constructs down." Under such circumstances an individual cannot predict, hence cannot fully comprehend what is happening or solve the problem.

Guilt:

The guilty person is aware of having deviated from the important roles (self-images) by which she or he maintains relationships to others. For example, a college student who construes himself as a scholar will feel guilty if he spends too much time at the local club house with his roommates, thus violating the most basic aspect of his role as a scholar, namely studying.

Hostility:

Hostility, a final illustration of emotional states, is defined as the "continued effort to extort validational evidence In favor of a type of social prediction which has already proved itself a failure" (Kelly, 1955, p. 510). Traditionally considered a disposition to behave vindictively toward or inflict harm upon others,

hostility in Kelly's system is merely an attempt to hold onto an invalid construct in the face of contradictory (invalidating) evidence.

16-Psychological Health

Each day clinical psychologists deal with the realities of psychological health and disorder. How are these concepts to be understood within Kelly's theory? Turning first to health, distinct characteristics define the well-functioning person from Kelly's perspective.

First, and perhaps most important, healthy persons are willing to evaluate their constructs and to test the validity of their perceptions of other people. In other words, such people test the predictions derived from their personal constructions of social experiences.

Second, healthy persons are able to discard their constructs and reorient their core role systems whenever they appear to be invalid. In Kelly's terminology, their constructs are permeable, meaning not only that they can admit when they are wrong, but also that they can update their constructs when their life experiences so dictate.

17- Fixed-Role Therapy

While many of the therapeutic methods described by Kelly (1955) are compatible with those used in other clinical schemes (including psychoanalysis), there are two distinguishing features of his approach: first, his conception of what the goal of psychotherapy should be and, second, the development and practice of fixed-role therapy.

Kelly discussed the nature and task of therapeutic change in terms of the development of better construct systems. Since disorders involve using constructs in the face of consistent invalidation, psychotherapy is directed toward the psychological reconstruction of the client's construct system so that it is more workable. But more than this, it is an-exciting process of scientific experimentation. The therapy room is a laboratory in which the therapist encourages the client to develop and test new hypotheses, both within and outside the clinical situation. The therapist is highly active-constantly pushing, and stimulating the client to try new constructs on for size. If they fit, the client can use them in the future; if not, other hypotheses are generated and tested. Science is thus the model clients use in reconstructing their lives. Along with this, it is the therapist's task to make validating data (information feedback) available, against which the client can check his own hypotheses. By providing these data in the form of responses to a wide variety of the client's constructions, the clinician actually gives the client an opportunity to validate his constructs, an opportunity which is not normally available to him (Kelly, 1955).

Kelly went beyond this unique interpretation of psychotherapy to develop his own specific brand fixed-role therapy. Fixed-role therapy maintains that, psychologically, human beings are not only what they construe themselves to be but also what they do. In general terms, the therapist sees her role as one of encouraging and helping the client to perceive and construe himself in new ways and to act accordingly, thereby becoming a new, more effective person.

How does fixed-role therapy actually work? It begins by having the client write a sketch of himself in the third person. The sketch has no detailed outline, and the client is only the following instructions. Note how the instructions elicit objectively, minimize threat, and allow the client freedom of expression.

18- Summary

George Kelly's cognitive theory is based on the philosophical position of constructive alternativism, which holds that reality is what one construes it to be. Accordingly, an individual's perception of reality is always subject to-interpretation and modification. Man is a "scientist," constantly generating and testing hypotheses about the nature of things so that adequate predictions of future events can be made.

Persons comprehend their worlds through transparent patterns, or templets, called constructs. Each individual has a unique construct system (personality) which he or she uses to construe or interpret experience. Kelly theorized that all constructs possess certain formal properties: range of convenience, focus of convenience and permeability-impermeability. Kelly also recognized various types of constructs: preemptive, tight , and loose.

Kelly's theory is formally stated in terms of one fundamental postulate and eleven elaborative corollaries. The former stipulates that a person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which she or he anticipates events, while the corollaries explain how a construct system functions, changes, and influences social interaction.

Although Kelly's theoretical concepts have directly stimulated little research to date, he devised a personality instrument, the Rep Test, which has been widely employed in a variety of studies. The Rep Test assesses personal constructs; in this chapter, its use is illustrated in two investigations of schizophrenic thought disorder.

19-Evaluation

Kelly's theory is phenomenological and as phenomenologist believes that behavior should not be broken down into components or parts

It is a cognitive theory because it stresses how people think and view the reality. It does give emphasis to the unconscious processes.

It is Existential and Humanistic, it focuses on the following facts that humans are free and future oriented, their subjective feelings and personal experiences are important and they are concerned with the meaning in life.

Each individual creates his or her own unique constructs for dealing with the world, trying to reduce future uncertainty and he is free to view and think about reality.

Lesson 26

GORDON ALLPORT: A TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

1- Biographical Sketch

2- What is personality?

3- Criteria for Adequate Personality Theory

4- Allport's Concept of Traits

5- Kinds of Traits

i) Cardinal Traits

ii) Central Traits

iii) Secondary Dispositions

6- Self

(An Eight Stage Developmental Sequence That Starts At Birth And Goes To Adulthood)

7- Functional Autonomy

8-Application: The Study of Values

i) 1-Theoretical

ii) 2-Economic

iii) 3-Aesthetic

iv) 4-Social

v) 5-Political

vi) 6-Religious

9- Summary

10- Evaluation

Trait:

A trait is a predisposition or way to respond in a manner to various kinds of stimuli.

A trait is what accounts for the more permanent, enduring features of our behavior.

"Generalized action tendencies".

The "Traits" of Traits

i) A trait has more than nominal existence.

ii) A trait is more generalized than a habit.

iii) A trait is dynamic or at least determinative in behavior.

iv) A trait's existence may be established empirically.

No two people are completely alike. Thus, no two people react identically to the same psychological situation or stimulus. Every personality theory, in one way or another must deal with the issue of individual differences. Gordon Allport is a personologist who regards the explanation of an individual's uniqueness as the paramount goal of psychology. Allport's emphasis on the uniqueness of the person is, however, only one of the features of his position. In addition, there is a strong focus on the ways in which internal cognitive and motivational processes influence and cause behavior.

Allport's theory represents a blend of humanistic and personalistic approaches to the study of human behavior. It is humanistic in its attempts to recognize all aspects of the human being, including the potential for growth, transcendence, and self-realization. It is personalistic in that its objective is to understand and

predict the development of the real individual person (Allport, 1968b). Further, as a theoretician, Allport may be broadly described as an eclectic because he incorporates insights from philosophy, religion, literature, and sociology, blending such ideas into an understanding of the uniqueness and complexity of personality. In fact, Allport's belief that each person's behavior derives from a particular configuration of personal *traits* is the trademark of his orientation to personology.

Biographical Sketch

Allport was born in 1897 in Indiana, his father was a physician and mother was a school teacher, his elder brother Floyd was a famous psychologist. He went to Harvard but his early grades were Cs and Ds but he finished with straight As.

Allport was a social isolate who was skilled with words but poor at sports. One of his classmates, in a show of contempt, once said: " that guy swallowed a dictionary" (1968a, p. 378). Although he finished second highest academically in his high school graduating class of one hundred students, Allport insisted that he was "a good routine student, but definitely uninspired. . . about anything beyond the usual adolescent Concerns" (Allport, 1968a, p. 379). Allport pursued undergraduate study at Harvard University at the urging of his older brother Floyd, who was then a graduate student in psychology at the same university.

Although he took several psychology courses at Harvard, Allport majored in economics and philosophy. He also participated in a number of volunteer service projects during his undergraduate years.

Allport went to Vienna to meet his brother and he called on Freud, on the day of their meeting, Freud called Allport into his office and sat down, saying nothing, and waited for Allport to speak. The silence grew longer and Allport became uncomfortable under the intense, steady gaze of the world-famous psychoanalyst.

Allport received his Ph.D. in psychology in 1922, at the age of 24. His thesis research focused on an examination of the traits of personality and was the first such study done anywhere in the United States. During the next two years, supported by a Sheldon Traveling Fellowship, Allport studied at the universities of Berlin and Hamburg in Germany and Cambridge in England. Returning from Europe he served as an instructor for two years in Harvard's Department of Social Ethics.

In 1926 Allport accepted the position of assistant professor of psychology at Dartmouth College, where he stayed until 1930. In that year, he was invited by Harvard to return at the same rank in the Department of Social Relations.

Personality : A Personality Interpretation (1937)

The psychology of rumor (1947) with L. Postman.

The individual and his religion (1950).

The nature of prejudice (1954).

Personality as a "Something"?

In his first book, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation.* Allport devoted an entire chapter to a review of the many different notions of personality offered by theologians, philosophers, poets, sociologists, and psychologists, and concluded that an adequate synthesis of existing definitions might be expressed in the phrase "what a man really is" ? (1937, p. 48). What this definition possesses in the way of comprehensiveness it certainly lacks in precision. Recognizing this, Allport went a step further and asserted that "personality is something and does something. . . . It is what lies behind specific acts and within the individual" (1937, p. 48). The notion of personality as merely a hypothetical entity, then, Allport argued that it definitely is an existing "something" within the person. At least in Allport's system, personality is alive, well, and functioning.

In 1937 Allport reviewed the history of the word personality, beginning with the Greek word persona (mask) and studied some fifty definitions of the word personality before he gave his own definition "personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment "

In 1961, Allport changed the phrase of the definition from" unique adjustments to his environment" to

"Characteristic Behavior and Thought". Let us examine the key components

Dynamic Organization- humans always changing, becoming.

Psychophysical Systems- it entails body and mind fused together

Determine-personality is something and does something.

Characteristic Behavior and Thought"- to learn about an individual is to study about him.

In arriving at his conceptual definition, Allport noted that the terms *character* and *temperament* have often been used as synonyms for personality. This seems particularly true when considering the layman's use of these terms. Allport explains how each may be readily distinguished from the concept of personality.

The word "character" traditionally connotes a moral standard or value system against which the individual's actions are evaluated. For example, whenever another person is considered of "good character," a personal judgment as to the social and or ethical desirability of his or her personal qualities is really the topic. Character thus is actually an ethical concept. Or, as Allport (1961) put it, character is personality *evaluation,* Character, then, should not be considered as some special region contained within personality.

Temperament is the mood or emotional component of personality.

Type – A is a category or class in which a person can be placed say An Aggressive Type of person.

What a personality theory should be?

Specifically, Allport (1960) insisted that

1- ***A truly adequate theory of human behavior must regard the human personality as contained in the organism.***

Theorists have placed personality outside the person by equating it with social roles or interpersonal relationships. The *role theory,* as proposed by sociologists and anthropologists, explains personality as nothing more than one's membership in a group and the situationally defined roles one is expected to adopt. According to this approach, any given person, say, A, for example, is known only by the roles he enacts, so A is only a college student, son, consumer, church attender, part time drug pusher, and so on.

2- ***A complete theory of personality regards the organism as* well-stocked" *not empty.***

Representing the antithesis of Skinner's position, Allport argued that we must assume a "well-stocked" organism, not an empty one, if we are to advance in personality theorizing. Whereas Skinner believes environmental events shape the "empty" organism, Allport believes personality is something that is located within the organism:

3- ***An adequate theory must regard motivation as normally affect of present structure and function, not simply as an outgrowth of earlier forces or experience.***

Motivationally speaking, A is not a prisoner of his past. He does not forever drag the chains of his early childhood experiences to rattle through his every adult action. Instead, Allport believed that an adequate personality theory should portray A as he is now, as a 20-year-old college student, and interpret his motivation.

4- The units of measure employed by an adequate personality theory must be capable of living synthesis.

In order for a theory to be adequate it must employ units of analysis capable of living synthesis. This requirement stipulates that personality must somehow be broken down into definable units (segments, aspects, factors) for study, but that the units themselves must be of such a nature as to permit their reconstruction, capturing that holistic quality of "dynamic organization" which is at the heart of Allport's definition of personality. For example, to account for the personality of Humpty Dumpty, it would indeed be necessary for a theory first to break him into pieces.

5- A theory must allow adequately for but not rely exclusively upon the phenomenon of self-consciousness.

To portray A accurately, an adequate personality theory must recognize that he is consciously aware of

himself. In fact, this self-consciousness is the most concrete evidence Adam has of his personal identity.

Concept of Trait

In simpler terms, *a trait is a predisposition to respond in an equivalent manner to various kinds of stimuli.* Traits, in effect, are psychological entities that render many stimuli as well as many reponses equivalent. Many stimuli may evoke the same response, or many responses (perceptions, interpretations, feelings, actions) have the same functional meaning in terms of the trait. To illustrate this concept, Allport (1961) cites the case of a fictitious Mr. McCarley whose leading trait is a "fear of communism." For him, this trait renders equivalent the social stimuli of Russians, black and Jewish neighbors, liberals, most college professors, peace organizations, the United Nations, and so forth. All are perceived and labeled as communists.

According to Allport, traits are not linked to a small number of specific stimuli or responses; rather, they are relatively generalized and enduring. By uniting responses to numerous stimuli, traits produce fairly broad consistencies in behavior. A trait is what accounts for the more permanent, enduring, transsituational features of our behavior.

It should be emphasized, however, that traits do not lie dormant waiting to be aroused by external stimuli. In fact, the individual may actively seek stimulus situations that encourage the expression of her traits. A person with a strong disposition toward sociability not only responds in a charming manner when in a group of people but also seeks out company when she is alone.

The "Traits" of Traits

In Allport's system, traits themselves may be said to have "traits" or defining characteristics. Shortly before his death, Allport (1966) published an article entitled "Traits Revisited" in which he summarized all that he had learned in response to the question "What is a trait of personality?" In this article, he proposed that eight basic criteria define a personality trait:

1 ***A trait has more than nominal existence:*** Personality traits are not fictions; they are a very real and vital part of one's existence. Every person possesses inside his or her skin these "generalized action tendencies".

2 ***A trait is more generalized than a habit:*** Traits tend to cut across situations and thereby account for the more permanent, enduring, and general features of our behavior. Habits while enduring, refer to more narrow and limited types of tendencies and are thus less generalized in terms of the situations which may **arouse them or the responses which they' evoke.**

3 ***A trait is dynamic or at least determinative in behavior:*** Traits underlie behavior- they *cause* behavior. In Allport's system, traits do not lie dormant waiting to be aroused by external stimuli.

4 ***A trait's existence may be established empirically:*** If they're real, psychologists ought to be able to prove that they are. While traits as such can never be directly observed (how can you "see" sociability?), Allport believed that they could be verified scientifically.

5 ***A trait is only relatively independent of other traits:*** To paraphrase a well known saying, "No trait is an island." Traits overlap. There is no rigid boundary separating one trait from another. Rather, the personality is comprised of a network of overlapping traits only *relatively* independent of one another. To illustrate, Allport (1960) cites a study in which it was found that the traits of insight and humor are highly correlated with one another. Clearly, these are separate traits, but they nonetheless are somehow related.

Lesson 27

GORDON ALLPORT: A TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

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6- Self

(An Eight Stage Developmental Sequence That Starts at Birth and Goes To Adulthood)

7- FUNCTIONAL AUTONOMY

8-APPLICATION: THE STUDY OF VALUES

i) Theoretical

ii) Economic

iii) Aesthetic

iv) Social

v) Political

vi) Religious

9- Summary

10- Evaluation

Trait

A trait is a predisposition or way to respond in a manner to various kinds of stimuli.

A trait is what accounts for the more permanent, enduring features of our behavior.

"Generalized action tendencies".

The "Traits" of Traits

i) A trait has more than nominal existence.

ii) A trait is more generalized than a habit.

iii) A trait is dynamic or at least determinative in behavior.

iv) A trait's existence may be established empirically.

A trait is not synonymous with moral or social judgment: Despite the fact that many traits (e.g., sincerity, loyalty, greed) are subject to conventional social judgment, they still represent true traits of personality. Ideally, one would first discover traits as they exist in a given individual and then seek neutral, devaluated words to identify them.

A trait may be viewed in light of either the personality that contains it or its distribution in the population at large: Take autoeroticism as an illustration. Like any other trait, it has both *unique* and *universal* aspects. When viewed uniquely, autoeroticism could be studied in terms of the role it plays in a given individual's personality.

Acts or even habits that are inconsistent with a trait are not proof of the nonexistence of the trait:

As an illustration, consider Eve Smith who is characteristically neat in terms of her personal appearance; with never a hair out of place and her attire impeccable, she indubitably possesses the trait of neatness. But one would never know this by examining her desk, room, or car. Her personal belongings in each case are carelessly arranged, cluttered, and downright sloppy. Why the apparent contradiction?

Types of Traits: Pervasiveness within a Personality

1- Cardinal Traits:

If a trait is extremely pervasive, so pervasive that almost all a person's activities can be traced to its influence, it is a *cardinal trait* in Allport's system. This highly generalized disposition cannot remain hidden unless, of course, it happens to be something like exclusiveness, in which case its possessor might become a hermit, whose traits were known to no one. In other instances, however, this kind of master sentiment or ruling passion makes its possessor famous or infamous. Allport insisted that very few people possess a cardinal trait.

The meaning of a cardinal trait may be readily grasped by considering the many trait adjectives derived from historical and fictional characters, e.g., when someone is referred to as being a chauvinist, Machiavellian, Don Juan, Scrooge, or Joan of Arc. Or consider that Albert Schweitzer was said to have had one cardinal disposition in his life-"reverence for every living organism." Similarly, Leo Tolstoy was said to have been endowed with a burning passion for the "oversimplification of life."

2 Central Traits:

Less pervasive but still quite generalized characteristics of the individual are what Allport termed *central traits*- the so-called building blocks of personality. These traits might best be regarded as those attributes which would be stressed in writing a carefully defined letter of recommendation, e.g., outgoing, sentimental, attentive, sociable, or vivacious. Specifically, central traits are those tendencies that a person often expresses that people around him can readily discern. In a rather hypothetical manner, Allport asked: "How many central traits does the average individual possess?" He approached this question by asking ninety-three students "to think of some one individual of your own sex whom you know well" and "to describe him or her by writing words, phrases, or sentences that express fairly well what seem to you to be the essential characteristics of this person" (1 961,p.366).

3- Secondary Traits:

Dispositions which are less conspicuous, less generalized, less consistent, and thus less relevant to the definition of a personality are called *secondary traits.* Food preferences, specific attitudes, and other situationally determined characteristics of the person would be classified under this rubric. Consider, for instance, a person whose central traits are dominance and assertiveness, which he manifests in practically every interpersonal encounter. This person might also have as a secondary trait submissiveness, which he displays only in relation to police who dutifully stop him for speeding, running red lights, and ignoring stop signs ("Yes, officer," "No, officer," "You're right officer, etc.).

Common versus Individual Traits

Allport also distinguished between common and individual traits. The former, *common traits* (also called *dimensional* or *nomothetic* traits) includes any generalized disposition to which most people within a given culture can be reasonably compared. We might say, for example, that some people are more assertive than others or that some people are more polite than others. The logic for assuming the existence of common traits is that members of a given culture are subject to similar evolutionary and social influences; therefore, they develop roughly comparable modes of adjustment. Examples include proficiency in the use of language, political and/ or social attitudes, value orientations, anxiety, and conformity. The majority of people within our culture could be measurably compared with one another on these common dimensions.

The proprium: a real self?

No personologist, least of all Allport, believes that personality is a mere bundle of unrelated traits. Personality embodies a unity, consistency, and integration of traits. It is therefore reasonable to suppose

that there is an overall principle that unifies traits, attitudes, values, motives, and experiences. For Allport, the problem of identifying and describing the nature of personality integration requires an all inclusive construct such as the self, ego, or style of life. Formerly, in less scientific days, people called it a soul. But all these terms had accumulated too many ambiguous connotations and semantic ambiguities for Allport's taste. So he introduced a new term-the *proprium.*

Allport's humanistic orientation to personality is nowhere more clearly revealed than in his concept of proprium, defined as "the self-as-known- that which is experienced as warm and central, as of importance" (I 968a, p. 4) It's the "me" part of subjective experience. It's selfhood.

- **1- The Sense of Bodily Self:** A sense of one's own body, including bodily sensations, attests to one's existence and therefore remains a lifelong anchor for self awareness.
- **2- The Sense of Self-Identity:** The second aspect of the proprium to unfold self-identity, is most evident when, through language, the child recognizes himself or herself as a distinct and constant point of reference. Unquestionably, the most important anchorage for one's self-identity is one's own name, e.g., "That's Tommy (me) in the mirror." Clothing, toys, and other precious possessions also strengthen this sense of identity, but identity is not firmly established all at once. For "instance, a 2-year-old may be unaware that he is cold, feels tired, or needs to eliminate. Fantasy and reality are often blurred and the former often dominates play life.
- **3- The Sense of Self-Esteem or Pride:** Essentially, self-esteem is an individual's evaluation of herself or himself. The urge to want to do everything for oneself and take all the credit is one of the most conspicuous aspects of a 2-year-old's behavior. Parents frequently consider this the age of negativism, since the child resists almost any adult proposal as a threat to integrity and autonomy. Later, by the age of 4 or 5, self-esteem acquires a competitive flavor, reflected by the child's delighted "I beat you!" when she or he wins a game.
- **4- The Sense of Self-Extension:** From approximately 4 to 6 years of age, the proprium is elaborated through self-extension, that is, the sense that although other people and things are not inside my physical body, they are still very much a part of me-they are "mine." With it comes jealous possessiveness, e.g., "This is *my* ball," "I *own* the doll house." *My* mommy, *my* sister, *my* dog, *my* house are regarded as warm parts of oneself and are to be guarded against loss, especially against takeover by another child. Later, we extend our loyalties to our families, our churches, and our nation; we can also become preoccupied with material possessions in this respect.
- **5- The Self-Image:** How others view "me" is another aspect of selfhood that emerges during childhood. Now is the time when the child realizes that parents expect him or her to be "good" while at times he or she is "naughty." As yet, however, the child has no clearly developed conscience, nor any image of how she or he would like to be as an adult. Allport writes: "In childhood the capacity to think of oneself as one is, as one wants to be, and as one ought to be is merely germinal" (1961, p. 123).
- **6- The Sense of Self as a Rational Coper:** Between 6 and 12 years of age, the child begins to fully realize that he or she has the rational capacity to find solutions to life's problems and thereby cope effectively with reality demands. Reflective and formal thought appear, and the child begins to think about thinking. But the child does not yet trust himself or herself to be an independent moral agent, but rather dogmatically believes that his or her family, religion, and peer group are *right;* this stage of propriate development reflects intense moral and social conformity.
- **7- Propriate Striving:** Allport believed that the core problem for the adolescent is the selection of an occupation or other life goal. The adolescent knows that the future must follow a plan and, in this sense, her or his selfhood assumes a dimension entirely lacking in childhood (Allport, 1961). Pursuing long range goals, having a sense of directedness and intentionality in striving for defined objectives, imparting to life a sense of purpose- this is the essence of Propriate striving, although it may be quite elementary in the adolescent.

7- Functional Autonomy: The Past is Past

Basic to Allport's trait theory is the underlying idea that personality is a dynamic (motivated) growing

system. In fact, Allport held that "any theory of personality pivots upon its analysis of the nature of motivation (1961, p. 196).

Allport proposed that an adequate theory of human motivation must meet four requirements. First, it must recognize the *contemporaneity of motives.* While knowledge about a person's past helps to reveal the present course of her or his life, Allport believed that such historical facts are useless unless they can be shown to be dynamically active in the present. In his words, "Past motives explain nothing unless they are also present motives" (1961, p. 220). Thus, It is the current state of the individual- not what happened during toilet training or weaning- that is central.

Second, it must be a *pluralistic theory, allowing for motives of many types.* Many theorists, hoping to unravel the complex nature of human motivation, have suggested that all motives are reducible to one type, e.g., a few basic drives, the unconscious, or self-actualization. Being a true eclectic, Allport felt that there is some truth in all these formulations of motivation, adding, "Motives are so diverse in type that we find it difficult to discover the common denominator" (1961, p. 221). This, many motivational concepts must be used if we are to understand motivation. Third, such a theory must *ascribe dynamic force to the individual's cognitive processes,* especially to the individual's long-range intentions and plans. For Allport, the most significant question one can as a person in order to understand his or her personality is "What do you want to be doing five years from now?" or "what are you trying to do with your life?" An adequate theory of motivation must therefore address itself to what sort of future a person IS trying to bring about. And fourth, the theory must *allow for the concrete uniqueness of motives.* In contrast to theorists who assume a schedule of motives common to all, Allport insisted that the study of motivation must focus on how motives function m unique ways m the individual organism.

In contrast to the "circular-feedback" processes that characterize perseverative autonomy, *propriate functional autonomy* refers to the individual's acquired interests, values, attitudes, and intentions. Propriate autonomy, essential to the integration of adult personality, significantly contributes to the person's striving for a congruent self-image and an enriching style of life. It is what impels an individual to respond to life's challenges, resulting in the attainment of progressively higher levels of authentic maturity and growth. Once again, Allport proposed a concept that is a precursor of much of contemporary humanistic thinking about human nature. For example, propriate autonomy clearly suggests that we need not be constantly rewarded (reinforced) to sustain our efforts:

Application: The Study of Values

Allport stressed that a mature person needs a unifying philosophy of life to make sense of his or her existence. An individual's philosophy is founded upon *values* basic convictions about what is and is not of real importance in life. Believing that a person's efforts to find order and meaning in his or her existence are governed by values, Allport worked hard to identify and measure basic value dimensions. The success of his effort is evident in the well-known personality test that he helped significantly to develop-the *Study of Values-which* was originally published in 1931 and is currently in its third edition (Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey, 1960). Within the context of trait theory, this instrument illustrates Allport's ability to dissect an enormously complex component of personality (values) into empirically measurable terms.

Following are Spranger's basic value types, as depicted in the *Study of Values manua*l (Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey, 1960).

1- The Theoretical:

The theoretical person is primarily concerned with the discovery of *truth.* He or she assumes a "cognitive" attitude in pursuing this objective, seeking only to observe and to reason. In doing so, the theoretical individual searches for fundamental identities and differences, rejecting any considerations of beauty or utility.

2- The Economic:

The economic individual places highest value upon what is *useful.* He or she is thoroughly "practical" and conforms closely to the stereotype of the successful American businessperson. Rooted originally in the satisfaction of bodily needs (self-preservation), the economic value gradually extends to the everyday

affairs of the business world-the production, marketing, and consumption of goods, the elaboration of credit, and the accumulation of tangible wealth. The economic person is interested in making money.

3- The Aesthetic:

The aesthetic person places highest value on *form* and *harmony.* Judging each single experience from the standpoint of grace, symmetry, or fitness, he or she perceives life as a procession of events, with each individual impression enjoyed for its own sake. Such an individual need not be a creative artist but is aesthetic to the degree that his or her chief interest is in the artistic episodes of life.

4- The Social:

The highest value of the social type is *love of people.* Since the *Study of Values* focuses only upon the altruistic or philanthropic aspects of love (as opposed, for example, to conjugal or familial love), social persons prize others as ends and are themselves kind, sympathetic, and unselfish. Such a person is likely to experience the theoretical, economic, and aesthetic attitudes as cold and inhuman, regarding love as the only suitable form of human relationship. In its purest form, the social attitude is selfless and is closely related to the religious value.

5- The Political:

The dominant interest of the political individual is *power.* Vocational activities of this type of person are not necessarily confined to the realm of politics, since leaders in any field generally place a high value on power. Because competition and struggle are inherent in all life, many philosophers have argued that power is the most universal and fundamental human motive. In fact, some of the early writings of Alfred Adler, as you may recall, reflect this point of view. However, for Spranger there are clear individual differences in the power value. For certain personalities, direct expression of this motive overrides all others in that they yearn for personal power, influence, and renown above all else.

6- The Religious:

Religious individuals place their highest value upon *unity.* Fundamentally mystical, they seek to understand and experience the world as a unified whole. Spranger describes the religious person as one who is permanently oriented toward the creation of the highest and absolutely satisfying value experience. There are, however, different modes of seeking this level of experience. For instance, some religious persons are "immanent mystics," i.e., individuals who find religious meaning in the affirmation and active participation in life, while others are "transcendental mystics," striving to unite themselves with a higher reality by withdrawing from life, e.g., monks. Regardless of the particular type of expression, the religious person basically seeks unity and higher meaning in the cosmos.

Summary

1- Gordon Allport's trait theory represents a blend of humanistic and personalistic approaches to the study of human behavior.

2- Allport regarded the *trait* as the most valid unit of analysis for understanding and studying personality. In his system, traits are predispositions to respond in an equivalent manner to various kinds of stimuli. In short, traits account for a person's behavioral consistency over time and across situations. They may be classified under one of three headings- cardinal, central, or secondary - according to their degree of pervasiveness within a personality.

3- The overall construct that unifies traits and provides direction for the person's life is termed the *proprium.* This concept essentially refers to the "self-as-known," including all aspects of personality that contribute to an inward sense of unity.

4- Another of Allport's personality concepts, his best-known and most controversial, is that of *functional autonomy*. This principle asserts that adult motives are not related to the earlier experiences in which appeared. Allport further distinguished between preservative functional autonomy (reverberatory, or feedback, mechanism in the nervous system, and Propriate functional autonomy (the latter allows for the development of the truly mature person.

5- One useful application of Allport's theory, the *Study of Values,* is a self-report personality test. Based upon Spranger's value types, it assesses the relative strength of each of six basic values in the individual's life: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. Persons can be characterized by their dominant value orientation or by their particular patterns of values.

Example we have used this scale extensively with students and the values of aesthetic, economic are there in females while social and political are there in males.

Evaluation

1-Allport's profound disagreements with the psychoanalytic and behavioral concepts of human nature are clearly evident in his basic assumptions.

2-While trait theory has stimulated almost no research to date in support of its core constructs, Allport himself made some interesting empirical contributions to the Personality literature.

Lesson 28

FACTOR ANALYTIC TRAIT THEORY

(Raymand Cattell)

Core Concepts (Part I)

1- Factor Analysis

2- Biographical Sketch

3- The Nature of Personality

4 - A Structure of Traits

i) Unique traits

ii) Common traits

iii) Surface traits

iv) Source traits

v) Constitutional traits

vi) Environmental traits

vii) Ability and Temperament

viii) Dynamic

4- Important Dynamic Traits

The important dynamic traits, in Cattell's system, are of three kinds:

i) Attitudes,

ii) Ergs

iii) Sentiments—Self

5-Major Sources of Data About Personality

In Cattell's view, there are three major sources of data about personality:

1- The Life Record, or L- Data;

2- The Self-Rating Questionnaire, Q-Data;

3- The Objective Test or T-Data

6-The Specification Equation

What is personality ?

According to Cattle personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.

R = f (P,S)

7- The Development Of Personality

8- Heredity-Environment Analysis

9- Search Methods

i) R-Technique and P-Technique

ii) Sixteen Personality Factors (16PF)

iii) Culture Fair Intelligence Tests

10- Summary

11- Evaluation

Factor analysis is of course widely used as an everyday empirical tool by contemporary investigators. Other theorists working in the area of personality have also used this technique H. J. Eysenck, J. P. Guilford, Cyril Burt, L. Thurstone, and W. Stephenson. Cattell's theory is by far the most comprehensive and fully developed theory of personality based on factor analysis, and therefore, we need to acquaint ourselves briefly with the method of factor analysis itself.

1- Factor Analysis

Cattell's theory of personality is based on factor analysis. The corner stone of the factor analysis is the concept of correlation. When two things vary together, they are said to be correlated e.g. there is a relationship between height and weight because when one increases, the other will also tend to increase. The stronger the tendency for two variables to vary together, the stronger is the correlation between them. The strength of the relationship between the two variables is expressed mathematically by a correlation co-efficient that can vary in magnitude from +1 to -1.

A score of -1 indicates perfect negative correlation and +1 indicate a strong positive correlation. Cattell's procedure was to measure a large number of individuals in as many ways as possible e.g. he records the every day behavior of various individuals, such as how many accidents they have, the number of organizations to which they belong and the number of social contacts they had. He calls the information gathered by such observations L Data, the L for Life Record, Q Data, the Q for Questionnaire information and lastly the T Data, the T for the Test Information.

The next step is to inter-correlate all of the test scores, creating correlation matrix. In this matrix clusters of correlation are searched. Such a search is called cluster analysis. An ability discovered in such a cluster is called a factor and in Cattell's theory, the term factor is equated with the term trait. For Cattell factor analysis is a method used to discover traits which he consider the building blocks of personality.

The procedures in Factor Analysis Technique can be summarized as follows.

Measure a large number of people in a variety of ways.

Correlate performance on each measure with performance on every other measure. This creates a correlation matrix.

Determine how many factors (traits) need to be postulated in order to account for the various inter-correlations (Clusters) found in the correlation matrix.

2- Biographical Sketch

Cattell was born in Stanford shire in England in 1905, his childhood was a happy one with a huge number of activities as exploring, swimming and sailing. England entered in World War 1 when Cattell was nine years old and it had a major effect on his life. He saw hundred of wounded soldiers being treated in a near by house which was converted into a hospital. Cattell studied sychology at the University of London from where he did his masters and Ph. D. From 1938 to 1941, Cattell was professor of genetic psychology at Clark University in Worcester. In 1941 he moved to Harvard. In 1945 at the age of 40 Cattell moved to University of Illinois as research professor and director of the laboratory of personality and group analysis. In 1953, he received a price given by New York Academy of Science and he held Darwin fellowship for genetic research. In 1973, he moved to Colorado and worked their at a research institute.

3- The Nature of Personality:

A Structure of Traits

The system of constructs proposed by Cattell is among the most complex of any of the theories.

Traits

The trait is by far the most important of Cattell's concepts. Except perhaps for Gordon Allport, Cattell has considered this concept and its relation to other psychological variables in greater detail than any other current theorist. For him a trait is a "mental structure," an inference that is made from observed behavior to account for regularity or consistency in this behavior.

1-Unique traits,

2-Common traits

The traits that are shares by all people of the community are common traits and traits which characterize the single individual are unique traits. The kind of Factor analysis used in which many subjects are measured on the many variables and the scores intercorrelated is called R-Technique. The kind of Factor analysis that traces the strengthof several traits over a period of time for the same individual is called the P-Technique.

3- Surface Traits

4- Source Traits

For Cattell there are two other types of traits surface traits, which represent clusters of manifest or overt variables that seem to go together, and source traits, which represent underlying variables that enter into the determination of multiple surface manifestations. Thus, if we find a number of behavioral events that seem to go together we may prefer to consider them as one variable. In a medical setting, this would be referred to as a syndrome but here it is labeled a surface trait. Source traits on the other hand are identified only by means of factor analysis which permits the investigator to estimate the variables or factors that are the basis of this surface behavior.

Surface traits are produced by the interaction of source traits and generally can be expected to be less stable than factors. Cattell admits that surface traits are likely to appeal to the common-sense observer as more valid and meaningful than source traits because they correspond to the kinds of generalizations that can be made on the basis of simple observation. However, in the long run it is the source traits that prove to have the most utility in accounting for behavior.

5-Constitutional traits

6-Environmental traits

Source traits are those that are the underlying causes of overt behavior. He feels that most people have about sixteen source traits. Some source traits are genetically determined and are called constitutional traits. Other source traits are shaped by one's culture and are called environmental mold traits.

7-ability and temperament,

8-and dynamic

Cattell, also distinguishes among ability, temperament, and dynamic traits. Ability traits determine how well a task is performed. The most important ability trait is intelligence of which Cattell describes two kinds. Fluid intelligence is general problem-solving ability and is thought to be genetically determined. Crystallized intelligence is the cumulated knowledge of the kind learned in school and is thus gained through experience.

Temperament traits are constitutional and determine a person's emotional make-up.

Dynamic traits are those that set the person in motion toward a goal; in other words, they determine a person's motivational make-up. Cattell distinguishes two categories of dynamic traits: ergs and meta-ergs. Ergs are roughly equivalent to instincts, biological needs, or primary drives. Meta-ergs are learned drives, divided into sentiments and attitudes. Sentiments are predispositions to act in certain ways to classes of objects or events. Attitudes are specific responses to specific objects or events. Since ergs are at the core of one's motivational patterns, sentiments are said to be subsidiary to ergs, and since attitudes are dependent on sentiments, attitudes are said to be subsidiary to sentiments.

Cattell's describes the relationship among ergs, sentiments, and attitudes in what he calls the dynamic lattice.

4- Important Dynamic Traits

The important dynamic traits, in Cattell's system, are of three kinds:

- Attitudes,

- Ergs
- Sentiments—Self

We will now examine these three kinds of dynamic traits, an attitude is a response of an individual to a situation or to a object, Ergs correspond roughly to biologically based drives and sentiments are acquired attitude structures, their interrelationship in the dynamic lattice, and their role in conflict and adjustment will be discussed.

1- Attitudes

An attitude is a response of an individual to a situation or object. Thus the attitude of a young man "I want very much to marry a woman" indicates an intensity of interest ("want very much") in a course of action ("to marry") toward an object ("a woman"). The attitude need not be verbally stated; indeed Cattell would prefer to measure the strength of the young man's interest by a variety of devices, direct and indirect. These might include his rise in blood pressure to a picture of a bride, his ability to remember items from a list of good and bad consequences of marrying, his misinformation concerning the matrimonial prospects of a male in our society, and so forth.

Cattell and his co-workers have in fact intercorrelated some sixty or seventy different devices for measuring attitude strength in a series of studies aimed at developing an efficient test battery for measuring conscious and unconscious components of attitudes (see, for example, Cattell, Radcliffe and Sweney1963). Five attitude component factors, designated Alpha through Epsilon, have been described and speculatively related to psychoanalytic concepts (Id, ego, repressed complexes, and on). In practice, however, two second-order components of attitude strength are usually measured—one concerned with the relatively conscious and integrated aspects of an attitude (as measured, for instance, by information tests), and one concerned with less "integrated or unconscious aspects (as measured, for example, by wishful thinking or forgetting tests). To obtain a single score for the strength of an attitude, the scores for the two components can simply be added together.

The Self

The self is one of the sentiments, but an important one, since nearly all attitudes tend to reflect the self sentiment in greater or lesser degree. It in turn is linked to the expression of most or all of the ergs or other sentiments. In any event, the sentiment or system of sentiments focused around the self is considered by Cattell to play a crucial role in the integration of the personality, but interrelating the expression of the various ergs and sentiments.

5- Major Sources of Data about Personality

In Cattell's view, there are three major sources of data about personality:

- The Life Record, or L- Data;
- The Self-Rating Questionnaire, Q-Data;
- The Objective Test or T-Data

1-L-data, may involve actual records of the person's behavior in society, such as school records, court records although in practice Cattell has usually substituted ratings by other persons who know the individual in real-life settings.

2- Self-rating (Q-data) by contrast, involves the person's own statements about his or her behavior, and thus can provide a "mental interior" to the external record yielded by L-data.

3-Objective test (T-data) is based on a third possibility, the creation of special situations in which the person's behavior may be objectively scored. These situations may be pencil-and-paper tasks, or they may involve apparatus of various kinds. Cattell and his associates have been extremely fertile in devising and adapting these tests: a compendium (Cattell and Warburton, 1967) lists over 400 of them.

Cattell has sought to locate general traits of personality by conducting separate factor analytic studies using all three of the above data sources, on the assumption that if the same source traits emerged from all three, this would provide strong evidence that the source traits were true functional unities and not mere artifacts

of method.

The outcome of some twenty or thirty factor analyses carried out by Cattell and his associates over the past several decades leads to the conclusion that a similar factor structure emerges from behavior rating data and questionnaire data, but that rather different factors tend to emerge from objective test data. The populations sampled in these studies have included several age groups (adults, adolescents, and children) and several countries (U.S., Britain, Australia, New Zealand, France, Italy, Germany, Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, India, and Japan), so presumably the factors have some generality.

Lesson 29

FACTOR ANALYTIC TRAIT THEORY

(Raymond Cattle)

Core Concepts

1- Factor Analysis

2- Biographical Sketch

3- The Nature of Personality

4 - A Structure of Traits

ix) Unique traits

x) Common traits

xi) Surface traits

xii) Source traits

xiii) Constitutional traits

xiv) Environmental traits

xv) Ability and Temperament

xvi) Dynamic

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What is personality ?

According to Cattle personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.

R = f (P,S)

7- The Development Of Personality

8- Heredity-Environment Analysis

9- Search Methods

iv) R-Technique and P-Technique

v) Sixteen Personality Factors (16PF)

vi) Culture Fair Intelligence Tests

10- Summary

11- Evaluation

6- The Specification Equation

What is personality?

According to Cattle personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.

R = f (P,S)

In this formula R is person's reaction, f is the function, P is the person's personality, S is the situation, now how a person behaves is a function of both the person's personality and the given situation.

where are the traits ? They are within the person. Now it becomes clear to predict a persons behavior we must know what traits he posses and how important they are to situation of interest. Cattle calls it the specification equation.

Pj = sjaA…+ sjtT …+ sjeE….+ sjmM….+ sjrR….+ sjsS

Pj = Performance in a Situation

A= Ability Traits

T = Temperament Traits

E = Ergic Tensions Present

M = Meta Ergs (sentiments and attitudes)

R = temporary body states fatigue, illness. anxiety

Sj= A weight or loading indicating the importance of each of the above influences in situation j.

This formula simply restates that if you want to know how a person will react to a situation list all his traits and weigh each one of them in terms of their relevance. For example if a person is in problem solving situation, the ability trait of intelligence will be given great weight or a high factor loading as compared to other traits.

7- The Development of Personality

Personality development is the result of motivation and learning. Motivation is responsible for many changes in perceptual and behavioral capacities.

Cattell distinguishes at least three kinds of learning that play important roles in personality development.

1- Classical-(Respondent)

2- Instrumental (Operant)

3- Structured (Integration)

The first two are the familiar classical and instrumental (operant) conditioning of the experimental psychologist. Cattell's treatment of these is fairly conventional: classical conditioning is held to be of importance in attaching emotional responses to environmental cues and instrumental conditioning for establishing means to the satisfaction of Ergic goals. Instrumental conditioning plays a substantial role in building up the dynamic lattice, which, it will be recalled consists of subsidiation (that is, means-end) relations (attitudes and sentiments serve as the means of achieving ergic goals). A form of instrumental conditioning of special interest in personality learning is what Cattell calls confluence learning, in which a behavior or attitude simultaneously satisfies more than one goal. Thus one attitude comes to be linked to several sentiments, and one sentiment to several ergs, giving the dynamic lattice its characteristic structure.

The third kind of learning is called integration learning. It appears to be essentially a more elaborate form of instrumental learning. In integration learning, the individual learns to maximize total long-term satisfaction by expressing some ergs at any given moment and suppressing, repressing, others. Integration learning is a key aspect of the formation of the self and superego sentiments.

According to Cattell, personality learning is best described as a multidimensional change in response to experience in a multidimensional situation. A way of studying personality learning empirically is by means of a procedure called adjustment path analysis. One begins with two things: first, with information about trait changes occurring in a number of people, possibly in response to a period of ordinary life adjustments; and second, with a theoretical analysis of various possible paths of adjustment (such as regression, sublimation, fantasy, neurotic symptoms) that people may take in response to conflict life situations.

8- Heredity-Environment Analysis

Cattell has for a number of years been actively interested in assessing the relative weight of genetic and environmental influences on source traits. He has developed a method for this purpose, which he calls Multiple Abstract Variance Analysis, or MAVA (1960). MAVA involves gathering data on the resemblances between twins and siblings reared together in their own homes or adopted into different homes, and then analyzing the data to estimate the proportions of individual variation on each trait that are associated with genetic differences, with environmental differences.

9- Research Methods

1- A Factor-Analytic Study of a Single Individual

In the personality research area Cattell employs his favorite tool of factor analysis in it, to a study of the dynamic traits of a single individual.

In the preceding section the distinction was drawn between R-technique and P-technique. In the R-technique the usual factor-analytic procedure, correlations are calculated over many persons, and the factors obtained are common traits. In P-technique, however, the correlations are calculated over many repeated measurements on a single person, and the factors can represent unique traits of that individual.

2- His most important distinction is between surface traits and source traits. Surface traits are those that are actually measured and are, therefore, expressed in overt behavior of some kind. Source traits are those that are the underlying causes of overt behavior. He feels that most people have about sixteen source traits.

Cattle with Saunders and Stice, constructed his famous Sixteen Personality Factors or 16 PF (1950). This test has been widely used in predicting vocational and academic success and failure.

3- The most important ability trait is intelligence of which Cattell describes two kinds. Fluid intelligence is general problem-solving ability and is thought to be genetically determined. Crystallized intelligence is the cumulated knowledge of the kind learned in school and is thus gained through experience. He developed the Culture Fair Intelligence test which is designed to measure fluid intelligence.

10- Summary

1- Cattell's approach to the study of personality first measures a large group of individuals in as many ways as possible. The measures then are intercorrelated and displayed in a correlation matrix. The measures that are moderately or highly correlated are thought to be measuring the same attribute. This procedure is called factor analysis, and the attributes it detects are called factors or traits Cattell describe a number of different kinds of traits. For example, he feels that common traits are possessed only by a specific individual.

2- Unlike Allport, Cattell is mainly concerned with common traits. His most important distinction is between surface traits and source traits. Surface traits are those that are actually measured and are, therefore, expressed in overt behavior of some kind. Source traits are those that are the underlying causes of overt behavior. He feels that most people have about sixteen source traits. Some source traits are genetically determined and are called constitutional traits. Other source traits are shaped by one's culture and are called environmental mold traits.

3- Cattell also distinguishes among ability, temperament, and dynamic traits. Ability traits determine how well a task is performed. The most important ability trait is intelligence of which Cattell describes two kinds. Fluid intelligence is general problem-solving ability and is thought to be genetically determined. Crystallized intelligence is the cumulated knowledge of the kind learned in school and is thus gained through experience.

-Temperament traits are constitutional and determine a person's emotional make-up.

Dynamic traits are those that set the person in motion toward a goal; in other words, they determine a person's motivational make-up. Cattell distinguishes two categories of dynamic traits: ergs and meta-ergs. Ergs are roughly equivalent to instincts, biological needs, or primary drives. Meta-ergs are learned drives, divided into sentiments and attitudes. Sentiments are predispositions to act in certain ways to classes of objects or events. Attitudes are specific responses to specific objects or events. Since ergs are at the core of one's motivational patterns, sentiments are said to be subsidiary to ergs, and since attitudes are dependent on sentiments, attitudes are said to be subsidiary to sentiments.

5- Cattell's describes the relationship among ergs, sentiments, and attitudes.

6- The fact that humans almost inevitably take indirect routes to satisfy ergic tensions is referred to as long –circuiting.

7- To explain how personality develops, Cattell postulates three kinds of learning: classical and instrumental conditioning and structured learning. The last is by far the most important kind of learning since it involves a change in one's entire personality. Cattell exemplifies structured learning by showing what happens at a number of choice points following the arousal of ergic tension. A series of such choice points is called dynamic crossroads.

Prediction is made by including as much information about a person as possible in a specification equation.

Cattell's theory is probably the only theory of personality that employs a research technique as complicated as that which it is designed to study. He has been praised for his scientific approach to the study of personality and criticized by those who feel certain human attributes are not quantifiable.

11- Evaluation

1- Cattell's theory, like most theories of personality, has received mixed reviews. On the positive side, many feel that too much personality research has been unscientific, and therefore Cattell's effort to quantify personality is most welcome. There is no doubt that Cattell has been a careful researcher in one of psychology's more complex areas. His use of factor analysis has necessitated the clear and unambiguous definition of his concepts.

2- However, as one may expect, there are those who look upon Cattell's attempt to quantify personality as negative rather than positive, saying that scientific method is not appropriate to the study of human attributes.

Allport was disturbed by Cattell's emphasis on groups rather than on individuals\. Allport felt that Cattell's method yielded average traits which no individual actually possessed.

An entire population (the larger the better) is put into the grinder, and the mixing is so expert that what comes through is a link of factors in which every individual has lost his identity. His dispositions are mixed with everyone else's dispositions. The factors thus obtained represent only average tendencies. Whether a factor is really an organic disposition in any one individual life is not demonstrated. All one can say for certain is that a factor is an empirically derived component of the average personality, and that the average personality is a complete abstraction. This objection gains point when one reflects that seldom do the factors derived in this way resemble the disposition and traits identified by clinical methods when the individual is studied intensively. (Allport 1937, P.244)

Lesson 30

HENRY MURRAY'S PERSONOLOGY

The term Personology was used by Murray which refers to understanding of an individual in its full complexity.

1- Personality is an abstraction formulated by a theorist.

2- It refers to series of events that ideally span over life time.

3-It reflects novel, unique, recurrent and enduring patterns of behaviors.

4- Personality is located in brain.

5-Personality functions are reduce conflicts, satisfy individual needs and to make plans for attainment of future goals.

Example: (A producer)

1-His or her personality is an abstraction.

2- It refers to series of events that ideally span over life time from childhood to adulthood.

3-It reflects novel, unique , recurrent and enduring patterns of behaviors.-his education and training.

4- Personality is located in brain -imagination, perception.

5-Personality functions are reduce conflicts, satisfy individual needs and to make plans for attainment of future goals– to be incharge of entire productions of VU-TV.

Core Concepts

1-Definition of Personality

2-Proceedings and Serials

3-Serial Programs and Schedules

4-Ability and Achievement

5-The Dynamics of Personality

- Need
- Press
- Tension Reduction
- Thema
- Need Integrate
- Unity-Thema

1-Need:

2- Types of Needs

i) Primary and Secondary

ii) Overt needs and Covert needs

iii) Focal needs and Diffuse needs

iv) Proactive needs and Reactive needs.

v) Process activity, Modal needs, and Effect needs

3- Interrelation of Needs

4- Levels of Analysis

5-Tension Reduction

6-Thema

7-Need Integrate

8-Vector-Value Scheme

9- Genetic-Maturational Determinants

10-Learning

11-Uniqueness

12-Unconscious Processes

13-The Socialization Process

14- Characteristic Research And Research Methods

i) 1-Intensive Study of Small Numbers of Normal Subjects

ii) 2-The Diagnostic Council

iii) 3-Instruments of Personality Measurement

iv) 4-Representative Studies

v) 5-Current Research

vi) 6-McClelland and Social Motives

Summary

Evaluation

Biographical Sketch

He was born in New York in 1893. He graduated from Havard and enrolled in embryological research, Then he conducted biochemical research in at Cambridge which secured his place in Ph.D in Biochemistry. Then he turned to Psychology because he by sheer chance had an opportunity to read Jung's book Psychological Types. He requested Jung to allow him to visit him and he had an opportunity to spend three weeks with him. Then he met Christiana Morgan and married her and then it was a total commitment and love relationship with Psychology. He died in 1988 at the 95.

Definition of Personality

He gave a number of definitions of personality at different times but in all the definitions he seems to give adequate weight to history of the person, to abstract nature of personality and the physiological processes underlying the psychological.

Proceedings and Serials

Proceedings refer to subject –object or subject – subject interactions of sufficient duration to include the significant elements of any given behavioral sequence.

The serial refer to a single unit or formulation of behavior taking place over a longer period of time such as marriage, friendship or a career in business.

Serial Programs and Schedules

These are orderly arrangements of sub-goals that are stretch into future say for months or years

Example

An individual say Ambreen wants to become a doctor (its her goal) now her goal requires years of study and special training so she develops a set of sub-goals each of which will play a part in bringing her closer to getting a medical degree.

The Schedules refer to devices for reducing conflict among competing needs and if one is efficient in

constructing Schedules one can reduce the number and intensity of one's conflicts.

Ability and Achievement

These are of central importance for the individual. In almost all of his research he has appraised subjects in terms of ability, achievements and leadership.

Murray focuses on unconscious forces and childhood events as determinants of behavior. This acceptance formed the base on which he erected his own system of personality.

In a later revision of his theory, Murray (1959) stressed the more positive establishments of the personality. A person needs to be creative and imaginative, to compose and construct if he or she is to remain psychologically healthy. Creative imagination may be the strongest feature of a personality and the one that is often given the least opportunity to express itself.

5- The Dynamics of Personality

It is in the representation of human striving, seeking, desiring, wishing, and willing that Murray's contributions to psychological theory have been most distinctive. One might fairly say that his position is primarily a motivational psychology. This focusing upon the motivational process is perfectly congruent with Murray's conviction that the study of a person's directional tendencies holds the key to understanding human behavior: "the most important thing to discover about an individual. . . is the superordinate directionality (or directionalities) of his activities, whether mental, verbal, or physical" (Murray 1951 b, p. 276).

In considering Murray's theory of motivation a discussion of such related concepts as *press*, *tension reduction*, *thema*, *need integrate, unity-thema.*

1-Need

A need is a construct (a convenient fiction or hypothetical concept) which stands for a force. . . in the brain region, a force which organizes perception, apperception, interjection, conation and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation. A need is sometimes provoked directly by internal processes of a certain kind. . . but, more frequently (when in a state of readiness) by the occurrence of one of a few commonly effective presses [environmental forces]. . . . Thus, it manifests itself by leading the organism to search for or to avoid encountering or, when encountered, to attend and respond to certain kinds of press. . . . Each need is characteristically accompanied by a particular feeling or emotion and tends to use certain modes . . . to further its trend. It may be weak or intense, momentary or enduring. But usually it persists and gives rise to a certain course of overt behavior (or fantasy), which. . . changes the initiating circumstance in such a way as to bring about an end situation which stills (appeases or satisfies) the organism. (Murray, 1938, pp. 123-124)

Murray used the intensive study of 11 small number of subjects to arrive at a tentative list of twenty needs. Although this list has been subjected to considerable modification and elaboration, the original twenty needs remain highly representative. These variables were presented in *Explorations in personality* (1938) with an outline of pertinent facts concerning each need, including questionnaire items for measuring the need, accompanying emotions, and illustrations of the need.

Types of Needs

Different Types of Needs

1-Primary and Secondary

First of all, there is the distinction between primary and secondary needs. The *primary, or viscerogenic, needs* are linked to characteristic organic events and typically refer to physical satisfactions. Illustrative of these are the needs for air, water, food, sex, lactation, urination, and defecation. The *secondary, or psychogenic*, needs are presumably derived from the primary needs and are characterized by a lack of focal connection with any specific organic processes or physical satisfactions. Illustrative of these are the needs for acquisition, construction, achievement, recognition, exhibition, dominance, autonomy, and deference.

2-Overt needs and Covert Needs

Second, we have the distinction between overt needs and covert needs, that is, manifest needs and latent needs. Here Murray was differentiating between those needs that are permitted more or less direct and immediate expression and those that are generally restrained, inhibited, or repressed. One might say that overt needs typically express themselves in motor behavior while covert needs usually belong to the world of fantasy or dreams. The existence of covert needs is in large part the outcome of the development of internalized, structures (superego) that define proper or acceptable conduct. Certain needs cannot be given free expression without violating the conventions or standards that have been taken over from society by means of the parents, and these needs often operate at a covert level.

3-Focal needs and Diffuse needs

Third, there are *focal needs* and *diffuse needs*. Some needs are closely Iinked to limited classes of environmental objects whereas others are so generalized as to be applicable in almost any environmental setting. Murray pointed out that unless there is some unusual fixation a need is always subject to change in the objects toward which it is directed and the manner in which these are approached. That is, the sphere of environmental events to which the need is relevant may be broadened or narrowed, and the instrumental acts linked to the need may be increased or decreased. If the need is firmly attached to an unsuitable object, this is called a *fixation* and is customarily considered pathological. However, as Murray indicated, the inability of the need to show any enduring object preference, jumping from object to object, may be just as pathological as a fixation.

4-Proactive needs and Reactive Needs

Fourth, there are proactive needs and reactive needs. The proactive need is one that is largely determined from within, one that becomes "spontaneously kinetic" as the result of something in the person rather than something in the environment. Reactive needs, on the other hand, are activated as a result of, or in response to, some environmental event. The distinction here is largely that between a response elicited by appropriate stimulation and a response produced in the absence of any important stimulus variation. Murray used these concepts also to describe interaction between two or more persons where usually one individual can be identified as the *proactor* (initiates the interaction, asks the questions, in general provides the stimulus to which the other must respond) and another individual can be identified as the reactor (reacts to the stimuli provided by the proactor).

5-Process activity, Modal needs, and Effect needs

Fifth, there is the distinction between *process activity, modal needs*, and *effect needs*. American psychologists with their conventional emphasis upon function and utility have consistently emphasized effect needs-needs that lead to some desired state or end result. Murray, however, has insisted upon the equal importance of process activity and modal needs-tendencies to perform certain acts for the sake of the performance itself. The random uncoordinated, nonfunctional operation of various processes (vision, hearing, thought, speech, and so forth) that occurs from birth on is called process activity. This is "sheer function pleasure," doing for the sake of doing. Modal needs, on the other hand, involve doing something with a certain degree of excellence or Quality. It is still the activity that is sought and enjoyed, but it is now rewarding only when it is performed with a certain degree of perfection.

3- Interrelation of Needs

It is evident that needs do not operate in complete isolation from each other, and in situations where two or more needs are aroused simultaneously and motivate incompatible responses, it is the prepotent need (such as pain, hunger, thirst) that ordinarily will be translated into action as prepotent needs cannot be postponed. A minimal satisfaction of such needs is necessary before other needs can operate. In his investigation of personality Murray habitually employed a set of concepts to represent *conflict* involving important needs. Thus, it is customary in his research to secure estimates for each subject of the intensity of conflict in certain key areas, for example, autonomy versus compliance, achievement versus pleasure.

Under certain circumstances multiple needs may be gratified by a single course of action. In instances where the outcome of different needs is behaviorally the same, Murray spoke of *fusion* of needs. Another important kind of relation among needs is referred to by the concept of *subsidiation.* A subsidiary need is

one that operates in the service of another; for instance, the individual may show aggressive needs, but these may be serving only to facilitate acquisitive needs. In any instance where the operation of one need is merely instrumental to the gratification of another, we speak of the first need as subsidiary to the second. Tracing chains of subsidiation can be of great value in revealing the dominant or root motives of the individual.

4- Levels of Analysis

It is important to recognize that Murray's need represents a generalized construct. He drew a distinction between need and *aim* where aim represents the specific goal adopted by the person as an expression of the need. Murray (1951b) used the example of a general need for dominance and a specific aim of being elected the mayor of a city.

Murray also employed Freud's concept of *cathexis* to refer to the power of an object to evoke a positive or negative need in a person. He claimed that "a personality is largely revealed in the objects that it cathects. . . . In this fashion a reasonably adequate portrait of the social personality may be composed" (1938, p. 106).

Lesson 31

HENRY MURRAY'S PERSONOLOGY (CONTINUED)

5-Tension Reduction

Murray conceived of the individual as set into action by a complex set of motives. Further, he granted that when a need is aroused the individual is in a state of tension, and satisfaction of the need involves reduction of the tension. Finally, the organism will learn to attend to objects and perform acts that it has found in the past to be associated with tension reduction.

Although this conventional formulation met with Murray's approval, he contended that it is an incomplete picture. Not only does the individual learn ways respond in such a manner as to reduce tension and thus experience satisfaction, but also he or she learns to respond in such a manner as to develop tension so that it can later be reduced, thereby enhancing the amount of pleasure.

One should note that this formulation applies only to effect needs. In process activity and modal needs the satisfaction is intrinsic to the activity and may be just as Intense at the beginning or middle as at the end.

6-Thema

A thema is simply an interactive behavioral unit. Thus, it deals with the Interaction between needs and press. With it one can represent the situations that lead to the operation of particular needs as well as the outcome or resultants of the operation of these needs.

Themas vary from simple formulations of a single subject-object interaction to more general and of longer transactions. They also include formulations that represent the combination of a number of simple themas (serial themas). The thema as an analytic unit is a natural outcome of Murray's conviction that interpersonal relations should be formulated as a dyadic unit. That is, the theorist not only must represent the subject who is the focus of interest but also must represent fully the nature of the person with whom the subject is interacting.

Consider two of Murray's examples of episodes. First, an individual who is snubbed by another might respond in kind. This would be coded as rejection press, triggering rejection need in the individual. Second, a person might make renewed efforts to succeed following failure. This would be conceptualized as achievement need following a failure outcome or press.

7- Need Integrate

Although needs are not necessarily linked to specific objects in the environment, it often happens that with experience the individual comes to associate particular objects with certain needs. Likewise, particular modes of response, or means of approaching or avoiding these objects, may be acquired and associated with the need. When this integration of the need and the image or thought of the environmental object, as well as instrumental acts, has taken place, Murray speaks of a need integrate. A need integrate is a well established "thematic disposition" -a need for a certain kind of interaction with a certain kind of person or object. Under circumstances where a need integrate exists, the arousal of the need will ordinarily lead the person to seek in an appropriate way the environmental object corresponding to the image that was a part of the need integrate.

8- Vector-Value Scheme

Murray proposed that behavioral tendencies be represented in terms of vectors that represent broad "physical or psychological directions of activity." The values that the vectors serve are represented by a series of value concepts. Although the, scheme was not completely worked out, Murray provided tentative lists of values and vectors. The vectors consist of rejection, reception, acquisition, construction, conservation, expression, transmission, expulsion, destruction and avoidance. The values consist of body (physical well-being), property (useful objects, wealth), authority (decision making power), affiliation (interpersonal affection), knowledge (facts and theories, science, history), aesthetic form (beauty, art), and ideology (system of values, philosophy, religion). In practice it is intended that these vectors and values be arranged in a matrix of intersecting rows and columns so that each cell in the matrix will represent behavior that corresponds to a particular vector in the service of a particular value.

Thus, it is now possible to represent the individual at any point in time as a complex integrate of needs and press or vectors and values, as well as personality structures, abilities, achievements, and sentiments.

9- Genetic-Maturational Determinants

In a late formulation of his views, Murray (1968b) ascribed an important role to genetic and maturational factors in the development of personality. He conceived of genetic-maturational processes as being responsible for programming a succession of eras throughout an individual's life. During the first era- that of childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood- new structural compositions emerge and multiply. The middle years are marked by conservative recompositions of the already emerged structures and functions. In the final era, the capacity for forming new compositions and recompositions decreases and the atrophy of existing forms and functions increases. Within each period, there are numerous smaller programs of behavioral and experiential events that run under the guidance of genetically controlled maturational processes.

10-Learning

Learning consists of discovering what generates pleasure and what generates distress for the individual. These hedonic and anhedonic generators may be classified in several ways. They may be retrospective (memories of past experiences that were delightful or distressful), spective (current experiences), or prospective (anticipations of future pleasures or pains). Current generators may be classified according to whether they are located predominantly in the person, in the environment, or in an interpersonal transaction. These generators may be further subdivided. For example, generators in the person may be located in the body, in some emotional center of the brain, in some type of psychological process, or in the judgments of conscience.

11-Uniqueness

In spite of his attention to general categories of analysis, Murray always maintained the essential uniqueness of each person, and even of each behavioral event, as a self-evident fact. His respect for naturalistic observation and his creative and intuitive literary talents made it easy for him to grasp and express compellingly the individuality and elusive complexity of each subject or event.

12-Unconscious Processes

Among academic psychologists Murray was one of the first to accept the pervasive role of unconscious determinants of behavior (Murray, 1936).

Not only is the individual unaware of certain tendencies that influence behavior but, more important, some of these tendencies are actively defended against or warded off from consciousness. Thus, Murray not only accepted the role of unconscious determinants of behavior but also recognized the operation of the Freudian mechanisms of repression and resistance.

13-The Socialization Process

Murray suggested that the human personality is a compromise between the individual's own impulses and the demands and interests of other people. These demands of other people are represented collectively by the institutions and cultural patterns to which the individual is exposed, and the process is socialization. Conflicts between the individual and the approved patterns of the society are customarily solved by means of the individual conforming to the group patterns in some manner.

An essential element in achieving the goals of socialization is the development of an adequate superego. An internal structure that serves to reward and punish one when one is behaving appropriately or inappropriately .in terms of the culture pattern as interpreted by these authority figures. This implies that the parents, as the most important authority figures, are the chief agents of the socialization process. The effectiveness of the parents in rewarding approved and punishing disapproved patterns of behavior will largely determine the success of this developmental process. An important component of the parent’s role as socializer is the effectiveness with which they develop a mutually affectionate relationship with the child so that mere approval or disapproval can serve as significantly motivating conditions in controlling the child's behavior.

14- Characteristic Research and Research Methods

Let us examine very briefly several distinctive qualities of Murray's general approach to personality research.

1-Intensive Study of Small Numbers of Normal Subjects

Murray was convinced, that an adequate understanding of behavior must follow a complete and detailed study of individual subjects. Just as case study has provided indispensable assistance in the growth and development of medical science, so the future of psychology is linked to the willingness of investigators to take the time and effort to understand thoroughly individual cases. Group relations are important only when accompanied by a careful inquiry into the deviations within the group and conditions that cause or accompany these deviations. To report a finding that characterizes 80 percent of a specified group is of little value unless some explanation can be provided for the failure of the other 20 percent to fit into this pattern. Murray's consistent emphasis on this point was one of his principal contributions to research methods.

A further distinctive quality of his research has been its emphasis upon the study of normal individuals in natural settings. In general, the intensive study of individual cases has been reserved for the clinical setting where the pathology of the patients has made them a subject of particular interest or else the demands of diagnostic or therapeutic expediency have necessitated extensive information. Thus, Murray's choice of the normal subject as the focus of his research provided a natural complement to the case histories available from psychiatric settings.

Murray (1958) believed that the ultimate concern of the personologist is to explain and predict the individual's activities in everyday life. For that reason, he or she should not be content to limit predictions to the subculture of the laboratory or try to understand the individual merely by validating one test against the other.

He was also one of the pioneers in interdisciplinary co-operation in personality research. The Harvard Psychological Clinic staff habitually included representatives of psychiatry, psychology, anthropology, and other disciplines in an era when this was anything but commonplace.

2-The Diagnostic Council

Murray placed great emphasis upon the importance of the observer or the psychologist as an instrument, in psychological research. Although we may use rating scales, category sets, or psychological tests to appraise personality, still, at the base of all these instruments is the sensitive observation of the investigator or clinician. Because of the root status of the observer, Murray was convinced that more attention should be paid to his serious efforts directed at improving their powers of observation. These considerations led him to refer to the psychologist as the most important "instrument of precision" in psychological research.

One evident means of placing checks upon, and improving the quality of, observation is to have multiple observers all examining the same data from a different perspective. Thus, using a number of investigators to study the same individual or individuals offers unique rewards in the form of canceling out limitations posed by the biases of particular observers or the limitations offered by specialized sets of data. Not only is the end result of such group observation presumably superior to individual observation but the members of the group should sharpen and improve their powers of observation as a result of the corrective function of the observations of others.

These considerations led Murray to devise the diagnostic council, which involves many observers all studying the same subjects from different points of View with the opportunity for a final discussion and synthesis of the information secured from these different vantage points. After a period of individual observation during which each investigator studies the subjects through his or her own specialized techniques, there is a conference for each subject. At this time every investigator presents his or her data and interpretation with a full opportunity for the observations and interpretations of other observers to support or suggest modifications in the report. A single investigator has primary responsibility for assembling and presenting the synthesis of each case, but each member of the council is given an unlimited opportunity for contributing to this final product.

3-Instruments of Personality Measurement

No one has made more significant contributions to personality assessment than Murray. He devised a large number of ingenious devices for the measurement of personality, only a small number of which have been systematically exploited. The volumes Explorations in personality and Assessment of men provide ample illustration of the instruments he devised or was influential in developing.

One of these, the Thematic Apperception Test, has become, next to the Rorschach Test, the most widely used projective technique in current use (Lindzey, 1961; Murstein, 1963; Zubin, Eron, & Schumer, 1965. see Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 1993, for a recent review). In addition, Murray's system of needs has been the basis for several other widely used personality inventories. Most notable among these are the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (Edwards, 1954, 1959), the Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1967), and the Jackson Personality Inventory (Jackson, 1976 a, b).

Almost all of Murray's instruments have been congruent with his fundamental conviction that an ultimate understanding of human behavior will derive not from the study of lower organisms or the study of humans under highly restricted conditions but rather from the complex study of individual behavior. That is, Murray argued for the collection of rich and multiform data that can be expected to reflect a Wide range of behavioral tendencies and capacities. He was convinced that one of the natural advantages of the psychologist is the fact that he or she deals with a talking organism and that this should be capitalized upon fully. In contrast to the biologist, the zoologist, or the physicist, the psychologist deals with a subject who can tell a great deal about internal processes that operate, about external events that are attended to, and about the major determinants of behavior. It is true that these reports must be assessed carefully and cannot always be taken at their face value, but nevertheless they represent a crucial beginning in the attempt to unravel the secrets of human behavior.

Murray pioneered in the development of personality instruments that explore the full mental content of the subject. His instruments typicality do not limit the response alternatives of the subject by means of predetermined categories but rather they permit and encourage a full and subjective exposition on the part of the subject, Imagination and fantasy are permitted full participation by these techniques. They provide the investigator with a fullness of data that is at the same time richly promising and complexly discouraging.

4-Representative Studies

Murray and his collaborators at the Psychological Clinic conducted extensive research. Murray began Explorations in personality with a commitment to adopting "the life history of a single man as a unit" for investigation (1938, p. 3). One of Murray's clear legacies has been the commitment among many of his students to study personality "the long way," by attending in depth to individual lives (e.g., White, 1963b, 1975, 1981). His research agenda has been carried forward by former students, such as Donald MacKinnon at the Institute for Personality Assessment and Research ((PAR) at Berkeley. In addition, as noted earlier in this chapter, Murray's research tradition is recognized in the Henry A. Murray Lectures in Personality, at Michigan State University and in the series of volumes generated by those lectures. -

Three examples of Murray's research deserve mention. First, Explorations in personality contains over 200 pages of research reports by Murray and his collaborators. The research reported there includes interviews about childhood and sexual development, questionnaires to measure needs and special abilities, correlations between Murray's needs and hypnotizability, levels of aspiration, Rosenzweig's experimental studies on repression and reaction to frustration, emotionality and galvanic skin response, and Erikson's studies of college males in dramatic, play situations. This work deserves further study by the interested student, both because of its inherent interest and historical significance and because it illustrates the breadth and creativity of Murray's approach to personality.

In Murray's second major book, The assessment of men (Office of Strategic Services Assessment Staff, 1948), he described assessment procedures he and his staff had employed at the United States Office of Strategic Services during World War II. Most of those procedures represented attempts to understand the personalities of candidates being screened for secret, overseas assignments. This work was noteworthy for its multidimensional, pragmatic orientation. The assessments entailed self-report tests, interviews, observations, and situational tests. For example, applicants "leadership" skills ostensibly were measured

by how effectively they directed several helpers in a construction task. The "helpers," however, had been directed to obstruct the project in a variety of ways, and the entire exercise actually was designed to measure reactions to frustration. Like the earlier experimental work at Harvard, these assessment practices foreshadow a number of contemporary research and assessment strategies.

Finally, Murray's most interesting research project would not qualify as research for many psychologists, but it provides a penetrating insight into Murray's conceptualization of personality.

5-Current Research

Murray's approach to personality inspired a great deal of research. In this respect, the heuristic value of his theory has been substantial. In this section we consider research programs that are derivatives of Murray's model.

6-McClelland and Social Motives

The research program most directly associated with Murray is David McClelland's study of the need for achievement. The connection with Murray actually exists at three levels. First, the motive to achieve was one of the original needs identified by Murray, who defined it as a drive to overcome obstacles and obtain high standards. Second, McClelland believes that we are not directly aware of our basic motives. As a consequence, he embraced Murray's proposal that we measure needs as they exist in a person's fantasies, not in his or her behavior or self-reports. Third, following on this last point, McClelland has employed a modified version of Murray's Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) to measure achievement motivation.

The TAT was developed (Morgan & Murray, 1935) out of Murray's belief that many of the basic human motives exist outside of conscious awareness. This clearly presents a major measurement problem. How can we expect a person to tell us how much of a tendency he or she possesses if the person is not aware of the existence of that motive? This is the classic dilemma for depth psychology. Murray's solution was to develop the TAT in accord with what has come to be known as the projective hypothesis. If we present a person with an ambiguous picture and then ask what is in the picture, the response must be a reflection of what is important to the person or the themes the person uses to organize the world.

Lesson 32

ALBERT BANDURA'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Social Learning theorists explain behavior in terms of interaction between cognitive, behavioral and environmental determinants. Bandura is a Social Learning theorist.

Bandura consider learning principles to be sufficient to explain and predict behavior and behavior change. The focus is on interaction, between the external stimuli and internal cognitions in a social context.

1-Bandura suggests most human behavior is learned by observation. In Modeling we observe the behavior of others and use the information as a guide for our own behavior.

2-Bandura and his colleagues have demonstrated that subjects allowed to observe a set of responses performed by another individual (the *model)* tend to exhibit these same responses (model) when placed in a similar setting.

Example: Our behavior develops as a result of observational learning. We observe the available models and imitate these models. Such as our parents, teachers, politicians, film heroes, celebrities and even fictional characters like Superman, Spiderman.

1- Biographical Sketch

2- Reconceptualization of Reinforcement

3-Principles of Observational Learning

i) Attentional Process

ii) Retention Processes

iii) Production Process

iv) 4-Motivational Processes

4-Reciprocal Determinism

5-The Self-System

i) Self-Observation

ii) Judgmental Process

iii) Self-Reaction

6-Applications to Therapy

7- Research

8- Summary

9-Evaluation

1-BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Bandura received his graduate training in clinical psychology at the University of Iowa, which awarded him the Ph.D. in 1952. After a year of postdoctoral clinical training, Bandura accepted, in 1953, a position at Stanford University, where he was professor of Social Science. He has served as chairman of the Stanford Department of Psychology and in 1974 was elected to the presidency of the American Psychological Association. Bandura has been the recipient of the Distinguished Scientist Award of the American Psychological Association's Division of Clinical Psychology, the Distinguished Scientific Contribution Award from the American Psychological Association, and the Distinguished Contribution Award of the International Society for Research on Aggression.

Bandura has presented his theory in a series of books, with the late Richard Walters as junior author. Bandura (1959) wrote *Adolescent aggression,* a detailed report of a field study in which social learning principles were used to analyze the personality development of a group of middle-class delinquent boys, followed by *Social learning and personality development* (1963), a volume in which he and Walters

presented the social learning principles they had developed and the evidence on which the theory was based. In 1969 Bandura published *Principles of behavior modification,* in which he outlined the application of behavioral techniques based on learning principles to the modification of behavior, and in 1973, he published *Aggression: A social learning analysis. Social learning-theory* (1977b).in which Bandura has "attempted to provide a unified theoretical framework for analyzing human thought and behavior" (p. vi), remains his clearest theoretical statement to date, although his *Social foundations of thought and action* (1986) provides a more detailed treatment of the theory. In' addition to these theoretical statements, Bandura and his students have contributed an extensive series of empirical articles.

In common with most learning theory approaches to personality, social learning theory is based on the premise that human behavior is largely acquired and that the principles of learning are sufficient to account for the development and maintenance of that behavior.

In the course of observing others behavior, individuals learn to imitate that behavior or in some way model themselves after others. In their 1941book, *Social leaning and imitation,* Miller and Dollard had recognized the significant role played by imitative processes in personality development and had sought to develop explanations of certain kinds of imitative behavior. Bandura's 1974 article, "Behavior theories and the models *of* man," provides *a* relatively summary of his point of view:

"Our theories have been incredibly slow in acknowledging that man can learn by *observation as well as* by *direct experience. . . . The rudimentary form* of *learning based* on *direct experience has been exhaustively studied, whereas the more pervasive and powerful mode* of *learning* by *observation* is *largely ignored.* A *shift* of *emphasis* is *needed. (p.* 863)"

Bandura's career has been devoted to encouraging that shift.

2- Reconceptualization of Reinforcement

Bandura greatly broadens the definition of reinforcement. When people observe the outcomes of their *own* behavior and the behavior of others, they develop hypotheses about the likely consequences of producing that behavior in the future. This information then serves as a guide *for* subsequent behavior. Accurate hypotheses produce *successful* performance, and inaccurate hypotheses lead to ineffective behavior. (Notice the similarity to George Kelly's point about "construing replications) In other words, reinforcers provide information about what a person must do in order to secure desired outcomes and to avoid punishing outcomes. As a consequence, reinforcement can only occur when a person is *aware* of the contingencies and anticipates that they will apply to future behavior. Humans' ability to anticipate outcomes also accounts for the incentive value of reinforcers: "By representing foreseeable outcomes symbolically, people can convert future consequences into current motivators *of* behavior. Most actions are thus largely under anticipatory control" (Bandura, 1977b, p; 18). For Bandura, then, a reinforcer functions primarily as "an informative and motivational operation rather than as a mechanical response strengthener" (1977b, p. 21). As *a* consequence, Bandura considers "regulation" to be a more appropriate term than "reinforcement."

Bandura also rejects the Skinnerian understanding *of* how reinforcement functions. In observational learning, reinforcement serves as "an antecedent" rather than a "consequent" influence. That is, anticipated reinforcement is one *of* several factors that can influence *a* person to pay attention to a model, and it can also encourage *a* person to rehearse the behavior that has been observed. From Bandura's point *of* view reinforcement facilitates learning in an anticipatory manner by encouraging the observer to pay attention and to rehearse the observed behavior. Bandura even proposes that direct reinforcement is not necessary in *order* for learning *to occur.*

Bandura adds two other types of reinforcement to the classical concept of "direct reinforcement" *as a* stimulus whose presence increases the frequency *of* occurrence for a behavior with which it is paired. First, "self-reinforcement" occurs when an individual compares his or her own behavior to internal standard. If the behavior meets those standards, the person may experience satisfaction, or pride, but if the behavior violates or falls short of those standards the person responds with guilt, shame, or dissatisfaction.

Bandura is suggesting that any behavior produces two sets of consequences: self-evaluations and external outcomes. External consequences have the greatest effect on behavior when they are compatible with self generated consequences. Behavior is maintained by its consequences, but those consequences are not only

externally applied.

As a second new type of reinforcement, Bandura suggests that "vicarious reinforcement" occurs when an individual witnesses someone else experience reinforcing or punishing consequences for a behavior, and that individual anticipates similar consequences if she or he produces the same behavior, Thus, an individual may be reinforced without producing a behavior or experiencing a consequence. "Observed consequences can change behavior in much the same manner as directly experienced consequences". Much as Skinner had suggested that Thorndike's trial-and-error learning was an inefficient and unlikely way to acquire complex behaviors, so Bandura suggests that Skinner's operant conditioning is an Impractical and dangerous means for humans to acquire many behaviors. In contrast, most human behavior is learned observationally by modeling: We observe the behavior of others and use the information as a guide for our own subsequent behavior. We turn now to Bandura's description of modeling.

3- Principles of Observational Learning

Bandura (1962, 1977b, 1986) proposes that a fundamental way humans acquire skills and behaviors is by observing the behavior of others. Such observational learning, or modeling, is governed by four constituent processes: attention, retention, production, and motivation .

i- Attentional Process

People cannot learn anything unless they pay attention to and accurately perceive significant features of the to-be-modeled behavior. We are most likely to *pay* attention to behaviors that are salient, simple, and promise to have some functional value. As a consequence, a model that is vivid, attractive, competent, and seen repeatedly is more likely to catch our attention. In addition, what a person notices is influenced by his or her knowledge base and current orientation. The characteristics of the observers also determine how much imitative behavior takes place in a given situation.

The characteristics of both the model and observer often jointly determine what will occur? A particularly informative study showing the interplay of model and observer was performed by Hetherington and Frankie (1967) with young children and their parents. The Investigators first determined by observing the parents the degree of warmth and nurturance each expressed toward the child and which parent was dominant in matters of child care. Subsequently, the child watched each parent play with toys and games supplied by the investigator, following which the child was allowed to play with the same materials and the amount of his or her Imitative behavior recorded. Children of both sexes were much more likely to imitate a warm, nurturant parent than a cool or punitive one, but the largest effect was found with girls whose mothers were warm. By and large, the dominant parent also commanded more Imitative behavior, although when the father was dominant, girls imitated the mother somewhat more than the father.

ii-Retention Processes

A behavior cannot be reproduced unless we have remembered it by coding it in symbolic form. Retention of observed behavior depends mainly upon mental Images and verbal representations. Memory can be enhanced by organization of the material and by rehearsal. The material that is retained often is transformed to correspond to some existing knowledge or expectation on the part of the learner.

iii-Production Process

The learner must be able to reproduce the behavior that has been observed. An observed behavior, no matter how well it has been retained, cannot be enacted without the necessary skills and abilities. Sometimes the production problem stems from a lack of the requisite cognitive or motor skills, but often It reflects the performer's lack of feedback about what she or he actually is doing. This is true in learning many athletic skills, but it also is a frequent problem with social behaviors. "It can be extremely informative, and unnerving, to see or hear tapes of our own behavior. Trial and error, practice, and feedback all contribute to what is often a gradual process of translating knowledge Into action.

iv- Motivational Processes

Bandura's social learning theory emphasizes the distinction between acquisition and performance because people do not enact everything they learn. Performance of observed behavior is influenced by three kinds of Incentives: direct, vicarious, and self-administered. A learned behavior will be enacted if it leads directly

to a desired outcome, if it has been observed to be effective for the model, or if it is self-satisfying. In other words, we are likely to produce a behavior if we believe that it is in our best interest to do so.

Lesson 33

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Imitation

The critical role Bandura assigns to imitation in personality development is best seen in his analysis of its contribution to the acquisition of novel responses. In a series of experiments done with children, Bandura and his colleagues have demonstrated that subjects allowed to observe an unusual set of responses performed by another individual (the *model)* tend to exhibit these same responses when placed in a similar setting.

In one representative study (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961), nursery school children, tested one at a time, watched an adult model perform a series of particular aggressive acts, physical and verbal, toward a large toy Bobo doll. Other children saw a non aggressive adult who sat quietly in the experimental room and paid no attention to the doll. Later, the children were mildly frustrated and then placed alone in the room with the doll. The behavior of the groups tended to be congruent with the adult models. The children who had seen an aggressive adult themselves performed more aggressive acts than a control group given no prior experience with a model and made more responses than the control children that were quite exact

Imitations of the model's behaviors. Further, the children who had observed a non aggressive adult made even *fewer* aggressive responses than the control subjects.

As this experiment illustrates,

1-Children can learn novel responses merely by observing others.

2- Of equal importance, it shows that learning can take place without the children having had the opportunity to make the response themselves and without either the model or themselves having been rewarded or reinforced for the behavior.

The capacity to perform novel responses observed some time before but never actually practiced is made possible by the human's cognitive abilities. The stimuli provided by the model are transformed into images of what the model did or said or looked like and, even more important, are transformed into verbal symbols that can later be recalled. These symbolic, cognitive skills also allow individuals to transform what they have learned or combine what they have observed in a number of models into new patterns of behavior. Thus, by observing others, one may develop novel, innovative solutions and not merely slavish imitations.

In human cultures, novel behavior is very frequently acquired by observing the behavior of others. Often the instruction is quite direct; a child for example, learns what he or she sees others do. But Individuals may also be influenced by models presented in more symbolic forms. Pictorial presentations, such as those in movies and television, are highly influential sources of models.

Bandura, Ross, and Ross (1963a), for example, found that children who watched the aggressive behavior of a live adult model were equal in their tendency to imitate than children who were shown a movie of the same behavior or even an animated cartoon.

Example: All films, Television dramas and cartoons where heroes or models behave aggressive are teaching observers to be aggressive and violent.

1- Sutan Rahi films or Van Dam movies.

2-“Waris “ a TV drama set the stage for aggressive television plays.

3-All cartoons films.

Bandura suggests that exposure to models:

First if a model's behavior may simply serve to elicit the performance of similar responses. This facilitating effect is especially likely to occur when the behavior is of a socially acceptable nature.

The second way a model may influence an observer occurs when the model is performing a deviant behavior. The observer's inhibitions about performing the behavior may be strengthened or weakened by watching the model, depending on whether the model's behavior has been punished or rewarded.

Rosekrans and Hartup (1967), for example, demonstrated that children who saw a model's aggressive behavior being consistently rewarded subsequently showed a high degree of imitative aggression while those who saw it consistently punished exhibited practically no imitative behavior. Children exposed to a model sometimes rewarded and sometimes punished displayed an intermediate amount of aggression.

The types of vicarious learning we have been discussing involve actions falling into the general category of instrumental or operant responses. Bandura (1969) has pointed to another kind of learning based on the observation of a model that is crucial in social learning theory, namely the vicarious acquisition of *classically conditioned emotional responses.* Not only may observers exposed to the emotional reactions of a model experience similar reactions, but they may also begin to respond emotionally to stimuli that produced these reactions in the model. In an Illustrative experiment, Bandura and Rosenthal (1966) had each subject watch as a model, introduced as an actual subject was presented with a series of buzzer signals. Following each occurrence of the buzzer, the model simulated a variety of pain reactions that the subject was falsely told were elicited by an intense shock delivered immediately after the buzzer. As Indicated by a physiological measure of emotional responsivity, the subjects came to exhibit a conditioned emotional response to the buzzer, even in test trials in which the model was absent and despite the fact that they never directly experienced the painful unconditioned stimulus supposedly administered to the model.

4-Reciprocal Determinism

Bandura (1978) suggests that explanations of human behavior typically have been provided in terms of a limited set of determinants acting in a unidirectional manner. Learning theorists, for example, suggest that behavior is controlled by situational forces. It is true that Skinner comments on organisms' capacity for counter control, but even this notion paints the environment as the instigating force that the Individual attempts to counteract. Skinner's environment serves as "an autonomous force that automatically shapes, orchestrates, and controls behavior" (1978. p. 344). Personality theorists account for behavior in terms of internal dispositions and motives. Even in Interactionist formulations (e.g., Murray and Allport), the person and the environment largely operate in an autonomous or unidirectional manner.

In contrast, social learning theory conceptualizes behavior in terms of *reciprocal determinism;* that is, personal influences, environmental forces, and behavior itself function as interdependent rather than autonomous determinants. 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. 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.

Over the years, many writers have recognized that individual dispositions and situational forces interact to produce behavior, but these interaction processes have been conceptualized in three very different ways. in *unidirectional* Interaction, persons and situations are regarded as independent entities that combine to generate behavior. According to Bandura, this point of view is simplistic, because personal and environmental factors in fact influence one another. In a *bidirectional* conception of Interaction, persons and situations are regarded as Interdependent causes, but behavior is seen only as a consequence that does not figure in the causal process. In the social learning view of *reciprocal* determinism, behavior, environmental forces, and personal characteristics all function as "interlocking determinants, of each other."

Bandura is making the point that we must be flexible in considering the interactions of person, behavior, and environment. For example, suppose that we notice a student who is talking before class. How are we to understand that behavior? A personality approach might talk about the person being talkative, a learning approach would look for environmental reinforcers for the talking behavior, and an interactionist approach would consider the contributions of both the person and the situation to the behavior. Bandura, however, suggests that we recognize the reciprocal determining relationship among the person, the behavior, and the environment. That is. the person has a tendency to talk and the environment reinforces talking, but It is also the case that talking feeds back to make the person more likely to talk in the future, and the talking behavior also contributes to making a classroom the sort of setting in which talking occurs. Furthermore, we need to realize that the person contributes to the nature of the environment, just as the environment influences who the person is. Person, situation, and behavior are Inextricably Intertwined.

Reciprocal determinism also provides Bandura with an account of freedom and determinism that sounds much like that provided by George Kelly. That is, people are free to the extent that they can Influence the future conditions to which they will respond, but their behavior also is bound by the reciprocal relationship among personal cognition, behavior, and the environment. As Bandura (1978, pp. 356-357) puts It, "Because people's conceptions, their behavior, and their environments are reciprocal determinants of each other. Individuals are neither powerless objects controlled by environmental forces nor entirely free agents who can do whatever they choose."

Bandura treats the cognitive, dynamic factors that regulate and are regulated by both behavior and the environment. Bandura discusses the personal determinants of behavior in terms of the self-system and the Individual's self-efficacy. We now turn to consideration of these person variables.

5- The Self-System

"In social learning theory, a self-system is not a psychic agent that controls behavior. Rather, it refers to cognitive structures that provide reference mechanisms and to a set of subfunctlons for the perception, evaluation, and regulation of behavior" (1978, p. 348). Furthermore, an understanding of the self-generated influences subsumed in the self-system is necessary for the explanation and prediction of human behavior. The three component processes involved in the self-regulation of behavior through the activation of self-prescribed contingencies. Taken as a set, these processes define the *self-system* and provide the bases for self-reinforcement of behavior. We will consider each of the three components in turn.

i - Self-Observation

We continually observe our own behavior, noting such factors as the quality quantity, and originality of what we do. The more complex the behavior being observed, and the more intricate the setting in which it is observed, the more likely that the self-observation will include some inaccuracies. Temporary mood states and motivation for change also can influence how one's performances are monitored and processed.

ii -Judgmental Process

Behavior generates a self-reaction through judgments about the correspondence between that behavior and personal standards. We may define personal adequacy by reference to past behavior and knowledge of norms or by social comparison processes. The choice of the targets for the comparison obviously influences the judgments that will be reached: Self-judgments are enhanced when others of lesser ability are chosen for the comparison. Judgments also vary depending on the importance of the activity being judged as well as individual attributions as to the determinants of the behavior. We are more critical of behaviors that are important and for which we hold ourselves to be responsible.

iii- Self-Reaction

The self-appraisals produced through the operation of the first two components set the stage for the individual to render an evaluation of the behavior. Favorable appraisals generate rewarding self-reactions, and unfavorable judgments activate punishing self-responses. Behaviors that are viewed as having no personal significance do not generate any reaction. The self-reactions produced at this stage alter subsequent behavior primarily by motivating people to generate the effort needed to attain some desired outcome (Bandura, 1991b).

The reciprocal influence that Bandura describes as existing between the person and the environment is illustrated in his contention that self-reinforcement systems are themselves acquired by the same learning principles responsible for the acquisition of other types of behaviors. Thus, what individuals come to reward and punish in themselves may reflect the reactions that their behavior has elicited from others.

Parents, peers, and other socializing agents set behavioral standards, rewarding the individual for living up to them and expressing their displeasure when the person fails. These externally Imposed norms may be "taken over" by the Individual and form the basis for later self-reinforcement systems.

It might thus be expected, Bandura notes, that Individuals who as children were praised and admired for rather low levels of accomplishment will grow up to administer self-rewards more generously than those who were held to higher standards of excellence, and indeed, there is evidence to suggest that this is so (Kanfer & Marston, 1963).

Extensive evidence indicates that self-evaluative standards can also be acquired vicariously by observing others. In one representative experiment, Bandura and Kupers (1964) had children observe a model who set either a high or a low standard of achievement for self-reward. Later observation of the children performing the same task showed that those exposed to the model with low standards rewarded themselves more indulgently than those who observed the strick model.

As with other behaviors, characteristics of the model influence whether or not an observer will attend and attempt to emulate the model's self-reinforcement standards: Under certain conditions, children, for example, are more likely to model themselves after peers than adults (Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1967b) or after models whose achievement standards are within their reach rather than those who set them beyond the child's capacity (Bandura & Whalen, 1966).

--The components of the self-system do not function as autonomous regulators of behavior. External factors affect these self-regulatory processes in at least three ways: First, as we. have seen, the internal standards against which behavior is judged are extracted from our experiences. Second, environmental influences may alter the manner in which we judge our behavior. For example, people often experience negative sanctions from others for unmerited self reward. In addition, upholding high standards is "socially promoted by a vast system of rewards including praise, social recognition, and honors" (Bandura, 1978, p. 354). Finally, there are external factors that promote the "selective activation and disengagement" of self-reactive influences.

--Development of self-regulatory capabilities does not create an invariant control mechanism within a person" (1978, p. 354; see also Bandura, 1977b, 1986, 1990). When people engage in reprehensible behavior that should give rise to self condemnation, they may be able to disengage themselves in a manner that protects them from self-criticism. illustrates how and at what point this may occur. At the level of the behavior itself, reprehensible behavior may be rendered acceptable by misperceiving it as occurring in the service of a moral cause. Moral justification and euphemistic labeling are often used to avoid self as well as social reproach, and acts that should be deplored can be made palatable by comparing them with flagrant inhumanities. Another set of defensive measures operates by distorting the relationship between an action and its effects. Thus, displacement of responsibility to higher authorities and diffusion of responsibility to a larger group can be used to dissociate oneself from capability by creating the illusion that one is not personally responsible.

A third set of mechanisms for disengaging from self-condemnation functions by distorting the consequences of the act. Thus, we may choose to minimize, Ignore, distort, or otherwise insulate ourselves from what should be apparent detrimental effects of our action. Finally, one may disengage expected self punishing responses by devaluing, dehumanizing, or blaming the victim of an unjust act, thereby excusing the act itself. The existence of social stereotypes facilitates such defensive distortions.

Bandura (1978) suggests that "personal judgments" operate at each stage of self-regulation, thereby precluding "automaticity" of the process." As a consequence, there is "considerable latitude for personal judgmental factors to affect whether or not self-regulatory influences will be activated in any given activity" (1978, p. 355). What he does not explain, however, is the origin, operation, and triggering of those personal judgments. That is, why and when will we choose to disengage ourselves from certain behaviors and not others. is it a question of level of arousal or extremity of the behavior? If so, what determines the threshold for activation? Finally; the reader should note the parallel between these mechanisms for selective disengagement and the defense mechanisms described by Freud and Rogers as well as the safeguarding strategies articulated by Alfred Adler.

6- Applications to Therapy

As might be anticipated from this description of the major principles of social learning theory, Bandura is committed to the view that techniques based on learning theory can be highly effective in modifying undesirable behavior. In fact, Bandura's first book, *Principles* of *behavior modification* (1969), is almost exclusively devoted to a discussion of such techniques, including several novel methods he and his associates have developed for eliminating unrealistic fear reactions (Bandura, 1968; Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1967a; Bandura & Menlove, 1968).

These latter techniques, which grew out of experimental work on modeling and observational learning, assume not only that emotional responses can be acquired by both direct and vicarious experience with traumatic events but also that under the proper circumstances they can be both directly and vicariously *extinguished.* Thus, persons with unrealistic or exaggerated fears should be able to reduce their defensive and emotional reactions by watching a model interact fearlessly with the anxiety-provoking object or event and reduce them still further by practicing the model's behavior in a non-threatening, situation under the latter's guidance. Numerous experiments using various modeling techniques with both children and adults have yielded highly encouraging results. A study performed by Bandura, Blanchard, and Ritter (1969) is of particular interest since It incorporates several features of Wolpe's desensitization techniques into the modeling conditions and also Includes, for purposes of comparison, a conventional desensitization condition. Adolescents and adults suffering from a severe snake phobia were assigned to one of three treatment groups. Members of the desensitization group were presented with a graded series of imaginal

scenes involving snakes while deeply relaxed. In the second group a symbolic modeling condition was used in which the subjects watched a mm showing models in progressively closer interactions with a large snake, also while maintaining a relaxed state. The third group observed a live model perform similar responses with an actual snake. After each of these interactions these latter subjects were asked to perform the same behavior as the model, initially with the model's assistance and later alone.

All subjects were asked to try to perform a graded series of tasks involving snakes both before and after treatment. While control subjects, who were given only these two test series and no intervening treatment, showed essentially no change in their behavior, a marked increase in approach behavior was noted in the desensitization and symbolic modeling groups following treatment. The most successful technique, however, was participant modeling, that is, the one in which subjects were exposed to an actual model and given guided experience in interacting with the phobic object.

7- Research

His research is on aggression and learning of aggressive behavior in children.

8- Summary

1-Social Learning theorists explain behavior in terms of interaction between cognitive, behavioral and environmental determinants. Bandura is a Social Learning theorist.

2-Bandura suggests most human behavior is learned by observation. In Modeling we observe the behavior of others and use the information as a guide for our own behavior.

3- New type of reinforcement, Bandura suggests that "vicarious reinforcement" occurs when an individual witnesses someone else experience reinforcing or punishing consequences for a behavior, and that individual anticipates similar consequences if she or he produces the same behavior.

4- Such observational learning, or modeling, is governed by four constituent processes: attention, retention, production, and motivation.

5- All films, Television dramas and cartoons where heroes or models behave aggressive are teaching observers to be aggressive and violent.

9- Evaluation

His social learning theory emphasizes on the observational learning and the role of modeling in personality development.

Lesson 34

THE STIMULUS RESPONSE THEORY OF DOLLARD AND MILLER

The concept of habit, which represents a stable Stimulus-Response connection (SR), is crucial to this position. In fact, most of the theory is concerned with specifying the conditions under which habits form and are dissolved.

Habit is the key concept in the theory by Dollard and Miller.

A *habit,* we have seen, is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response. Learned associations or habits may be formed not only between external stimuli and overt responses but between internal ones as well. The bulk of their theory is concerned with specifying the conditions under which habits are acquired and extinguished or replaced, with little or no attention given to specifying classes of habits or listing the major varieties of habits that people exhibit.

Core Concepts

1-The Structure of Personality

2- The Dynamics of Personality

3- The Development of Personality

- i- Innate Equipment
- ii- The Learning Process
- iii- Secondary Drive and the Learning Process
- iv- Higher Mental Processes
- v-Critical Stages of Development
- vi-The Social Context

4- Applications of the Model

- i- Unconscious Processes
- ii- Conflict

5- Psychotherapy

6-Research

7-Summary

8-Evaluation

Biographical Sketch

John Dollard was born in Menasha, Wisconsin, on August 29, 1900. He received secured his M.A. (1930) and Ph.D. (1931) in sociology from the University of Chicago. From 1926 until 1929 he served as assistant to the president of the University of Chicago. In 1932 he accepted a position as assistant professor of anthropology at Yale University and in the following year became an assistant professor of sociology in the Institute of Human Relations. In 1935 he became a research associate in the institute and in 1948 a research associate and professor of psychology. He became professor emeritus in 1969.

Neal E. Miller was born in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, on August 3, 1909, and received his B.S. from the University of Washington in 1931. He received his M.A. from Stanford University in 1932 and his Ph.D. in psychology from Yale University in 1935. From 1932 until 1935 he served as an assistant in psychology at the Institute of Human Relations and in 1935-1936 he was a Social Science Research Council traveling fellow during this time he had training in Psychoanalysis at the Vienna Institute.

Both had very different backgrounds Dollard in Sociology and Miller in Experimental Psychology yet they joined efforts in developing a Stimulus –Response Theory or S-R linkage or association.

I .Pavlov (1906-1927) discovered a type of learning that became known as classical conditioning.

Pavlov was able to demonstrate that by simultaneous presentation of Unconditioned Stimulus-US (meat powder) and a Conditioned Stimulus –CS (sound of footsteps or a bell) would elicit.

A response (salivation) which was originally elicited by Unconditioned Stimulus (US). This act of salivating at the sound of the foot steps or bell is called Conditioned Response.

J. Watson proposed that psychology should study behavior using the same types of objective techniques as natural sciences.

His focus was on overt behavior of individual.

E .Thorndike was demonstrating the importance of reward and punishment in the learning process.

Thorndike, Hull, Spence, and Guthrie focused on the learning process as involving the associative linkage between stimulus and response.

Most cognitive processes are actually Stimulus Response association.

Skinner rejected Hull's approach the goal of Skinner's science is to control, prediction and interpretation of behavior.

He gave the concept of Operant Conditioning.

He proposed that organisms can learn complicated behaviors by shaping, using the successive approximations technique.

Successive Approximations Technique

we start reinforcing a behavior that is the first toward final behavior and then gradually reinforce successively closer approximations to the final behavior.

Example: Learning to drive a car or teaching a retarded child how to feed himself.

What is learning?

According to this theory, in the simplest it is the study of the circumstances under which a response and a stimulus (cue) become connected.

When learning is completed the SR are bound together so the appearance of stimulus (cue) evokes the response.

In order to learn:

1- One must want something (drive)

2- Notice something (cue-stimulus)

3- Do something (response)

4- Get something (reward)

Example:

For learning behavior to take place within the subject:

1-One must want something (drive)

2- Notice something (cue-stimulus)

3- Do something (response)

4- Get something (reward)

For a habit to be established the cue-stimulus and response should occur close together not only in space and in time but the response should be rewarded.

1-The Structure of Personality

Dollard and Miller have consistently shown less interest in the structure of personality than in the pro-

cess of learning and personality development. what concepts do they employ to represent the stable and enduring characteristics of the person? Habit is the key concept in the learning theory by Dollard and Miller.

i- A *habit,* we have seen, is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response. Learned associations or habits may be formed not only between external stimuli and overt responses but between internal ones as well.

ii- The bulk of their theory is concerned with specifying the conditions under which habits are acquired and extinguished or replaced, with little or no attention given to specifying classes of habits or listing the major varieties of habits that people exhibit.

2- The Dynamics of Personality

Dollard and Miller are explicit in defining the nature of motivation and they specify in considerable detail the development and elaboration of motives. Instead they have focused on certain salient motives such as anxiety. In their analysis of these they have attempted to illustrate the general process that can be expected to operate for all motives.

In the process of growth the typical individual develops a large number of secondary drives that serve to instigate behavior. "These learned drives are acquired on the basis of the primary drives, represent elaborations of them, and serve as a facade behind which the functions of the underlying innate drives are hidden" (1950, pp. 31-32).

In the typical modern society secondary drive stimulation largely replaces the original function of primary drive stimulation. Acquired drives such as anxiety, shame, and the desire to please impel most of our actions.

It should be obvious also that most of the reinforcements in the ordinary life of human subjects are not primary rewards but originally neutral events that have acquired reward value by virtue of having consistently been experienced in conjunction with primary reinforcement. A mother's smile, for example, becomes a powerful acquired or *secondary reward* for the infant, with its repeated association with feeding, diapering, and other caretaking activities that bring pleasure or remove physical discomfort. Secondary rewards often serve, by themselves, to reinforce behavior. Their capacity to reinforce is not sustained indefinitely, however, unless they continue to occur on occasion in conjunction with primary reinforcement. How these changes take place leads us to the general question of the development of personality."

3-The Development of Personality

The transformation of the simple infant into the complex adult is elaborated by Dollard and Miller.

i- Innate Equipment

ii- The Learning Process

iii- Secondary Drive and the Learning Process

iv- Higher Mental Processes

v-The Social Context

vi-Critical Stages of Development

Lesson 35

THE STIMULUS RESPONSE THEORY OF DOLLARD AND MILLER

The concept of habit, which represents a stable Stimulus-Response connection (SR), is crucial to this position. In fact, most of the theory is concerned with specifying the conditions under which habits form and are dissolved.

Habit is the key concept in the theory by Dollard and Miller.

A *habit,* is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response. Learned associations or habits may be formed not only between external stimuli and overt responses but between internal ones as well. The bulk of their theory is concerned with specifying the conditions under which habits are acquired and extinguished or replaced, with little or no attention given to specifying classes of habits or listing the major varieties of habits that people exhibit.

Core Concepts

1-The Structure of Personality

2- The Dynamics of Personality

3- The Development of Personality

i- Innate Equipment

ii- The Learning Process

iii- Secondary Drive and the Learning Process

iv- Higher Mental Processes

v- Critical Stages of Development

vi- The Social Context

4- Applications of the Model

- Unconscious Processes
- Conflict

5- Psychotherapy

6-Research

7-Summary

8-Evaluation

3- The Development of Personality

The transformation of the simple infant into the complex adult is elaborated by Dollard and Miller.

Innate Equipment

The Learning Process

Secondary Drive and the Learning Process

Higher Mental Processes

The Social Context

Critical Stages of Development

The development of personality includes the following stages

Innate Equipment

The transformation of the simple infant into the complex adult is a matter of little interest to some theorists, but this process is elaborated by Dollard and Miller. We shall present a brief consideration of the innate

equipment of the infant.

First the baby has specific reflexes which are responses to specific stimuli, example its cold the baby would sneeze, if some dust particle gets in the nose the baby would sneeze, if some dust particle gets in eye it would begin to have tears-----a stimulus- response.

Second the baby has a number of innate hierarchies of responses which are tendencies for certain responses to occur / appear in particular stimulus situations, example loud noise and the baby would cry, hungry it would cry, wet or dirty it would cry --- a stimulus- response.

Third the baby posses a set of primary drives which are linked to physiological processes, example all primary motives hunger, rest, sleep--- a stimulus- response

Fourth the extinction and elimination of existing associations between stimuli and responses example such as:

The Learning Process

What is learning?

According to this theory, in the simplest it is the study of the circumstances under which a response and a stimulus (cue) become connected.

When learning is completed the SR are bound together so the appearance of stimulus (cue) evokes the response.

In order to learn:

1- One must want something (drive)

2- Notice something (cue-stimulus)

3- Do something (response)

4- Get something (reward)

Example:

For learning (desired behavior) to take place within the subject

1-One must want something (drive)

2-Notice something (cue-stimulus)

3- Do something (response)

4- Get something (reward)

An exceedingly important part in the learning process must be as signed to *response* factors. As Dollard and Miller point out, before a given response can be linked to a given cue, the response must occur. Thus, a crucial stage in the organism's learning is the production of the appropriate response. In any given situation certain responses will be more likely to appear than others. This order of preference or probability of response, when the situation is first presented is referred to as the *initial hierarchy of responses.* After experience and learning have influenced the individual's behavior in this situation, the derived order of response is labeled the *resultant hierarchy.* These concepts simply remind us that in any environmental setting the potential responses an individual may make have a different probability of occurring and can be ranked in terms of this probability.

Secondary Drive and the Learning Process

We have already seen that the infant is born with a limited range of primary drives that develop into a complex system of secondary drives with growth and experience.

Strong stimuli, such as shock, may elicit intense internal responses, which in turn produce still further internal stimuli. These internal stimuli act as *cues* to guide or control subsequent responses and serve as a *drive* that activates the organism and keeps the person active until reinforcement occurs or some other process, such as fatigue, intervenes. The overt responses that result in reinforcement are the ones that are

learned. (fear and phobia).

A previously neutral cue that has regularly occurred in conjunction with a drive producing stimulus may gain the capacity to elicit some part of the internal responses initially elicited only by the drive. so whenever strong stimuli occur it will responded by fear. secondary drives operate just like primary ones.

These learned internal responses then automatically set off drive stimuli. A secondary drive has been established and will motivate the organism to new learning that leads to reinforcement just as will primary drives.

Higher Mental Processes

The individual's interactions with the environment are of two varieties: those that are direct and guided by a single cue or cue situation and those that are mediated by internal processes. It is the latter class of responses that is of interest here, those mediated by cu*e-producing responses.*

Following Hull, Dollard and Miller distinguish between responses that are instrumental, possess some immediate effect upon the environment, and those that are cue-producing, whose main function is to mediate or lead the way to another response.

One of the most important cue producing responses is labeling or naming of events and experiences. The individual may generalize or transfer between two or more cue situations by identifying them as having the same label for example a person may identify two different situations as going to America or taking an examination as "threatening"

The ability to use language and other response –produced cues is greatly influenced by culture and society in which an individual develops so theorists say that "people receive an enormous amount of social training in putting words and sentences together in ways that lead to adaptive solution of problems". Obviously, language is involved in most cue-producing responses although it need not be spoken language.

Critical Stages of Development

Dollard and Miller assume that unconscious conflict, learned for the most part during infancy and childhood, serves as the basis for most severe emotional problems in later life. They agree with psychoanalytic theorists in considering experiences of the first half dozen years of life crucial determinants of adult behavior.

The Social Context

It is important to realize that neurotic conflict is not only learned by the child but it is learned primarily as a result of conditions created by the parent. This unfortunate capacity of the parent for impairing the child's development stems in part from the fact that cultural prescriptions concerning the child are contradictory or discontinuous and in part from the fact that the child during infancy is not well equipped to cope with complex learning demands even if they are consistent. Thus, society demands that the child learn to be aggressive in some situations and submissive in other very similar situations, a difficult discrimination at best. Worst of all, this demand may be made at a time when the child does not have at its command all the symbolic functions contributed by language so that such discriminations may simply overreach its learning capacity with resultant frustration and emotional upheaval. A similar set of overwhelming conditions may occur in adulthood under exceptional circumstances such as war. As might be expected, such conditions frequently lead to neurosis.

4- Applications of the Model

i--Unconscious Processes

We have observed that Dollard and Miller represent language as playing a crucial role in human development. In view of this, it is quite natural that those determinants of behavior that include language, or are unconscious, should play a key role in behavioral disturbances. The theory is quite consistent with psychoanalytic formulations in accepting unconscious factors as important determinants of behavior; however, the account offered by Dollard and Miller of the origin of these unconscious processes shows little similarity to the Freudian version.

ii--Conflict

No human being operates so effectively that all of his tendencies are congruent and well-integrated. Consequently, all personality theories must deal directly or indirectly with the problems posed for the organism by conflicting motives or tendencies. Conflict behavior is represented by Miller and Dollard in terms of five basic assumptions that are extensions of the principles we have already discussed.

They assume *first* that the tendency to approach a goal becomes stronger the nearer the individual is to the goal and this is referred to as the gradient of *approach. Second,* they assume that the tendency to avoid a negative stimulus becomes stronger the nearer the individual is to the stimulus and this is referred to as the *gradient of avoidance.* These assumptions can be derived primarily from the principle of stimulus generalization, which we have already described. The *third* assumption is that the gradient of avoidance is steeper than the gradient of approach. This implies that the rate at which avoidance tendencies increase with approach to the goal is greater than the rate at which approach tendencies increase under the same conditions. *Fourth,* it is assumed that an increase in the drive associated with the approach or avoidance will raise the general level of the gradient. Thus, there will still be an increase in the strength of approach or avoidance as the goal is approached but these tendencies will now have a greater strength at each stage of approach. *Fifth,* it is assumed that when there are two competing responses the stronger will occur. Given these assumptions, in addition to the concepts we have already discussed, Miller and Dollard are able to derive predictions concerning the manner in which an individual faced with the various types of conflict will respond.

One of the most important types of conflict is concerned with the opposition between approach and a voidance tendencies aroused simultaneously by the same object or situation; let us say that a young man is strongly attracted to a woman and yet finds himself embarrassed and uncomfortable (afraid) in her presence.

A second type of conflict is encountered when the individual is faced with two competing avoidance responses. For example, a small boy may be afraid to climb and at the same time wish to avoid being called a coward by his playmates. Thus, the nearer he comes to the one goal (the higher he climbs), the stronger the avoidance response and the more likely he will be to retreat. However, as he retreats he comes closer to the other goal (being called a coward) and the second avoidance response increases while the first decreases. Thus, the individual should show vacillation, turning first from one goal and then from the other.

How Neurosis is Learned

according to stimulus response theory neurosis or neurotic conflicts are taught by parents and learned by children, four critical learning situations that are feeding situation, toilet training , sex education and training to control aggression are usually mishandled by parents that develops anxiety and guilt in child which continues in adult life. It is called Neurotic conflict.

5- Psychotherapy

Dollard and Miller are concerned not only with the development of neuroses but also with their treatment. The essence of their approach to psychotherapy is straightforward.

The Process Therapy

The actual therapeutic procedures that Dollard and Miller advocate are quite traditional.

The therapist should be a sympathetic, permissive listener who encourages the patient to express all his or her feelings and to free associate.

Whatever the patient's thoughts, the therapist remains non-punitive and tries to help the patient understand these feelings and how they developed.

These are all stimulus response connections that have taken place and person must understand it.

6- Characteristic Research and Research Methods

Miller and Dollard have reported a considerable quantity of investigation that illustrates or tests derivations from their theoretical position. In their volume *Social leaning and imitation* (1941) a number of studies on human and lower animal subjects are summarized that represent attempts to confirm predictions derived

from their theory. Miller, as we have mentioned, has conducted a number of experimental studies relevant to various aspects of the theory and has prepared several extensive summaries of them (1944, 1951 a, 1959).

A huge cluster of studies on animals in laboratory that deal with the concept of displacement or stimulus generalization. These investigations provide experimental evidence for the operation stimulus – response.

7- Summary

i-In fact, most of the theory is concerned with specifying the conditions under which habits form and are dissolved.

Habit is the key concept in the theory by Dollard and Miller.

A *habit,* we have seen, is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response. Learned associations or habits may be formed not only between external stimuli and overt responses but between internal ones as well.

Thus, a crucial stage in the organism's learning is the production of the appropriate response. In any given situation certain responses will be more likely to appear than others. This order of preference or probability of response, when the situation is first presented is referred to as the *initial hierarchy of responses.* If this initial hierarchy appears to have occurred m the absence of any learning It may be referred to as the *innate hierarchy of responses,* which we have already mentioned as part of the primitive equipment of the individual. After experience and learning have influenced the individual's behavior in this situation, the derived order of response is labeled the *resultant hierarchy.*

8- Evaluation

i- This personality theory is most elegant, most economical, and shows the closest link to natural science.

ii- Stimulus-response (S-R) theory can accurately be labeled a laboratory theory in contrast to other theories with which we have dealt where the role of clinical or naturalistic observation has been much more important.

Lesson 36

SKINNER'S THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Radical Behaviorism is the brand of Psychology that is practically synonymous with Skinner's name.

Skinner's Radical Behaviorism

He rejected the use of inner states such as anxiety as the explanation of our overt / observable behavior.

Example: You are not comfortable at social gatherings, you are invited to a party so you prepare yourself for the party you begin to feel nervous, tense, so you stay at home so you avoided the party because you are anxious. For Skinner such an explanation is incorrect. The behavior does not change because you feel anxious. It changes because of the aversive contingencies which generate the condition felt as anxiety which is the inner cause

Example: You rush in to a building which is on fire to save people from dying alive , it is not because you are heroic or supreme but because you have a history of exposure to reinforcements in similar situations.

Behaviorism is a school of thought that focuses on the idea that all behavior is learned.

Behavior is basically overt and observable.

It is an association between stimulus and response.

Stimulus and response behavior is respondent or classical conditioning.

Core Concepts

Biographical Sketch

Classical Conditioning

Operant Conditioning

Schedules of Reinforcement

Techniques of Treatments

Applications

Summary

Evaluation

Biographical Sketch

The son of a small-town lawyer, Skinner was born in 1904 and raised in small town Pennsylvania, in a warm and stable family setting. It is interesting to note the inventor of the "Skinner box," the "baby box," and various teaching machines observe in regard to his childhood:

"I was always building things. I built roller-skate scooters, steer able wagons, sleds, and rafts to be poled about on shallow ponds. I made seesaws, merry-go-rounds, and slides. I made slingshots, bows and arrows, blow guns and water pistols from bamboo, and from a discarded water boiler a steam cannon with which I could shoot plugs of potato and carrot over the houses of our neighbors. I made tops, model airplanes driven by twisted rubber bands, box kites, and tin propellers which could be sent high into the air with a spool-and-string spinner. I tried again and again to make a glider in which I myself might fly."

As an undergraduate he attended Hamilton College, where he majored in English and determined to become a writer. Encouraged in various ways, including a letter from Robert Frost appraising three of Skinner's short stories, he decided to spend a year or two in full-time literary endeavor, while living at home. This period turned out to be relatively unproductive, and following a brief interval in Greenwich Village and Europe he gave up writing and turned to Harvard and psychology.

Although Skinner abandoned a career in creative writing, he did not give up his interest in literature, as a number of his subsequent articles testify (Skinner, 1961).

At this time Harvard was an stimulating setting for a young psychologist. Skinner had significant encounters with E. G. Boring, Carroll Pratt, and Henry A. Murray.

Skinner received his Ph.D., in 1931 and spent five postdoctoral years working in laboratory at Harvard.

His first academic position was at the University of Minnesota where he moved in 1936. The nine subsequent years at Minnesota were remarkably productive and established Skinner as one of the major experimental psychologists of his time. During this period of intense scientific activity he found time to begin a novel, Walden -II (1948), which described the evolution of an experimental society based on psychological principles.

Skinner was accorded many honors including the Distinguished Scientific Award of the American Psychological Association, membership in the National Academy of Sciences, the Gold Medal Award of the American Psychological Foundation, serving as the William James Lecturer at Harvard, and received the presidents Medal of science.

B. F. Skinner died of leukemia on August 18, 1990, only eight days after receiving the award of the American psychological Association for outstanding Lifetime Contribution to psychology.

Books

1-Walden-II

2-The behavior of organisms (1938),

3-science and human behavior (1953)

4-Verbal behavior (1957),

a collection of papers entitled Cumulative record (1961).

6-The technology of teaching (1968) detailed his approach to learning in the school setting.

7-Contingencies of reinforcement (1969)

(Beyond freedom and dignity (1971), probably his most controversial book.)

9-Skinner published a three-volume autobiography (1976, 1979, and 1983b)

Classical Conditioning

It is credited primarily to two early leaders in the study of behavioral modification, I. P. Pavlov and Watson.

Pavlov discovered the principle at reinforcement as it applies to classical conditioning. It can be illustrated with a famous example. Suppose that on a number of occasions a bell is sounded in the presence of a hungry dog, and suppose that on each of these occasions the sound of a bell is immediately followed by the presentation of meat to the dog.

What do we observe?

On each presentation of the bell-and-meat combination the dog salivates. But at first the dog salivates only when the meat is presented and not before. Thus the presentation of the meat is a reinforcing operation. It strengthens the likelihood that the salivary response will occur when the bell is sounded on a later occasion. Furthermore, because its presentation increases the chances of salivation, it is classified as a positive reinforcer.

Conditioning is most effectively carried out when the reinforcement follows the conditioned stimulus, regardless of whether the response has occurred or not.

Reinforcement is reward which can be:

1- Material or Symbolic

2- Positive or Negative

Stimulus – response connection is similar to Dollard and Miller theory.

Our last personality theory was the one which focused on it as well.

See the connection between them.

Following the development of a strong conditioned response, an experimenter might wish to see what happens when the conditioned stimulus is consistently presented without its being followed by the reinforcing stimulus. In the example outlined above the bell would be sounded but no meat would follow.

Extinction is *the decrease in responding that occurs when the reinforcement following the response no longer occurs.*

Classical conditioning begins with S-R associations.

In his experiment Pavlov used the S-R association between food and salivation.

He presented hungry dogs with meat powder (stimulus) and they salivated (response) please note this S-R association existed without any conditioning from Pavlov

So meat powder is unconditioned stimulus (UCS) and the salivation is unconditioned response (UCR)

In the second step of the experiment Pavlov paired unconditioned stimulus (UCS) say meat with conditioned (CS) bell

In the third step the UCS meat was presented with CS bell on a number of occasions –salivation took place.

In the fourth step CS bell was sounded and the dog salivated so conditioning or S-R connection between bell and salivation has been established.

Once when one S-R condition or association has been established it can be used to establish another S-R association

For example with the Pavlov‘s bell if you pair a green light with it and present it on number of trials the dog will salivate when ever green light is presented.

This process of building one conditioned S-R association on another is called second- order- conditioning.

Once when one S-R condition or association has been established it can be used to establish another S-R association

For example with the Pavlov‘s bell if you pair a green light with it and present it on number of trials the dog will salivate when ever green light is presented.

This process of building one conditioned S-R association on another is called second- order- conditioning.

Example:

You see a spider (stimulus) and jump and run away (response).

You see an injured man bleeding (stimulus) and feel that you might faint (response).

Research suggests that you are not aware of the many S-R associations that influence your behavior.

Your preferences for food, clothing and music, books and friends are determined by S-R associations.

Operant Conditioning

The other type of learning, which was first systematically investigated by Thorndike, is called instrumental or *operant* conditioning.

Skinner noted that there are some responses that, such as painting a picture or crossing a street. These responses seem to be spontaneous and voluntary.

Skinners use of the term "operant."

An operant is a response that operates on the environment and changes it. The change in the environment affects the subsequent occurrence of the response.

when an operant response is conditioned, it is essential that the reinforcer be presented *after* the occurrence of the response. Only in this way does the frequency of the response increase.

Thorndike put hungry cats in puzzle boxes and to escape from the puzzle boxes thereby to receive a piece of meat or fish they had to perform a series of actions .

The cats soon learned what they had to do in order to get reward.

These finding helped Thorndike formulate his Law of Effect

1- That behaviors more likely to repeated that lead to satisfying consequences-when behaviors are rewarded they are reinforced

2- That behaviors are less likely to repeated if they lead to unsatisfying consequences -when behaviors are punished they are not reinforced

So rewards and punishments mold the behaviors of animals as well as humans

Teachers, judges and employers rely on connection between actions and consequences to shape behavior.

The technique of shaping or successive approximations will be discussed later in detail.

Operant conditioning is concerned with effect of certain kinds of consequences on the frequency of behavior.

A consequence that increases the frequency of a behavior is called reinforcement.

A consequence that decreases the frequency of a behavior is called punishment.

Example

you are hungry an ice-cream can be a reinforcement .

But if you have common cold or you do not like ice cream it can be punishment.

Lesson 37

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It is an association between stimulus and response.

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Core Concepts

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Operant Conditioning

Schedules of Reinforcement

Techniques of Treatments

Applications

Summary

Evaluation

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for increasing the frequency of behavior

1- Positive reinforcement the behavior increases because it is followed by reward

2- The frequency of a behavior can increase with the negative reinforcement or with the removal or lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

Positive Reinforcement

A student works hard and gets an "A" on a test this behavior will increase it will be followed by working hard for all tests

The hungry rat learns to press the bar to get a food pellet and the frequency of this behavior increase with the positive reinforcement that is food pellet.

The rat that can turn off an electric shock by pulling a string will quickly learn to pull the string frequency of this behavior will increase with the lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

People with severe headaches learn that when they take rest they are relaxed and their headaches are gone - the frequency of a behavior can increase with the lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

Let us take a very simple example of operant conditioning. We can teach a child to ask for candy frequently by giving candy whenever it asks for candy. We positively reinforce the response of asking for candy. We can also extinguish the response of asking for candy by simply not presenting the candy when the child asks for it. We then find that the frequency of occurrence of asking for candy declines.

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for decreasing the frequency of undesired behavior:

1-Extinction is where we stop the reinforcement and the behavior will be extinguished.

2- Punishment

The frequency of behavior is reduced when it is followed by an aversive stimulus.

Examples (Extinction)

A teacher might send the disruptive child out of the class into the hall for discipline

Example (Punishment)

The student who gets a D grade has to attend summer school and no vacations or his favorite toys are taken away.

There is another way that we can reduce the occurrence of the response. When the child asks for candy, we can punish it by slapping it.

When we perform an operation like this, of adding something to the situation that reduces the probability of responding, we have punished the response.

A *punishing stimulus* is an aversive stimulus, which, when occurring after an operant response, decreases the future likelihood of that response. It is important to note that a punishment is not the same as a negative reinforcer.

Reinforcement increases the likelihood of occurrence of a behavior with which it is paired, and a punishment decreases the likelihood of a behavior.

A behavior can be reinforced by the removal of an aversive stimulus, however, in which case we refer to a negative reinforcer.

For example, a parent might reinforce a child for receiving good grades by excusing the child from doing the dishes. Similarly, a person with a phobic fear of snakes reinforces the avoidance response by turning away whenever a snake is encountered, thereby eliminating the aversive fear triggered by the snake. These are both examples of negative reinforcement.

When behavior is reinforced it may generalize to other behavior as well.

Generalization

Examples

1- A child is praised for performing well on a psychology test, then he may generalize this behavior to other subjects.

2- By learning how to deal with one angry problematic student, teacher learns how to deal with the same student in different situations and with different students with the same angry attitude.

Discrimination

It is important to discriminate among stimuli, situations, events and persons.

Example

“You look nice today.”

You has said it and in what tone of voice

Is it a friend or an enemy, either with love or with sarcastic tone.

schedules of reinforcement

What are schedules of reinforcement ?

Skinner demonstrated that particular patterns (schedules) of reinforcement lead to changes in both rate of responding and extinction.

1- If reinforcement is presented on each occasion this is referred to as a *continuous reinforcement* schedule.

Every time the desired response is made it is reinforced

Every time a good grade is achieved it is rewarded.

2-If the reinforcement is contingent on an interval of time, it is referred to as *interval reinforcement;*

3-if this interval is unchanging (e.g. every five or ten minutes), we have a *fixed-interval* reinforcement schedule. Instead of providing reinforcement following a constant interval of time,

4- The investigator may wish to reinforce according to an intermittent or *variable-interval* schedule. Here, although the reinforcement may be available on the average at five minute intervals, the actual interval will vary randomly around this average.

5- A *ratio reinforcement* schedule here the reinforcement is determined by the number of responses that have been emitted since the last reinforcement.

6- It is a simple only every tenth response is reinforced or every twentieth or any other number. This would be referred to as *fixed-ratio* reinforcement.

On some trials the reward might follow the second or third response while on others it would follow the seventh or eighth. This would be called a *variable ratio* schedule.

These ratio schedules are analogous to the situation of a piece worker or person working on a commission where the payoff depends only on the efficiency and effort of the worker.

A variable-ratio schedule is at the heart of all gambling systems and devices.

Methods of treatments based on Operant Conditioning

- Shaping
- Successive Approximations
- Aversive Conditioning
- Assertion Training
- Behavior Modification
- Token Economy

1- Shaping or Successive Approximations Technique

We start reinforcing a behavior that is the first toward final behavior and then gradually reinforce successively closer approximations to the final behavior.

Example

Learning to drive a car.

Teaching a retarded child how to feed himself.

This method is useful when teaching complex behaviors such as reading behavior in children

Children will enjoy reading if each step along the way is reinforced. If learning the alphabet, letter sounds and short words is difficult and unpleasant, it is unlikely that the child will move on to reading sentences and stories.

Example

You are hired to work with patients at a hospital your job is to get the reluctant psychiatric patients involved in some activities in the ward.

You start with one patient your goal is get the patient into daily art therapy sessions

Positive reinforcement is the way to do it.

Every time the patient comes near the therapy room he is praised.

When he enters the class he appreciated.

He is given small assignment and he is encouraged to do it.

Once these behaviors are established he will be reinforced only when he comes to class, takes the class and gets involved in the art therapy.

Systematic desensitization is a technique given by Joseph Wolpe.

It is used in treatment of phobias and anxiety; it is based on classical conditioning.

First the client is relaxed and then a hierarchy is made of the fear producing stimulus

Now pair the relaxation with the fear producing stimulus and at each step the client has to relaxed otherwise the technique does not work

Now begin from stimulus of lowest intensity ant then gradually move on

Suppose you afraid of lizards:

- Show pictures of lizards
- Show movies of lizards
- Go to person who lizards as pets
- Touch lizards with gloves
- Then without gloves

Aversive Conditioning

This technique is used with drug addicts when something is added in the drink or drug that they take which causes nausea, vomiting, sweating etc and it leads to decrease in the probability of the response

This technique is used with children when soap is rubbed on the tongue and the mouth is taped and the child is punished for using bad language.

Assertion Training

Teaching an individual to say no in a polite manner. To unjust demands that people such as colleagues, boss or friends constantly make.

Behavior Modification- it is technique based on skinner's work where

An undesirable behavior is to be replaced by a desirable behavior by using reinforcement. Such behaviors as addictions, shy and timid behavior, autism, even schizophrenia – and works with retarded children.

Token Economy

Institutions such as mental hospitals, prisons and institutions for special children demand that when individuals behave in desirable manner such as getting up in time, taking breakfast, medicines, taking a bath, making one's bed get a reward with tokens – tickets, money, but failure to perform the desirable behavior also results in withdrawal of the tokens. The tokens can be exchanged for candy, cigarettes, games, movies, time out of the institution.

Applications

1- Skinner's ideas have been used in education through:

Programmed Learning

Teaching Machines

Schools should control behavior positively instead of negatively.

2-His ideas are being used in the modification of personal behavior.

3-The treatment and care of mentally retarded children

4-His ideas are used in prison reforms.

5-His ideas are used in helping drug addicts

Summary

1- Skinner's theory does more than explain personality; it specifies the principles by which personality can be changed.

2- Behavior is under the control of reinforcement contingencies or schedules of reinforcement so if you change these contingencies or schedules of reinforcement you change behavior.

3- Skinner focused on overt behavior and not internal mental or physiological behavior.

So the attention is on observable behavior of the individual and not on covert or physiological.

4- Skinner focuses on two categories of behavior:

- Classical or respondent behavior

  (Main work by Pavlov, Watson)
- Instrumental or operant behavior

  (Thorndike, Skinner)

5- Skinner claims happiness as a by product of operant reinforcement

The things that bring happiness are the ones that reinforce us.

Good health, true respect by all, quality work, Status, money, power; the things that reinforce happiness.

1-Classical or Respondent Conditioning

It occurs when a new stimulus is paired with an existing stimulus –response bond.

2-Instrumental or Operant Conditioning

It occurs when a behavior is followed by either a reward or punishment.

For Skinner personality develops from the organism's behavioral Interaction with the environment.

A key concept within his system is the principle of reinforcement

Skinner's theory is labeled as ***operant reinforcement theory.***

Methods of treatments based on Operant Conditioning:

1- Shaping (Successive Approximations)

2- Aversive Conditioning

3-Assertion Training

4- Behavior Modification

5- Token Economy

Lesson 38

ALBERT ELLIS THEORY OF PERSONALITY

People have many irrational beliefs such as:

1- Black cat should not come your way

2-Number 13 is bad something horrible will happen

3-Broken mirror is a sign of bad luck

Examples

At every cost I should win the Ladies club membership

I must please my boss

I am to be blamed for my failure

Albert Ellis is of the view that irrational beliefs are basis of all of our maladjustments.

These irrational beliefs are learned through socialization from

Parents, teachers, peers, friends, religious, political leaders, books, films, media etc.

Ellis thinks that stressful life events referred as activating events (A), do not cause emotional disturbance or consequence or psychopathology (C) such as depression or anxiety, instead it is the irrational beliefs (B) or unrealistic interpretations or superstitions that lead to depression or anxiety.

Ellis says when we experience an unpleasant event or negative event we engage in a series of negative interpretations

Example

I have failed in my midterm examination

(Irrational or illogical reasoning)

I am dumb and stupid

I will never be able to pass my final term

I am not worthy of being in this university

(Rational or logical reasoning)

I was sick

I was not able to work hard

I must make sure to study hard for my final term

Core Concept

Biographical Sketch

Ellis's views related to human nature

Theory of Personality

A-B-C Theory of Personality

Irrational Beliefs

REBT Therapeutic Process

Techniques of REBT

Goals of REBT

Applications of REBT

Summary

Evaluation

Biographical Sketch

He was born in 1913 in Pittsburgh and grew up in New York; he did his MA and PH.D from Columbia University. He was eldest of the three children and he was hospitalized nine times for kidney problem.

He developed a pattern of taking care of himself and being self responsible.

Making his own breakfast, lunch and getting to school by himself were the attributes he had. His father was a businessman so he was away from home most of the time and his mother was not concerned about the family.

He practiced Psychoanalysis from1947-1953 but he was not satisfied with it

He saw that his clients were never symptom free, so he developed REBT

Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy and began using it by 1950's

He invented the A-B-C model which is applied to the understanding of personality and factors that effect personality change.

According to Ellis individuals respond to an activating event A with emotional and behavioral consequences C now the C is not being caused by A but by the individual's belief system B

Ellis has written some 725 articles and 60 books.

1- Reason and Emotion in Psychotherapy (1962)

2- The Rational Emotive Approach (1973)

3- A New Guide Rational Living (1997)

In 1959 he founded the Rational Motive Therapy Institute as a nonprofit educational foundation to train professionals and to spread self help applications to public.

Even at a ripe age of 80 he conducted sessions with individual and group clients,

Gave talks and conducted workshops on REBT.

Ellis's View of Human Nature

Humans have potential for both rationality (straight, positive thinking)

We can be happy, positive, loving, self preserving and self actualizing

Irrationality (crooked thinking)

We can 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

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.

4- Humans through constant self talk, self evaluation and self assessment 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

People are unique and they have potential to change

They have power to understand their limitations

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.

Biological Factors

The individuals have innate tendencies to react to events in certain ways by damning themselves when they do not get what they want

Example

I am a failure; I never get what I want

Now study every event of your life with this tendency

Certain severe mental disturbance can be partly inherited and have strong biological component such as Schizophrenia that inhibits thinking logically.

Social Factors

Social factors such as interpersonal relationships in families, peer groups, schools (teachers and friends) have an impact on the expectations that individuals have of themselves and others.

When individuals are accepted by others they feel worthwhile, dependable

But when they are criticized they feel bad, worthless and negative.

A-B-C Theory of Personality

1-The Rational Emotive Behavior A-B-C Theory Personality

A- Refers to an activating event

B- Refers to the belief system of the individual

C- To the consequence

Now in this A-B-C model of Personality quite later Ellis's added D and the E component as well so it is A-B-C-D-E

Where D refers to Disputing or debating or challenging the irrational beliefs

E refers to the Effect or impact of the debate on minimizing irrationality in one's attitude.

Example

Ameren 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 consequence she decides to become a Psychologist (consequence-C)

Example

4-D

Now Dispute part consists of three sections detecting, discriminating and debating

The therapist helps Reemit to detect, discriminate and debate her irrational belief.

5- E

The new effective philosophy can bring about more positive and productive behaviors where Reema is no longer depressed and do not feels worthless rather takes a new approach to work hard and take up her studies

Irrational Beliefs

Emotional Disturbance

Examples

I have failed in my role as an employee

I should be a good teacher like my father

I do not like my behavior with my employees

At every cost I should win the club membership

I must control my anger

I must please my boss

I should fulfill my promise with my students

I am to be blamed for my failure

(Many more)

See the focus on must, should, blame and failure

These sentences are framed by us we keep repeating them to our selves

We internalize them and we hang on

The result is that we develop a set of emotions which are irrational, illogical and

We develop neurosis and psychosis

Depression, loss of self worth, hurt and hatred

Some of the main irrational ideas that lead to self defeat and feelings of worthlessness are following:

1- We must have love from all people

2- We must be always competent, adequate and achieving

3- When people do not behave according to our own liking we should blame hem and see them as wicked, bad and rotten.

4- We should see things as catastrophic when we are treated unfairly or rejected or frustrated

5- Emotional misery is part of external world and we have no control over it (we can just cry over it)

6- Things which appear fearsome or dangerous we should perceive them as very dangerous and should be anxious about them

7- It is difficult to undertake responsibilities in life it is more rewarding to avoid them

8- Our past is important, it determines our present and it keeps determining our current behavior (you have no control on yourself)

9- We should find perfect solutions to our problems

10- We can maximize happiness by remaining inactive and enjoy life

11- People and things should turnout the way I want them to be otherwise it is horrible.

12- My worth and self acceptance depend on my performance and degree of approval given to me by people.

These illogical, irrational, mistaken, Dogmatic, unchallenging beliefs Pushes or emotes or acts as defeating for the person.

We must learn to stop blaming ourselves.

The imperfections that one has to accept them and come out of the trap of irrationality and self blame and self condemnation

All these irrational views are related with:

About the self or

About others or

About the world

Make a list of irrational beliefs your parents, teachers and friends think you possess.

REBT Therapeutic Process

The Therapeutic Process:

1- Develop rapport with the client

2- Point a few irrational ideas of the client

3- Demonstrate to the client the illogical nature of his ideas

4- Challenge the client to validate his illogical ideas

5- Use humor to confront client's beliefs

6- Replace irrational ideas with rational ones

7- Use cognitive, emotional or behavioral techniques to help the client

Techniques of REBT

REBT is an effective therapy that focuses on changing individual's irrational and dogmatic cognitions by using technique

Which are of three types?

- Cognitive Methods
- Behavioral Methods
- Emotional Methods

Cognitive Methods

REBT says that an individual has a set of negative, irrational and disturbing set of self statements which he has to dispute, debate, and challenge, interpret and explain.

At times the therapist even uses techniques of:

1-Disputing of Irrational Beliefs

2-Cognitive Homework

3-Changing One's Language (should and must)

Behavioral Methods

Behavior therapy includes techniques such as Self Management, Systematic Desensitization, Biofeedback, Modeling, and Behavioral Homework.

Clients actually perform or act difficult things in real life so that they have insights in form of concrete actions.

Emotional Methods

Clients are not provided with sympathy nor are their long tales of woes encouraged

1-Rational Emotive Imagery (inappropriate feelings are changed by imagery)

2-Role playing (shy or fearful role)

Goals of REBT

1- Minimize client's self defeating, irrational outlook and acquire realistic ideology of life

2- Create self interest, social interest, self direction, tolerance, flexibility, commitment, acceptance of uncertainty.

Applications of REBT

1- It can applied to treatment of anxiety, hostility, depression, marital problems, child rearing,

2- Self management, social skills training

Summary

Albert Ellis is of the view that irrational beliefs are basis of all of our maladjustments.

All neurotic and psychotic disorders are the result of one's irrationality.

Once these irrational thoughts are developed an individuals repeats them again and again and lives on them.

He uses the A-B-C -D-E model to study and modify irrational beliefs of an individual.

Evaluation

A theory which is scientifically attacks the irrational or superstitious behavior of an individual

Considers that innately we are rational it is socialization that makes us irrational

Lesson 39

THE GRAND PERFECT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

1- Is there a perfect theory of personality?

2- Can a single theory answer all the relevant questions related to personality domain?

3- All the theories that we have studied which one is the best?

4- Which theory can we trust the most as a student of personality psychology?

We began by defining personality psychology, discussed personality measurement, then briefly we talked about the approaches or perspectives in personality psychology and we discussed the major theories of personality related to each and every area or domain or perspective.

After studying some of the most important Personality theories beginning from Freud, Jung, Adler, Karen Horney, Eric Erikson, Sullivan, Sheldon, All port, Murray, Maslow, Rogers, Dollard and Miller, Albert Ellis, Bandura and Skinner.

My students ask the following questions.

1- Is there a perfect theory of personality?

No there is no perfect theory of personality.

2- Can a single theory answer all the relevant questions related to personality domain?

No single theory can fully answer all the relevant questions related to personality domain or human nature.

3- All the theories that we have studied which one is the best?

All the theories that we have studied

We can not label one as the best and the others as bad or incomplete. Each theory has emphasis on one or another important thing related to human nature.

4- Which theory can we trust as the most representative of human nature?

One cannot blindly trust a single theory of personality to be representative of human behavior.

Is there a grand ultimate or a true theory of personality?

NO

Dear students a good theory of personality is one that fulfills three purposes in science

1- Provides a guideline to researchers

2- Organizes the known available findings

3- Makes predictions

1- Provide a Guideline to Researchers

Now as far as the first one is concerned theories serve as guideline or a map for researchers in directing them to important questions in the area of personality psychology.

2- Organizes the Known Findings

A useful function of a theory is to organize known findings.

In physics the theory of Gravity accounts for the facts such as why objects fall down on the earth and not remain suspended in the air or when we walk we press the ground and the force of the earth pushes us forward and in Biology the theory of evolution is the one that accounts for organizing the known facts, but in Personality we lack a theory which can account for the most of known facts of human nature.

May be Freud's theory or Maslow's theory or Allport's theory

Actually these theories point to different domains or perspectives or schools of psychology.

All the theories of personality are quite different, or that they belong to a different perspective but they try to answer questions related to the following areas

i) Genes
ii) Stages of Development
iii) Motivation
iv) Learning
v) Perception
vi) Traits
vii) Emotions
viii) Temperament and Body Types
ix) Neurosis
x) Disorders and Therapies
xi) Conscious and Unconscious
xii) Therapy
xiii) Defense Mechanisms

1- Genes and Biology

All theories of personality endorse the important role of genes and heredity in personality development. In the past there was an emphasis on whether its genes which are important or is it environment which is important the nature –nurtance controversy is now over today we know that both (genes and environment) contribute equally in personality development.

2-Stages of Development

Stages of development, as given in the theories of Freud, Jung and Erikson

3-Motivation

Motivation is central to most theories of personality.

First the biological motives need for air, water, food, pain and heat/ cold avoidance.

Second there are the social motives which develop on the biological motives, especially self-esteem that is based on such approval and self actualization.

4-Learning

Dollard and Miller's Stimulus Response learning theories as well as Skinner, Thorndike, Pavlov's and Watson who say that individual learns from his environment.

Social learning includes imitation and modeling. This kind of learning is probably significant and vital for the development of personality as advocated by Bandura.

5- Perception

Kelly, Rogers and Maslow emphasize on the fact that the way an individual perceives reality is the basis of individual differences or uniqueness of people.

6- Traits

- Allport (Cardinal Traits, Central Traits) and Cattle (Unique, Common, Surface, Source traits) focus on the traits that an individual posses
- A trait is a predisposition or way to respond in a manner to various kinds of stimuli.
- or Mental Structure.

7- Emotions

Emotions or feelings of anxiety, fear, guilt, shame, grief, depression, anger, sadness, aggression, and hostility are some of the key emotional states that the personality psychologists are concerned with and they work on these emotions.

Freud was interested in anxiety, hostility, and aggression where as the humanistic are concerned with anger and hostility management.

The behaviorists focus on learning of faulty and negative emotions and their modification.

8- Temperament and Body Types

(William Sheldon)

Sheldon correlated specific body type with a specific temperament

i. Ectomorphs: Slender, lean and tall with a mean, miserly temperament

ii. Mesomorphs: Muscular well build with an adventurous temperament.

iii. Endomorphs: Fat and plumb people who are happy go lucky type temperament.

9- Neurosis

According Karen Horney a child with loving parents, peers, and teachers may help the child to overcome abuse, neglect, sickness, parent's death, divorce or to cope with insecurity and basic anxiety.

Adler and Rogers considers unconditional positive regard, need for positive regard, love, approval, respect, attention essential for healthy growth and development otherwise it leaves the child with low self-esteem.

10- Consciousness and the Unconscious

Freud's

He talked about:

1- Conscious
2- Preconscious or Subconscious
3- Unconscious

Jung's

1- Personal Unconscious
2- Collective Unconscious

Archetypes

11- Therapy

It is somewhat surprising that, for all the variation in theories, there is considerable agreement regarding the concept of psychotherapy

12- Defense Mechanism

According to Anna Freud all

(1) They operate an on unconscious level and are therefore self-deceptive

(2) They distort one's perception of reality, so as to make anxiety less threatening to the individual

(3) They protect the ego

We can list a large number of defense mechanisms, as given by Freud or Karen Horney to defend the ego such as projection, displacement, rationalization, regression, blind spots, and cynicism.

An ultimate theory of personality is not possible in personality psychology which is still a developing science and it is not as scientific as biology, physics or chemistry.

Lesson 40

PERSPECTIVES OR DOMAINS OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

Let us have a detailed discussion about the different domains of psychology.

Personality can be approached or studied Using the six perspectives or domains.

1- Dispositional

2- Biological

3- Intra-psychic

4- Cognitive / Experiential

5- Social and Cultural

6- Adjustment

Dear students we have covered at least two to three personality theories related to each of the perspectives.

1- Dispositional

2- Biological

3- Intra-psychic

4- Cognitive/ Experiential

5- Social and Cultural

6- Adjustment

An outline of all the perspectives

1- Dispositional

It deals centrally with the ways in which individuals differ from one another.

This domain cuts across all other domains

It tries to explore how individuals differ in their emotions, self concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their intra-psychic mechanisms

The ways in which individuals A and B differs from one another.

They differ in their feelings, emotions, and self concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their intra-psychic mechanisms (traits, conscious, unconscious, id, ego, super ego)

Example 1

Individual A

Shy, timid, reserved, loves to stay at home; he is calm and less talkative.

Individual B

Bold, outgoing, loves to go to parties,

He is moody, reactive and talkative.

Example 2

Individual A

Hardworking, honest and completes his assignments in time.

Individual B

Lazy, he is rarely honest and never completes his assignments in time.

2-Biological

Humans are first and foremost collections of biological systems and these systems provide the building blocks for behavior, thought and emotions

The biological approach refers to three areas genetics, psychophysiology and evolution.

Example

Genetics

The genes of individuals A and B differ from one another.

Individual A

Tall, fair and plumb, with straight black hair, blue eyes

Individual B

Medium tall, brown and lean, with curly red hair, green eyes.

physiology

Example

Physiology

The physiology (function) of brain or peripheral nervous system leads to differences in personalities of individuals A and B.

Individual A

Pushy, aggressive and rude.

Individual B

Calm, polite and pleasant.

The physiology leads to the development of a specific type of personality such as type A person and type B person.

The message is that if you have heart problem, blood pressure partly you yourself is responsible for it so modify your style of life (diet, exercise and relaxation or meditation.)

3- The Intra-psychic approach was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior.

Example 1

The personalities of individuals A and B differ due to different childhood experiences (pleasant or unpleasant) and the conflicts between basic needs and societal demands (intra-psychic conflict between Id, Ego, and Superego)

Example 2

The personalities of individuals A and B differ due to different childhood needs that emerged at different stages of development.

Individual A is a nailbeiter, sucks his thumb,

Usually dirty and messy.

Individual B is an exact opposite of individual A.

Example 3

Individual A

Helps others, does charity work, polite, humble (controlled by instinct of Eros).

Individual B

Abusive, aggressive, violent, damages things (controlled by instinct of Thanotos)

4- The Cognitive / Experiential Approach it focuses on the cognition and subjective experiences such as conscious thoughts feelings, beliefs and desires about one self and others. The psychological mechanisms involved in subjective experience, however, differ in form and content from one another.

Example 1

Two individuals say A and B living in the same room look out of the same window in the morning, the images on their retinas is identical

Yet individual A says what a beautiful day,

while individual B says what a dull and boring day.

Example 2

Two students attend the same lecture, individual A thinks it was interesting, novel and pulled his attention.

While individual B thinks it was dull, boring and nothing new to offer.

Example 3

Two individuals are asked to choose a book according to liking to read or select a movie of their choice to watch.

Individual A chooses a classic tragic novel or a film

Individual B chooses a comic book or a comedy film

5- Social and Cultural

The assumption that personality not merely something that resides within the brain, nervous system and genes of individuals rather the social and cultural context also has an important role.

At the cultural level it is clear that groups differ from one another

Example 1

1- My personality or your personality has developed as result of genes and culture.

2- The differences in the personalities of males and females are due to social or cultural expectations.

Example 2

The personality of Pakistani student is the result of genes, society and culture.

So parents, teacher's, peer's leaders books media molds the personality of Pakistani student.

Example 3

Personality of a University Teacher or a Student

Now the personality development of a university teacher or a student is the result of interpersonal situations or events.

6- Adjustment

This refers to the fact that personality plays a key role in how we cope, adapt, and adjust to events in our every day live

Personality is linked with important health issues such as heart disease, sleep, diet, and the role of exercise in long live of an individual.

Personality problems can be studied in relation to personality disorders

Example 1

We have got two individuals say

Individual A and individual B

Individual A's style of life includes healthy diet no junk food regular exercise and relaxation or meditation.)

Individual B's style of life includes unhealthy diet, no exercise and no relaxation or mediation.

Example 2

We have got two individuals say

Individual A (pessimistic) and individual B (optimistic)

Are told by their doctor that they have high blood pressure and diabetes

Individual A (pessimistic) will be depressed and sad and label himself as a patient.

Individual B (optimistic) will make a diet chart, will be particular about his medicines, and take regular exercise.

Lesson 41

PERSPECTIVES OR DOMAINS OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

Personality can be approached or studied Using the six perspectives or domains.

1-Dispositional

2-Biological

3-Intrapsychic

4-Cognitive/ Experiential

5-Social and Cultural

6-Adjustment

Dear students we have covered at least two to three personality theories related to each of the perspectives.

1-Dispositional

2-Biological

3-Intrapsychic

4-Cognitive/ Experiential

5-Social and Cultural

6-Adjustment

Outline of the Perspectives

1-Dispositional

It deals centrally with the ways in which individuals differ from one another.

This domain cuts across all other domains

It tries to explore how individuals differ in their emotions, self concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their intra-psychic mechanisms

2-Biological

Humans are first and foremost collections of biological systems and these systems provide the building blocks for behavior, thought and emotions

The biological approach refers to three areas genetics, psychophysiology and evolution.

3-The Intra-psychic approach was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior.

4-The Cognitive / Experiential Approach it focuses on the cognition and subjective experiences such as conscious thoughts feelings, beliefs and desires about oneself and others. The psychological mechanisms involved in subjective experience, however, differ in form and content from one another.

5-Social and Cultural

The assumption that personality not merely something that resides within the brain, nervous system and genes of individuals rather the social and cultural context also has an important role.

6- Adjustment

This refers to the fact that personality plays a key role in how we cope, adapt, and adjust to events in our every day live

Personality is linked with important health issues such as heart disease, sleep, diet, and the role of exercise in long live of an individual.

Let us talk about the first three approaches or perspectives in more detail

1- Dispositional

2-Biological

3-Intrapsychic

1-Dispositional

It deals centrally with the ways in which individuals differ from one another.

This domain cuts across all other domains

It tries to explore how individuals differ in their emotions, self concepts, in physiological characteristics and even in their Intra-psychic mechanisms

The goal of the psychologist is to identify and measure the important ways in which individuals differ from one another,

The origin of these differences and how these develop and how they are maintained

The term disposition refers to an inherent tendency to behave in a specific way or traits or stable internal characteristics.

So traits are the raw material of personality structure.

This Approach assumes that personality is made up of a set of stable internal characteristics that guide behavior. These characteristics are described as personality types but more often each person's unique combination of traits, factors or needs. These inherited tendencies or traits are the raw material which is molded into a unique personality by the environment.

The questions that come to our mind is

How many personality traits exist?

What is the best classification system of traits?

How many personality traits exist?

A person's personality is viewed as being built out of a set of common as well as important traits. The psychologists use three strategies to identify fundamental traits, out which differences between people can be formed.

What is the best classification system of traits?

1- The language Approach

2- The Statistical Approach

3- The Theoretical Approach

The psychologist blend the three together to classify or identify the fundamental traits

How are traits measured?

Qualitatively as well as Quantitatively

Work is being done to develop such measures which are standardized objective reliable and valid and not easily faked.

Example is Cattle's 16PF

Traits are used in selecting people for specific careers or for specific education,

Will an aggressive person be suitable for the post of a police officer, or a kind hearted lady will be suitable for the nursing job?

Allport's Theory and Cattle's Theory

Kelly's Theory and Murray's Theory

Allport's *trait i*s the unit of analysis for understanding and studying personality.

Traits are predispositions to various kinds of stimuli. They may be classified under cardinal, central, or secondary according to their degree of pervasiveness within a personality.

The construct that unifies traits and provides direction for the person's life is termed the P*roprium.* This concept refers to the "self" including all aspects of personality.

For Cattell factor analysis is a method used to discover traits which he considers the building blocks of personality. An ability discovered in such a cluster is called a factor and in Cattell's theory, the term factor is equated with the term trait.

Traits

A trait is a "mental structure" that is observed to account for regularity or consistency in individual's behavior.

Types of Traits

1- Unique traits,

2- Common traits

3- Surface traits

4- Source traits

Need

A need is a construct is a force which organizes perception, apperception, interjection, conation and action.

Types of Needs

1- Primary and Secondary

2- Overt Needs and Covert Needs

3- Focal Needs and Diffuse Needs

The TAT was developed (Morgan & Murray, 1935) out of Murray's belief that many of the basic human motives exist outside of conscious awareness.

Murray's TAT is a projective test. If we present a person with an ambiguous picture and then ask what is in the picture, the response must be a reflection of what is important to the person or the themes the person uses to organize the world.

2-Biological

Humans are first and foremost collections of biological systems and these systems provide the building blocks for behavior, thought and emotions

The biological approach refers to three areas genetics, psychophysiology and evolution.

1- Genetics

It is concerned with the genetics of personality

Some important research questions are

Are identical twins more alike or fraternal twins in their personalities?

What happens when identical twins are reared together versus when they are reared apart?

It is behavior genetics which asks such important questions.

2-The psychophysiology of personality summarizes what is known about personality in terms nervous system functioning, neurotransmitters, cardiac reactivity, pain tolerance, circadian rhythms (whether you are a morning or night person) and links hormones and personality

3- How evolution has shaped human psychological functioning; this approach assumes that psychological mechanisms that constitute human personality have evolved over thousand of years because they were effective in solving adaptive problems.

The research study related to following areas has contributed in biological approach.

- Selective Breeding only Conducted in Animals
- Family Studies
- Twin Studies
- Adoption Studies

Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory

Sheldon's Theory

Erikson's emphasis on biology

Freud's theory is biological in nature

Emphasis on sex and aggression

Stages of development are five, beginning from birth up till adolescence

Freud's account of psychosexual development is based on the premise that sexuality begins at birth and progresses thereafter through a biologically defined zones until adulthood is reached. Freud conceived of personality development as proceeding through the following stages: oral, anal, phallic, and genital.

Sheldon's Somatotype Theory

Sheldon looks at the physique or body type (soma) for the explanation of human behavior.

1- A discrete number of physical and

2- Temperamental variables that he considers of primary importance in representing human behavior.

1- According to Erickson biology or genetics is one strong determinant of personality but culture is another important determinant.

2- Thus biologically determined differences between the two sexes can be explained as result of social expectations or cultural expectations.

Karen Horney deemphasized the biological motives and focused on a need for a feeling of security in the child is important.

Karen Horney totally rejected the concept that anatomy is destiny and males are superior. Males are equal to females.

3- The Intra-psychic approach was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior.

There are other psychodynamic theorists who differed from Freud such as:

- Jung
- Adler
- Karen Horney

Freud proposed three levels of consciousness- the conscious, preconscious, and unconscious- to describe the degree to which mental events vary in accessibility to awareness. The most significant mental events take place in the unconscious.

In Freudian theory, human psychological makeup comprises three structural components- id, ego, and superego. The id, representing the instinctual core of the person, is irrational, impulsive, and obedient to the pleasure principle.

The ego represents the rational component of personality and is governed by the reality principle. Its task is to provide the individual with a suitable plan of action in order to satisfy the demands of the id within the restrictions of the social world. The superego, the final structure developed, represents the moral branch of personality.

Freud's motivational theory is based on the concept of instinct, life and death instincts

Freud recognized three types of anxiety such as reality, neurotic, and moral. He proposed that anxiety serves as a warning signal to the ego of impending danger from instinctual impulses. In response, the ego employs a number of defense mechanisms, including, sublimation, projection, displacement, rationalization, reaction formation, and regression.

The Personal Un-conscious consists of repressed or forgotten or not very vivid or clear memories. It consists of clusters of emotionally loaded thoughts-- complexes.

The Collective Un-conscious

It refers to our ancestral experiences, memories or all human history that we inherit from our forefathers. Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes.

Fragments of all human history that we inherit from our forefathers. Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes.

Which are followings:

- Persona
- Anima
- Animus
- Shadow
- Self

For Karen Horney, child's relationship to his parents is very important and that determines whether or not the child would develop the basic anxiety.

For Karen Horney, basic anxiety leads to development of neurosis and causes basic hostility, which is unconscious.

Lesson 42

PERSPECTIVES OR DOMAINS OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

Personality can be approached or studied Using the six perspectives or domains.

1-Dispositional

2-Biological

3-Intrapsychic

4-Cognitive/ Experiential

5-Social and Cultural

6-Adjustment

Dear students we have covered at least two to three personality theories related to each of the perspectives.

1-Dispositional

2-Biological

3-Intrapsychic

4-Cognitive/ Experiential

5-Social and Cultural

6-Adjustment

We will talk about the first three approaches or perspectives in more detail

1-Dispositional

2-Biological

3-Intrapsychic

1-Dispositional

It deals 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 origin of these differences and how these develop and how they are maintained

The term disposition refers to specific ways or traits or stable internal characteristics.

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

How many personality traits exist?

A person's personality is viewed as being built out of a set of common as well as important traits.

What is the best classification system of traits?

The Natural Language Approach

2- The statistical Approach

3- The Theoretical Approach

How are traits measured?

Traits are measured qualitatively as well as quantitatively.

Traits are used in selecting people for specific careers or for specific education,

Will an aggressive person be a suitable for the post of a police officer, or a kind hearted lady will be suitable for the nursing job?

Allport's Theory and Cattle's Theory.

Kelly's Theory and Murray's Theory.

Traits account for a person's behavioral consistency over time and across situations. They may be classified under - cardinal, central, or secondary - according to their degree of pervasiveness within a personality.

The construct that unifies traits and provides direction for the person's life is termed the *proprium or self.*

For Cattell factor analysis is a method used to discover traits which he considers the building blocks of personality. An ability discovered in such a cluster is called a factor and in Cattell's theory, the term factor is equated with the term trait.

1- Unique Traits

2- Common Traits

3- Surface Traits

4- Source Traits

Need

A need is a construct which stands for a force which organizes perception, apperception, interjection, conation and action.

1- Primary and Secondary

2- Overt needs and Covert Needs

3- Focal needs and Diffuse Needs

4- Proactive Needs and Reactive Needs

The TAT was developed (Morgan & Murray, 1935) out of Murray's belief that many of the basic human motives exist outside of conscious awareness.

For Kelly an individual's behavior and thoughts are guided by a set of personal constructs that are used in predicting future events.

Each individual creates his or her own unique constructs for dealing with the world, trying to reduce future uncertainty and he is free to view and think about reality.

2- Biological

Humans are first and foremost collections of biological systems and these systems provide the building blocks for behavior, thought and emotions

The biological approach refers to three areas genetics, psychophysiology and evolution.

1-Genetics

It is concerned with the genetics of personality.

Are identical twins more alike or fraternal twins in their personalities?

What happens when identical twins are reared together versus when they are reared apart?

The psychophysiology of personality summarizes what is known about personality in terms nervous system functioning of neurotransmitters, cardiac reactivity and links between hormone and personality.

3- **How evolution has shaped human psychological functioning**; this approach assumes that psychological mechanisms that constitute human personality.

1- Selective breeding

2- Family studies

3-Twin studies

4-Adoption studies

Freud's psychoanalytic theory

Sheldon's theory

Erikson emphasis on biology

Opposed by Karen Horney

3-The Intra-psychic approach was founded by Freud, who assumes that a human personality is formed out of conflicts between basic needs and demands of the society. Most of these conflicts are at the unconscious level and they affect our everyday behavior.

There are other psychodynamic theorists who differed from Freud such as:

Jung

Adler

Karen Horney

We will talk about these in detail

4- Cognitive/ Experiential

5- Social and Cultural

6- Adjustment

4- The Cognitive/ Experiential Approach: It focuses on the cognition and subjective experiences such as conscious thoughts feelings, beliefs and desires about one and others. The psychological mechanisms involved in subjective experience, however, differ in form and content from one another

1- The focus is on differences in cognitions, perceptions, emotions and self.

2- The focus is on understanding experience from the person's point of view.

So we differ from each other in these two ways.

So we will deal with

1- Cognitive experiences,

2- Emotional experiences (intelligence) and 3-Experiences of the self

Self Esteem, Self Actualization

Self Identity, Positive and Negative Identity

Cognitive experiences are what people perceive and pay attention to, how they interpret the events in their lives and their goals and plans and strategies.

Now all these kinds of experiences refer to how people process information or let's say how we perceive events, people and our selves.

Humans are not like computers who process information objectively and accurately.

We perceive and experience reality using a set of personal cognitive constructs.

An event has happened so we process information by our own personal cognitive style

Why did it happen?

Whose fault is it?

Personality psychologists focus on how people make attributions of responsibility and a tendency to blame one self for all the bad events.

The second category of experience is emotion which is important.

Are you usually happy or sad?

What makes you angry?

What makes a person anxious?

Can you control your temper or mood?

Emotional experiences are thought of states or as traits

The frequency of emotional experiential states is low while emotional experience traits refer to the tendency to be frequently.

The emotions as traits can be divided into two areas

Content (it refers to kinds of emotions)

Pleasant - Unpleasant

Style of emotional life (how these emotions are experienced)

High or low Emotion Intensity

The content relates to pleasant or unpleasant emotion such as happiness or joy or success while unpleasant emotion relate to depression, anxiety, anger, hostility, aggression.

The style of emotional life refer to the fact that some people experience at a higher intensity then others

For such high affect intensity persons an ordinary pleasant event will make them very happy event and

an ordinary unpleasant event will make them very sad, depress and anxious.

The experiences of the self are unlike the experiences of cognition and emotion.

1- Self can be studied in the context of real and ideal self

2- Self as Identity

3- Introverts or Extroverts

4-Self Esteem and Self Actualization

1-Self - Real and Ideal Self is a Description

2- Self as Identity – Refers to Role Assigned

3-Introverts or Extroverts –Refers to Type

4-Self Esteem and Self Actualization - Refers to Force or Strength

Theories Related to Self Concept

1- Self- real and ideal self (Karen Horney, Rogers)

2- Self as identity (Erickson)

3- Introverts or Extroverts (Carl Jung)

4- Self esteem and Self actualization (Maslow, Rogers)

Theories of personality included in this perspective are Kelly's, Karen Horney, Erickson, Maslow and Rogers.

5- Social and Cultural

The assumption that personality not merely something that resides within the brain, nervous system and genes of individuals rather the social and cultural context has an important role.

At the cultural level it is clear that groups differ from one another

In this domain the emphasis is on personality as is affected by:

1- Social Institutions

Social Roles

Social expectations and relationships with people

1- Social Institutions Refer to Home, School, and Neighborhood.

Social Roles Peer, Sibling, Student

Social Expectations and Relationships with people Friendly, Enemy or

Culture and society makes up the rules that influence:

1- Social Institutions

2- Social Roles

3- Social Expectations and Relationships with People

People from different cultures have different personalities because different cultural forces shape their personality.

It is interesting to note that there are more similarities then differences in individuals from diverse cultures

Related to dress, style of living and food preferences.

People raised in American culture tend to describe themselves in abstract concepts

I am honest and trustworthy.

I am straight forward and polite.

People raised in Asian culture tend to describe themselves through social relations

I am Mr. A's daughter

I am Mr. B's sister

The concept of gender and different rules related originates from culture

John Gary's book men are from Mars and women are from Venus says that men and women are different species and rules and norms for both genders are different

The culture of growing up as a boy or as a girl is different.

The way people interact with boys or with girls are different

Men are more aggressive in all cultures

Personality psychologists have looked for similarities between cultures.

People from all cultures smile when they are happy and frown when they are sad and bare teeth is a sign of anger.

Theories of Allport, Cattle, Maslow, Erickson, Rogers and Kelly.

6 - Adjustment

This refers to the fact that personality plays a key role in how we cope, adapt, and adjust to events in our every day live

Personality is linked with important health issues such as heart disease, sleep, diet, and the role of exercise in long life of an individual.

The personality to help us adjust to the challenges and demands of life, in a unique way for all of us.

We will focus on Physical health and

Mental health

We face stress every day and react to it as well.

How we feel and interpret stress varies from person to person.

Personality plays a key role in how we appraise and interpret stress.

Now some of us appraise, interpret, cope, adapt and adjust to stress well.

While some of us display patterns of emotions, behaviors and interpersonal relations that create problems for themselves as well as those around them.

So coping with stress and disorders of personality define the adjustment domain fully.

Personality is linked with health outcomes such as heart problem, diabetes, ulcers and even some cancers are the result of stress.

Personality is also related to certain behaviors such as smoking, drinking and risk taking.

Old age problems and retirement problems are also related to stress.

Lesson 43

THE GRAND THEORY OF PERSONALITY

A question posed by one of the students is that I have used the term first, second and the third force in psychology.

What do we mean by it?

Can we classify all the 17 theories of personality under the banner of first, second and third force of **personality psychology?**

Some 17 Theories of Personality

1- Freud

2- Jung

3- Adler

4- Karen Horney

5- Erickson

6- Maslow

7- Rogers

8- Murray

9- Sheldon

10- Sullivan

11- Allport

12- Cattle

13- Dollard and Miller

14- Bandura

15- Skinner

16- Ellis

17- Kelly

There are three forces in Psychology.

1- The first force is Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic or intra-psychic

2- The second force is Behaviorism

3- The third force is Phenomenology or Humanistic Psychology.

There are a number of theories of personality that come under each banner.

1- The first force is Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic it includes:

- Freud's theory
- Jung's theory
- Adler's theory
- Karen Horney's theory
- Erikson's theory

2- The second force is Behaviorism. It includes:

- Dollard and Miller's theory

- Skinner's theory
- Bandura's theory
- Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike work

3- The third force is Phenomenology or Humanistic Psychology. It includes:

- Adler's theory
- Kelly's theory
- Murray's theory
- Maslow's theory
- Roger's theory
- Allport's theory
- Cattle's theory
- Sullivan's theory

There are three forces in Psychology

1- The first force is Psychoanalysis or Psychodynamic. It includes:

- Freud's theory
- Jung's theory
- Adler's theory
- Karen Horney's theory
- Erickson theory

Freud's theory includes the following:

- Levels of Consciousness
- Analysis of Mental Structures
- Psychosexual Stages of Development.
- Defense Mechanisms
- Means of Tapping the Unconscious
- Instinct is an Inherited Condition that gives our Behavior Direction
- Two kinds of Instincts:
    1. Life instinct or Eros: bodily needs, survival, pleasure (libido)
    2. Death instinct or Thanatos: aggression, self-destructiveness

Psychosexual Stages of Development

Each stage has typical problem.

At each stage, the "right amount" of libidinal satisfaction must occur.

Danger of fixation or regression.

Basis of Character Types

Major event is **Oedipal Complex**

Anxiety = threat

Reality: danger in external world

Neurotic: fear of id out of control

Moral: fear of conscience

Ego defends against anxiety--often unconscious, more and less mature/primitive

Jung's Theory

The Personal Un-conscious consists of repressed or forgotten or not very vivid or clear memories. It consists of clusters of emotionally loaded thoughts which Jung labeled as complexes.

A complex is a cluster of ideas connected together by a common feelings or emotions.

The Collective Un-conscious It refers to our ancestral experiences, memories from untold millions of years, so it is fragments of all human history that we inherit from our forefathers. Jung labeled these ancestral experiences as archetypes.

- Persona
- Anima
- Animus
- Shadow
- Self

The Psychological Types

Psychological Types refer to orientation or the way an individual interacts with other people. Introverts Extroverts

Stages of Development

- Childhood
- Young Adulthood
- Middle Ages
- Life after Retirement

Individual Psychology

Adler's theory

The term individual psychology refers to the fact that individuals are unique, they are characterized by inner harmony and a striving force to cooperate with fellow humans. It does not mean that human beings are selfish, aggressive and motivated to satisfy their own biological motives.

1-Adler proposed feelings of inferiority as the driving force behind personality

2-and he developed birth order theory.

Karen Horney's theory

Horney developed a theory based on two concepts

1- Basic Anxiety

2- Neurotic Personality

In 1937, Karen Horney wrote a book called "The Neurotic Personality of our Time" in this book, Karen Horney tried to discuss that a child has two basic needs, which are safety and satisfaction.

In 1945, Karen Horney in her book "Our Inner Conflicts" classified ten neurotic needs in three categories.

1- Moving Towards People

2- Moving Against People

3- Moving Away from People

Relationship between Real Self and Ideal Self

The real self represents all those things that are true about an individual, the ideal self reflects what one would like to become.

Erikson's theory

1- According to Erickson biology or genetics is one strong determinant of personality but culture is another important determinant.

2- Thus biologically determined differences between the two sexes can be explained as result of social expectations or cultural expectations.

Ego Psychology

It is Ego's job to organize one's life and to assure continuous harmony with one's physical and social environment.

Erikson stressed the autonomy and role of ego, we call his theory as Ego psychology.

Psychosocial Stages of Development

According to Erikson, every individual passes through eight stages of development and sequence of the eight stages is genetically determined and it is unchangeable.

Each stage of development is characterized by crisis which can have a positive or a negative resolution.

A positive resolution strengthen the ego makes it stronger and helps the individual in the adaptation process.

On the other hand a negative resolution weakens the ego and hinders or inhibits the adaptation process.

Identity crises the crises in fifth stage of development where an individual gains either positive or negative identity.

Negative identity an identity that is contrary to the goals of society.

All those thing that child is warned not to become.

2- The second force is Behaviorism. It includes:

- Dollard and Miller's theory
- Skinner's theory
- Bandura's theory
- Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike work

The Stimulus Response Theory Of Dollard and Miller

1-Habit is the key concept in the theory by Dollard and Miller.

2-A habit is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response.

For learning (desired behavior) to take place within the subject:

1- One must want something (Drive)

2- Notice something (Cue-Stimulus)

3- Do something (Response)

4- Get something (Reward)

Skinner's Theory of Personality

Radical Behaviorism is the brand of Psychology that is practically synonymous with Skinner's name.

Skinner's Radical Behaviorism

He rejected the use of inner states such as anxiety as the explanation of our overt / observable behavior.

Skinners Use of the Term "Operant."

An operant is a response that operates on the environment and changes it. The change in the environment affects the occurrence of the response.

When an operant response is conditioned, it is essential that the reinforcement be presented after the occurrence of the response. Only in this way does the frequency of the response increase.

So rewards and punishments mold the behaviors of animals as well as humans

Teachers, judges and employers rely on connection between actions and consequences to shape behavior.

Operant conditioning is concerned with effect of certain kinds of consequences on the frequency of behavior.

A consequence that increases the frequency of a behavior is called reinforcement.

A consequence that decreases the frequency of a behavior is called punishment.

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for increasing the frequency of behavior

1- Positive reinforcement the behavior increases because it is followed by reward

2- The frequency of a behavior can increase with the negative reinforcement or with the removal or lessening of an unpleasant stimulus.

Skinner discovered two basic reinforcement strategies for decreasing the frequency of undesired behavior

1-Extinction is where we stop the reinforcement and the behavior will be extinguished.

2- Punishment

The frequency of behavior is reduced when it is followed by an aversive stimulus

Bandura's Theory

1- Bandura suggests most human behavior is learned by observation. In Modeling we observe the behavior of others and use this information as a guide for our own behavior.

2- Bandura and his colleagues have demonstrated that subjects allowed to observe a set of responses performed by another individual (the model) tend to exhibit these same responses (observed model) when placed in a similar setting.

Example

All films, Television dramas and cartoons where models behave aggressive they are teaching observers to be aggressive and violent.

Albert Ellis is of the view that irrational beliefs are basis of all of our maladjustments.

These irrational beliefs are learned through socialization from

Parents, teachers, peers, friends, religious, political leaders,

Books, films, media etc.

1- The Rational Emotive Behavior A-B-C Theory Personality

"A" refers to an activating event.

"B" refers to the belief system of the individual.

"C" refers to the consequence.

Now in this A-B-C model of Personality quite later Ellis's added D and the E component as well so it is A-B-C-D-E.

Where **"D"** refers to Disputing or debating or challenging the irrational beliefs

"E" refers to the Effect or impact of the debate on minimizing irrationality in one's attitude.

There are three forces in Psychology

3- The third force is Phenomenology or Humanistic Psychology.

- Adler's theory
- Kelly's theory
- Murray's theory
- Maslow's theory
- Roger's theory
- Allport's theory
- Cattle's theory

Maslow's theory

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) postulated a hierarchy of needs beginning with physiological needs at the bottom and self actualization at the top. An individual must meet the basic needs before trying to meet the higher needs.

The triangle or pyramid has a broad base and narrow top, so majority of individuals are involved at fulfilling basic needs and only few reach the top i.e. self actualization means that we can reach our highest potential in all areas of functioning if we have freedom to grow. Majority of the people are involved in fulfilling the needs at the lower level and it is very few who reach the top. Examples

Quaid-e-Azam,

Javed Miandad,

Imran Khan,

Adur Satter Edhi.

Roger's theory

1- Phenomenological theory of personality is that a person's behavior is obtained through observation of his internal frame of reference. why an individual thinks, feels, and behaves in a given way, it is necessary to know how that person perceives and interprets the world.

He puts the emphasis on positive aspects of life, free choices and personal growth experiences.

Actualizing Tendency

An innate need to survive, grow and enhance one's self.

4- Fully Functioning Person

It is a term used by Rogers to designate individuals who are using their capacities and talents, realizing their potentials.

Kelly's theory

Kelly argued that personality is by its very nature embedded in a person's interpersonal relationships.

For Kelly's an individual's personality is nothing more or less than his or her construct system.

Sullivan's theory

For Sullivan personality is embedded in a person's interpersonal relationships.

The personality develops as result of interpersonal situations and events.

Cattle's theory

For Cattell factor analysis is a method used to discover traits which he considers the building blocks of personality. An ability discovered in such a cluster is called a factor and in Cattell's theory, the term factor is equated with the term trait.

Murray's theory

Personality reflects novel, unique, recurrent and enduring patterns of behaviors.

Personality functions are to reduce conflicts, satisfy individual needs and to make plans for attainment of future goals.

Evaluation

There are three forces in Psychology.

1- The first force is Psychoanalysis - it reduces humans to levels of animals (concept of instincts)

2- The second force is Behaviorism – it reduces humans to stimulus-response level.

3- The third force is Phenomenology – it restores human beings to their actual level

Lesson 44

PERSONALITY APPRAISAL

Personality Assessment

- Sources of Personality Data
- Self Report Data (S-Data)
- Observer Report Data (O-Data)
- Test Data (T-Data)
- Life Outcome Data (L- Data)

Issues in Personality Assessment

1-Personality Assessment

Sources of Personality Data

Our first concern is that we get as much information about personality as possible. There are a number of sources of data that are available. Self Report Data (S-Data), Observer Report Data (O-Data), Test Data (T-Data), Life Outcome Data (L- Data)

1-Personality Assessment

1-Self Report Data (S-Data)

It is the most obvious and common source of data about the person is Self Report Data (S-Data). The information that a person reveals or reports is based on a procedure such as a questionnaire or interview. The Questionnaire Method can be structured or unstructured they pose a series of questions to the person. The person's periodic reports to record the events as they happen , the respondent has tell his feelings ,emotions, desires, beliefs, fears, phobias, and fantasies. How the relate to others, about their long term goals, about their self concept, about their self esteem.

The self report can take a variety of forms such as Unstructured (open ended questions) the items require an a subjective or open answer there is no right or wrong response

Structured (closed ended questions) the items have a binding or they bound you to a response.

Examples

Unstructured (open ended questions)

Tell me about yourself?

Tell me about the food you most prefer to eat?

The psychologist must devise a way how to score, interpret and make sense out of the participant's responses.

Examples

Structured (closed ended questions)

All the items have to be responded with yes no or undecided.

I like fast food.

I am an introvert.

I believe in equal rights for women.

There are advantages as well as limitations of the self report methods but the limitations are more such as participants may not be honest or they may not be having accurate knowledge about themselves

Examples of self report inventories are:

Neo Personality Inventory

California Personality Inventory

The latest increase in personality self report data research is called experience sampling (Hormuth, 1986; Larsen, 1989)

People answer questions about the moods or physical symptoms every day for several weeks or longer electronically.

1-Personality Assessment

2-Observer Report Data (O-Data)

We usually form impressions and make evaluations of others with whom we come into contact so for each individual there are at least dozens and dozens of observers who form impressions.

All the potential sources of information about our personalities form impressions including our family, relatives, neighbors, employers, teachers, friends, acquaintances—virtually each and every person you come across.

So Observer Report Data capitalize on all these resources and provide tools for gathering information about the person's personality.

Example

I am a teacher and I form impressions about my student similarly my students form variety of impressions about me by closely observing me in different situations.

Observer report data has both advantages as well as disadvantages as sources of personality data.

One advantage is that observers can have access to information not attainable through other resources

For example what sort of impression an individual makes on others, his or her social reputation, whether interactions with others are smooth or turbulent and what position an individual holds in group hierarchy.

Another advantage of observer report method is that multiple observers can be used to assess each individual where as in self report method only one person provides information.

Inter-Rater Reliability

The use of multiple observers allows the investigators to evaluate the degree of consensus in the among the observers.

There are many dimensions along which the O-data differ and the personality psychologists should take them into account

1- The use of professional personality or intimate personality assessors

2- To use naturalistic or artificial setting for the observation to be made

Now both are very important decisions to be taken.

1- The use of professional personality assessors or intimate observers

So we can use professional personality assessors who do not know the participant in advance

A second method is to gather observational data from people who actually know the participant such as close friends, spouse, mothers and room mates.

The advantages of intimate personality assessors are following

They are in a better position to observe the target's natural behavior as compared to the professional personality assessors

Multiple social personalities can be assessed now each of us displays a different side of ourselves to different people.

Example of Multiple social personalities

I am kind to my friends, loving towards my students but very rude and inconsiderate towards my subordinates.

My student is very respectful toward me but has sharp conflicts with parents.

The disadvantage of using intimate assessors is that they have intimate relationships with the target person and that they may act in a biased way

They may overlook the negative aspects and emphasize the positive aspects.

2- To use naturalistic or artificial setting for the observation to be made

In the naturalistic observation the observers witness and record the events that occur in the normal course of the lives of the participants

We can observe a student for the entire day at school or at home, in the bus, in canteen.

The advantages are that we can have first hand and natural piece of observation of the person but the limitation is that we do not have any control the whole event that is taking place

Artificial Settings

A student along with the whole class is asked to come to the laboratory and observations are made.

We can initiate and generate an artificial piece of behavior

We have control the sequence of events that will take place.

1-Personality Assessment

3-Test Data (T-Data)

The individuals are placed in standardized testing situations.

The idea is to see if different people react differently to an identical situation.

The situation is so designed to elicit behaviors that serve as indicators of personality variables (Block, 1977)

The individuals are placed in frustrating situations and different reactions are noted.

The individuals are placed in situations and their leadership qualities are noted.

Children were placed in designed situations and their responses were noted.

All the above tests are called situational tests.

An interesting example is given by Murray in his book Assessment of Men (1948).

In the bridge building test over a small river, the person assessed is given two assistants and a collection of wood, rope, tools.

The person being assessed does not know that the two assistants are role playing, one as dumb or having low intelligence or unable to follow instructions

The other assistant as one who knows every thing and he opposes the instructions being given to him, the concerned person may think that he is being assessed for leadership qualities while actually he is being evaluated on tolerance of frustration and performance on adversity.

Megargee's Study (1969)

The study is on manifestations of dominance and he wanted to study the effect of dominance on leadership.

To all the potential participants California Personality Inventory (CPI) was administered and only those people were included in the study that scored very high or very low on dominance scale of California Personality Inventory (CPI)

He took pairs of participants and in each pair one high in dominance was paired with one low in dominance

The participants were exposed to four conditions:

A high dominant man with a low dominant man

A high dominant woman with a low dominant woman

A high dominant man with a low dominant woman

A high dominant woman with a low dominant man

Then the experimenter presented each pair with a large box containing many red, yellow and green colored nuts bolts levers

The participants were told that the purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between personality and leadership under stress.

Each pair of participants was to work as a team of trouble shooters to repair the box as fast as they can –by removing the nuts and bolts with certain colors and replacing them with other colors.

The participants were told that one person from each team had to a leader, providing all the relevant instructions and the other person had to be a follower to abide by the instructions as fully as possible. The follower had to get inside the box and do all menial tasks as given by the leader. The experimenter then told that it was up to the team to decide who would be the leader and who would be the follower.

The key variable of interest was who would become the follower and who would lead so he simply recorded the percentage of high-dominant participant in each condition who became leaders.

Megargee found that 75 % of high dominant men and 70 % high dominant women took the leadership roles in same sex pairs

When high dominant men were paired with low dominant women 90% of men became leaders.

But most startling result was in high dominant women and low dominant men condition when only 20% of high dominant women assumed the leadership role.

The findings of this experiment point to the fact that

1- It is possible to set up conditions in such a manner that key indicators of personality can be observed.

2- Laboratory experiments should be sensitive to manifestations of personality that occur in incidental parts of the experiment, such as discussions between participants.

Limitations of the Test Data

The participants might try to guess what trait is being measured and might try to create an impression.

The real difficulty is in verifying how the research participants are defining the situation and failure to confirm the similarity and correspondence between the researcher and the participant may lead to error.

Another problem is that in most T- data experiments the situations are inherently interpersonal and the researcher and experimenter may influence the participants when an experimenter is very friendly he may elicit more cooperation from participants then another experimenter who is cold or aloof.

Mechanical Recording Devices

Personality psychologists have adapted the technological innovations in study of personality

The use of Actometer (it is a modified self winding watch which is usually strapped to arms or legs) to assess the personality differences in activity level or energy levels. This actometer device is usually used with children who are highly active to have a clear idea of the hyperactivity level. The actometer based activity scores are linked to other personality characteristics, traits. At times the actometer scores are correlated with the teacher rating of the same behavior pattern.

Physiological Data

Physiological measures provide an excellent source of data related to the person

They refer to person's reaction to stimuli and the speed at which the person takes the new information.

Sensors can be placed on different parts of the body to measure activity of sympathetic nervous system, blood pressure, heart beat, muscle contraction activity.

Physiological measures can act as important sources for collecting information about the personality.

Psychologist Christopher Patrick (1994)

Has studied the psychopaths particularly men who have committed serious crimes against people particularly violent crimes. Things that make most people anxious may not make psychopaths anxious in order to test this idea a technique called the eye-blink startle reflex. Patrick noted that the psychopaths who were in prison for violent crimes did not exhibit the faster eye-blink response while viewing the anxiety producing photographs suggesting that they were not feeling the same level of fearfulness or as normal participants viewing these objects. Perhaps psychopaths commit their crimes because they don't have the normal level of anxiety or guilt that prevents most of us from doing anything wrong.

Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI)

A recent physiological data source comes from functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), a technique used to identify the areas of the brain that light up when performing certain tasks such as verbal problems or spatial navigation.

When certain pars of the brain are activated, it draws large amount of blood.

The oxygen carried by blood accumulates in that region of the brain and

fMRI is able to detect concentrations of iron carried by oxygen contained in the red blood cells and thus determine the part of the brain that is used in performing certain tasks.

Projective Personality 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.

Projective tests are based on psychoanalytic theory. They have been and they still remain, controversial. Some of the most widely used projective tests are Rorschach Ink Blot Test, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), House Tree Person (HTP) and the Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blank (RISB).

In projective tests, the person is presented with a series of ambiguous stimuli. The known projective test, introduced in 1921 by Hermann Rorschach, a Swiss psychiatrist, is based on the use of inkblots. Projective techniques such as the Rorschach test were originally based on psychodynamic assumptions about the nature of personality and psychopathology.

Considerable emphasis was placed on the importance of unconscious motivations —conflicts and impulses of which the person is largely unaware.

More recent 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 inkblots 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.

The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) consists of a series of drawings that depict human figures in various ambiguous situations. The person is asked to describe the identities of the people in the cards and to make up a story about what is happening. Morgan and Murray at the Harvard Psychological Clinic developed the TAT. It consists of 31 cards, 30 with pictures on them and one blank card. The picture card is shown to the subject and the therapist asks the subject to tell a dramatic story about the picture. The instructions of the test begin 'this is a test of imagination, one form of intelligence. Let your imaginations

have its way as in a fairy story and tell what the people in the picture card are doing.' The story should have a title, a beginning, a middle part and an end. The basic assumption is that most of the subjects will reveal their unconscious mental processes, their needs, desires on the characters of their stories about the pictures. Their have been several variations of the TAT for different groups e.g. CAT- Children Apperception Test and SAT Senior Apperception Technique.

Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blank Test

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.

House Tree and Person (HTP)

This is a test which tells us about the evaluations of the drawings based on the quality and shape of the drawing, solidity of a pencil line, location of the drawing on the paper, the size of the figure, features of the figures, use of the background and comments made by the respondent during the drawing task. The house reflects individual's interpersonal relationships, the tree reflects ego development and function and the Person reflects the individual self perception and perception of the other gender.

Advantages of Projective Tests

Some people may feel more comfortable talking in an unstructured situation than they would if they were required to participate in a structured interview or to complete the lengthy MMPI.

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

Lack of standardization in administration and scoring is a 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.

The reliability of scoring and interpretation tends to be low.

1-Personality Assessment

4-Life Outcome Data (L- Data)

The L-Data serve as an important source of information about the personality

Personality characteristics measured early in life are often linked to important life outcomes several decades later.

You can say that work, marriage, separation, divorce, and termination from job are manifestations of personality

2- Issues in Personality Assessment

There are two issues in the area of Personality Assessment

The issue of Links among various data sources.

The issue of Fallibility of Personality Measurement.

The issue of Links among various data sources.

The interpretation of links among the sources of personality data depends heavily on the research question being posed.

A strong agreement between two sources of data leads the researchers to be confident that their alternative measures are tapping into the same personality phenomenon while lack of strong commitment on the other hand may mean that different sources are assessing different personality phenomenon.

The Issue of Fallibility of Personality Measurement.

The exercise to overcome each data source problems or pitfalls that limits its utility is called Triangulation.

It means that if a particular effect is found, does the effect occur when measured with self report as well as with the observer reports.

Example

Suppose you are measuring the effect of Dominance on Leadership.

Now does the effect occur when the trait of dominance is measured with Self report as well as with another method of Observer- reports?

Evaluation of Personality Measures

Once the different personality measures are selected and chosen for the research the next important step is to evaluate them usually three standards or norms or measures are used which are following:

Validity

Reliability

Generalization

Validity

Validity refers to the extend to which a test measures what it claims to measure (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Wiggins, 2003)

Types of Validity

- Face validity
- Content validity
- Predictive validity
- Criterion validity
- Convergent validity
- Divergent validity
- Discriminant validity
- Construct validity

Reliability

It refers to the degree to which an obtained measure represents the true level of the trait being measured.

Suppose that an individual has some true amount of trait that you wish to measure and you can know this true level if you have a reliable measure (then it will correlate with the true level) so actually you are looking for consistency in the scores of measurements.

Kinds of Reliability Includes

- Test Retest Reliability or Repeated Measures
- Alternate Forms or Parallel Forms
- Split Half
- Other important things
- Inter Rater Reliability

A personality measure is considered to be reliable when demonstrated through Test Retest Reliability, Split Half or Internal Consistency or Inter Rater Reliability.

Generalizability

The third important norm of evaluating a personality measure is generalizability.

It is the degree to which the measure retains its validity across various contexts.

Is a measure equally good across various age groups, genders, cultures or different conditions?

Research designs in personality

There are three basic research designs used in personality psychology which are following:

- Experimental design
- Correlational design
- Case study

Each design has its advantages and limitations.

Experimental methods

They are typically used in determining causality.

Variable A causes variable B

So in order to establish the influence of one variable on another, the key requirements of a sound experimental design must be met which are following

Manipulation of one or more variables

Ensuring that the participants in each experimental condition (experimental or control group) are equivalent at the beginning of the study.

Random assignment of the subjects to ensure that the two groups have same characteristics as in the population.

Correlational Studies

The correlational studies as the name says measures the relationship between two or more variables.

The three things that are important in Correlational Studies

1-Magnitude of relationship

2-Direction of relationship

3-Correlations can never prove the causality

Case Studies

Case studies give in detail information related to the person

In case study design a number of tools can be used such as:

1- Coding Systems to be applied to written text.

2- Interview can be used with target person.

3- Audio and video recording of the person.

Case study can be viewed as valuable source of personality information.

It is most often used as a source of hypotheses and as means of bringing these hypotheses to life.

Example

Quaid-e-azam, Matin Luther King.

When to use Experimental, Correlational and Case Studies

The experimental design is ideally suited for establishing casual relationships among variables, but poor at identifying the relationships among variables as they occur naturally in everyday life.

Correlational studies are ideally suited for establishing the relationships between two or more variables s they occur in every day life.

They are poor in establishing causality.

Case studies are suited for generating hypotheses that can be tested using the experimental and correlational designs.

Summary

We have talked about sources of data collection in personality psychology.

Different research designs in personality psychology.

Evaluation

1- There are no perfect methods of personality assessment or measurement.

2- Neither there are perfect / fool proof research designs.

3- Different investigators use different data sources and research designs because they have different goals and purposes in conducting research.

Lesson 45

PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY: NEW DIRECTIONS IN THE DISCIPLINE

There has been tremendous contribution in each area of personality psychology some things have been added in existing concepts while totally new things have also been added such as the adjustment perspective or the focus on Neurological aspect of personality study.

1-Definition of personality

2-Analysis of personality

3-criteria to evaluate a theory

4- Personality Assessment

5-Perspectives of personality

6-New Directions in Personality Research

7- A Final Word

Now let us talk about new contributions in each and above area one by one. There are several definitions of personality but the current focus is on Adaptation and Person Environment Interaction.

1-Definition of personality

Personality is a set of traits or characteristics that describe the ways in which people are different from each other.

Traits such as shy or timid

Intelligent or Dumb, Generous or Miser, Talkative or Quiet

Traits and Theories of traits have performed important functions such as:

1- They help to describe people and help us to understand the dimensions difference between people.

2- Traits help to explain behavior (the why component of behavior).

3-Traits help to predict behavior (those who will cope with stress better?)

2- Psychological Mechanisms

Psychological Mechanisms refers to the processes of personality.

Most Psychological Mechanisms involve information processing activity. Psychological Mechanisms are not activated all the time rather they are activated under particular conditions or situations.

3- With in 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

1- 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.

2- Social environment also poses challenges such as we desire friends, mates, love, belongingness and unconditional positive regard.

3- 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.

Three levels of Personality analysis

Now every individual is similar to others in all respects while in certain respects the individual is similar to others and different from others as well so let us take each level one by one

1-Like all others (the human nature level)

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

3-Like no others (the individual uniqueness level)

(Kluckhohn & Murray, 1948)

1- Like all others (the human nature level)

The traits or mechanisms possessed by all of us.

For example nearly every human being has language skills which allow him or 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.

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)

Group differences

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 individuals not even identical twins raised by the same parents in the same home, country and culture 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 analysis

1-Like all others (universal level)

2-Like some others (individual and group level)

3-Like no others (the individual uniqueness level)

Criteria for Evaluation of Personality Theory

1. Verifiability
2 Heuristic Values
3. Internal Consistency
4. Parsimony
5. Comprehensiveness
6. Functional Significance

Some seventeen theories of personality covered in the course of personality psychology Freud, Jung, Adler, Karen Horney, Erickson, Maslow, Rogers, Murray, Sheldon, Sullivan, Allport, Cattle, Dollard and Miller, Bandura, Skinner, Ellis and Kelly.

Is there a grand ultimate or a true theory of personality?

No! There is no grand ultimate or a true theory of personality we can say that Freud's theory or Roger's theory or Maslow's theory.

A good theory of personality is one that fulfills three purposes in science which are given below

1- Provides a guideline to researchers

2- Organizes the known available findings

3- Makes predictions

Now all the three are equally important.

Personality can be approached or studied using the six perspectives or domains which are following .The first five domains are there in each and every book on Personality Psychology but it is the Adjustment perspective which was added later and it reflects the latest trend in Personality Psychology.

1- Dispositional

2- Biological

3- Intra-psychic

4- Cognitive / Experiential

5- Social and Cultural

6- Adjustment

Personality Measurement

It includes Personality Assessment and Personality Measurement is an important area where many new concepts have emerged let us look at them closely. Now keep in your mind that Personality Assessment deals with methods of data collection such as Self Report Data (S-Data), Observer Report Data (O-Data), Test Data (T-Data) and Life Outcome Data (L- Data). While Personality Measurement psychological tests definitely personality tests MMPI-I CPI, EPPS AND 16PF these are objective tests where as there are Projective personality test as well such RISB, TAT, WAT and many more.

1- Personality Assessment

Sources of Personality Data

1- Self Report Data (S-Data)

2- Observer Report Data (O-Data)

3- Test Data (T-Data)

4- Life Outcome Data (L- Data)

2- Issues in Personality Assessment

Links in data sources and the Pitfalls in different methods

3- Personality Measurement

1- Personality tests

- Objective-MMPI I
- Projective (subjective)

2- Evaluation of Personality Measures

- Reliability
- Validity
- Generalizability

3-Research Design used in personality

- Experimental Studies
- Correlational Studies
- Case Studies

Each design has its advantages and limitations.

New Frontiers in Personality Research

1- Study of cognitive processes and their relationship to other aspects of psychological functioning:

With the exceptions of Kelly and Bandura, the personality theorists discussed have almost totally disregarded the role of cognitive processes in understanding human functioning. Freud, for instance" viewed human nature primarily in terms of early childhood experiences and unconscious motivation. Skinner, on the other hand, treats personality as if it involves only the relationship between overt behavior and environmental reinforcement contingencies.

2- Study of especially productive, talented, and creative persons:

For all practical purposes, the formal study of personality had its beginnings in Freud's concern with the causes and treatment of pathological behavior. The history of personological inquiry, therefore, reflects a strong emphasis on behavioral phenomena observed most readily in psychotherapeutic situations. Even

today the study of personality remains closely tied to the investigation of psychologically disturbed persons. But times are changing, and so are the concerns and interests of personologists. In recent years, there has been a growing awareness that personology should not be exclusively preoccupied with pathological or defensive aspects of human functioning.

3- Study of the physiological and neurological determinants and bases of Personality:

In all likelihood, the contemporary scientific era will be recorded as the age of biology- and as a period in which advances in behavior genetics, biochemistry, psychopharmacology, and neurophysiology produced remarkable and decisive changes in the constructs and methods that guide inquiry in psychology in general. Yet, with the exceptions of Freud and Murray (the only two theorists in this text who truly acknowledge and stress the biological bases of behavior), personologists have almost totally ignored the need to study the neuro-physiological and biochemical components of human personality.

4- Study of personality development in middle and old age:

About one quarter of our lives is spent growing up and three-quarters growing old. It is ironic, therefore, that psychologists have devoted so much of their efforts to the study of childhood and adolescence. Two major assumptions underlie and partially explain this one-sided emphasis on the study of child and adolescent development: (1) selected adult behavior patterns are firmly established at an early age and (2) parental treatment during the initial years of life is a significant determinant of personality formation.

5- Study of self-regulatory processes and plans

The ability of human beings to control their own personal world has intrigued not only philosophers and psychologists but most laypersons as well. This presumed ability has taken on added importance in the context of today's chaotic world in which increasing numbers of people feel unable to shape the direction of their lives (Seligman, 1975). Accordingly, future study in personology will need to systematically examine the extent to which humans are capable of regulating their own behavior through self imposed goals and self-produced consequences. Some progress in this direction has already been achieved as a result of Bandura's theoretical and research contributions. His effort to delineate the ways in which we regulate our behavior by imposing goals or standards on ourselves and then reacting to our performances with self-praise or self-criticism promises to greatly enrich our understanding of self-control. Future study will especially need to consider the kinds of "priority rules" a person uses to select behavioral strategies that will lead to salient goals. That is, personality investigators will need to study the kinds of plans an individual makes to control the complicated sequences of steps leading to the attainment of long-range goal, e.g., how do people plan and organize their behavior so as to become doctors, lawyers, teachers, or senators? Attention will also be focused on the psychological processes that enable people to construct for themselves outlines of intended sequences of activity.

6- Study of the interaction of situational factors and personality variables and their relative contribution to behavior:

As the individual lectures on each theorist made clear, it is customary for most personologists (Skinner and Bandura excluded) to assume that personality variables (i.e., intra-psychic factors) are responsible for and can adequately explain a person's behavior as it varies from one situation to another. Freud's psychoanalytic theory and Allport's trait theory are by far the most thorough in their development of this person-oriented view. These two theorists have unequivocally assumed that personality is composed of broad and stable characteristics that operate regularly across a wide variety of situations that is traits underlie the observed consistencies in each person's behavior.

7- Study of problems relevant to the practical world of human affairs:

As we have repeatedly noted, the history of personological inquiry is intimately bound up with the study of psychopathology and personal adjustment. Efforts aimed at improving the human condition were defined largely in terms of what could be done to diagnose and treat disturbed individuals so that they could regain their mental health and live more productive lives. This orientation especially characterizes the theories of Freud, Adler, Rogers, Kelly, and to some extent, Erikson. Individual effectiveness and proper psychological functioning are also emphasized in the theories of Allport and Maslow.

Personality psychology is a very young field of inquiry. With comparatively few exceptions, it is only

during the past four decades that personality theories have emerged. Personology has nevertheless come of age by establishing itself as a viable area of study. The flourishing activity in personology is a function of the growing realization that people's most vital problems concern themselves and their relations to others.

Future theories will certainly not be carbon copies of existing ones, yet the ideas and insights embedded within the ten theories presented in this text cannot but have a decisive impact upon future conceptions of personality. This is because our ten theorists have struggled to resolve critical and enduring issues and because they have each contributed something to the understanding of the mystery of human nature. Accordingly, future theorists will be guided by the rich intellectual heritage of their predecessors.

The ultimate scientific significance of current personality theories will depend upon the extent to which they generate new research. Furthermore, theories of personality must be self-corrective in the light of new empirical evidence if they are to remain useful to the scientific enterprise.

In the concluding section we suggest that new frontiers in personality research will be explored in seven general areas: (1) study of cognitive processes and their relationship to other aspects of psychological functioning; (2) study of especially productive, talented, and creative persons; (3) study of the physiological and neurological determinants and bases of personality; (4) study of personality development in middle and old age; (5) study of self-regulatory processes and plans; (6) study of the interaction of situational factors and personality variables and their relative contribution to behavior; and (7) study of problems relevant to the practical world of human affairs. Imaginative and critical study in these areas promises to deepen and enrich our conceptions of personality.

A Final Word

1- Much about the personality domain remains unknown.

2- The best explanation related to personality comes from theories of personality.

3- If a psychological problem arises select and chose therapeutic technique that is suitable for the person.

The course covered a vast territory of personality that constitutes the vital fabric of modern psychology. The focus of the study is certainly the "total individual."

1- An integrated and clear concept about Personality has been established.

2- An understanding of personality assessment and measurement has been created.

3- All important Theories of Personality discussed.

4- The key themes in Theories of Personality identified.

5- Elaboration of each personality theory and its concepts with examples from Pakistani culture.

6- Focus on Self understanding and self analysis.

Benefits to students who are enrolled in the different courses at VU in following ways

Benefits of the Personality Psychology Course

1- Personality Growth and development focused (self actualization and self esteem)

2- Clarity about self and academic goals.

3- Adapt to changes in society and environment (technological advances)

4- Academic pressures can be reduced by learning new skills—life skills (stress adaptation)

5- Academic performance can be enhanced knowing your personality traits

Benefits of personality psychology course at

1-Individual level --self understanding, analysis and adjustment

2-Community level--Understanding group differences

3-National level

Each personality theory and its concepts have been discussed with examples from Pakistani culture to help

Pakistani people live their lives more fully and satisfyingly highlighting healthy patterns of self growth.

Applications

This course of personality psychology can be a real asset to

Business and economics students, Law students, Medical students

Human resource managers and students, administration and public affairs students, mass communication students and literature and language students.

Conscious efforts to understand and resolve intra-psychic and extra-psychic conflicts which often are the primary irritants in our society, with Personality Psychology Knowledge you can smooth out these irritants.

This course would have given you an opportunity to be a congenial personality for yourself as well as for others.