
UNIT 1 DEFINITION, ORIGINS AND CHARACTERISTICS FEATURES OF PERSONALITY

Structure

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The word “personality” has been derived from the Latin word “persona” which means a mask worn by an actor while performing a character on the stage. Thus personality is taken to mean the characteristic pattern or style of behaviour of the person revealed from his external appearance. The external properties of a person include his dress, speech, bodily actions, postures, habits and expressions. Thus a person endowed with good external properties is considered to possess a good personality and vice versa. But you know this is not the reality. Mere external properties can not make a personality. And if we go by this concept how and where would we rate the personality of persons like Mahatma Gandhi, Lal Bahadur Shastri. George Bernard Shaw and many others whose external appearance was not highly endowed. These persons are certainly not favored by nature in external properties. Therefore, it was realised that personality included something more than external properties and the concept of external appearance in personality was relegated to background.

The word personality now stood for an all inclusive concept. It is the sum total of an individual’s properties as a distinct and unique human being. The external properties are directly observed, while the internal are only inferred from the behaviour of a

person. The concept of personality is a derived concept. The derivation is possible in three ways:

- 1 The first is subjective, popular derivation based on subjective impressions formed by the individual's behaviour and is expressed through evaluative expressions like charming, dominating, weak or bold personality.
- 1 The second derivation of personality is based on an objective description of the overt responses of the individual.
- 1 The third derivation is organismic according to which personality is the inner pattern of a person's characteristics.

In the first unit of this block, we intend to discuss various definitions of personality, characteristics features of personality and dimension of personality. We shall highlight definitions of personality from various angles like, popular definitions, political definition, psychological definition, and so on. We shall discuss how personality is organised, why we call it a dynamic system. While discussing dimensions of personality, we shall highlight trait dimension and motivation dimension. Allport's definition of personality best represents third concept.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

It is expected that after reading this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Understand and discuss the concept of personality;
- 1 Understand different definitions of personality;
- 1 Understand the characteristic features of personality;
- 1 Understand and discuss in your own words different dimensions of personality; and
- 1 Will be able to write an essay on the concept and various aspects of personality.

1.2 DEFINITIONS OF PERSONALITY

According to Allport (1961) personality is the "dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment" It means that personality "resides" within the individual and these systems are woven into an organisation. Personality is not static but dynamic, the organisational pattern determines the kind and degree of adjustment of the individual to his environment, and this adjustment-pattern is unique to the individual. With the Latin meaning of the term personality taking backseat and acceptance of personality as an all inclusive concept scientists from different disciplines of knowledge approached personality from different angles. Their efforts can be summarised under the following headings:

1.2.1 Popular Definitions of Personality

This includes those definitions of personality which place emphasis on social values. For example, a person who is attractive and good looking, is liberal, easily mixes up in social situations and exhibits socially desirable characteristics, is considered in popular parlance as having the best personality. However, this definition does not fit every individual. Going by this definition would result in some people having no personality at all. Besides, you know very well that in real life we often encounter people who have all the charms, they exhibit all the socially desirable traits but their

tendencies are antisocial, for instance, noted criminal Sobhraj. He has an exterior pleasing personality but basically has a criminal behavioural tendency. He killed many innocent people.

1.2.2 Political Definition of Personality

According to political definition a person has personality only when he is charismatic, attractive and represents the masses. He should be able to present himself in an impressive manner at a public debate. His personal life should be marred with scandals. Even this definition is not acceptable for if we accept this definition then majority of political leaders should not have any personality.

1.2.3 Biophysical Definition of Personality

This category of definitions regards personality as organic internal element of a person. It regards personality as consisting of traits which lend themselves to objective measurement. For example, Sheldon classified people on the basis of physique. He described three types of personality namely: endomorphic, mesomorphic and ectomorphic, with endomorphic being fat and fleshy, mesomorphic being athletic in build with a lot of muscles and ectomorphic being thin and bony in build. .

1.2.4 Ominibus Definition

This category includes all those concepts which lay emphasis on the description of personality. Morton Prince (1924)'s definition best represents this approach. According to him "personality is the sum total of all biological, innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites and instincts of the individual and the acquired dispositions and tendencies acquired by experiences. Although all encompassing, it is criticized on the basis of this being highly subjective and complex.

1.2.5 Integrative Definition

Essence of this definition lies in finding order and consistency in the behaviour of an individual across different situations. Thus personality is a pattern or organisation. For example, Cagan and Haveman define personality as the total pattern of characteristic ways of thinking, feeling and behaving that constitute the individual's distinctive method of relating to the environment.

1.2.6 Psychological Definition

This definition includes all those which define personality on the basis of variables like adjustment, temperament, uniqueness, and dynamic organisation. Under this category we can place quite a number of definitions but for our purposes we will consider only a few.

- 1 Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment. (Allport, 1938).
- 1 Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique that determine his unique adjustment to his environment. (Eysenck, 1952).
- 1 Personality usually refers to the distinctive patterns of behaviour (including thoughts and emotions) that characterise each individual's adaptations to the situations of his life or her life. (Walter Mischel, 1981).

- 1 Personality is generally defined as individual's unique and relatively stable patterns of behaviour, thoughts and emotions. (Baron, 1993).

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the component factors of personality according to Allport?

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- 2) Describe the different definitions of personality and indicate how each helps in understanding personality.

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1.3 CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF PERSONALITY

Now if you carefully analyse all these definitions of personality, you will find the following:

- a) **Psychophysical systems:** Personality is a system that has both psychological and physical aspects. This system is composed of interacting elements and the main elements of the system are traits, emotions, intellect, temperament, character and motives. All these elements are psychological but they are based in the neurology and endocrinology of the body.
- b) **Dynamic organisation:** It signifies that different elements of psychological system are independent but function in an interlocking manner and are subject to change. However this change can take place over a period of time in a gradual manner.

Dynamism of personality

Let me cite you an example, suppose your friend Shyam is extrovert, fun loving care free person. His motto of life is to enjoy, therefore, he is least disciplined, does not value punctuality and hard work in life. He is the eldest son in his family with two younger sisters. Both of you pass out from the same college. You proceed abroad for higher studies. After your return from abroad, you suddenly meet Shyam on one fine evening but notice that he is no more the earlier Shyam. On inquiry you find that the sudden demise of his father changed his life. The entire responsibility of catering to his family fell on his shoulder. He had to take of his mother, younger sisters' education and their marriage. All this had brought about a change in his personality and ways of thinking and behaving. Thus environmental experiences bring about a change in one's personality.

Another example may be of a person who too has a happy go lucky attitude toward life. One day he falls ill and comes to know that both his kidneys are not supporting his body and at the most he will survive two or three years more, that too with the help of medicine. He can no longer play football or indulge in pleasures of life. His gait, way of talking, perception of life all undergo changes and you find that he is no longer his earlier self but a totally new person.

The above examples may seem to you quite radical, but changes in the personality of all individuals do come as they enter new roles, responsibilities and circumstances.

- c) **Consistency:** Since personality is a stable organisation it also has the element of consistency. By consistency we mean that an individual behaves in the same way in different situations and behavioural consistency is found when same situation is repeated across time. Psychologists give four types of consistency.
- 1 Type “A” consistency: In this type the situation and behaviour remain same. For example, a football player is asked to play match against team X and after 10 days he asked to play against the team.
 - 1 Type “B” consistency: When the same behaviour is repeated in two different situations. For example, a person appears for an interview before one selection board then he appears for interview for the same job before another board in the final round.
 - 1 Type “C” consistency: When an individual is asked to behave differently in the same situation. For example, when an actor is asked to imitate different actors.
 - 1 Type “D” consistency: When a person behaves differently in different situations. A person is able to behave in different situations according to the demand of the situation because he is influenced by particular type of traits. For example, a person is supposed treat his students differently as compared to his colleagues. His behaviour with his parents would be different form that with his friends.
- d) **Unique adjustment to environment:** Every person is characterised with a dynamic organisation of psychological traits that makes his adjustment. The reason for this is that experiences of every person are unique therefore their reaction to the environment is also unique. You may notice that even identical twins who come out of the same embryo, though have the same genetic make up, react differently to the same situation because their frame of references is unique.
- e) **Development of personality structure:** Personality development is the natural quality of a growing organism. The path is from simple to increasingly complex factors and situations an individual has to pass by. According to Heniz Werner, at birth the mental organisation of the infant expands slowly. Through interactions with the environment, the parts of the child’s mental structure become progressively crystallised and differentiated from each other. The analytical stage is followed by synthesis or integration when the differentiated parts become functionally organised. From a diffused mass through progressive differentiation to an integrated whole is, then the course of development of personality structure.
- f) **Consciousness:** Personality is conscious in that it develops out of our interaction with the environment. This interaction results in formation of concept of self. Self-concept means who we are and what we stand for. All the responses of a human being are oriented toward protection of the self concept.
- g) **Potentiality for change:** Potential for change is another characteristic of personality. The earlier psychoanalytical view did hold personality as a rigid structure. However, modern humanistic theories have demonstrated not only the human has the capacity for reorganisation but also the conditions do foster change. Integration or organisation is the quality of the human personality, that is it occurs to human beings naturally and normally. It is the normal development

outcome of personality structure. Disorganisation, that is, the isolation of the functions of the individual parts from the total system, is a pathological condition (Goldstein) of a psychological disorder.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What are the four types of consistency in personality?

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2) What are the characteristic features of personality?

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1.4 DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY

Let me ask you a question. How many people you have come across since you grew up? A reasonable answer would be thousands. Now another question is how many of these people were similar in terms of personality? Again a reasonable answer is that none of them was similar or identical in terms of personality. They might have exhibited similar characteristics say for example, extroversion but they might not have exhibited extroversion in identical quantity or manner. Thus you can conclude from your own observation that no two people in the world are identical in terms of personality. This principle applies to identical twins as well. Now the problem is how to explain these differences in the personality of the people. Psychologists on the basis of researches have identified some dimensions of personality to explain differences in personality.

Now the question is what are these dimensions? Actually these dimensions are category scales which help us understand behaviour of individuals in terms of its main traits, motivational power, temperament and character. Chiefly these dimensions are of four types: traits, motivation, temperament and character.

1.4.1 Traits

Traits are relatively permanent characteristics of personality which compel an individual to behave consistently across different situations. People can be compared by measuring these traits. We call these traits relatively permanent because they change over time. For example, an introvert person may not remain that introvert after 10 years. Some of the important traits are (a) Introversion-extroversion; (b) Neuroticism-stability (c) Psychoticism

a) Introversion-extroversion

It is a bipolar trait. People with predominance of introversion are self-centered. Such people are idealistic, imaginative, shy and secluded. Predominance of thoughtfulness steers them in the world of brooding, fantasy and daydreaming. These people take considerable time in reaching decision and are worried about the future. Such people are theoretical and often are philosophers, poets, scientist and professors.

Extroverts are more inclined to social activities. They are gregarious and social by nature. Such people are realistic, practical, talkative, and active. They show more interest in leadership. However, very few people are completely extrovert or introvert. Majority of the people fall in between that is, they exhibit some degree of introversion and some degree of extroversion in their behaviour and hence are called *Ambiverts*.

Now the question is why are some people introvert and some extrovert? Are there any physiological correlates of it? Researches reveal that introvert and extroverts differ in cortical excitation level. Extroverts have lower cortical excitation threshold, therefore, small amount of stimulation is sufficient to activate them. This fact makes them sensation seeking. On the other hand cortical excitation level of introverts is quite high as a result they remain unaffected by stimulation from external environment.

b) **Neuroticism stability dimension**

This too is a bipolar dimension. People high on neuroticism exhibit particular traits and behavioural tendencies. They show lack of emotional control and will power with an added characteristic of slowness in thought process and activity. Even small things perturb them. People with high neuroticism are high on suggestibility and low on sociability. However, such people are also characterised by increased emotional impulsiveness.

Contrary to neuroticism, people high on stability are cool and do not get easily disturbed or perturbed by conflicting issues. They are able to keep themselves under control even in most difficult circumstances. They can detach themselves and think over the problem in a balanced manner so as to arrive at a right decision. This quality of them makes them realistic and problem solution oriented.

As for the physiological correlates of neuroticism and stability, it is believed that autonomic nervous system of people with high neuroticism is more reactive. These people are vulnerable to reaction to environmental stimulus. Researches reveal that people with high cortical excitation threshold and increased autonomic reactivity show more acute and explicit symptoms of disorders like phobia, anxiety disorder, and obsessive-compulsive disorder.

c) **Psychoticism dimension**

People with this trait show lack of concentration power and weak memory. They are also characterised with insensitivity. They are more worried for themselves than for others. Element of cruelty and sensation seeking marks their behaviour and they are unable to protect themselves from danger and dangerous situations.

d) **Internal and external locus of control**

Locus of control refers to internal or external control over reinforcement resulting from operating response upon the environment. In fact it is the development of a generalised expectancy within the individual as to how he receives reinforcement. People with internal locus of control think that skill coupled with hard work, foresightedness and feeling of responsibility can change their fate and bring reinforcement. While people high on external locus of control think that reinforcement is not in their control that is, they can not influence the outcome of happenings. Whatever happens is ascribed to luck and coincidence.

Table 1: Characteristics of people with Internal and External Locus of Control

Internal Locus of control subjects	External locus of control subjects
1 Refrain from situations which threaten control over reinforcement.	1 Not able to keep balance in situations of learned helplessness.
1 They like to maintain a certain probability of success.	1 They show more conformity to social influence
1 characterised with independence of thinking.	1 Depend on others for opinions to quite an extent.
1 When deciding about a target, make use of information present in the environment and their previous experiences in this regard	1 Even in regard to target they go by what others say
1 Give serious and long consideration before arriving at a decision.	1 Take quick decisions
1 While arriving at a decision, they rely more on their skill than leaving things on chance factors.	1 They discuss with others and take their opinions
1 More resistant to social influence.	1 Get easily influenced by outside social factors.

e) Field dependence–independence

This relates to differences in information processing. Field dependent person is directly influenced by the stimuli and events in his environment because he accepts all these information in a non-selective manner while field independent person selects information coming from the environment on the basis of internal cues coming from within. The differences between these two factors are given in the table below.

Table 2: Differences between field dependent and field independent personalities

Field -dependent	Field -independent
1 Goes by the cues available outside externally	1 Is endowed with capabilities that allow him to make effective use of his cognitive abilities
1 Less oriented towards problem solving tasks	1 More oriented towards problem solving tasks
1 Does not have the ability to reality monitoring	1 Has better ability for reality monitoring in memory. Reality monitoring is the capacity to determine if a the origin of an information is external or internal
1 More responsive to social stimuli	1 Less responsive to social stimuli
1 Considered more friendly, considerate, and warm by others	1 Considered less friendly and less warm by others.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Which of the following is not a personality trait? tick mark the odd one
A) introversion-extroversion B) inward-outward C) Psychoticism
D) neuroticism-stability E) field independence-dependence
- 2) Differentiate between introvert and extrovert subjects.

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1.4.2 Motivation

Psychologists widely believe that for a person to engage in some particular behaviour the presence of motivation is a must. This dimension of personality includes all those motivational activities which while directing a person towards the target, give rise to specific patterns of behaviour. Motivational dimension include the following:

a) Achievement motive dimension

It refers to motivation which impels a person to work in a manner that ensures success in that work. People with high achievement motivation are characterised by the following aspects:

- 1 Liking for tasks that have high probability of success.
- 1 Accomplish those tasks on which comparison is possible.
- 1 Tasks that reflect personal characteristics are more liked by people high on achievement motivation.
- 1 Success on a given task makes achievement oriented people raise their aspiration level.
- 1 Such people like to work in situations where they have control over outcome so that they can determine whether success would be coming or not.
- 1 Achievement motivation reflects gender differences. Usually girls are less achievement oriented as compared to boys.
- 1 Presence of achievement motivation in a person depends on independence training. For example, children of parents who allow and motivate their offspring to do things for themselves are more achievement oriented as compared to children of parents who are over indulgent with their offsprings.

b) Power motive dimension

This refers to the tendency of a person that impels the individual to establish his or her influence and suzerainty over others. Such people are able to make others act according to their directions through threat or pleading. following are the characteristics of high power motive people:

- 1 Such persons whether he is playing a game or is in real war with other person tries his best to eliminate the opponent.
- 1 Person with high power motivation are often intolerant of low socio economic strata persons. Such people treat others on the basis of power scale so that those less powerful are considered inhuman while those above them in the

power scale are attributed all qualities. Thus high power motivation people are quite aggressive and impulsive toward low social status people.

- 1) Such people are found of collecting antiques and expensive things which they readily show to cast impression on others.

c) Affiliation motive dimension

Human beings are social animal. They like to live with members of their own species. People high on affiliation are gregarious and liberal. Affiliation has two dimensions, first positive dimension, it is reflected in hope for affiliation and, second negative dimension which is reflected in fear of rejection. Like achievement motivation individual differences are found in affiliation motive.

d) Approval motive dimension

It controls those behaviours which we undertake to secure praise and approval of significant others. When active this motive makes us seek social approval for our thoughts and responses. We follow the dos and don'ts of the society in order to become the acceptable member of the society.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What is motivation? Define with suitable answer.

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- 2) What are the various dimensions of motivation?

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1.4.3 Temperament

Temperament is the third main dimension of personality. It refers to the sum total of the emotional and affective tendencies of the person. Sensitivity, irritability, nervousness, pleasantness are some of the adjective used to describe temperament. Temperament is believed to be the innate quality of person that means it is present at the time of birth.

1.4.4 Character

By character we mean moral excellences. As a dimension of personality character signifies the morality or immorality in the person. It is the learned aspect of personality and is acquired through process of socialisation. It is also known as *conscience*. In a way it is similar to Freud's superego and represents the do's and don'ts. Violation of conscience arises pangs of guilt in the individual.

1.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we studied the concept of personality, its origin and derivations. We studied different definitions of personality i.e. popular definition, biophysical definition, political, omnibus, integrative and psychological definitions. We studied how these definitions partially explain the concept of personality. This was followed by a study of the characteristic features of personality. We are now able to understand how personality is organised, and why we call it a dynamic system. We now know personality keeps evolving throughout life and it is not static. Now we also know and can explain in our own words why we call personality conscious. We studied the different dimensions of personality like- trait dimension, motivational dimension, temperament dimension and character dimension. We also studied trait and motivational dimension in some detail.

1.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What do you understand by the term personality? Discuss in detail.
- 2) “Personality is conscious” comment in the light of characteristic features of personality.
- 3) Discuss the trait dimension of personality, in detail. Also give examples.
- 4) Define motivation and discuss various motivational dimensions.

1.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

John Maltby, Liz Day, Ann Macaskill (2009). *Personality, Individual Differences and Intelligence* (2nd edition) Pearson Education Europe, Middle East and Africa., Canada.

Robert B. Ewen (1998). *An Introduction to Theories of Personality* (5th edition) Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers , New Jersey.

Cooper, C. (2002). *Individual Differences* (2nd edition) New York: Oxford University Press.

UNIT 2 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERSONALITY

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Hereditary Factors
 - 2.2.1 Physique and Physical Health
 - 2.2.2 Endocrin System
 - 2.2.3 Nervous System
- 2.3 Environmental Factors
 - 2.3.1 Social Factors
 - 2.3.2 Cultural Factors
 - 2.3.3 Economic Factors
- 2.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.5 Unit End Questions
- 2.6 Suggested Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

We can assume that after going through the first unit you would have developed a fair understanding of what personality is. Personality is something that we partially inherit from our parents and partially it is product of the environment in which we are brought up. Therefore, in this unit we will try to understand those factors which go in the making of personality or in other words we will be studying factors that influence and shape our personality. These factors can be categorised under two broad headings, viz., (i) Hereditary factors and (ii) Environmental factors.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading of this unit, you should be able to:

- 1 discuss the concept of heredity;
- 1 discuss endocrine system and its impact upon personality;
- 1 discuss the role of nervous system in the development of personality; and
- 1 discuss the role of environmental factors that influence development.

2.2 HEREDITARY FACTORS

Heredity includes all those factors that we inherit from our parents. Such factors are innate, that is, they are present in the individual before the time of birth or at the time of birth and determine the path of development of our personality. Hereditary factors that contribute to personality development do so as a result of interactions with the specific social environments in which people live. In other words, personality is the sum total of what a person is. That is, it consists of behaviours, thoughts and feelings that endure throughout life. Heredity is just like the blue print of our personality

which defines the broad limits of personality within which our personality will take shape. Hereditary factors include the following: (i) Physique and physical health (ii) Endocrine system (iii) Nervous system

2.2.1 Physique and Physical Health

By physical structure we mean height, color, constitution, composition of body etc. Generally, a person with good physical structure and constitution enjoys good health. Traits of physical structure are largely received in inheritance. For example, you would have observed that children of parents having good height are often taller while children of parents with shorter height are often less tall. Similar is the case with color, children of fair color parents are often fair and children of parents with dark complexion are often dark. However, this rule is not followed in every case. Very often we see children having physical characteristics or traits that do not appear similar to that of their parents but with their ancestors. This means that heredity goes beyond our immediate parents. A child in fact is likely to receive biological characteristics of ancestors in the previous seven generations.

Mendel (an Austrian Saint) through his experiments on pea plants proved that children inherit the average of the physical traits of their parents. For example, If the father is tall and mother is of short height, the children in all probability gain average height of both parents. You must be wondering why I am telling you all this about physical features. Actually our physical make up affect our mental or psychological traits and ultimately our behaviour.

Very often we notice that individuals with good physical structure and beauty are centre of attraction of others. Their parents, neighbours, teachers and peers develop favorable attitude toward them. As a result such children develop traits of self-confidence, responsibility, sociability, and punctuality and sometimes feeling of superiority as well, while children not gifted with good physical structure and physical beauty are looked down upon by others. Consequently they develop feelings of inferiority, emotional instability. They become shy and introvert.

The effects are more pronounced when the individual is actually afflicted with physical deformity. When scores on emotional stability test of a group of crippled girls were compared with that of normal girls, it was found that the crippled girls had significantly low mean scores on emotional stability. That means they were less emotionally stable. You must have observed in your surroundings that such individuals often have tendency to seek other's approval. Have you ever thought why do they behave like this? They try to endear us by seeking our approval only to compensate their physical lack.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you understand by the term heredity?

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2) What are all factors that are part of heredity endowment?

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2.2.2 Endocrine System

Our glandular system affects our personality and behaviour a great deal. It is well known that the many glands in our system regulate varied types of activities that are going on within our bodily system. However the question arises as to how are these glands which regulate our system affect our personality. You know at times we are very active but there are also times when we are depressed without any apparent reason. Actually the reason for this lies in constant chemical changes taking place in our body. These changes are a result of functioning of glands.

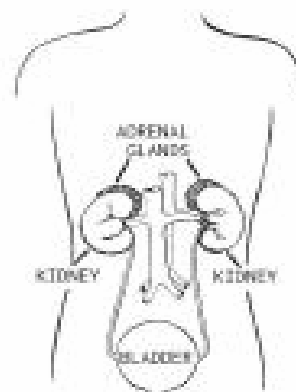
Glands are of two types — **endocrine glands** and **exocrine glands**. Of these, the more important one is the endocrine glands. While secretions of exocrine glands go out of our body, the endocrinal secretions are released directly to our blood stream. Following are some of main endocrine glands: (i) Pituitary gland (ii) Adrenal gland (iii) Thyroid gland (iv) Pancreas and (v) Sex gland.

- i) **Pituitary gland** is located in the brain below the hypothalamus. Anterior part of the pituitary secretes a hormone called somatotropin or growth hormone. Excessive secretion of this hormone in early childhood makes a person giant. If you read newspaper, you would have read about a Pakistani national being the tallest (8 feet 1 inch) person of the world. It is because of over secretion of growth hormone. Hypo secretion of this leads to dwarfism.



Posterior pituitary secretes pituitrin responsible for maintaining blood pressure, alertness in smooth muscles and helps kidneys function normally. Hormones released by anterior pituitary other than somatotropin are called tropic hormones. These hormones help regulate and control the functioning of adrenal gland, thyroid gland and sex glands. Any abnormal functioning of these glands is corrected by this part of pituitary thus ensuring continued normal development of personality. Therefore, pituitary is called the master gland.

- ii) **Adrenal gland** is located above the kidneys,. It has two parts. Outer part is called **adrenal cortex** while inner part is called **adrenal medulla**



Adrenal cortex produces cortin which helps regulate carbohydrates, salt and metabolism. The malfunctioning of this gland may result in the individual's increased

inactivity leading to tiredness and insomnia. Excessive lack of it may even cause unconsciousness.

Adrenal medulla secretes adrenaline and noradrenaline. Of the two, adrenaline is more important which controls emotional state of the individual. It helps prepare our body to meet emergency situation so that we can adjust ourselves with the environment. For this reason it is also called emergency hormone as well. Adrenaline when pumped into the blood stream, (i) increases activity level of the individual, (ii) heart beat and respiration are increased, (iii) the digestive system gets suspended, (iv) blood sugar increases and (v) the body is ready to fight emergency situation.

For example, when we find a stray dog running towards us we just run away from it with our full strength. In such emergency situations it is the adrenal gland that secretes adrenaline which prepares our body to meet this unexpected situation. Our heart works faster and pumps more blood, respiration increases to supply greater amount of oxygen to lungs. Similarly, digestion gets suspended to save energy and release it for emergency action.

iii) **Thyroid gland** is located in the throat and produces thyroxin that regulates metabolic activity of the entire body. Its functioning affects physical growth a great deal. Hyposecretion of thyroxin in early childhood results in dwarfism while its lack in adulthood leads to a specific physical condition known as myxedema.

Hyposecretion lowers metabolic activity which in turn slows down heart beat, respiration, and body temperature. Over secretion of thyroxin makes a person overenthusiastic and overactive. Blood circulation increases and there is gradual reduction in body weight. The individual show signs of irritability and appears anxiety ridden.

Parathyroid very small in size it weighs only 1 gm. Its hormone is called parathormone. Parathormone regulates quantity of calcium and phosphate in blood. Blood calcium maintains excitability level of nerve tissue. Higher quantities of calcium in blood keep the balance in nerve excitability. Less than normal secretion brings about lethargy in body and the nerve tissues are not able to function properly. Destruction of parathyroid sometimes leads to death of animals.

iv) **Pancreas:** This gland is located just below the stomach. As an endocrine gland it secretes two types of hormones from two different types of cells. Beta cells are responsible for the production of *insulin* while alpha cells produce a hormone called *glucagon*. Of the two types of hormones insulin is more important which controls the quantity of blood sugar in blood. Insulin initiates oxidation of sugar in blood so that body gets adequate energy. Hyposecretion of insulin results in higher quantities of sugar because oxidation is not taking place. This increased sugar is released through urine, a disease known as *diabetes*. While hypersecretion of insulin results in lowered quantities of sugar because of too much of oxidation, a condition known as *hypoglycemia*. Victims of hypoglycemia appear anxiety ridden, they experience illusions and hallucinations and in cases the patient may even enter state of unconsciousness.

v) **Sex gland** female sex glands are called ovaries while male sex glands are called testicles. Testicles produce androgens which are of two types namely testosterone and andosterone. These are responsible for development of primary and secondary sex characteristics among males. On reaching puberty a spurt in the secretion of these hormones is seen. Hormones secreted from ovaries are called estrogens and progesterone. Increased levels of estrogens in

blood result in development of secondary sexual characteristics among girls like shrilling of voice, growth of hair at certain parts of the body, development of breasts etc. Progesterone prepares uterus to ensure proper development of fetus.

Discussion of various glands and the hormones secreted by them makes it amply clear that they affect the development of physical as well as mental traits. Although all these glands are independent of each other yet they function in an interlocking manner such that disturbance in the functioning of one gland is partly corrected by other gland.

2.2.3 Nervous System

Why is it that some people are more intelligent, have more impressive personality? Does it have anything to do with the nervous system? Does nervous system play any role in the formation of personality? Often when we meet some intelligent persons we say he has more gray matter. But what do psychologists say in this regard? Psychologists usually believe that a person with more complex and developed nervous system has greater level of intellectual capabilities, and is considered more able to adjust with different situations. Such individuals are viewed favourably by others and are praised for their personality traits. Development of nervous system determines a person's actual accomplishment in the society and his social status in the society. For example, any maldevelopment in hippocampus leads to deficits in short term memory in that the person is unable to process information from short term to long term memory.

Have you seen Amir Khan's movie "Gazini" where the hero is unable to retain information. Just imagine what would be your personality if cerebellum is under developed or gets damaged. Let me tell you, our cerebellum coordinates our motor activities. When we walk it controls our gait. Now imagine what will happen if cerebellum gets damaged. Our walk will be disorganised and we may become subject of ridicule and fun. Such experiences do affect our thinking and psychological makeup.

Now we come back to gray matter, actually all our higher mental processes are controlled and regulated by cortex encased in the bony skull and if the bony skull is removed it appears gray colored. Now the established fact is that greater the number of convulsions in cortex the more developed it is and the more weighty it would be. Therefore, people with developed nervous system are more intelligent. Such individuals are fast in developing traits like responsibility, punctuality, emotional stability, self-confidence and ego-strength. On the other hand, individuals with less developed nervous system have less ability to adjust. Because of their limited intellectual capabilities they often fall prey to many character disorders and their personality development is adversely affected.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What are the various glands that contribute to growth and development? Give in detail.

.....

.....

.....

2) What is the gland that is associated with pancreas and what are the hormones that they secrete and how do they contribute to growth and development?

.....

3) Activity for the student

Match the following glands with hormones they secrete

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------|
| A) Pituitary gland | A) Thyroxin |
| B) Adrenal gland | B) Somatotropin |
| C) Thyroid gland | C) Insulin |
| D) Parathyroid gland | D) Adrenaline |
| E) Pancreas | E) Parthorone. |

2.3 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Personality is not born out of only hereditary factors. Heredity provides only the blue print in terms of chromosomes and genes. But the actual action on that gene is dependent on the availability of environment conducive for that. For example, a person may have mathematical ability but this ability cannot be refined unless that person is provided the opportunity to exercise his ability for maths. Similarly, an individual gifted with talent for music may not become a musician until he gets training and exposure to music. Thus, heredity only provides the raw material what is to be developed out of that material solely depends upon environment in which the person is brought up. Environmental factors are broadly summarized under three headings:

- i) Social factors,
- ii) Cultural factors, and
- iii) Economic factors.

2.3.1 Social Factors

Human beings are social animals. We are born and brought up in society. Therefore, social conditions, social institutions – family, school, marriage, religion, peer groups and neighbourhood as well as various other social groups will all affect the development of personality. Some of the more important social factors are:

- 1 **Parents** – parents are the first persons who enter into interaction with the child. Different parents treat their child differently. Some are very permissive and indulgent in that they just ignore the mistakes and try to do everything for the child not letting him fend for himself. Children of such parents become callous, demanding and exploitative in interpersonal relations besides they lack in self-confidence. Whereas parents who are strictly disciplinarian make their children submissive, shy and emotionally unstable.
- 1 **Home environment** – the kind of environment in a family exists affects our personality a great deal. Families which enjoy strong emotional tie among siblings and parents, are supportive and encouraging to their children. Children from such families are self-confident, proactive and emotionally stable.

- 1 **Birth order** – Adler was the first psychologist to propagate that ordinal position of a child among his siblings i.e. birth order also affects the way personality is shaped. Adler on the basis of his study told that first born children are often seclusive and introvert while the youngest or last born have feelings of inferiority, lack of confidence and self-reliance. Single or only child have the trait of dependency and self-centeredness. They are exploitative and demanding also. Middle order children have self-confidence, ego-strength and need for achievement.
- 1 **School** – After family school is the second agent which profoundly affects shaping of personality. School affect personality in two ways – first, it affects development of personality traits. Second it leads to self-confidence. Teacher’s personality, classroom environment, discipline system and academic achievement all influence the child. Children learn social traits of cooperation, adjustment and sharing. They develop realistic self-concept. Academic achievements and co-curricular activities at school result in high ego strength.
- 1 **Neighbourhood** – The kind of neighbourhood one lives in has a decided impact upon ones personality. Since birds of the same feather flock together, neighbourhood families are not different in their social class, etc., and provide a smooth transition from home to culture. They share almost similar values and rearing patterns but expose the child to different family styles, and the child learns how to deal with the variety. The characteristics of neighbourhoods are that they are more objective than the parents, treat the child as a person and therefore they are both less approving and less critical, and with different emphasis in child-behaviour. You might have noticed that often criminals come from social milieu where moral standards and values receive back seat and living conditions are abysmally low. Children from such environments lack in discipline, responsibility, sensibility, and self-respect.
- 1 **Social acceptance** – Social acceptance means receiving approval and praise from significant others. You know all of us crave for social acceptance from our parents, teachers and friends. Therefore in order to gain acceptance from them deliberately mould our behaviour and attitude. People who receive greater social acceptance have qualities of leadership, self-confidence and feelings of superiority while those who receive less social acceptance often are introvert, low self-esteem and lack of social adjustment.

2.3.2 Cultural Factors

Culture is a broad term and includes in it all the customs, traditions, folks, fashions, fads and mores. We all are part of one or other culture. Therefore, cultural effect on personality is bound to take place. Cultural effect is most prominently seen in the way we welcome and greet people. In India when we meet someone greet with folded hands and say namaskar while when a Japanese meets someone he bows before and when an American meets someone he either shakes hand or kisses the other person. This apparent difference in welcoming another person is simply because of learning in a culture. Let me cite you an example of how culture affects development of personality traits. In a classical study by Gadiner (1969) children from America, Thailand, Taiwan, and Germany were compared on hostility trait. Results showed Thai children scored the highest on hostility with American children scoring the least. In another study of drawings by Mexican and Anglo-American children it was found that drawings by Mexican children exhibited masculine traits more than that of Anglo-American children, and this may be because in Mexican culture higher value is placed on the development of masculinity.

Child rearing practices – Different cultures have different child rearing practices. In cultures where physical punishment is heavily relied upon for bringing up children, traits of hostility, aggressiveness and introversion develop more frequently. But in cultures where parents make less use of physical punishment and interact with children more frequently traits of curiosity, extroversion and creativity find more expression among children.

Do you know that sex differences in personality are determined by culture ? Arapesh, a tribe living in New Guinea does not make much difference between males and females and places more emphasis on femininity, consequently male and female both have traits of cooperativeness, gentleness and submissiveness. Males in this tribe are self-confident and peace loving. Mundugumor another tribe of New Guinea places emphasis on masculinity therefore both male and female are aggressive and violent. Members of this tribe look down upon those who fail to develop these traits. Members of this tribe develop traits of aggressiveness and quarrelsomeness. Tchmbuli tribe is totally different in the males in it perform tasks usually performed by females in our culture. Females in this culture take ruling position. Therefore males are polite, cooperative and shy bynature while females are aggressive and dominating. I think above examples make it amply clear that personality is the mirror of a particular culture in which the person is brought about. culture.

2.3.3 Economic Factors

In an interesting study children from low income group and rich families were asked to estimate the size of different circles of light with the size of coins of different denominations. It was found that children from poor families overestimated while those from rich families underestimated. Thus it showed that economic factor affects our attitude and perception and consequently our personality. Besides you might have seen that often children from low income groups have low self- confidence, feelings of inferiority and shyness. Economic condition determines access to opportunities to develop personality.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the role of social factors in the formation of personality.
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- 2) Discuss the role of economic factors in the formation of personality.
.....
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.....

2.4 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we studied and discussed heredity. What does heredity mean? What does heredity consist of? and how does heredity work? We discussed in detail various endocrine glands like pituitary gland, adrenal gland etc. Besides we threw light on secretions of different glands and how these hormonal secretions determine

our personality traits and behaviour. Although nervous system has not been discussed in too detailed a manner but discussion on it was sufficient to make you understand its role in shaping of personality and behaviour. This was followed by a discussion on environmental factors affecting personality. In it we discussed the concept of environment and various components of environment like social factors, cultural factors and economic factors. In social factors we discussed the role of parenting style and its impact on the personality of children. We also discussed the role of neighbourhood, school and peer groups in the development of personality traits among children. This was followed by discussion on culture. We tried to understand what culture stands for. Through examples of different tribes and their cultural practices we tried to understand the way culture affects development of different personality traits. In the last we discussed the importance of economic factors in the development of personality. Thus we now can assume that you will have fair understanding of factors affecting personality development and discuss these things in your own words.

2.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define heredity and discuss in detail various factors of heredity.
- 2) What is endocrinal system and how does it affect our personality? Discuss.
- 3) Write a detailed note on environmental impact upon personality.
- 4) “Personality is mirror of culture” discuss the statement.
- 5) Discuss the role of social factors in the formation of personality.

2.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT 3 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY (TYPES AND TRAITS)

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Nature of Personality Theories
 - 3.2.1 Descriptive Functions
 - 3.2.2 Predictive Functions
- 3.3 Judging Personality Theories
 - 3.3.1 Verifiability
 - 3.3.2 Heuristic Value
 - 3.3.3 Internal Consistency
 - 3.3.4 Parsimony
 - 3.3.5 Comprehensiveness
 - 3.3.6 Functional Significance
- 3.4 Theories of Personality
 - 3.4.1 Psychoanalytic Approach
 - 3.4.2 Trait Approach
 - 3.4.3 Constitutional Approach
 - 3.4.4 Life-Span Approach
 - 3.4.5 Humanistic Approach
- 3.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.6 Unit End Questions
- 3.7 Suggested Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Personality is an all inclusive concept and includes in it all the traits, tendencies which bring about consistency and dynamism in personality. However before we proceed to explain the structure and dynamics of personality it is necessary that we first understand the nature of different theories propagated or developed to explain personality. In this unit you will be studying all about theories, their importance and significance, you will also know about the various approaches to personality by different theories and the methods to judge whether a theory is valid in all its aspects. Therefore, we will first study the nature of personality theories followed by history of personality theories and so on.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- 1 define the word theory in your own words;
- 1 functions a theory of personality serves;
- 1 discuss the aspect of human behaviour; and
- 1 define different approaches to personality.

3.2 NATURE OF PERSONALITY THEORIES

Now the first question, that arises is, what a personality theory is? Basically a theory is a set of related assumptions which allows formation of testable hypotheses through logical deductive reasoning. It brings about organisation in observations, generates research, provides direction to behaviour and explains consistency in human behaviour.

There would be no need for personality theories if we had been able to understand human behaviour in its entirety. But the fact is otherwise. Therefore different thinkers came out with different explanations to explain why people behave in particular ways and what are the reasons behind it? Thus a theory serves two functions:

- i) Descriptive function and
- ii) Predictive function

3.2.1 Descriptive Functions

A personality theory is descriptive in the sense that it systematically organises behaviours in such a way that it becomes easy to understand them. To put it in other words, it provides a meaningful frame work by integrating and simplifying all that is derived from related sets of events. Let us try to understand this through example,

You might have noticed that children between ages three to four years often show negativism i.e. they behave just the opposite of what they are asked to do or even if they comply with the request they do so with a lot of stubbornness. Parents often complain that their child is not behaving properly and no matter what they do the child does not behave accordingly. Parents are often at a loss to understand this thing. Now if we take help of theory of personality development we come to know that it is normal phenomenon. Every child goes through this phase and all the negativism shown by the child is in fact directed toward developing ego the core structure of personality. By showing negativism the child in fact tests to what extent he can control the world around him or in other words he asserts himself over things. Now we can interpret child's negativism in this light and our perception of the child's behaviour changes immediately.

3.2.2 Predictive Functions

Personality theory not only helps us understand the past and the present but it is useful in making prediction about the future as well. But this is possible only when the concepts propounded by a theory lend themselves to empirical testing for confirmation or disconfirmation. For example, what if we hypothesize that punishment will only aggravate negativism in the child and actually punishment form parents lead to an increase in negativism, our hypothesis stands proved. Now if we hypothesize that once the child crosses the age of five, negativism will automatically recede, and if we find that the child is actually shedding negativism with increase in age, again our hypothesis stands proved.

Examples given above in fact are aimed at explaining what, how and why.

- a) What- is related to deals with the characteristics or traits of the personality and tells how these traits are organised.
- b) How- deals with factors influencing personality. It also investigates into heredity and environment interaction, how heredity and environment shape our personality and what is their relative contribution.

- c) Why- It means finding out reasons for behaviour. It is related to the motivational aspect of personality. As I told you in the first unit personality has motivational dimension as well. Motivational dimension guides the behaviour of a person in a particular direction. It provides answer to why a person behaves in a particular manner? and why his behaviour moves in a particular direction? Let us understand this through an example.

You know anxiety is a trait of personality. Suppose a person named Rajesh is anxiety ridden. Now personality theory tries to explain to what extent anxiety characterises Rajesh's personality. How Rajesh came to develop this trait? and why anxiety causes Rajesh to behave in a particular manner? How come two individuals having anxiety behave differently? If you compare Rajesh's behaviour with another person having anxiety you will notice the difference between their behaviours while in the same condition or facing the same situation.

Any sound theory of personality tries to explain these three fundamental questions. It will throw light on the following aspects of personality: viz., structure, process, motives etc.

Structure – The concept of structure refers to comparatively stable aspects of personality. In the context of personality it refers to response, habits, traits and type. Some personality theories use complex structural system having number of components related to each other in different ways. While some personality theories use very simple structure.

Process – This refers to the dynamic motivational concepts of personality. Psychologists have used mainly three types of motivational concepts, namely, pleasure or hedonistic motives, growth or self actualisation motives, and cognitive motives.

Hedonistic motives state that human beings are basically pleasure seeking and avoid tension. This type of motivational theory has two forms (i) first, tension reduction model and (ii) second, incentive model. Tension reduction model postulates that biological needs create tension in the individual and motivate him for action to satisfy these needs and reduce tension. Incentive models stress the end target or incentive. An individual engages in certain type of behaviour because he wants to achieve some specific goal. For example, when we feel hungry all our efforts are getting food and satisfy hunger

Growth or self-actualisation motives postulate that despite all the tensions and stresses individual has the capacity to recognise his inner potentials and grow. For example, Mahatma Gandhi shunned all the sensual pleasures to pursue the core values in his personality i.e. peace and nonviolence. All his campaigns like satyagrah, non-cooperation and civil-disobedience underlined his firm conviction and belief in non-violence and peace.

Cognitive motives stress the need for an individual to understand his environment and make anticipations about it. Everyone has the need to make sense of the world around him therefore, he explores, tries to understand and organise events in a meaningful pattern and accordingly respond to them.

Growth and development – All of us know that no two individuals are identical because every individual passes through a unique and unparalleled process of personality development. Thus any sound theory of personality tries to explain individual differences. Usually these differences are attributed to genetic and environmental determinants. The *nature versus nurture* debates concern the relative importance of an individual's innate qualities ("nature", i.e. nativism, or innatism)

versus personal experiences (“nurture”, i.e. empiricism or behaviourism) in determining or causing individual differences in physical and behavioural traits.

Heredity is the passing of traits to offspring (from its parent or ancestors). Human offspring receives 46 or 23 pairs of chromosomes from parents out of which 23 come from mother and other 23 come from father. Physical characteristics and structures are transmitted to the child through genes contained in chromosomes. Through heredity, variations exhibited by individuals can accumulate and cause a species to evolve. Heredity has been found to play important role in the development of intelligence and temperamental traits.

Biological factors correlating with IQ include ratio of brain weight to body weight and the volume and location of gray matter tissue in the brain. Because intelligence is at least partly dependent on brain structure and the genes shaping brain development, it is argued that genetic engineering can be exploited to enhance intelligence of animals through process of biological uplift. Experiments to this effect on mice have demonstrated superior ability in learning and memory. Besides adoption studies reveal that, by the time adoptive siblings achieve adulthood they are no more similar in IQ than strangers, while twins and full siblings show an IQ correlation of 0.6. Twin studies reinforce this pattern: monozygotic (identical) twins raised separately correlate to 0.74, while fraternal twins raised together correlate only 0.6.

Environment – The word “nurture” include in it all the influences on development arising from prenatal environment, parental care and nurturing, influence of the extended family, and peer experiences. It also includes factors such as media, marketing, and socio-economic status.

Studies reveal that family environmental factors may have an effect upon personality. However, in middle age, intelligence is influenced by life style choices. Among environmental factors culture, family, and peers are important.

Cultural factors also play a role. Culture is a broad term and includes in it all the customs, traditions, folks, fashions, fads and mores. We all are part of one or the other culture. Therefore, cultural effect on personality is bound to take place. Cultural effect is most prominently seen in the way we welcome and greet people. In India when we meet someone, we greet with folded hands and say Namaskar while when Japanese meets someone he bows before and when an American meets someone he either shakes hand or kisses the other person. This apparent difference in welcoming another person is simply because of learning in a culture. Let me cite you an example of how culture affects development of personality traits.

Psychopathology – Any theory of personality while addressing itself to different aspects of personality should also explain psychopathology. Why is it that some people are able to successfully deal with stresses and hazards of life and live normally but some easily get perturbed even by small problems and fall prey to maladjustment. Their personality gets disintegrated.

Behavioural change – A good theory of personality explains not only the concept of normality and abnormality but it also endeavors to explain why and how changes in behaviour of an individual take place over time.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Which of the following a personality theory should not deal?
a) structure b) growth and development c) psychopathology
d) control e) behavioural changes
- 2) Briefly mention what functions a theory of personality serves.
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.....
- 3) What are the predictive functions of theory?
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.....
- 4) What are the important aspects of personality one should consider? Elaborate each of them.
.....
.....

3.3 JUDGING PERSONALITY THEORY

In the preceding paragraphs we tried to make you understand the basic nature of personality theories. I think it would be proper if we discuss the criteria of judging a theory before we proceed to study different theoretical approaches to personality. It would help you test soundness of a theory when you actually happen to go through it. Following are the criteria laid down by different psychologists (i) Verifiability (ii) Heuristic value (iii) Internal consistency (iv) Parsimony (v) Comprehensiveness (vi) Functional significance. Let us deal in detail with each of these criteria below.

3.3.1 Verifiability

It means whether the concepts postulated by a theory lend themselves to testing by independent investigators. For this to happen it is imperative that concepts embedded in the theory be precisely defined and have logical connection with each other. This allows logical testing of empirical consequences of the theory and all the hypotheses generated by it can be tested.

3.3.2 Heuristic Value

It refers to the extent research is stimulated by a theory. A good theory generates research in two ways – one, descriptive and second, hypotheses testing. Descriptive research is aimed at expanding and elaborating the present theory. In a way it prepares the building blocks of the theory. Hypotheses testing gives a fair estimation of the utility of a theory. When different concepts of a theory do not lend themselves to operational definition, its heuristic value becomes nil.

3.3.3 Internal Consistency

Principles or concepts in a theory should not contradict themselves but should have harmony between them. It is known as internal consistency.

3.3.4 Parsimony

Soundness of a theory is also judged in terms of the concepts required to explain human behaviour. Principle of parsimony states a good theory of personality should use minimum number of concepts to explain human behaviour. A theory requiring different concepts to explain different aspects of behaviour can not be regarded as good. Although, there is no hard and fast rule of parsimony but the number of concepts used be kept reasonably minimum.

3.3.5 Comprehensiveness

It means the diversity and range of events included in a theory, Higher the diversity and range of events the better it is. Comprehensive theory of personality lays emphasis on biological, emotional, cultural, cognitive, social, and cultural factors. Such a theory has the element of wholeness and specialty.

3.3.6 Functional Significance

A theory of personality is judged by its functional value that means to what extent the theory is useful in understanding different aspects of human behaviour. This element of a theory is particularly for the work of clinical psychologists.

3.4 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Let us now consider theoretical approaches put forth by different psychologists.

3.4.1 Psychoanalytic Approach

In modern times Sigmund Freud is the first psychologist to put forth the *Psychoanalytic* theory of personality. Freud developed this theory of personality out of his observations of patients over a period of forty years. He had deterministic and pessimistic view of human nature. Psychoanalytic approach can be divided into three parts:

- i) **Structure of personality:** It has two dimensions – topographical and dynamic. Topographical is further subdivided into: a) conscious, b) subconscious; and c) unconscious. **Conscious** includes in it all those experiences and activities which have to do with present. **Subconscious** includes all those experiences, desires, thoughts, feelings which are not available at the level of conscious but can be easily accessed through deliberate effort. For example, if someone ask you the name of the city you lived in during childhood. You will readily recall it. Unconscious represents our sexual, immoral, antisocial and hateful desires which we can't afford to express in our daily life. Therefore such desire are repressed and relegated to unconscious.
- ii) **Dynamic model or dimension** represents those aspects of personality which are instrumental in resolution of mental conflicts arising from basic instincts. It has agents or instruments at its disposal to accomplish this task and these are: a) Id, b) ego and c) superego. **Id** is biological in nature and represents those instincts which are innate, unorganised, sexual and unlawful. It operates on pleasure principle. **Ego**, though develops out of Id, is reality oriented. Ego remains at the driving seat of personality and functions at all three levels i.e. conscious, subconscious and unconscious. **Super Ego** is the moral aspect of personality and operates on idealistic principle. It represents the dos and don'ts of behaviour. It grows out of process of socialisation.

- iii) **Dynamics of personality:** It contains: a) instincts, b) anxiety, and c) mental mechanisms. **Instincts** refer to innate bodily energy or excitation and guide all our behaviour. They are of two types, life instinct or Eros and death instincts or Thanatos. **Anxiety** is an affective, unpleasant state which warns ego of impending danger so that individual can adapt himself to the environment. Freud mentioned three types of anxiety – realistic anxiety, neurotic anxiety and moral anxiety. **Mental mechanisms** are activated to protect ego the core of personality. Mental mechanisms are self-deceptive and operate at the level of unconscious. These distort the perception of reality thereby reducing the degree of anxiety.
- iv) **Development of personality:** Freud delineated five stages of personality development. These stages are: a) Oral stage, b) Anal stage, c) Phallic stage, d) Latency stage, and e) Genital stage.

3.4.2 Trait Approach

Trait approach tries to explain personality on the basis of certain characteristics. These traits are used to explain the why of behaviour and consistency in behaviour. Allport and Cattell are the two main proponents of trait approach. Allport mentioned two types of traits namely; common traits and personal traits. **Common traits** are those found in majority of persons of a culture while **personal traits** are specific to a person and not found in other members of a culture. Allport further divided personal traits into three categories – a) cardinal dispositions, it has overwhelming influence on the behaviour of person and is manifested in all the activities a person does. For example, peace and non-violence were cardinal traits of Mahatma Gandhi. His entire life is woven around these traits, b) central disposition, these are of much importance but do not parallel cardinal traits. For example, some people are very social and fun loving. Central traits may number five to ten in a person, c) secondary traits, though prominent in a person’s behaviour they do not help much in explaining the basic nature of a person. For example, hair style, eating habits or dressing style of a person.

Another important trait theory is given by Cattell. He mentioned two types of traits namely; source traits and surface traits. *Source traits* underlie the personality and are not reflected in day to day interaction of a person. They are observable only when we try to organise surface traits. For example, unselfishness, humour and gregariousness taken together point to friendliness (a source trait) in the personality of a person. *Surface traits* are observable characteristics of a person. For example, cheerfulness, integrity may easily be discerned in the behaviour of a person.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Write down criteria for evaluation of personality theory.
 - a)..... b).....
 - c)..... d).....
 - e)..... f).....

3.4.3 Constitutional Approach

This approach tries to explain personality in terms of physical constitution of a person and the related temperament. Sheldon and Krestchmer are the two pioneers of this approach. Sheldon on the basis of physical structure classified people in three personality types: a) endomorphic, such persons are fatty, round and short heighted.

They are happy-go-lucky and social by nature, b) mesomorphy, they have a well built body, their muscles are strong and shapely. They are assertive, tough minded, and risk taking by nature, c) ectomorphy, persons of this type are long, slender and thin. they solitude loving, do not approach people as they are shy and reluctant.

Kretschmer classified people into four types: a) pyknic, these are short heighted fat people and enjoy mixing with people, are found of eating and drinking, b) asthenic type, such persons are tall and thin with underdeveloped muscles. By nature they are irritable, shirk away from responsibility. These people are often lost in daydreaming, c) athletic type, they have well developed muscles and good physique. They are neither short nor very tall. These people manifest a balanced temperament and adjust well with environment, d) dysplastic type, this category include those people who manifest a mix of the characteristics found in above three types.

3.4.4 Life-span Approach

This approach explains personality in terms of changes in behaviour that take place throughout life i.e. from birth to death. Personality is explained in terms of solutions to problems arising during the turning points or crisis periods at each of the eight stages in which life has been divided. Erickson mentioned eight psychosocial stages of personality; infancy, early childhood, play age, school stage, adolescence, early adulthood, middle adulthood, and maturity. Erickson laid emphasis on holism, environmentalism, and changeability in human nature. He stressed the development of Ego in his theory.

3.4.5 Humanistic Approach

This theory revolves round the subjective experiences of a person. It states that each person has a unique frame of reference which develops out of his experiences with the environment. This frame of reference develops as the person tries to make sense out of things and events in his environment. Further that this frame of reference determines how a person perceives the world around him. Thus perceptual attitude is central to the development of personality, for this reason this approach is also known as phenomenological. According to this point of view human beings are positive by nature and individuals strive for growth, in order to self actualise themselves. Maslow and Rogers are prominent humanistic psychologists. Maslow gave the growth theory of personality.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the various approaches to personality psychology?
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- 2) How do humanistic theories differ from that of Freud' theory of personality development?
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.....
.....

3) Match the following:

- | | |
|-------------|----------------------------|
| a) Freud | a) Trait approach |
| b) Erickson | b) Psychoanalytic approach |
| c) Maslow | c) Constitutional Approach |
| d) Sheldon | d) Life-span approach |
| e) Cattell | e) Humanistic approach |

3.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we studied the concept of theory of personality and what function it serves. Any theory has basically two functions. First, it tries to describe the phenomenon with which it deals and secondly it tries to predict that phenomenon in future. Thus a personality theory attempts to describe the what, why and how of human behaviour. It also tries to predict how a person will behave in a given situation. We also studied what aspects of behaviour a good personality theory should address itself to. This was followed by brief discussion on how to judge the soundness of a personality theory. Then we studied different approaches or theories as put forth by different psychologists. We studied psychoanalytic approach of Freud, trait approaches of Allport and Cattell, constitutional approach of Sheldon and Kretschmer, Erickson's life-span approach or theory of psycho-social stages and Maslow's humanistic approach.

3.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define the word 'Personality' in your own words? What functions serves by the theory of personality?
- 2) How would you evaluate the soundness of a theory of personality? Discuss in detail.
- 3) Describe the psychological approach to personality development. How does Erikson's approach from that of Freud?

3.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT 4 ASSESSMENT OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Personality Assessment
- 4.3 Personality Inventories
 - 4.3.1 Cattell's Sixteen PF Scale
 - 4.3.2 Bell Adjustment Inventory
 - 4.3.3 California Psychological Inventory
 - 4.3.4 Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
 - 4.3.5 Merits and Demerits of Inventories
- 4.4 Projective Methods
 - 4.4.1 History of Projective Methods
 - 4.4.2 Types of Projective Tests
 - 4.4.3 Evaluation of Projective Tests
- 4.5 Observational Methods
 - 4.5.1 Rating Scales
 - 4.5.2 Interview
- 4.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.7 Unit End Questions
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4.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding units we studied the origin of personality (unit 1) factors influencing personality (unit 2) and different theoretical approaches to personality. In this unit we will study assessment of personality. Now the question is what is assessment?

Let us tell you by assessment we mean quantification of different traits present in the personality of a person. This enables us to know to what extent a particular trait is present and further it affords us to make comparative study of individuals on that trait. Besides personality assessment also enables us to determine the extent to which different traits of his personality are organised or are in harmony with each other. For example, person residing in neighbourhood is, let us say, a philanthropist. Let us say he also has spiritual bent of mind and is known for his human welfare activities in the locality. Can you expect this person to engage in cruelty against animals, or can you imagine him taking stance against women's education? Answer is a big no. Why because all the activities in question are just the contrary of the attributes ascribed to him and do not reflect organisation and harmony. When a trait is a natural corollary to another trait present, the two traits are said to be in harmony with each other. Internal harmony or organisation between the traits signifies a balanced personality. But if the traits present in one's personality are disorganised or contradicting each other it is indicative of some abnormality and maladjustment.

In this unit we are going to study about personality assessment, what it involves and what kind of tests are available and how do the psychologists select them etc.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading of this unit, you should be able to:

- 1 discuss the meaning of personality assessment;
- 1 aim of personality assessment;
- 1 personality inventories;
- 1 describe projective techniques;
- 1 be able to describe in your own words the principle of projection; and
- 1 understand and discuss the nature of observational methods.

4.2 PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT

Assessment of personality refers to the measurement of personal characteristics of an individual. It involves information gathering through interviews etc. and administering of psychological test to understand the typical characteristics. Assessment is an end result of gathering information. It contributes to furthering of research in the area and also helps in making appropriate decisions in regard to which type of test to be applied and in what manner.

Assessment is based on the assumption that each individual differs from another in regard to the personality traits. Even if they possess the same traits their behaviour will vary in terms of their experiences to different situations and thus a personality assessment will make this very clear as to what actually contributes to this difference and what are typical of a particular person's personality.

A distinctive feature of personality assessment is the scientific approach to personality measurement. That is how the human characteristics are described quantitatively and qualitatively. The assessment also throws light on how many traits are present and which of these is dominant and which one acts negatively creating problems to the adjustment of the individual.

The sophisticated assessment and measurement of personality of an individual depends on the use of a variety of concepts to provide trait definitions and entails the application of various methods of observation and evaluation.

Personality assessment serves two purposes – theoretical and practical. Theoretically personality assessment provides knowledge about different dimensions and aspects of personality development and provides information about its nature. It provides impetus to research on personality and help develop new theories about personality. Practical purposes of personality assessment is to know the strength and weaknesses of a person. It tells which traits in a person are lacking and what are its implications for his adjustment with the environment? It provides help in developing intervention program for persons who need help to overcome some of their personality based difficulties. For example, if a person is extremely shy and refuses to move with others even though in all other aspects the person behaves well, it would be worth the while to know what is it in the person that makes the person so shy that the individual avoids all relationships. For this a personality assessment will be helpful to understand the fact as to where the problem lies and through which kind of

counseling one can help the person overcome the problem. Methods of personality assessment can be categorised under three headings:

- 1) Personality Inventories,
- 2) Projective Techniques, and
- 3) Observational methods.

4.3 PERSONALITY INVENTORIES

This is the most popular method of personality assessment. In this method statements about certain traits of personality are constructed and the testee is required to answer them as “right/wrong” or “yes/no”. For example,

- | | |
|---|--------|
| 1) Do you have problem in sleeping? | Yes/No |
| 2) Does your parent give you adequate protection? | Yes/No |
| 3) Are you worried without reason? | Yes/No |

Persons may differ over the responses they give for each of the above questions as it depends on their experiences and life situations. One person may not get sleep because of excitement, another person may not get sleep because of feelings of rejection by the parents and yet another person may not feel sleepy because of some constant worries about his own future.

In personality inventories there is no right or wrong answers. Because the person himself reports about his problems and based on what the individual provides as information the responses are interpreted. These inventories are called self report inventories as then person himself or herself responds to these questions. These are constructed according to certain norms, scientific techniques and are put through many steps of validation and standardisation. Hence, these tests are also called as psychometric tests.

Personality theorists and researchers seek to define and to understand the diversity of human traits, the many ways people have of thinking and perceiving and learning and emoting. Such nonmaterial human dimensions, types, and attributes are called constructs from which inferences are drawn from observed behaviours. The personality constructs which have been researched considerably include the construct of anxiety, hostility, emotionality, motivation, and introversion-extroversion.

Efforts to measure personality constructs stem from a variety of sources. These generally originate from theories of personality. For instance anxiety and repression (the forgetting of unpleasant experiences), for example, are among the central concepts of the theory of psychoanalysis. It is understandable that efforts would be made to quantify one’s degree of anxiety, for example, and to use the score thus obtained in the assessment of and in the prediction of future behaviour.

Among the major issues in the study of personality assessment and measurement are the following questions:

- i) Which of the many personality constructs that have been quantified are basic or fundamental in the particular problem an individual is facing.
- ii) Which constructs can be expected to involve wasted effort in their measurement because they represent poorly defined combinations of more elemental constructs.

- iii) Which measurement techniques are most effective and convenient for the purpose of assessment.
- iv) Whether it is better to interview people in measuring personality, or to ask them to respond to a personality inventory with questions given as samples above.

Efforts to measure any given personality construct can fail as a result of inadequacies in formulating or defining the trait to be measured and weaknesses in the assessment methods employed. For instance a psychologist who is trying to test an individual's personality, may like to quantify what has been measured and interpret the same qualitatively. For example, he may try to see what is the degree of depression in the individual through a personality test and then interpret the same. This would involve the theoretical system which he subscribes to and thus if it is psychoanalytical he might say the depression is due to repressed wishes that have not been fulfilled and depression is a way of manifesting those unfulfilled desires and wishes. To give another example, a psychologist may like to specify quantitatively the degree to which individuals are submissive in social and competitive situations. The effectiveness will depend on the particular theory of submissiveness the individual brings to bear on the problem. As for the actual procedures, the psychologist will select a test that would measure submissiveness or the psychologist may devise a test by herself to measure the submissiveness. Once a test has been devised it is put under many rigorous testing so as to standardize the same and the psychologist would try to demonstrate how the test exactly measures the submissiveness construct. Each of these tasks must be considered carefully in evaluating efforts to measure personality attributes.

The methods used in personality description and measurement fall into several categories that differ with regard to the type of information gathered and the methods by which it is obtained. While all should rely on data that come from direct observations of human behaviour if they are to have at least the semblance of scientific value, all may vary with regard to underlying assumptions, validity, and reliability (consistency, in this case).

Now let us go a little bit back in time and trace the history of self-report inventories.

History of Personality Assessment

One of the oldest evidence for personality assessment is found in the personality typing system called the Enneagram. Sometime in 460 BC, Hippocrates described the four temperaments as 'humors' that is, moods. Each of these humours or moods was based on the four elements of nature, that is the fire, air, water and earth. Based on these the four personality types were also evolved which were termed as sanguine, choleric, melancholic and phlegmatic. While sanguine type personality was considered to be calm and collected and balanced, the choleric personality was considered to be irritable with melancholic being depressed and inactive with the last one of phlegmatic being lazy idle and not doing anything. Even though these types were not much in use over a period of time, they paved the way for further research and development of many traits of personality the credit for which goes to psychologists like Allport, Cattell and others.

In 1926, William Moulton Marston, a psychologist at Harvard University, devised a DISC system which could tap four traits of personality, viz., dominance (D), Influencing (I), Steadiness (S), and Compliance (C). These he called the normal emotions of people and this system became popular before World War II and

became later a popular tool in the commercial sector. Based on Jung’s typology oin personality development, the test called Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) became the most used tool, and it is used in the industrial set ups even today.

Organisation Development professionals, marriage and family counselors, psychologists, management experts, and individuals continue to work on personality typing methods to improve work or personal environments. The most recent temperament type was by Keirsey, called as the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey, 1987).

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you understand by the term personality Assessment?

.....

2) What are the pre requisites for personality assessment?

.....

The need for personality inventories was first felt during the First World War, when the scrutiny of emotionally unstable soldiers had to be done. Today the number of personality inventories is countless. However, we will discuss a few important and widely used personality inventories which are as follows.

4.3.1 Cattell’s 16 PF scale

Cattell developed this inventory using the technique of factor analysis. Cattell included in it three types of traits namely – temperamental traits, ability traits, dynamic traits. The inventory measures 16 bipolar traits which are presented in the table below:

Sr.No.	High Score	Letter Symbol	Low Score
1	Outgoing	A	Reserved
2	More Intelligent	B	Less Intelligent
3	Stable	C	Emotional
4	Assertive	E	Humble
5	Happy-Go-Lucky	F	Sober
6	Conspicuous	G	Expedient
7	Tenderminded	H	Shy
8	Suspecious	I	Toughminded
9	Bold	L	Trusting
10	Imaginative	M	Practical
11	Shrewed	N	Forthright
12	Apprehensive	O	Placid
13	Experimenting	Q1	Traditional
14	Self-sufficient	Q2	Grouptied
15	Cotrolled	Q3	Casual
16	Tense	Q4	Relaxed

(Source: Adapted From Conn & Rieke, 1994 The 16PF Fifth Edition technical manual)

These 16 factors are called first-order-factors on the basis of median of these factors. In addition to these 16 factors Cattell also identified 11 second order factors which were equally important as personality traits. These included anxiety, extroversion, independence, neuroticism, leadership, marital adjustment, subjectivity, altruism, self discipline, deliberation and conscientiousness.

From Cattell's personality inventory and the identification of factors, the Big 5 personality traits called as the global traits have been delineated which are Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Openness to Experience and Conscientiousness. In the present day the Big 5 inventory is used widely in almost all settings especially in the corporate sectors.

4.3.2 Bell Adjustment Inventory

This test was developed by Bell in 1934 aim to diagnose adjustment problems of the individual. A test of personality that assesses the individual's adjustment in a variety of situations – for example, home, health, school, self etc. For instance the 'home adjustment is expressed in terms of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with home life, while 'health adjustment' is measured in terms of shyness, submissiveness, introversion, etc. The emotional adjustment is assessed in terms of depression, nervousness, and so on. It has two forms – **student form** and **occupational form**. It contains 140 items which are answered in "Yes" or "No" form. It is highly reliable and valid and it has been adapted in various Indian languages.

4.3.3 California Psychological Inventory

This was originally developed in 1957. However it was revised by Gough in 1987. It measures normal traits of personality. It describes individuals in the way others see them. The California Psychological Inventory provide a range of personal and work related characteristics, motivations and thinking styles of the individuals who take the test. It also tells how people manage themselves and deal with others. It consists of 18 scales, each of which is designed to forecast what a person will say or do under defined conditions. It identifies individuals who will be described in characteristic ways by others who know them well or who observe their behaviour in particular contexts.

4.3.4 Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)

It was originally developed by Hathaway and Mckinley in 1940. It contains 550 itmes answered "Yes", "No" and "Can't say". It has two forms – individual card form and group card form. It was basically developed to measure pathological traits of personality. It has 10 clinical scales and 3 validity scales. **Clinical scales are:**

- 1 **Hypochondriasis** – it measures a person's tendency for excessive anxiety about physical health and functioning.
- 1 **Depression** – It measures affective disorders like sadness, decrease in proficiency, interest, and energy etc.
- 1 **Conversion hysteria** – measures a person's tendency to develop symptoms of physical ailments in order to get rid of mental struggle and conflict and anxiety.
- 1 **Psychopathic deviates** – measures a person's tendency for violation of social and moral norms.

- 1 **Masculinity-Faminity** – it detects a person’s tendency to perform extreme sex roles.
- 1 **Paranoia** – delusional and persecutorial tendency is diagnosed.
- 1 **Psychesthesia** – measures a person’s tendency for obsession and compulsion and phobia.
- 1 **Schizophrenia** – measures a person’s tendency for abnormal behavior and anxiety.
- 1 **Hypomania** – measures emotional excitability, over activity and flight of ideas.
- 1 **Social Introversion** – it measures characteristics like shyness, avoidance of other people and feelings of insecurity.

Validity Scales are as:

- 1 **Lie scale** – it measures a person’s tendency to lie or project himself in a wrong manner.
- 1 **Frequency or Infrequency** – measures person’s tendency to exaggerate symptoms.
- 1 **K(correction)** – it detects a person’s defensive outlook or his tendency to exaggerate things about himself.

4.3.5 Merits and Demerits of Inventories

All these scales though are considered extremely useful and are more ore less accurate in describing and identiofying the different personality traits, they do suffer from many defects. Let us see some of the merits and demerits of these inventories.

Merits

- 1 The foremost characteristic of an inventory is that it is a quick measure of personality. It affords assessment of personality of several persons at one time.
- 1 Personality inventories are used both in clinical situations and normal situation.\

Demerits

- 1 Since inventories measure personality in terms of discrete traits they become unscientific. Personality can not be explained in terms of discrete traits but it is a totality so it should be measured as a whole.
- 1 Due to lack of acceptable criterion personality inventories are not highly reliable tools of personality measurement and the data gathered can not be interpreted correctly.
- 1 Since most of the items in inventories are vague and unclear, a person attempting them is able to fake the response and hide his originality.
- 1 It can be used only by literate people.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What are the merits and demerits of the personality Inventories?

.....
.....
.....

2) Match the following

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| a) Sixteen P.F. Questionnaire | a) Bell |
| b) Bell Adjustment Inventory | b) Gough |
| c) California Psychological Inventory | c) Hathaway & Mckinley |
| d) Minnesota Multiphasic Psychological Inventory | d) Cattell |

4.4 PROJECTIVE METHODS

These methods are based on the principal of projection (a defense mechanism) in which a person projects his her own desires, needs and feelings onto other person or object. To give an example, Suppose you hate a person but you can not say this to that person as he is powerful and has the capacity to punish you. Now what will you do. You will go away from that person or you will dare express your feelings for him in his face. But what if both the options are not available to you or you simply are unable to choose one of the two options. In such circumstances there is also an option of taking recourse to projection. You can pronounce or declare that it is not you who hates the person but actually that person hates you. Thus instead of expressing or giving vent to your feeling in direct manner you simply project them onto that person. Thus you avoid the possibility of punishment and are still able to rid of those feelings.

In projective tests personality is measured in indirect manner by presenting the person with an unstructured, vague stimulus or situation. It is believed that when a person reacts to such vague or unstructured stimulus or situation, he projects his unconscious desires, mental conflicts and unethical wants without knowing that he is doing so.

4.4.1 History of Projective Methods

Use of projective techniques began with Leonardo da Vinci. Vinci in 1400 AD selected some children and tested them for creativity. He asked them to identify patterns in ambiguous form and shapes. This was followed by Binet in 1800 AD when he tried to measure passive imagination among children using a game called Blotto. In it children were shown ink blots and asked to report what they saw in the blots. In 1879 Galton prepared the Word association test. Jung made extensive use of Galton's test for testing purposes. Ebbinghaus used sentence completion test for measurement of intelligence but soon it was realised that projective tests can be used for personality measurement and thus the projective tests for personality measurement were developed.

4.4.2 Types of Projective Tests

Projective tests are categorised under five headings:

- i) Association tests.
- ii) Construction tests.
- iii) Completion tests.
- iv) Choice or ordering tests and
- v) Expressive tests.

i) **Association tests** involve presentation of vague and unstructured stimulus and the person is required to respond what he sees and with what he associates that stimulus. Word association test and Rorschach test are the two main types of this type.

1 **Word association tests:** In this, test some predecided stimuli are presented one by one to the subject and the subject is required to say the first word that comes to mind after hearing the stimulus word. For example, when the word “chair” is pronounced the subject is supposed to say the first word coming into his mind on hearing this. Freud and Jung are credited with the use of this technique for personality assessment. Response given by the person are analysed in terms of the symbolic meaning of the response and the time taken to respond. Such tests were successfully used by Jung to study emotional conflict of the individuals.

1 **Rorschach test:** This test was developed by Swiss psychiatrist Herman Rorschach. It contains 10 cards bearing inkblots of varied shapes on them. Five of the ten cards are in black and white, while the remaining five are coloured. All the cards are presented to the subject one by one. Subject is free to hold, move and twist the card in the manner he likes. Subject is asked to tell what he sees in the card, whether it is part of the card or whole of the card. All the responses are recorded and analysed according to letter symbols which are as given below:

- a) **Location:** It tells if the response of the subject is determined by the part or whole of the blot, W is used to denote the whole of card, D is used to denote if the response is determined by half of the blot and more, and Dd is used for response determined by some small details and out of the small portion of the card. S is used to denote for response determined responding to certain spaces in between the figures etc.
- b) **Determinants:** It tells which feature of the card is responsible for response. For example, the subject responds “butterfly”. Now it has to be decided which feature of the card i.e. form, color, or movement is responsible for the response. 24 letter symbols are used for this purpose. F for instance is used for form, C for color, M for human movement and FM animal movement.
- c) **Content:** It tells about the content of the response. If the content is human then H is used and A is used for animal content.
- d) **Original response and organisation:** Original response means a response frequently given by people to that card and is called popular response denoted by the letter P.

Once this process of letter assigning is complete, the symbols are analysed and interpreted. For example, prominence of W responses indicates that the person has high intelligence and power for abstract reasoning. D is indicative of ability to see and understand things in a clear manner. Dd should not be more than five percent of the total responses. A Dd higher than this is indicative of symptoms of schizophrenia (a psychological disease).

ii) **Construction test:** These are tests which involve presentation of stimulus upon which the subject is required to construct some story or construct some other thing. TAT (Thematic Apperception Test) developed by Murray is the best

example of this category. The test has 31 cards out of which one card is blank while the other 30 cards bear some picture on it. However, in any case not more than 20 cards are shown to a person. The test is administered in two sessions. In the first session 10 cards are shown and in the second session another 10 cards are shown including the blank one. Blank card is shown at the last. The subject is asked to write a story on each card. As for the blank card the subject is at liberty to imagine a picture on it and write a story on it. In the end respondent is subjected to an interview to ascertain whether the source of the story lies in the picture shown or somewhere else. After this process is complete the analysis and interpretation starts. Analysis and interpretation is done on the following basis:

- 1 **Hero:** It is believed that the central character of the story is hero or heroine. Further that the respondent identifies him or herself with the central character and projects his or her personality traits onto the central character.
 - 1 **Needs:** Each story reflects certain needs of the central character. Murray identified 28 human needs like need for affiliation, approval, achievement etc.
 - 1 **Press:** This means environmental forces operating on the hero by rejecting his need fulfillment or by helping the needs to be fulfilled.
 - 1 **Thema:** This represents the interaction between the needs and the environmental forces. Thema tells about the continuity in the personality of the individual.
 - 1 **Outcome:** This tells how the story has been ended whether the end of the story is decisive or undecisive, positive or negative etc. Decisive end is indicative of maturity and realistic attitude of the person.
- iii) **Completion tests:** In this type of test the subject is usually shown a part of the stimulus (usually a sentence) and other part of the stimulus is blank which is to be completed by the subject as he thinks fit. The underlying assumption is that the way subject completes the sentence will reflect his personality. It was first developed by Rohde & Hidreth in 1940. For example,
- 1) I often think that.....
 - 2) I wish that.....
 - 3) Very often my parents.....
- The above sentences have to be completed by the subject with whatever comes to his mind first on reading the incomplete sentence. There are a large number of incomplete sentences blank, of which the more popular one is of Rotter's Incomplete Sentences Blank. Based on the matter used by the subject to complete the sentence, the analysis is carried out and the responses interpreted.
- iv) **Choice or ordering test:** This type of test requires the subject to arrange stimuli in a particular order or he is asked to select stimulus form amongst the given stimuli on the basis of some dimension or according to his likes and dislikes. The underlying assumption in it is that the choice made or order of arrangement will reflect the individual's personality traits. Szondi test is the most widely used test of this type. It requires the subject to choose two photographs that he likes the most and two photographs that he dislikes the most out of six packs of photographs. Thus photos selected reveal the personality of the person.

- v) **Expressive tests:** Such tests allow the person to express himself through some drawing. Machover, 1949 is credited with the construction of this test. It has two formats – Draw-a- person test and House-Tree-Person test. From the drawings made by the person the drawings are analysed and the personality traits are delineated. A slightly different version of this test is the Kinetic Drawing Test in which the subject is asked to draw what is going on in the family and later on the subject is asked to tell in imagination or otherwise what exactly is happening in the drawing or the picture. For instance, if the subject has drawn a dining hall scenario, the subject is asked to tell who is saying what and what is happening at the dining table, who is interacting with whom and how the subject himself is being treated there etc. From the responses the psychologist is able to interpret what is going on and in turn the personality of the individual and the conflicts that the person is facing within the family.

4.4.3 Evaluation of Projective Tests

Although projective tests are widely used in personality assessment, they are criticized for the following reasons:

- 1 Projective tests are not based on some meaningful and testable criteria hence the conclusion about the personality of the subject are not tenable.
- 1 Scoring and interpretation of projective tests are laced with subjectivity this is particularly true RT and TAT. Consequently different people reach different conclusions about the personality of the same individual.
- 1 These tests lack in validity and are often used in preparing the case history. Therefore the results of these tests can't be relied upon. Most of the psychiatrists believe that there is lack of scientific evidence over the expected relationship between the indicators of personality and the traits measured.

<p>Self Assessment Questions</p> <p>1) What is a projective test?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>2) What are the different types of projective tests?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>3) What are the demerits of the projective tests?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>

4.5 OBSERVATIONAL METHODS

It involves the observation and recording of the activities of a person by the observer in a controlled or natural situation. These recordings are then analysed and an inference about the personality of the individual is drawn. Observational methods are categorised under two headings: (i) Rating scales and (ii) Interview. These are being elaborated below.

4.5.1 Rating Scales

Rating scales involve recording judgement about the personality traits in some categories. These categories may be numerical or graphic. Each category has a specific meaning and the rater expresses his reaction about the traits of the person being assessed through these categories. These ratings are then statistically analysed and a conclusion about the personality of the person is reached. However, assessment of personality through rating scales depends on the following factors:

- a) Rating scale being used should be sound and each category included in it should be defined clearly besides the rater should have exact knowledge of it.
- b) Rater should know the person being assessed or rated.
- c) Rater should have the ability to avoid halo effect and other sorts of biases which sway the judgement in one direction (positive or negative).

4.5.2 Interview

Of all the techniques of personality assessment interview is the most widely used techniques. Interview involves recording of reactions to the questions asked by the interviewee in a face to face situation. Interviews are usually of two types:

- a) structured interview, and
- b) unstructured interview.

In *structured interview* the questions asked by the interviewer are predecided. Even the order of presentation of questions, their language and the manner in which they are to be put to the subject are decided a priori. Thus structured interviews follow a standardised pattern. Biggest advantage of structured interview is that it allows comparative study of personality of different individuals since all of them are asked the same questions and in the same order. However this merit of structured interview turns into demerit when intensive drilling and analysis of personality is required. Since the language, order and number of questions are predecided it does not allow interviewer to ask supplementary questions aimed at deeper probing.

Unstructured interview allows interviewer to ask questions as he thinks fit depending on how the interview progresses. Language of questions, their number and the manner of asking questions all depend on the understanding of the interviewer. Unstructured interviews are mostly used for clinical purposes to diagnose the problems or abnormality in the personality of the individual as these are free of the constraints of structured interviews.

4.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we tried to make you understand the meaning of assessment. We discussed theoretical and practical purpose and significance of personality assessment. I tried

to make you understand all this through example. Then we discussed personality inventories, their meaning, origin of personality inventories. This was followed by brief details of different types of inventories like Cattell's Sixteen P.F. Questionnaire, Bell adjustment inventory etc. We also discussed the merits and demerits of personality inventories. Discussion of inventories led us to discuss another technique of personality assessment i.e. projective technique. In projective techniques we acquainted you with the principle of projection. We tried to understand projection through example. We discussed various types of projective techniques in detail along with example of each type. An evaluative discussion on projective technique also took place. In the last we studied observational method of personality assessment. In it we discussed rating scales and interview as tool of personality assessment. We also discussed types of interview along with their merit and demerit.

4.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What do you understand by the term personality assessment? Discuss with example.
- 2) What are personality inventories? Discuss their merits and demerits.
- 3) What do you understand by the principle of projection? Discuss how it works.
- 4) Discuss in detail different types of projective techniques.
- 5) Do you think observational method of personality assessment is sufficient? Comment

4.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

Anastasi, Anne and Urbina, Subana (1997). *Psychological Testing* (7th edition). Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Freeman, Frank, S.(1953). *Theory and Practice of Psychological Testing*. Pitman, London.

UNIT 1 INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Personality
- 1.3 Psychodynamics
 - 1.3.1 History
 - 1.3.2 Freudian Psychodynamics
 - 1.3.3 Jungian Psychodynamics
 - 1.3.4 Positive Psychology
- 1.4 Psychoanalysis
 - 1.4.1 Key Terms of Psychoanalytical Theory
 - 1.4.2 Strengths of Psychoanalysis
 - 1.4.3 Criticisms of Psychoanalysis
- 1.5 Psychodynamic Theory of Personality
 - 1.5.1 Psychodynamic Treatment
- 1.6 Other Psychodynamic Theorists
- 1.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.8 Unit End Questions
- 1.9 Suggested Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that make a person unique. Personality is fundamental to the study of psychology. In this unit we will introduce the theory of Personality based on Psychodynamic approach. The term psychodynamic refers to a wide group of theories that emphasise the overriding influence of instinctive drives and forces, and the importance of development experiences in shaping personality. Early in their development, these theories focused solely on the influence of unconscious drives and forces, but they received much criticism and subsequent revision. Most recent psychodynamic theory places greater emphasis on conscious experience and its interaction with the unconscious, in addition to the role that social factors play in development.

Psychodynamic theories are in basic agreement that the study of human behaviour should include factors such as internal processes, personality, motivation and drives, and the importance of childhood experiences. Classic theories about the role of the unconscious sexual and aggressive drives have been re-evaluated to focus on conscious experience, resulting in, for example, the birth of ego psychology. Psychodynamic approach involves the description of personality in terms of

unconscious factors, psycho sexual developmental stages etc. The unit will cover Freud's and Jungians Concept of Personality development.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Define and explain personality;
- 1 Discuss the concept involved in psychodynamics;
- 1 Explain the concept of psychoanalysis; and
- 1 Analyse the psychodynamic approach to personality;
- 1 Explain Freud's approach to development of personality; and
- 1 Explain Jung's approach to the development of personality.

1.2 PERSONALITY

Before we proceed let us define Personality. Large number of definitions have been put forward by Psychologists and these vary from one theorist to another. Personality has been defined in terms of body types, constitution, traits, behaviour etc., One of the important definitions of personality is that it is an interaction between hereditary factors, environmental factors and time factors in terms of readiness for development.

While hereditary factors do play an important role in the development of Personality, environment also has an equal if not less important role in the development of personality. Personality is what makes a person unique, which is recognisable soon after birth. There are several components of personality, viz., temperament, environment, and character. Temperament is the child's set of genetically determined traits that determine the child's approach to the world and how the child learns about the world. There are no genes that specify personality traits, but some genes do control the development of the nervous system, which in turn controls behaviour.

Both temperament and environment influence the development of a person's personality. While temperament is dependent on genetic factors, high-quality parenting plays a critical role in the development of a child's personality. The third component of personality is character which is a set of emotional, cognitive, and behavioural patterns learned from experience that determines how a person thinks, feels, and behaves. A person's character continues to evolve throughout life, although much depends on inborn traits and early experiences.

1.3 PSYCHODYNAMICS

Psychodynamics is the systematised study and theory of psychological forces that underlie human behaviour. It emphasises the interplay between unconscious and conscious motivation. The concept of "psychodynamics" was developed by Sigmund Freud who suggested that psychological processes are flows of psychological energy in a complex brain, establishing "psychodynamics" on the basis of psychological energy, referred to as the libido.

According to Freud's Psychodynamic theory, personality development goes through various stages and is completed by the time the individual is five years of age.

The personality that the individual will have at this time is the one he will carry throughout life.

Further more, Freud introduced the concepts of Id, Ego and Super ego whose interplay determines the personality development. According to him the child is born with certain hereditary potentials and these include amongst others, intuitions, needs etc.

The Id consists of the many needs, desires and wishes in the individual. The needs have to be gratified in order that the individual survives and is in a state of balance. These needs arise from time to time and demand gratification. Initially most of these needs are related to the individual. As the child grows, the ego emerges in the satisfaction of these needs. The ego is the executive arm of the personality. It is in touch with the outside world and it functions on the principles of Reality in contrast to the Id which functions on pleasure principle. The ego looks for things in the outside world and tries to satisfy the demands of the Id. If the object for satisfying the need is not available the ego postpones the gratification of the need until the object is available, or creates an image which could satisfy the need. As the process of development continues, the third part of Personality viz. the Superego emerges in response to the many disciplinary measures introduced by parents and society.

The Superego is the moral arm of personality which restrains the ego from satisfying the needs of the Id. It incorporates the various do's and don'ts of parents and society and functions as moral authority to the individual. It is also not in touch with reality like the Id and whenever the undesirable demands of the Id are satisfied it makes the person feel guilty. The ego tries to restrain the Superego through reality oriented measures and restrains the Superego's demands and that of the Id's demands and brings about a balanced state of functioning of the personality. The interaction amongst these three components of personality (Id, Ego and Superego) determines how the individual's personality will shape and how the individual would behave.

Another concept introduced by Freud was the "unconscious". He conceived of the mind like an Iceberg, the tip of which is called the conscious, a small portion as subconscious and the remaining large portion as the Unconscious.

The conscious is what we are aware of, and the subconscious is what we can access and retrieve some of the materials in the subconscious.

Most of the experiences of unpleasant and undesirable nature, the many undesirable wishes etc. remain away from the conscious and are repressed into the unconscious.

While the materials in the unconscious are not accessible because of the restraining influence of the Superego, some of the materials try to enter the conscious and thus influence the behaviour of the individual. However the individual is not aware of this unconscious factor though he/she behaves in accordance with it. To cite an example, suppose an individual had a very humiliating experience in the boss's house and does not want to do anything with the boss. This humiliating experience is so shameful and painful that it has been repressed into the unconscious. Let us say the boss invites this person for dinner on a particular day to his home. However, for reason not known to the individual, he forgets the dinner date and misses it. According to Freud, such forgetting happens because of the unconscious, in which the individual's humiliating painful experience has been repressed.

According to Freud, every behaviour is motivated and in this unconscious plays an important role. Thus the personality development depends a lot on the unconscious factor in addition to the interaction amongst the Id, Ego, Superego and the outer world.

Also, the personality development takes place through stages and these were named by Freud as Oral, Anal, Phallic stages of development. The oral stage starts from birth to the end of 1st year, the Anal from 18th month end to 3 years and phallic from 3 years to 5 years of age. At the end of this stage personality development of the individual is complete. This stage is followed by latency and adolescent stages. While latency is a relatively calmer period with the stabilisation of personality the adolescent stage of development is full of storm and stress.

Libido is another concept put forward by Freud and this has storage of psychic energy. This Psychic energy is constant and is distributed amongst the Id, Ego and Superego for their functioning. Quite often, the ego may require more energy and the other two components will get less energy and so on.

In the process of personality development, the ego becomes strong or weak depending upon how successfully it has handled the needs of the Id and the demands of Superego. In order to retain its balance and stability the ego may resort to use of defence mechanism. To give an example, let us say a child has failed in an examination, and to accept failure is highly anxiety producing and the anxiety causes a state of imbalance. Every organism tries to return back to a state of balance whenever there is imbalance created by Id or Superego demands.

The state of imbalance is reduced or returned to balance by using defense mechanisms by the ego. Now in our example of failing in the examination, the child will find an excuse and say that the teacher did not like her and so she failed her. This kind of rationalisation makes the child feel better and thus return back to a state of balance. The ego uses many such defences and some of these include repression, sublimation, rationalisation, reaction formation, intellectualisation, denial, projection and so on.

At times, the individual starts using defenses as a way of life in almost all aspects of his behaviour when it is considered to be abnormal.

Freud explained Personality Development from his experience of dealing with abnormal or mentally ill persons. Thus Freud's theory is considered more abnormally oriented than normal. Freud's theory is also criticised on the grounds that it is not scientific and that it is highly subjective and most of the concepts can not be put to any kind of empirical testing.

1.3.1 History

Psychodynamics was initially developed by Earnst von Brücke, Sigmund Freud, Carl Jung, Alfred Adler and Melanie Klein. By the mid 1940s and into the 1950s, the general application of the "psychodynamic theory" had been well established.

In his 1988 book, *Introduction to Psychodynamics- A New Synthesis*, psychologist Mardi J. Horowitz states that his own interest and fascination with psychodynamics began during the 1950s, when he heard Ralph Greenson, a popular local psychoanalyst who spoke to the public on topics such as "People who Hate", on the radio. In his radio discussion, according to Horowitz, he "vividly described neurotic behaviour and unconscious mental processes and linked psychodynamic theory directly to everyday life."

In the 1950s, American psychiatrist Eric Berne built on Freud's psychodynamic model, particularly that of the "ego states", to develop a psychology of human interactions called transactional analysis which, according to physician James R. Allen, is a "cognitive behavioural approach to treatment and that it is a very effective way of dealing with internal models of self and others as well as other psychodynamic

issues.” The theory was popularised in the 1964 book *Games People Play*, a book that sold five million copies, giving way to such catch phrases as “*Boy, has he got your number!*”.

1.3.2 Freudian Psychodynamics

According to American psychologist Calvin S. Hall, from his 1954 *Primer in Freudian Psychology*: “Freud greatly admired Brücke and quickly became indoctrinated by this new dynamic psychology. Freud using his own experience with patients, discovered certain laws of dynamics that can be applied to human beings. This was actually two decades later than Brucke. From this Freud created the dynamic psychology, which is the study of the transformation of energy and exchange of energy within the personality. As pointed out elsewhere Freud considered a constant energy or reservoir of energy in the human system and this energy was drawn by the Id, Ego and the Superego for their functioning. Sometimes the energy may be required more by the ego in which case the other two components will receive lesser energy and so on. This was Freud’s greatest achievements, and also one of the greatest achievements in modern science. It is considered a crucial event in the history of psychology.

At the heart of psychological processes, the basic psychodynamic model focuses on the dynamic interactions between the id, ego, and superego. Psychodynamics, subsequently, attempts to explain or interpret behaviour or mental states in terms of innate emotional forces or processes. In his writings about the “engines of human behavior”, Freud used the German word *Trieb*, a word that can be translated into English as either *instinct* or *drive*.

In the 1930s, Freud’s daughter Anna Freud began to apply Freud’s psychodynamic theories of the “ego” to the study of the parent child attachment and especially deprivation and in doing so developed ego psychology.

1.3.3 Jungian Psychodynamics

The Swiss psychiatrist Carl Jung was a great follower of Sigmund Freud and read avidly the writings of Freud and also wrote himself many issues relating to the psychodynamics. However in later years his writings did differ from Freud considerably. In fact Jung in the beginning stages, invariably sent his writings to Freud and they both interacted a great deal and in the year 1907, Jung wrote a book entitled, *Psychology of Dementia Praecox*, in which he upheld the Freudian psychodynamic view point, although with some reservations. That year, Freud invited Jung to visit him in Vienna. The two men, it is said, were greatly attracted to each other, and they talked continuously for thirteen hours. This led to a professional relationship in which they corresponded on a weekly basis, for a period of six years. Carl Jung’s contributions in psychodynamic psychology include the following:

- 1 The psyche tends toward wholeness.
- 1 The self is composed of the ego, the personal unconscious, the collective unconscious.
- 1 The collective unconscious contains the archetypes which manifest in ways particular to each individual.
- 1 Archetypes are composed of dynamic tensions and arise spontaneously in the individual and collective psyche.
- 1 Archetypes are autonomous energies common to the human species.

- 1 Archetypes give the psyche its dynamic properties and help organise it. Their effects can be seen in many forms and across cultures.
- 1 The role of images which spontaneously arise in the human psyche. These are images which include the interconnection between affect, images, and instinct.
- 1 These communicate the dynamic processes taking place in the personal and collective unconscious.
- 1 Images can be used to help the ego move in the direction of psychic wholeness.
- 1 There is a need to recognise the multiplicity of of psyche and psychic life,.
- 1 There are also several organising principles within the psyche, and that they are at times in conflict.

1.3.4 Positive Psychology

Jung put forward the concept of positive psychology. In this he defined the psychodynamic conception of flow and stated that it is a a conscious state of mind in harmonious order. In simple terms, it is a state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great costs, for the sake of doing it.

In other words, in positive psychology, flow is a state of mental activity or operation in which the person is fully immersed in what he or she is doing. It is characterised by energised focus, full involvement, and success in the process of the activity.

The concept of flow in relation to mental contentment was developed by American psychologist Mihály Csíkszentmihályi who, beginning in the 1970s, interviewed and studied hundreds of successful people, such as musicians, athletes, artists, chess masters, and surgeons. Csíkszentmihályi defines flow as ‘the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it.’

In his studies, he would go off and document their flow state on paper. Among his many books on this subject, the most important publication was the 1990 book *Flow- the Psychology of Optimal Experience*, which introduced the world to the psychological concept of flow and optimal experience. In this book, he states that “our perceptions about our lives are the outcome of many forces that shape our experience, each having an impact on whether we feel good or bad.

<p>Self Assessment Questions</p> <p>1) Define personality.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>2) Define psychodynamics and state its origin.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>

3) Trace the history of psychodynamics , how it evolved and who were the contributors.

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4) State in detail Freudian psychodynamics.

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5) In what ways Jungian psychodynamics differed?

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6) What is positive psychology? Elucidate.

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1.4 PSYCHOANALYSIS

Sigmund Freud was the founder of psychoanalysis and the psychodynamic approach to psychology. Freud's theories of psychosexual stages, the unconscious, and dream symbolism help in understanding personality. As mentioned earlier Freud's observations and theories were based on clinical cases and case studies, making his finding difficult to generalise to a larger population. Nevertheless, Freud's theories changed how we think about the human mind and behaviour and influenced psychologists and others greatly in understanding and dealing with personality development.

Disillusioned by Freud's theory and analysis as it was highly deterministic, fatalistic and morbid (for instance Personality Development ends at the age of 5 years after which the individual does not change. Freud attributed everything to Psychosexual aspects), that many of Freud's disciples left him and started developing their own theories. Furthermore Freud's theory was considered highly subjective as it depended on whatever the patients said and none of patient's narration was confirmed or corroborated by any other source. Thus, whatever was recorded was subjective as Freud recorded whatever the patients or clients narrated and Freud also did not consider the influence of environmental factor on the development of personality.

Thus many theorists emerged of whom Erik Erikson is one of the most important contributors who expanded upon Freud's theories and stressed the importance of growth throughout the lifespan. Erikson's psychosocial stage theory of personality remains influential even today in our understanding of human development. All psychodynamic theories stem from psychoanalysis. Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Eric

Fromm, Karen Harney and Harry Stack Sullivan were some of the theorists who put forward their theories which are all considered psychodynamic in approach.

All of them included many sound interactional concepts and environmental factors to the theory of personality. The basic premise of all these theories was that understanding behaviour requires insight into the thoughts and feelings which motivate our actions.

While the textbook on psychodynamics deals extensively with the basic concepts of psychoanalysis, in many ways the theory is intertwined with a person's personality. Freud was ranked higher than any other psychologist on various lists of scientists and thinkers of the last millennium. While many other psychodynamic theories exist today, Freud's theory still casts a long shadow. All of them started from Freud and continued to practice psychoanalysis but used the social and psychological factors in diagnosis and treatment of their patients.

1.4.1 Key Terms of Psychoanalytical Theory

Case Study: An in-depth study of one person. Much of Freud's work and theories were developed through individual case studies. In a case study, nearly every aspect of the subject's life and history is analysed to seek patterns and causes for behaviour. The hope is that learning gained from studying one case can be generalised to many others. Unfortunately, case studies tend to be highly subjective and it is difficult to generalise results to a larger population.

Conscious: In Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality, the conscious mind includes everything that is part of our awareness. This is the aspect of our mental processing that we can think and talk about in a rational way. For instance what we are doing and thinking now will be part of our conscious.

Defense Mechanism: A tactic developed by the ego to protect against anxiety. Defense mechanisms are thought to safeguard the mind against feelings and thoughts that are too difficult for the conscious mind to cope with. In some instances, defense mechanisms are thought to keep inappropriate or unwanted thoughts and impulses from entering the conscious mind. To give an example, defense mechanism of denial for instance can be observed in children who are to be given an injection, deny that it will be painful.

Ego: The ego is the largely unconscious part of personality that mediates the demands of the id, the superego, and reality. The ego prevents us from acting on our basic urges, needs, and desires. For instance if the Id wants to satiate hunger immediately, the ego would look for food availability in the external world, find a restaurant, find if there is enough money to get that food and then satiate the hunger.

Superego: The component of personality composed of our internalised ideals that we have acquired from our parents and from society. The superego works to suppress the urges of the id and tries to make the ego behave morally, rather than realistically. If Id wants to immediately acquire jewellery that the individual sees in a shop and goes to the extent of robbing the shop to get the jewellery it so much wants, the super ego will restrain it by stating how wrong such action of stealing the goods is, and it would make the person feel guilty and ashamed for thinking on those lines.

Unconscious : A reservoir of feelings, thoughts, urges, and memories that are outside of our conscious awareness. Most of the contents of the unconscious are unacceptable or unpleasant, such as feelings of pain, anxiety, or conflict. According

to Freud, the unconscious continues to influence the conscious behaviours of the individual. For instance a shameful remark made against the character of the individual by someone he values, would be suppressed into the unconscious. However at times these remarks repressed away will tend to come out into the open and change the behaviour by making the person forget the very person who made the remark or not recognise the person in a crowd and so on.

1.4.2 Strengths of Psychoanalysis

While most psychodynamic theories did not rely on experimental research, the methods and theories of psychodynamic thinking contributed to experimental psychology. Many of the theories of personality developed by psychodynamic thinkers are still influential today, including Erikson's theory of psychosocial stages and Freud's psychosexual stage theory.

1.4.3 Criticisms of Psychoanalysis

Freud's theories overemphasised the unconscious mind, sex, aggression, and childhood experiences. Many of the concepts proposed by psychoanalytic theorists are difficult to measure and quantify.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What is psychoanalysis?

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2) What are the key terms used in psychoanalysis?

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3) Who were the followers of psychoanalysis?

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4) Discuss the concept of psychoanalysis with a case illustration.

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5) What are the strengths and weaknesses of psychoanalysis?

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1.5 PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY OF PERSONALITY

The psychodynamic is a less intensive form as compared to classical psychoanalysis of Sigmund Freud, in that while psychoanalysis was highly time consuming, psychodynamic concepts gradually reduced the time factor and included many more variables to understand personality of individuals. Unlike psychoanalysis it was not so fatalistic or deterministic in approach. The therapy based on psychoanalysis also differed a great deal from the therapies evolved over a period of time based on psychodynamic theory.

In general, psychodynamics, also known as *dynamic psychology*, which is the study of the interrelationship of various parts of the mind, personality, or psyche relate to mental, emotional, or motivational forces especially at the unconscious level.

The mental forces involved in psychodynamics are often divided into two parts:

- a) The interaction of the emotional and motivational forces that affect behaviour and mental states, especially at a subconscious level;
- b) The inner forces affecting behaviour, that is the study of the emotional and motivational forces that affect behaviour and states of mind.

Freud proposed that psychological energy was constant and that it is discharged to the various mental activities as and when needed.

In general, psychodynamics studies the transformations and exchanges of “psychic energy” within the personality. A focus in psychodynamics is the connection between the energetics of emotional states in the id, ego, and superego as they relate to early childhood development and processes. At the heart of psychological processes, according to Freud, is the ego, which he envisions as battling with three forces: the id, the super-ego, and the outside world. Hence, the basic psychodynamic model focuses on the dynamic interactions between the id, ego, and superego. Psychodynamics, subsequently, attempts to explain or interpret behaviour or mental states in terms of innate emotional forces of processes.

Twentieth-century views on personality have been heavily influenced by the psychodynamic approach of Sigmund Freud. Freud proposed a three-part personality structure consisting of the id (concerned with the gratification of basic instincts), the ego (which mediates between the demands of the id and the constraints of society), and the superego (through which parental and social values are internalised).

In contrast to type or trait theories of personality, the dynamic model proposed by Freud involved an ongoing element of conflict, and it was these conflicts that Freud saw as the primary determinant of personality.

His psychoanalytic method was designed to help patients resolve their conflicts by exploring unconscious thoughts, motivations, and conflicts through the use of free association, dream analysis and other techniques. Another distinctive feature of Freudian psychoanalysis is its emphasis on the importance of childhood experiences in personality formation.

Other psychodynamic models were later developed by Freud’s colleagues, students and followers including Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, and Otto Rank (1884-1939), as well as other neo-Freudians such as Erich Fromm, Karen Horney, Harry Stack Sullivan (1892-1949), and Erik Erikson.

In many ways, 1900 was a significant moment in time. It was seen as a social and cultural landmark. From the perspective of psychology, the discipline was still in its infancy. Wilhelm Wundt at this time, established the first experimental laboratory in 1890. However, one could argue that even more significant, in terms of ultimate impact on both psychology and society, was the publication in 1900 of Sigmund Freud's *The Interpretation of Dreams*.

The Interpretation of Dreams was a landmark, as it represented the first of Freud's books to capture popular as well as academic interest. Freud's theory had a significant impact on understanding human personality and also human behaviour in all its complexities. His study of motivation and mental processes laid the foundation for all psychodynamic theories, and changed our culture by changing how we see ourselves.

Understanding just how much our world was changed because of Freud's work can be difficult to grasp, for we are immersed in a world of Freudian concepts. Every time we make reference to something "unconsciously", or refer to someone as having big "ego", we are using Freudian terms. (Most people in our culture in fact find it hard to believe that some culture have no concept of "unconscious" processes.

Key Concepts of Freud's Psychodynamic Theory:

- 1) Primarily concerned with internal psychological processes.
- 2) Importance of early childhood experiences.
- 3) Existence of unconscious motivation.
- 4) Existence of ego (rationality) & superego (morality).
- 5) Existence of defense mechanisms.

Self Assessment Questions

1) How did psychodynamics emerge?

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2) What are the significant features of psychodynamic theory of personality?

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3) How has Freud's psychodynamics changed the view of human behaviour?
Elucidate.

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4) What are the key processes of Freud's psychodynamic theory? Explain in your own words.

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1.5.1 Psychodynamic Treatment

Two pioneers of psychodynamic treatment were Joseph Breuer and, of course, Sigmund Freud. Breuer was a proponent of using hypnosis in order to help the patient to reach a catharsis. Freud, who collaborated with Breuer in developing this school of treatment, did not believe that hypnosis was necessary in order to reach the stage of catharsis. Freud instead relied on a method of talk therapy known as free association.

For Freud, whose methods of treatment became known as psychoanalysis, catharsis was neither the only nor the ultimate goal of therapy. Rather, through such methods as free association and dreams, one could garner great insight into aspects of the unconscious. Insight, which Freud believed sufficient for curing the disorder, was reached through the tool of interpretation. Through interpretation, the analyst is able to bring hidden meaning to past events in order to enlighten the patient but must face resistance produced by the defense mechanisms of the individual.

The goal of the analyst, however, is not to eliminate these defense mechanisms, which are essential psychoanalysis also attempts to help the patient become aware of his or her basic psychological needs and drives, and devise healthy ways to achieve them.

1.6 OTHER PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORISTS

Psychodynamic Theory has many forms which are beyond those discussed. Some of these are described as neo-Freudians which retained many of the concepts as conceptualised by Freud. Among these are:

- 1) The Ego psychology school pioneered by Freud's daughter Anna, who focuses on the strategies used to preserve the ego, especially defense mechanisms.
- 2) Object relations school which emphasises the importance of relationships, especially to the mother in early childhood includes a number of theorists, including Melanie Klein, Donald Winnicott, and John Bowlby.
- 3) Other psychodynamic theorists diverged significantly from the Freudian tradition even some who were trained originally in psychoanalysis, like Karen Horney, Erik Erikson and Erich Fromm.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the psychodynamic approach to personality.

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- 2) What are the important features of psychodynamic treatment?

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3) Who are the many psychodynamic theorists who took over from Freud?

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1.7 LET US SUM UP

Personality is made up of characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that make a person unique. The unique pattern of psychological and behavioural characteristics by which each person can be distinguished from other people. Personality is fundamental to the study of psychology. The theory of Personality Types, contends that an individual is either primarily Extraverted or Introverted; an individual is either primarily Sensing or intuitive; an individual is either primarily Thinking or Feeling and an individual is either primarily Judging or Perceiving. The trait approach to personality is one of the major theoretical areas in the study of personality. The trait theory suggests that individual personalities are composed broad dispositions.

Psychodynamics is the systematised study and theory of the psychological forces that underlie human behaviour, emphasising the interplay between unconscious and conscious motivation.

The original concept of “psychodynamics” was developed by Sigmund Freud. Freud suggested that psychological processes are flows of psychological energy in a complex brain, establishing “psychodynamics” on the basis of psychological energy, which he referred to as libido.

At the heart of psychological processes, according to Freud, is the ego, which he sees battling with three forces: the id, the super-ego, and the outside world. Hence, the basic psychodynamic model focuses on the dynamic interactions between the id, ego and superego. Psychodynamics, subsequently, attempts to explain or interpret behaviour or mental states in terms of innate emotional forces or processes.

Sigmund Freud was the founder of psychoanalysis and the psychodynamic approach to psychology. This school of thought emphasised the influence of the unconscious mind on behaviour. Freud believed that the human mind was composed of three elements: the id, the ego, and the superego. Psychodynamics, subsequently, attempts to explain or interpret behaviour or mental states in terms of innate emotional forces or processes.

Sigmund Freud was the founder of psychoanalysis and the psychodynamic approach to psychology. This school of thought emphasised the influence of the unconscious mind on behaviour. Freud believed that the human mind was composed of three elements: the id, the ego, and the superego.

Freud’s theories of psychosexual stages, the unconscious, and dream symbolism remain a popular topic among both psychologists and laypersons, despite the fact that his work is viewed with scepticism by many today.

Freud proposed a three-part personality structure consisting of the **id** (concerned with the gratification of basic instincts), the **ego** (which mediates between the demands of the id and the constraints of society), and the **superego** (through which parental and social values are internalised).

The term psychodynamic refers to a wide group of theories that emphasise the overriding influence of instinctive drives and forces, and the importance of developmental experiences in shaping personality. Psychodynamic Theory has many forms which are beyond those discussed. Some of these are described as neo-Freudians which retained many of the concepts as conceptualised by Freud.

The Ego psychology school pioneered by Freud's daughter Anna, which focuses on the strategies used to preserve the ego, especially defense mechanisms.

Object relations school which emphasises the importance of relationships, especially to the mother in early childhood includes a number of theorists, including Melanie Klein, Donald Winnicott, and John Bowlby.

Other psychodynamic theorists diverged significantly from the Freudian tradition even some who were trained originally in psychoanalysis, like Karen Horney, Erik Erikson and Erich Fromm.

1.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define psychodynamics and trace its history.
- 2) What is meant by Freudian's approach to understanding personality?
- 3) Define personality and explain personality development in terms Freud's psychodynamic theory.
- 4) Give a treatise on Freudian psychoanalysis and Jungian psychodynamic theories.
- 5) Define psychoanalysis and bring out its characteristic features. What are the strengths and weaknesses of psychoanalysis?
- 6) What is meant by Psychodynamic Perspectives and treatment? How does this differ from psychoanalysis?
- 7) Who are the other theorists of psychodynamic approach?

1.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, Calvin S. and Lindzey, Gardner and Campbell, John B. (2007). *Theories of Personality*, 4th Ed . Wiley India (P) Ltd.

Sarason, Irwin, G. (1967). *Personality: An Objective Approach*. John Wiley and Sons, New York.

UNIT 2 PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORIES OF PERSONALITY (FREUD AND ERICKSON)

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Introduction to Psychodynamic Theories of Personality
- 2.3 Psychoanalytic Theory by Sigmund Freud
 - 2.3.1 The Conscious, the Preconscious, and the Unconscious
 - 2.3.2 The Id, the Ego, and the Superego
 - 2.3.3 Defense Mechanisms
 - 2.3.4 Psychosexual Stages of Development
- 2.4 Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development
 - 2.4.1 The Ego Psychology
 - 2.4.2 The Epigenetic Principles
- 2.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.6 Unit End Questions
- 2.7 Suggested Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Psychodynamic Theory is one in which patients treated are viewed within a model of illness that attempts to identify something that is not obvious but is present, but may be at the unconscious level. Such a material once brought out of the unconscious would be able to help the patient be relieved of the symptoms and get the person on the road to recovery. Thus each individual is perceived to have had certain experiences and events that have been pushed into the unconscious as these materials are very painful and shameful to the individual. These materials remain in the unconscious and keep trying to enter the conscious only to be repressed back. These are basically materials that are wishes and desires and needs which are represented by the Id, and which are catered to by the ego so as to fulfill the needs of the Id. At the same time the do's and don'ts, the moral values, the rights and wrongs that are imparted by the parents are represented by the superego which tries to curb the id impulses from arising so that the person may not do anything wrong which may cause the society harm. Thus the dynamic interaction amongst the Id, Ego and the superego as well as the society or the outer environment make the individual behave in a certain way. All these dynamics start quite at an early age of the individual and remain so and continue even in adulthood. In the process of catering to the Id and the superego the ego uses many defenses which help in maintaining a balance in the personality. However if balance is not restored the individual may develop certain abnormalities called as mental disorders which need to be treated and one method of treatment is the psychoanalysis.

Freud developed a technique that he called psychoanalysis and used it to treat mental disorders. The conscious contains all the information that a person is paying attention to at any given time. The preconscious contains all the information outside of a person's attention but readily available if needed. The unconscious contains thoughts, feelings, desires, and memories of which people have no awareness but which keep influencing every aspect of individual's day to day life.

Freud believed that personality gets clearly established during childhood, largely before the age of five years. He proposed five stages of psychosexual development, viz., the oral stage, the anal stage, the phallic stage, the latency stage, and the genital stage. Thus personality development for Freud took place before five years of age and continued on into the adulthood with very little change. Freud had many followers and some of them parted company with him on many of the issues related to personality development, as for instance the issue of psychosexual development etc. Erikson was one such person who was a follower of Freud but separated away to propound his own theory. Erikson's theory of ego psychology holds certain tenets that differentiate his theory from Freud's. Erikson's stages provide a framework in which one can bring in the culture concept and compare the present day to that of the earlier days. It also offers insights regarding the eight stages being divided into two parts, with one ending with childhood and the other adult development. In this unit we will be dealing with the theories of personality development as put forward by Freud and Erikson.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Define and describe the psychoanalytic theory of Sigmund Freud;
- 1 Define and explain the concepts of the unconscious, preconscious;
- 1 Describe the dynamic interaction between the id, ego, superego and the outside world;
- 1 Explain the various defense mechanisms;
- 1 Present the psychosexual stages of development as put forward by Freud;
- 1 Explain the concept of psychosocial development as put forward by Erikson;
- 1 Describe the theory of Erikson and the conflicts in each stage of development identified by Erikson; and
- 1 Elucidate the eight stages of development put forward by Erikson.

2.2 INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Psychodynamic Theory is one in which patients treated for mental disorders are viewed within a model of illness that attempts to identify something that may be not in the realm of awareness of the individual concerned. Each individual is perceived to be made up from a dynamic that begins in early childhood and continually progresses throughout life. This way of thinking, however, is generally considered a watered down version of the more conservative and rigid psychoanalytic school of thought. Psychoanalysis emphasises the belief that all adult problems are directly related to events in one's childhood.

Therapists who practice this theory have a tendency to look at individuals as the composite of their parental upbringing. Their focus is on the means for settling conflicts between themselves and their parents as well as within themselves. Psychodynamic therapists tend to believe in the theoretical constructs of the ego (which acts as a force similar to a referee) and the superego (known as the conscience) as well as an id that exists inside all of us that tends to act as the devil's advocate working against the thought process of the conscience. All of these constructs work together to make up the personality and the role of the unconscious is emphasised meaning that contrary to what else one may think, what one does not know can indeed hurt the person and more often than not, it does just that.

The development of an adult's personality is viewed in terms of whether an individual has been able to successfully maneuver through the psychosexual stages of childhood development. Because of this belief, adults are unlikely to know how they are screwed up and as a result may not even recognise the signs of mental distress or mental disorder.

2.3 PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY BY SIGMUND FREUD

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, Freud developed a technique that he called psychoanalysis and used it to treat mental disorders. He formed his theory of psychoanalysis by observing his patients. According to psychoanalytic theory, personality development takes place as a result of the attempts to resolve conflicts between unconscious sexual and aggressive impulses and societal demands to restrain these impulses.

Freud's theory of development has two primary ideas:

- 1) Everything you become is determined by your first few years – indeed, the adult is exclusively determined by the child's experiences, because whatever actions occur in adulthood are based on a blueprint laid down in the earliest years of life (childhood solutions to problems are perpetuated)
- 2) The story of development is the story of how to handle anti-social impulses in socially acceptable ways.

2.3.1 The Conscious, the Preconscious, and the Unconscious

Freud believed that most mental processes are unconscious. He proposed that people have three levels of awareness: The Preconscious, the conscious and the unconscious

The conscious contains all the information that a person is paying attention to at any given time.

Example: The words Dan is reading, the objects in his field of vision, the sounds he can hear, and any thirst, hunger, or pain he is experiencing at the moment are all in his conscious.

The preconscious contains all the information outside of a person's attention but readily available if needed.

Example: A close friend's telephone number, the make of one's car, and many of the past experiences are in the preconscious.

The unconscious contains thoughts, feelings, desires, and memories of which people have no awareness but that which influence every aspect of the individual's day-to-day lives.

Example: Rakesh's unconscious might contain angry feelings toward his mother or a traumatic incident he experienced at age four, about none of which he is aware .

Freud believed that information in the unconscious tries to come into the conscious and very often it is seen in slips of the tongue, jokes, dreams, illness symptoms, and the associations people make between ideas.

The Freudian Slip

Manju calls up her mother on Mother's Day and says, "You're the beast, Mom," when she consciously intended to say, "You're the best, Mom." According to psychoanalytic theory, this slip of the tongue, known as a Freudian slip, reveals her unconscious anger toward her mother.

2.3.2 The Id, the Ego, and the Superego

Freud proposed that personality has three components: the id, the ego, and the superego.

Id: Id is conceived as a reservoir of instinctual energy that contains biological urges such as impulses toward survival, sex, and aggression. The id is unconscious and operates according to the *pleasure principle*, the drive to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. The id is characterised by *primary process thinking*, which is illogical, irrational, and motivated by a desire for the immediate gratification of impulses.

Ego: Ego is considered as the component that manages the conflict between the id and the constraints of the real world. Some parts of the ego are unconscious, while others are preconscious or conscious. The ego operates according to the *reality principle*, the awareness that gratification of impulses has to be delayed in order to accommodate the demands of the real world. The ego is characterised by *secondary process thinking*, which is logical and rational. The ego's role is to prevent the id from gratifying its impulses in socially inappropriate ways.

Superego: This is considered to be the moral component of personality. It contains all the moral standards learned from parents and society. The superego forces the ego to conform not only to reality but also to its ideals of morality. Hence, the superego causes people to feel guilty when they go against society's rules. Like the ego, the superego operates at all three levels of awareness.

Conflict: Freud believed that the id, the ego, and the superego are in constant conflict. He focused mainly on conflicts concerning sexual and aggressive urges because these urges are most likely to violate societal rules.

Anxiety: Internal conflicts can make a person feel anxious. In Freud's view, anxiety arises when the ego cannot adequately balance the demands of the id and the superego. The id demands gratification of its impulses, and the superego demands maintenance of its moral standards.

2.3.3 Defense Mechanisms

To manage these internal conflicts, people use defense mechanisms. Defense mechanisms are behaviours that protect people from anxiety. There are different defense mechanisms, many of which are automatic and unconscious. Some of these defense mechanisms commonly used by individuals are presented below. It may be mentioned here that the individual is generally not aware that he or she is using defense mechanisms at the conscious level.

Repression: keeping unpleasant thoughts, memories, and feelings shut up in the unconscious.

Example: Ram witnessed his mother being beaten by a goonda on a motor cycle who was trying to snatch away her gold chain. This happened around when he was seven years of age. He does not remember this incident as of today as an adult. This is so because he has repressed that traumatic incident into the unconscious.

Reaction formation: This refers to behaving in a way that is opposite to behaviour, feelings, or thoughts that are considered unacceptable.

Example: Nisha feels attracted to her boss but does not admit this to herself. Instead, she constantly makes very disparaging comments about the boss, exactly opposite of her feelings of attraction.

Projection: attributing one's own unacceptable thoughts or feelings to someone else.

Example: Karan gets attracted to women other than his wife and feels bad about it. However he is unable to state anything about it nor he wants to accept such feelings within him. He therefore unconsciously projects these feelings on to his wife saying that she is unfaithful and that she goes with other men and gets attracted to other men etc.

Rationalization: using incorrect but self serving explanations to justify unacceptable behaviour, thoughts, or feelings.

Example: Ronak jumps a red light while driving. He justifies this by telling to himself that he was already in the intersection when the light changed to red.

Displacement: transferring feelings about a person or event onto someone or something else.

Example: Seth is angry at his professor for giving him a bad grade. He leaves class and shouts angrily at a passerby who accidentally bumps into him.

Denial: refusing to acknowledge something that is obvious to others.

Example: Rashmi has started drinking alcohol which has started to affect her academic performance, her job, and her relationships. However, she insists that she drinks only to relieve stress and that she does not have an alcohol problem.

Regression: reverting to a more immature state of psychological development.

Example: When six-year-old Jameel gets less attention from his parents because of a new baby brother, he suddenly starts to wet his bed at night.

Sublimation: channeling unacceptable thoughts and feelings into socially acceptable behaviour.

Example: Priya deals with her angry feelings toward her family by writing science fiction stories about battles between civilizations which contains a lot of aggression.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Fill in the blanks:
 - a) The _____ contains all the information that a person is paying attention to at any given time.
 - b) The _____ is characterised by secondary process thinking.
 - c) The _____ demands gratification of its impulses.
 - d) The _____ demands maintenance of its moral standards.
 - e) _____ are behaviours that protect people from anxiety.
- 2) Give one word for each of the following:
 - a) Channeling unacceptable thoughts and feelings into socially acceptable behaviour. _____
 - b) Linda's telephone number, the make of her car, and many of her past experiences are in her preconscious. _____
 - c) Behaving in a way that is opposite to behaviour, feelings, or thoughts that are considered unacceptable. _____
 - d) Sylvia runs a red light while driving. She justifies this by telling herself she was already in the intersection when the light changed to red. _____
 - e) The moral component of personality. _____

2.3.4 Psychosexual Stages of Development

Freud believed that personality gets well established during childhood, largely before the age of five years. He proposed five stages of psychosexual development: the oral stage, the anal stage, the phallic stage, the latency stage, and the genital stage. Each stage has unique conflicts, and the manner in which these conflicts are resolved and the child develops and grows up and passes to the next stage of development, determines what type of personality the child would have.

If a child's needs in a particular stage are gratified too much or frustrated too much, the child can become fixated at that stage of development. Fixation is an inability to progress normally from one stage to another. *Fixation* may occur, which would mean that there are lingering desires for pleasure from the source experienced at that stage. When the child becomes an adult, the fixation shows up as a tendency to focus on the needs that were over-gratified or over-frustrated.

The stages of development from infancy to adulthood were based on sex drive which included all pleasurable experiences in different organs. For instance in infancy sucking the breast, swallowing and ingesting the food make the infant feel pleasure as there is gratification of the hunger need. Thus at this stage the organ involved in providing pleasurable experience is the oral area. As the individual grows up and enters the 2nd and 3rd years, the pleasurable region shifts from oral to anal areas. The various stages of development and the pleasure the individual feels and the different organs involved in the same are given in the table below.

Table: Freud's Psychosexual developmental stages and the erogenous zones involved in the same

Stage	Age Range	Erogenous zone(s)	Consequences of Fixation
Oral	0-1 years	Mouth	Orally aggressive: Signs include chewing gum or ends of pens. Orally Passive: Signs include smoking/eating/kissing/fellatio/cunnilingus Fixation at this stage may result in passivity, gullibility, immaturity and manipulative personality
Anal	2-3 years	Bowel and bladder elimination	Anal retentive: Obsession with organisation or excessive neatness Anal expulsive: Reckless, careless, defiant, disorganised, Coprophiliac
Phallic	4-6 years	Genitals	Oedipus complex (in boys only according to Freud) Electra complex (in girls only, later developed by Carl Jung)
Latency	7-10 years (until puberty)	Dormant sexual feelings	(People do not tend to fixate at this stage, but if they do, they tend to be extremely sexually unfulfilled.)
Genital	11+ years (Puberty and beyond)	Sexual interests mature	Frigidity, impotence, unsatisfactory relationships

From the above table it is seen that different stages of development occurring at different age levels have clear erogenous zones. The kind of experience the individual has during each stage of development decides whether the person will be fixated at that stage or move on to the next stage of development. These are explained in the following paragraphs.

i) Oral phase

The first stage of psychosexual development is the oral stage, which lasts from the beginning of one's life up to 1 year. During this stage, the focus of gratification is on the mouth and pleasure is the result of nursing, but also of exploration of the surroundings (as infants tend to put new objects in their mouths). In this stage the Id is dominant since neither the ego nor the super ego is yet fully formed. Thus the baby does not have a sense of self and all actions are based on the pleasure principle.

The ego, however, is under formation during this first stage. There are two factors that contribute to the formation of the ego.

- 1) Body image is developed, which implies that the infant recognises that the body is distinct from the outer world. By the identification of the body boundaries, one starts developing the sense of ego.
- 2) Ego formation is attributed to experiences involving delay of gratification and leads to the understanding that specific behaviours can satisfy some needs. The infant gradually realises that gratification is not immediate and that it has to produce certain behaviours to initiate actions that lead to gratification. An example of such behaviour is crying, which seems to be purposeless during the first 2 months of the baby's life, but later seems to be used productively and is connected to certain needs.

Result of oral stage disturbance

According to Freud, disturbance during this stage of development, that is the oral stage, may result in a permanent fixation on the oral channel for gratification. Examples of such fixation seen in the adult years include smoking, overeating, thumb-sucking, and pencil chewing. The personality traits that result from such fixation are for example, impatience, passivity, greediness, dependence and a preoccupation with giving and taking.

ii) **Anal phase**

In the anal stage of psychosexual development, the focus of drive energy (erogenous zone) moves from the upper digestive tract to the lower end and the anus. This stage lasts from about the 15th month to the third year of age. In this stage, the formation of ego continues.

According to the theory, the major experience during this stage is toilet training. This occurs around the age of two (there may be fluctuations among different societies as to the age in which toilet training occurs), and results in conflict between the id and the societal demands (parental demands). While Id demands immediate gratification of its drives that involves elimination and activities related to it (such as handling faeces) the parental demands is that the child postpones its gratification until the suitable place is reached and that the child should not dirty itself by handling the feces etc.

Result of anal stage disturbance

Freud suggests that fixations may be caused by either exceptionally strict toilet training or intense pleasure associated with taboos such as smearing faeces on the wall. Too little gratification during this stage results in an 'anal' or obsessive character who has a wish to make a terrible mess and therefore must build defenses against this, such as orderliness, rigidity, and hatred of waste. They are also obstinate, stingy, punctual and possessive. Too much gratification will result in opposite behaviours, untidiness, a hot temper and destructiveness.

iii) **Phallic phase**

The phallic stage extends from about three to five years of age, and the erogenous zone associated with it are the areas of the genitals. Even though the gratification is focused on the genitals, this is not in the form of adult sexuality, since the children are physically immature. However, stimulation of genitals is welcomed as pleasurable and boys, like adult males, may have erections during their sleep.

As the child develops, however, it starts forming a sexual identity and the dynamics for boys and girls differ. For both sexes, the parents become the focus of drive energy.

Oedipus Complex

For the boy, the mother becomes more desired, while the father is the focus of jealousy and rivalry, since he is the one who sleeps with the mother, but still he is one of the main caregivers. The id wants to unite with the mother and kill the father (like Oedipus did), but the ego, based on the reality principle, knows that the father is stronger. The child also feels affectionate towards the father, one of the caregivers, and his feelings are ambivalent. The fear that the father will object to the boy's feelings is expressed by the id as fear that the father will castrate him. The castration fear is not rational, and occurs at a subconscious irrational level.

Electra Complex

Freud argued that young girls followed more or less the same psychosexual development as boys. Whereas the boy would develop a castration anxiety, the girl would go on to develop penis envy, envy felt by females toward the males because the males possess a penis.

Freud considered the Oedipal conflict experienced by girls more intense than that experienced by boys, potentially resulting in a more submissive and less confident personality.

The identification of girls with the mother is easier, since the girl realises that neither she, nor her mother have a penis. Freud's theory regarding the psychosexual dynamic present in female children at this point of their psychosexual development is termed, though not by Freud himself, the Electra complex. Freud's theory of feminine sexuality, particularly penis envy, has been sharply criticized in both gender theory and feminist theory.

Result of phallic stage disturbance

According to Freud, the conflicts if not properly resolved, may result in homosexuality, authority problems, and rejection of appropriate gender roles. Also, men can exhibit excessive ambition and vanity. Overall, the Oedipal conflict is very important for the super-ego development, since by identifying with one of the parents, morality becomes internalised, and compliance with rules is not any more the result of fear of punishment. A poor identification with the opposite sex parent may lead to recklessness or even immorality.

iv) **Latency phase**

Because the latency stage is less of a stage and more of a period between stages, it may begin at any time between the ages of 3 and 7 (whenever the child goes to school) and may continue until anywhere from the ages of 8 to 13 (whenever the child's puberty begins).

Freud described the latency phase as one of relative stability. No new organisation of sexuality develops, and he did not pay much attention to it. For this reason, this phase is not always mentioned in descriptions of his theory as one of the phases, but as a separate period.

During the latency phase, the energy the child previously put into the Oedipal problem can be used for developing the self. The superego is already present, but becomes more organised and principled. The child acquires culturally regarded skills and values. The child has evolved from a baby with primitive drives to a reasonable human being with complex feelings like shame, guilt and disgust. During this stage, the child learns to adapt to reality and also begins the process of what Freud terms 'infantile amnesia': the repression of the child's earliest traumatic, overly sexual or evil memories.

Result of latency stage disturbance

Freud suggests that these repressed drives may be redirected into other activities, such as the formation of friendships, or hobbies.

v) **Genital phases**

The fifth and last stage of psychosexual development, the genital stage, lasts from puberty, about the twelfth year of age, and onwards.

It actually continues until development stops, which is ideally in the eighteenth year of age, when adulthood starts. This stage represents the major portion of life, and the basic task for the individual is the detachment from the parents.

It is also the time when the individual tries to come in terms with unresolved residues of the early childhood. In this stage the focus is on the genitals, and the energy is expressed with adult sexuality.

The symbolic gratification may include the formation of love relationships and families, or acceptance of responsibilities associated with adulthood.

Result of genital stage disturbance

If too much libidinal energy is taken up in the first three stages, the individual cannot reach maturity, cannot shift the focus from their own body, their own parents and their immediate needs to larger responsibilities involving others.

Evaluation of Freud’s psychosexual development theory

As one critically evaluates the theory certain important aspects are observed which are given below:

There are basically four major criticisms against this theory:

- 1) The theory is focused almost entirely on male development with little mention of female psychosexual development.
- 2) The theory is difficult to test scientifically. Concepts such as the libido are impossible to measure, and therefore cannot be tested. In this regard, whatever research has been conducted tends to discredit Freud’s theory.
- 3) Future predictions are too vague. How can we know that a current behaviour was caused specifically by a childhood experience? The length of time between the cause and the effect is too long to assume that there is a relationship between the two variables.
- 4) Freud’s theory is based upon case studies and not empirical research. Also, Freud based his theory on the recollections of his adult patients, not on actual observation and study of children.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss and state the psychosexual stages of development by Freud.

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- 2) Discuss the result if there is a disturbance in these stages.

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- 3) What is Oedipus and Electra complex?

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4) Evaluate Freud's theory of personality development.

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Freud used the term Oedipal for both sexes, but other analysts proposed the female variant to be referred to as "Electra complex". Erikson belongs to the Freudian school, and thus accepts Freud's ideas as basically correct, including the more debatable ideas such as the Oedipal complex. However, Erikson is much more society and culture-oriented than most Freudians.

2.4 ERICKSON'S THEORY OF PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality in psychology. Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud's theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson's theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan.

One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory is the development of *ego identity*. Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experience and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence also motivates behaviours and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as ego strength or ego quality. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

In each stage, Erikson believed that people experience a conflict that serves as a turning point in development. In Erikson's view, these conflicts are centered on either developing a psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. During these times, the potential for personal growth is high, but so is the potential for failure.

2.4.1 The Ego Psychology

Erikson's theory of ego psychology holds certain tenets that differentiate his theory from that of Freud's. Some of these include:

- 1 The ego is of utmost importance.
- 1 Part of the ego is able to operate independently of the id and the superego.
- 1 The ego is a powerful agent that can adapt to situations, thereby promoting mental health.
- 1 Social and sexual factors both play a role in personality development.

Erikson's theory was more comprehensive than Freud's, and included information about "normal" personality as well as neurotics. He also broadened the scope of personality to incorporate society and culture, not just sexuality. Criticisms of his theories, in addition to the factors discussed in class, have noted that he did no

statistical research to generate his theories, and it is very hard to test his theories in order to validate them.

2.4.2 The Epigenetic Principle

Erikson’s work is based on the basic theory of Freud but expands Freud’s theory of stages. According to him, development takes place through a predetermined unfolding of individuals’ personalities in eight stages.

Erikson believed that childhood is very important in personality development. He accepted many of Freud’s concepts, including the id, ego, and superego, and Freud’s theory of infantile sexuality. But Erikson rejected Freud’s attempt to describe personality solely on the basis of sexuality, and, unlike Freud, felt that personality continued to develop beyond five years of age.

The stages

Erikson’s stages provide a framework in which one can bring in the culture concept and compare the present day to that of the earlier days. It also offers insights regarding the 8 stages into 2 parts, with one ending with childhood and the other adult development.

The table below presents the details of the stages as visualized by Erikson and also presents the various conflicts that arise during each stage of development.

Table: Erikson’s stages of development

Stage (age)	Psychosocial crisis	Significant relations	Psychosocial modalities	Psychosocial virtues	Maladaptations & malignancies
0-1 Infant	Trust Vs MisTrust	Mother	To get To give in return	Hope, faith	Sensory distortion - withdrawal
2-3.Toddler	Autonomy vs Shame & doubt	Parents	To hold on To let go	Will, Determination	Impulsivity, compulsion
3-6 preschooler	Initiative Vs Guilt	Family	To go after To play	Purpose Courage	Ruthlessness Inhibition
7-12 Schoolage child	Industry vs Inferiority	Neighbourhood and school	To complete, to make things together	Competence	Narrow virtuosity, inertia
12-18 adolescence	Ego identity vs Role confusion	Peer groups, role models	To be oneself, share oneself	Fidelity, loyalty	Fanaticism, repudiation
The 20’s young adult	Intimacy vs isolation	Partners, friends	To lose and find oneself in another	Love	Promiscuity and exclusivity
Late 20’s to 50’s (Middle adult)	Generativity vs self absorption	Household, workmates	To make, to take care of	Care	Overexpectation and reactivity
50’s and beyond	Integrity vs despair	Mankind , My kind	To be, through have been, to face not being	Wisdom	Presumption and despair

Let us take up each of these one by one

Infancy: Trust vs. Mistrust (0 to 1 year)

The first stage which corresponds to Freud's oral stage and centers around the infant's basic needs being met by the parents, especially the mother, for food, sustenance, and comfort. The child's relative understanding of the world and society comes from the parents and their interaction with the child. If the parents expose the child to warmth, regularity, and dependable affection, the infant's view of the world will be one of trust. If the parents fail to provide that kind of warmth and a secure environment or not able to meet the child's basic needs, the child will develop a sense of mistrust.

Toddler : Autonomy vs. Shame & Doubt (2 to 3 years)

The second stage comes about when the child gains control over eliminative functions and motor abilities, and when they start exploring their surroundings. At this stage also there is a need for the parents to continue providing a strong base of security from which the child can venture out to try to be independent. The amount of patience and encouragement that the parents show helps foster autonomy in the child. Highly restrictive parents, however, are more likely to instill the child with a sense of doubt and reluctance to attempt new challenges.

As children gain increased muscular coordination and mobility, they become capable of satisfying some of their own needs. They begin to feed themselves, wash and dress themselves, and use the bathroom. If caregivers encourage self-sufficient behaviour, toddlers develop a sense of autonomy, that is a sense of being able to handle many problems on their own. At the same time too much of demands and that too soon, or not allowing children opportunity to perform tasks of which they are capable, or ridiculing children's attempts at self-sufficiency, lead to the development of shame and doubt in the youngsters about their own ability to handle problems.

Preschool: Initiative vs. Guilt (4 to 6 years)

This is the age at which children are learning to master the world around them. They are learning the basic skills and principles of physics such as things fall on the ground and not up, round things roll etc. Initiative adds to autonomy the quality of undertaking, planning, and attacking a task for the sake of being active and on the move. At this stage the child wants to begin and complete his or her own actions for a purpose. Guilt is a new emotion and is confusing and the child may feel guilty over things which are not logically guilt producing. They may be feel guilty when their initiative does not produce the desired results.

Childhood: Industry vs. Inferiority (7 to 12 years)

This is the time formal schooling starts. Erikson viewed the elementary school years as critical for the development of self-confidence. At this time many tasks are performed by them in terms of writing, reciting, sports and so on in which the children can show their abilities and achievements. If children are encouraged to make and do things and are then praised for their accomplishments, they begin to demonstrate industry by being diligent, persevering at tasks until completed and putting work before pleasure. On the other hand if children are ridiculed or punished for their efforts or if they find they are incapable of meeting the expectations of their teachers and parents they develop feelings of inferiority about their capabilities.

Adolescence: Identity vs. Role Confusion (13 to 19 years)

Children move from this stage to adulthood and they learn many things and are also physically capable of accomplishing many things that adults do which the children were not able to in the earlier stages. The adolescents ponder the roles they will play in the adult world. Initially there could be some confusion about the roles that they have to play, the ways in which they will fit into the society, and also may experiment with a variety of behaviours and activities. For instance they may drive a car which they should not, they will work in a canteen during off hours, may baby sit for neighbours, and may also affiliate themselves with a certain political or religious group.

At this time they are idealistic and also keep questioning many of the established norms which irritate the adults. If the youngster does not get any proper response but only ridicule, the self concept may end up also to be negative. Also the adolescent is highly concerned with how he or she appears to others. If they feel that their look is like others and not abnormally positive or negative, they feel confident. At this time the youngster is idealistic and the superego identity is the accrued confidence that their planning and the actual achievement of the goals are the same.

Young Adulthood: Intimacy vs. Isolation (20 to 34 years)

The Intimacy vs. Isolation conflict is emphasised around the ages of 20 to 34. At the start of this stage, identity vs. role confusion is coming to an end, and it still lingers at the foundation of the stage. Young adults are still eager to blend their identities with friends. They want to fit in. Erikson believes we are sometimes isolated due to intimacy. We are afraid of rejections such as being turned down or our partners breaking up with us. We are familiar with pain, and to some of us, rejection is painful; our egos cannot bear the pain.

Middle Adulthood: Generativity vs. Stagnation (25 to 65 years)

During middle age the primary developmental task is one of contributing to society and helping to guide future generations. When a person makes a contribution during this period, perhaps by raising a family or working toward the betterment of society, a sense of generativity, that is a sense of productivity and accomplishment results. In contrast, a person who is self centered and unable or unwilling to help society move forward develops a feeling of stagnation and dissatisfaction with the relative lack of productivity.

Senior: Integrity vs. Despair (65 years onwards)

As people grow older and become senior citizens there is a natural slowing down process that takes place. It is during this time that people contemplate about their past accomplishments and are able to develop integrity and see themselves as leading a successful or unsuccessful life. If people see their life as unproductive, or feel that they have not been able to accomplish their life goals, they become dissatisfied with life and develop despair, often leading to depression and hopelessness. People generally look back on their lives and accomplishments and develop feelings of contentment and integrity if they believe that they have led a happy, productive life. They may instead develop a sense of despair if they look back on a life of disappointments and unachieved goals.

Self Assessment Questions

1) Define ego psychology.

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2) Discuss the stages stated by Erickson, with examples.

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3) Discuss the different stages of development and indicate the typical conflicts related to these stages.

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4) What are the characteristic features of adolescent stage of development? Why is this considered an important stage?

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2.5 LET US SUM UP

Psychodynamic Theory is the one in which patients are treated are viewed within a model of illness that attempts to identify something that may be lacking. Each individual is perceived to be made up from a dynamic that begins in early childhood and continually progresses throughout life. Freud developed a technique that he called psychoanalysis and used it to treat mental disorders. The conscious contains all the information that a person is paying attention to at any given time. The preconscious contains all the information outside of a person's attention but readily available if needed. The unconscious contains thoughts, feelings, desires, and memories of which people have no awareness but that influence every aspect of their day-to-day lives. The id is unconscious and operates according to the pleasure principle, the drive to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. The ego operates according to the *reality principle*, the awareness that gratification of impulses has to be delayed in order to accommodate the demands of the real world. Freud believed that the id, the ego, and the superego are in constant conflict. Internal conflicts can make a person feel anxious. Defense mechanisms are behaviours that protect people from anxiety.

Freud believed that personality solidifies during childhood, largely before age five. He proposed five stages of psychosexual development: the oral stage, the anal stage, the phallic stage, the latency stage, and the genital stage. The first stage of psychosexual development is the oral stage, which lasts from the beginning of one's life up to 1 year. In the anal stage of the psychosexual development the focus of drive energy

(erogenous zone) moves from the upper digestive tract to the lower end and the anus. This stage lasts from about the 15th month to the third year of age. The phallic stage extends from about three to five years of age, and the erogenous zone associated with it as the area of the genitals. The latency stage is less of a stage and more of a period between stages, it may begin at any time between the ages of 3 and 7 (whenever the child goes to school) and may continue until anywhere from the ages of 8 to 13 (whenever the child's puberty begins). The fifth and last stage of psychosexual development, the genital stage, lasts from puberty, about the twelfth year of age, and onwards.

Erikson's theory of ego psychology holds certain tenets that differentiate his theory from Freud's. Erikson's stages provide a framework in which one can bring in the culture concept and compare the present day to that of the earlier days. It also offers insights regarding the 8 stages into 2 parts, with one ending with childhood and the other adult development.

2.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss in detail the psychodynamic theory of personality and bring out its salient features.
- 2) Put forward the Psychoanalytical theory of personality of Sigmund Freud.
- 3) Discuss the role of the conscious, preconscious and the unconscious in the development of personality.
- 4) In what ways the personality development is explained by Freud in terms of the Id, Ego and the Superego.
- 5) What are defense mechanisms? How do these contribute to the development of personality.
- 6) Describe the psychosexual stages of development. How do the disturbances in each of the stages affect the personality?
- 7) Describe in detail Erikson's psychosocial theory of personality? In what ways this theory differs from that of Freud's theory of personality?
- 8) Put forward the concept of Ego psychology.
- 9) Elucidate the epigenetic principle. How is it relevant to personality development according to Erikson?

2.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

Cloninger, S. C. (1996). *Theories of Personality: Understanding Persons* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Phares, E. J., & Chaplin, W. F. (1997). *Introduction to Personality* (4th ed.). New York: Longman

UNIT 3 SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES OF PERSONALITY (ALFRED ADLER, ERIC FROMM, KAREN HORNEY AND HARRY STACK SULLIVAN)

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Introduction to Social Psychological Theories of Personality
- 3.3 Theory of Alfred Adler
 - 3.3.1 Childhood
 - 3.3.2 Birth Order
 - 3.3.3 Therapist and Patient
- 3.4 Theory of Eric Fromm
 - 3.4.1 Ways to Escape Freedom
 - 3.4.2 Preferred Ways to Escape Freedom and the Causes
 - 3.4.3 Human Needs
- 3.5 Theory of Karen Horney
 - 3.5.1 Patterns of Neurotic Needs
 - 3.5.2 Categories of the Needs
 - 3.5.3 Neurotic Needs
- 3.6 Theory of Harry Stack Sullivan
 - 3.6.1 Personifications
 - 3.6.2 Modes of Experiencing
 - 3.6.3 Developmental Epochs
- 3.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.8 Unit End Questions
- 3.9 Suggested Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Theories of personality try to explain the differences in individuals in regard to their behaviours and personality. The psychoanalytical theory of Freud clearly stated that personality development is the result of interaction between the ego, Id and the superego and outside environment or societal demands. The theory also considered personality development as going through different stages and it was stated that once the personality is set around the age of 5 years, the individual will carry that personality through out life. Considering Freud's theory of personality as being fatalistic and deterministic and not involving environmental factors, some of his students parted company with Freud and put forward their own theory of personality. In this unit we will be dealing with some of the major theorists who were part of Freudian

psychoanalytical school but moved away from him and included social factors in their personality theories. The prominent theorists in this group are Alfred Adler, Eric Fromm, Karen Horney and Harry Stack Sullivan.

Alfred Adler developed the school of individual psychology, which contained the humanistic study of drives, feelings, emotions, and memory in the context of the individual's overall life plan. Eric Fromm added to this mix the idea of freedom. He considered people as transcending the determinisms that Freud and Marx attributed to them. Fromm believed that our social unconscious is best understood by examining the country's economic systems. Horney argued that the source of much female psychiatric disturbance is located in the very male dominated culture that had produced Freudian theory. Horney identified ten *neurotic needs* that characterise neurotics in their attempts to combat anxiety. Harry Stack-Sullivan focused on both the social aspects of personality and cognitive representations. This moved him away from Freud's psychosexual development and toward a more eclectic approach. This unit will be dealing with the theories of personality put forward by the above theorists.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Define and elucidate the social psychological theories of personality;
- 1 Describe Adler's theory of personality;
- 1 List the typical personality of individuals as visualized by Adler;
- 1 Elucidate the dynamics of the theory of Fromm;
- 1 List the personality that develops in terms of Fromm's theory;
- 1 Define Horney's basic anxiety;
- 1 Explain the personality types that arise out of Horney's theory of personality;
- 1 Elucidate Sullivan's theory of personality; and
- 1 Analyse the various factors that contribute to the development of personality according to Sullivan's theory.

3.2 INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

There have been many theories of personality put forward by the expert psychologist, psychiatrist and others. Sigmund Freud put forward the psychoanalytical theory to explain personality, however his emphasis was on sexuality being a motive. He also conceived of personality as passing through different stages of development and stated that by the time the individual is 5 years of age he develops a personality which remains forever with the person. Freud did not give much importance to the environmental factors. Somewhat disillusioned with Freud's deterministic approach to personality and not including environmental factors, many of Freud's students who worked under him separated from him and propounded their own theories of personality. Amongst these are Alfred Adler, Eric Fromm, Karen Horney and Harry Stack Sullivan. These theorists are psychoanalysts but are called as psychodynamic theorists and their theories are termed as both psychodynamic theory and or social psychological theories.

All these theorists sought out Freud to learn about psychoanalysis, and were also seen as potential successors to Sigmund Freud. They however disagreed with the emphasis Freud placed on sexuality as a motive and felt that many of the social factors and environmental factors do play a role in the development of personality. While for Adler, the most important motive is the feeling of inferiority, which he felt originated in the sense of dependence and helplessness which infants experience, for Eric Fromm 'Freedom' played an important role. Karen Horney was focusing on the female psychology and on basic anxiety that arises from the unsatisfactory relationship between the child and mother in infancy and childhood. Sullivan put forward the attachment concept as to how the attachment of the infant to its mother makes a difference. Thus each of these theorists called as social psychological theorists or neo Freudians added newer social and psychological dimensions to what Freud had included as being at the core of personality. These neo Freudians, retained many of the concepts proposed by Freud. It also included certain concepts contained within the "ego psychology", a school pioneered by Freud's daughter Anna, which focussed on the strategies used to preserve the ego, especially defense mechanisms. The "object relations" school (emphasising the importance of relationships, especially to the mother in early childhood) has a number of theorists, including Melanie Klein, Donald Winnicott, and John Bowlby. Other psychodynamic theorists diverged significantly from the Freudian tradition—even some who were trained originally in psychoanalysis, like Karen Horney, Erik Erikson (a student of Anna Freud), and Erich Fromm (who, while often described as a neo-Freudian, is actually closer to the humanists than to traditional Freudian theory).

Social psychology is a discipline that uses scientific methods "to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of other human beings". Social psychology is focused on helping us understand and explain social behaviour. Social theories are generally centered on specific social phenomena, including group behaviour, prosocial behaviour, social influence, love and much more.

3.3 THEORY OF ALFRED ADLER

Alfred Adler, a medical graduate is best known as the founder of Individual Psychology. In addition he is credited, along with Carl Jung and Sigmund Freud, as one of the greatest founding influences of modern psychology. Adler developed the school of individual psychology which consisted of the concepts of human drives, feelings, emotions, and memory in the context of the individual's overall life plan. Among Adler's chief contributions, the following may be mentioned:

- i) the importance of birth order in the formation of personality,
- ii) the impact of neglect or pampering on child development,
- iii) the notion of a "*self-perfecting*" drive within human beings, and
- iv) the idea that one must study and treat the patient as a "*whole person.*"

Adler with the creation of individual psychology, developed a new direction in psychotherapy, and created the first significant schism in the psychoanalytic movement. Adler considered psychic development to be the formation of an unconscious life plan, or even a lifestyle. The concepts used by Adler are the following:

- i) Individual Psychology
- ii) Striving for perfection

- iii) Aggressive drive
- iv) Compensation
- v) Masculine protest
- i) *Individual psychology*, deals as much as possible with what can be observed and as little as possible with what must be taken on faith. Alfred Adler postulates a single “drive” or motivating force behind all our behaviour and experience and he called this motivating force as *striving for perfection*. This actually refers to the desire that all humans have to fulfill their potentials, to come closer and closer to their ideal self actualisation.
- ii) *Striving for perfection* refers to the single motivating force underlying personality. Adler’s earliest phrase in regard to this was the *aggression drive*, referring to the reaction one has when other drives, such as our need to eat, to be sexually satisfied, to get things done, or be loved, etc., are all frustrated. It might better be called as the assertiveness drive, as aggression term has a negative connotation.
- iii) *Compensation*: Another word Adler used to refer to basic motivation was *compensation*, or striving to overcome. Since people have problems, shortcomings, inferiorities of one sort or another, Adler felt, earlier in his writing, that individual personalities could be accounted for by the ways in which they compensate or overcome those problems.
- iv) *Masculine Protest*: One of Adler’s earliest phrases was *masculine protest*. He noted something pretty obvious in his culture that boys were held in higher esteem than girls, and boys wanted, often desperately, to be thought of as strong, aggressive, in control that is, “masculine” and not weak, passive, or dependent that is, “feminine.”

Goal-striving

Adler saw man imbued with a unitary dynamic force, a striving from below to above. Since this striving is an “intrinsic necessity of life itself, like physical growth,” there is no need to infer a further source of energy for it. Adler described it as directed toward superiority, overcoming, perfection, success, significance – always as these are variously envisioned by each individual.

Self-determination

Adler found that an individual might respond to a perceived inferiority with greater or lesser inferiority feelings and with discouragement, compensation, or over-compensation. Thus the individual is not completely determined by objective factors. Adler called this degree of self-determination man’s creative power. It includes not only the ability to choose between several ways of regarding or reacting but also, more importantly, man’s potential for spontaneity. Through it the individual arrives at his style of life.

Life Style

Life style refers to how a person lives his/her life, how he/she handle problems and interpersonal relations.

Social Ties

Adler specified three main tasks of life: occupation, association with others, and love and marriage. He also referred to them as social ties, for they all require

cooperation for their solution. Man's very uniqueness is influenced by his relations to others: "The style of the child's life cannot be understood without reference to the persons who look after him."

Social Interest

Adler also assumed an *innate* potentiality for coping with society, termed social interest. Unlike an *instinct*, it must be evoked and developed. Its subjective development is based in man's native *empathy*; the objective "development of the innate potentiality for cooperation occurs first in the relationship of the child and the mother." Social interest represents a transcendence of the self, an absence of self-centeredness. It is a trait, like intelligence, and as such influences the direction of the striving, but it is the most important trait in the life style.

Psychological types

Adler mentioned three distinguished types based on the different levels of energy involved:

- 1) *Ruling type*: They are, from childhood on, characterised by a tendency to be rather aggressive and dominant over others. Their energy — the strength of their striving after personal power — is so great that they tend to push over anything or anybody who gets in their way. The most energetic of them are bullies and sadists; somewhat less energetic ones hurt others by hurting themselves, and include alcoholics, drug addicts, and suicides.
- 2) *Leaning type*: They are sensitive people who have developed a shell around themselves which protects them, but they must rely on others to carry them through life's difficulties. They have low energy levels and so become dependent. When overwhelmed, they develop what we typically think of as neurotic symptoms: phobias, obsessions and compulsions, general anxiety, hysteria, amnesias, and so on, depending on individual details of their lifestyle.
- 3) *Avoiding type*: These have the lowest levels of energy and only survive by essentially avoiding life — especially other people. When pushed to the limits, they tend to become psychotic, retreating finally into their own personal worlds.
- 4) *Socially useful type*: This is the healthy person, one who has both social interest and energy. Note that without energy, you can't really have social interest, since you wouldn't be able to actually do anything for anyone!

Adler noted that his four types looked very much like the four types proposed by the ancient Greeks. They, too, noticed that some people are always sad, others always angry, and so on. But they attributed these temperaments (from the same root as temperature) to the relative presence of four bodily fluids called humors.

Choleric (hot and dry) and angry all the time. The choleric is, roughly, the ruling type.

Phlegmatic (cold and wet) and be sluggish. This is roughly the leaning type.

Melancholic (cold and dry) and tend to be sad constantly. This is roughly the avoiding type.

Sanguine (warm and moist). This naturally cheerful and friendly person represents the socially useful type.

Adler believed very strongly that each person is a unique individual with his or her own unique lifestyle. The idea of types is, for him, only a heuristic device, meaning a useful fiction, not an absolute reality!

3.3.1 Childhood

Adler, like Freud, saw personality or lifestyle as something established quite early in life. In fact, the prototype of the individual's lifestyle tends to be fixed by about five years old.

Adler felt that there were three basic childhood situations that most contribute to a faulty lifestyle.

i) First, organ inferiority as well as early childhood diseases:

They are what he called "overburdened," . He felt that someone has to draw their attention to others, in order that they give up focusing on their own self and look at others.

ii) The second is pampering.

Many children are taught, by the actions of others that they can take without giving. Their wishes are everyone else's commands.

iii) The third is neglect.

A child who is neglected or abused learns what the pampered child learns, but learns it in a far more direct manner. They learn inferiority because they are told and shown every day that they are of no value. They learn selfishness because they are taught to trust no one. If you have not known love, you do not develop a capacity for it later.

3.3.2 Birth order

Adler must be credited as the first theorist to include not only a child's mother and father and other adults as early influence on the child, but the child's brothers and sisters as well. His consideration of the effects of siblings and the order in which they were born is probably what Adler is best-known for.

The only child is more likely than others to be pampered, with all the ill results one has discussed. After all, the parents of the only child have put all their eggs in one basket, so to speak, and are more likely to take special care, sometimes anxiety filled care of their pride and joy. If the parents are abusive, on the other hand, the only child will have to bear that abuse alone.

The first child begins life as an only child, with all the attention to him or herself. Sadly, just as things are getting comfortable, the second child arrives and "dethrones" the first. At first, the child may battle for his or her lost position. He or she might try acting like the baby. After all, it seems to work for the baby! But the elder child gets only rebuffed and told to grow up. Some become disobedient and rebellious, others sullen and withdrawn. Adler believed that the first born children are often precocious. They tend to be relatively solitary and more conservative than the other children in the family.

The second child is in a very different situation: He or she has the first child as a sort of "pace-setter," and tends to become quite competitive, constantly trying to surpass the older child. They often succeed, but many feel as if the race is never over, and they tend to dream of constant running without getting anywhere. Other "middle" children will tend to be similar to the second child, although each may focus on a different "competitor."

The youngest child is likely to be the most pampered in a family with more than one child. After all, he or she is the only one who is never dethroned! And so the youngest

children are the second most likely source of problem children, just behind the first borns. On the other hand, the youngest may also feel incredible inferiority, with everyone older and “therefore” superior. But, with all those “pace-setters” ahead, the youngest can also be driven to exceed all of them.

Who is a first, second, or youngest child is not as obvious as it might seem. If there is a long stretch between children, they may not see themselves and each other in the same way as if they were closer together. And if some of the children are boys and some girls, it makes a difference as well.

A second child who is a girl might not take her older brother as someone to compete with. A boy in a family of girls may feel more like the only child and so on. As with everything in Adler’s system, birth order is to be understood in the context of the individual’s own special circumstances.

3.3.3 Therapist and Patient

The therapist’s function, according to Adler, is not to treat “mental disease” but to divine the error in the patient’s way of life and lead him to greater maturity. Adler wished the patient to appreciate his (patient’s) own power of self-determination and have the courage to exercise it. To encourage the patient, the therapist must express a disinterested concern that evokes and fosters feelings of trust and fellowship, which in turn fulfills a function at which the mother had failed.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you understand by social psychological theories?

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2) Define Individual Psychology.

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3) What was the core concept of Alfred Adler’s theory?

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4) Discuss the various concepts put forward by Adler in explaining personality.

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5) Discuss the birth order and its effect on personality development as presented by Adler.

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3.4 THEORY OF ERICH FROMM

Erich Fromm was born in 1900 in Frankfurt, Germany.

Fromm's theory is a rather unique blend of Freud and Marx theories. Freud, of course, emphasised the unconscious, biological drives, repression, and so on. In other words, Freud postulated that our characters were determined by biology. Marx, on the other hand, saw people as determined by their society, and most especially by their economic systems.

He added to this 'The idea of freedom'. He allows people to transcend the determinisms that Freud and Marx attribute to them. In fact, Fromm makes freedom the central characteristic of human nature.

Fromm describes three ways in which we escape from freedom:

3.4.1 Ways to Escape Freedom

1) Authoritarianism

Individuals seek to avoid freedom by fusing themselves with others, by becoming a part of an authoritarian system. There are two ways to approach this. One is to submit to the power of others, becoming passive and compliant. The other is to become an authority themselves or a person who applies structure to others. Either way, one escapes his or her own separate identity.

Fromm referred to the extreme version of authoritarianism as masochism and sadism, and points out that both feel compelled to play their separate roles, so that even the sadist, with all his apparent power over the masochist, is not free to choose his actions.

In many classes, for example, there is an implicit contract between students and professors: Students demand structure, and the professor sticks to his notes. It seems innocuous and even natural, but this way the students avoid taking any responsibility for their learning, and the professor can avoid taking on the real issues of his field.

2) Destructiveness

Authoritarians respond to a painful existence by, eliminating themselves., for instance, If there is no me, how can anything hurt me? But others respond to pain by striking out against the world, for instance, if I destroy the world, how can it hurt me? It is this escape from freedom that accounts for much of the indiscriminate nastiness of life — brutality, vandalism, humiliation, crime, terrorism....

Fromm adds that, if a person's desire to destroy is blocked by circumstances, he or she may redirect it inward. The most obvious kind of self-destructiveness is, of

course, suicide. But we can also include many illnesses, drug addiction, alcoholism, even the joys of passive entertainment.

3) **Automaton conformity**

Authoritarians escape by hiding within an authoritarian hierarchy. There is less hierarchy to hide in (though plenty remains for anyone who wants it, and some who don't). The person who uses automaton conformity is like a social chameleon: He takes on the coloring of his surroundings.

Since he looks like a million other people, he no longer feels alone. He isn't alone, perhaps, but he's not himself either. The automaton conformist experiences a split between his genuine feelings. For example, we may well fight for freedom (of the political sort), and yet when we have it, we tend to be conformist and often rather irresponsible. We have the vote, but we fail to use it! Fromm is very much for political freedom but he is especially eager that we make use of that freedom and take the responsibility that goes with it.

3.4.2 Preferred Ways to Escape Freedom and the Causes

1) **Families**

Which of the escapes from freedom a person tends to use has a great deal to do with the kind of family the individual grew up in? Fromm outlined two kinds of unproductive families

a) **Symbiotic families**

Symbiosis is the relationship two organisms have who cannot live without each other. In a symbiotic family, some members of the family are "swallowed up" by other members, so that they do not fully develop personalities of their own.

b) **Withdrawing families**

This is a family style in which parents are very demanding of their children, who are expected to live up to high, well-defined standards. Punishment is not a matter of a slap upside the head in full anger and in the middle of dinner; it is instead a formal affair, a full-fledged ritual. Alternatively, a culture may use guilt and withdrawal of affection as punishment. Either way, children in these cultures become rather strongly driven to succeed in whatever their culture defines as success.

2) **The Social Unconscious**

Fromm believed that our social unconscious is best understood by examining the country's economic systems. In fact, he defines, and even names, five personality types, which he calls orientations.

a) **The receptive orientation**

Such persons are highly dependent on their parents and submit themselves to their authority. In certain cases, such persons may become extremely submissive. On the other hand in certain cases of moderate dependency, they are more accepting types who will not fight for anything but accept the situation as it is. They also believe that things will turn out to be good finally.

b) **The exploitative orientation**

Such persons basically exploit others to make benefit for themselves. In extremes, they are aggressive, conceited, and seducing. Mixed with healthier qualities, they are assertive, proud, captivating.

c) The hoarding orientation

Hoarding is associated with the cold form of withdrawing family. This type of family is both tended towards destructiveness and perfectionism. In its pure form, it means the person is stubborn, stingy, and unimaginative. If the person is in the milder version of hoarding, the individual might be steadfast, economical, and practical.

d) The marketing orientation

This orientation is associated with withdrawing type of family, and tends to use automaton conformity as its escape from freedom. Automaton conformity refers to the person who takes on the colouring of his surroundings. Since he looks like a million other people, he no longer feels alone. He is not alone, perhaps, but he is not himself either. The automaton conformist experiences a split between his genuine feelings and the colours he shows the world, very much along the lines of Horney’s theory. In extreme case the marketing person is opportunistic, childish and tactless. In less extreme cases such a person will be purposeful, youthful and social.

e) The productive orientation

There is a healthy personality as well, which Fromm occasionally refers to as the person without a mask. This is the person who, without giving up his or her biological and social nature, takes up the responsibility adequately and contributes to the society.

Though Fromm had not seen a society that gives rise to the productive type, he however had some ideas about what it will be like, and called this type of productive society as humanistic communitarian socialism.

Fromm says that the first four orientations (which others might call neurotic) are living in *the having mode*. They focus on consuming, obtaining, possessing. They are defined by what they have. Fromm says that “I have it” tends to become “it has me,” and we become driven by our possessions!

Fromm’s orientations indicating the typical personality are given in the table below:

Table: The productive orientation, on the other hand, lives in *the being mode*.

Orientation	Society	Family	Escape from freedom
Receptive	Peasant society	Symbiotic (passive)	Authoritarian (mnasochistic)
Exploitative	Aristocratic society	Symbiotic (active)	Authoritarian (sadistic)
Hoarding	Bourgeois society	Withdrawing (puritanical)	Perfectionist to destructive
Marketing	Modern society	Withdrawing	Automaton conformist
Productive	Humanistic communitarian socialism	Loving and reasoning	Freedom and responsibility acknowledged and accepted

3.4.3 Human Needs

Erich Fromm, like many others, believed that humans have many needs that go far beyond the basic, physiological ones which many behaviourists, think explain all of human behaviour. He calls these as ‘human needs’, differentiating from the ‘animal

needs'. Fromm defines neurosis as an effort to satisfy the need and had listed five human needs, viz., (i) Relatedness (ii) Creativity (iii) Rootedness (iv) Sense of identity (v) Frame of orientation

1) **Relatedness**

Every individual is different from the other and every individual is aware of the fact that each individual is unique and is separate from others. This awareness of their separateness from each other causes certain anxiety which needs to be overcome. For this they seek the company of others and want to be related to others. Fromm calls this need as the 'Need for Relatedness', and views it as love in the broadest sense. Love, he says, "is union with somebody, or something, outside oneself, under the condition of retaining the separateness and integrity of one's own self." This love allows the person to transcend separateness without denying oneself one's own uniqueness.

While transcending is one way to satisfy this need, another way is to deny it, that is, instead of going towards others, the person withdraws self within oneself and thus becomes a recluse. The person becomes highly self oriented and this tendency in the person is termed by Fromm as 'Narcissism', that is the love of self, which is generally obtained infants, in that they do not perceive themselves as separate from the world or others. For infants everything around is part of them.

2) **Creativity**

Fromm believes that individuals desire to transcend one's own being. In order to be creators, they have to be creative, such as for instance planting trees, making pots, painting pictures, writing books etc. Creativity is, in fact, an expression of love in different ways. If a person does not get an opportunity for creativity, the possibility of the person turning to destruction becomes higher as lack of opportunity for creativity may lead to high level of frustration. This frustration in turn would lead to spending that energy on destructive activity.

3) **Rootedness**

A human being from birth onwards has long period of dependency on adults for its very survival. The simplest way is to maintain one's ties to one's mother. But to grow up means one has to leave the warmth of mothers' love. To stay tied to mother would be what Fromm calls a kind of psychological *incest*. In order to manage in the difficult world of adulthood, one needs to find new, broader roots, and also discover one's brotherhood with humanity so that one feels more secure with greater independence while at the same time they have the sense of belonging to someone or some place etc. This rootedness gives the feeling of security.

4) **A sense of identity**

Fromm believes that persons need to have a sense of identity. For instance, they must know who they are, to whom they belong to, etc., This identity is very important for the persons which gives them the individuality and the uniqueness with which they are spoken about. This sense of identity gives them the needed security and keeps them in a balanced state of mind.

This need is so powerful that people are sometimes driven to find it, for example by doing anything for signs of status, or by trying desperately to conform, or attaching oneself to someone for identity and so on. .

5) A frame of orientation

Human beings need a support which could be concrete or abstract on which they can rely on to help overcome difficulties. They need an anchor to hold on and this anchor provides them the needed security. Individuals need an understanding of the world in which they live, and must also know what place they have in that world. The society and especially the religious aspects of culture provide the individual this kind of understanding. For instance, things like myths, philosophies, and sciences provide the humans with a structure and an anchor to hold on which gives security and comfort.

Fromm was of the view that individuals need a frame of reference which gives them the needed security and provide comfort whenever they are in distress. This frame of orientation can be anything, even if necessary a bad one, rather than having none at all. People want to believe in something even desperately and if they do not have an explanation handy, they will make one up, via *rationalisation*.

Self Assessment Questions

1) Discuss the various ways to escape freedom.

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2) What are the differences between symbiotic and withdrawing families?

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3) "Fromm believed that our social unconscious is best understood by examining the country's economic system". Discuss.

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4) Discuss critically the human needs.

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3.5 THEORY OF KAREN HORNEY

German born American psychoanalyst who, departing from some of the basic principles of Sigmund Freud, suggested an environmental and social basis for personality and its disorders. Horney argued that the source of much female psychiatric disturbance is located in the very male dominated culture that had produced Freudian theory. She introduced the concept of womb envy, suggesting that male envy of pregnancy, nursing, and motherhood of women's primary role in creating and sustaining life, led men to claim their superiority in other fields.

Horney was bewildered by psychiatrists' tendency to place so much emphasis on the male sexual organ. Horney also reworked the Freudian Oedipal complex of the sexual elements, claiming that the clinging to one parent and jealousy of the other was simply the result of anxiety, caused by a disturbance in the parent-child relationship.

Horney objected to Freud's concepts of the libido, the death instinct, and the Oedipus complex, which she thought could be more adequately explained by cultural and social conditions. She believed that a primary condition responsible for the later development of neurosis was the infant's experience of basic anxiety, in which the child felt "isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world." The various strategies the child adopts to cope with this anxiety can eventually become persistent and in the process many of the irrational needs within the person may lead to both neurosis and personality disorder.

Horney looked at neurosis in a different light from other psychoanalysts of the time. She believed neurosis to be a continuous process, with neuroses commonly occurring sporadically in one's lifetime. This was in contrast to the opinions of her contemporaries who believed neurosis was, like more severe mental condition, a negative malfunction of the mind in response to external stimuli, such as bereavement, divorce or negative experiences during childhood and adolescence.

Horney believed these assumptions to be less important, except for influences during childhood. Rather, she placed significant emphasis on parental indifference towards the child, believing that a child's perception of events, as opposed to the parent's intentions, is the key to understanding a person's neurosis.

For instance, a child might feel a lack of warmth and affection should a parent make fun of the child's feelings – thereby underestimating the significance of the child's state. The parent may also casually neglect to fulfill promises, which in turn could have a detrimental effect on the child's mental state.

3.5.1 Patterns of Neurotic Needs

Horney named ten patterns of neurotic needs, which were based upon things which she thought all humans require to succeed in life. Horney distorted these needs somewhat to correspond with what she believed were individuals' neuroses. A neurotic person could theoretically exhibit all of these needs, though in practice much fewer than the ten may be present to constitute a person having a neurosis. The ten needs, as set out by Horney, (classified according to her so-called coping strategies) are as follows:

Moving Toward People

- 1) The need for affection and approval; pleasing others and being liked by them.
- 2) The need for a partner; one whom they can love and who will solve all problems.

Moving Against People

- 1) The need for *power*; the ability to bend wills and achieve control over others — while most persons seek strength, the neurotic may be desperate for it.
- 2) The need to *exploit others*; to get the better of them. To become manipulative, fostering the belief that people are there simply to be used.
- 3) The need for *social recognition*; prestige and limelight.

- 4) The need for *personal admiration*; for both inner and outer qualities — to be valued.
- 5) The need for *personal achievement*; though virtually all persons wish to make achievements, as with No. 3, the neurotic may be desperate for achievement.

Moving Away from People

- 1) The need for *self sufficiency* and independence; while most desire some autonomy, the neurotic may simply wish to discard other individuals entirely.
- 2) The need for *perfection*; while many are driven to perfect their lives in the form of well being, the neurotic may display a fear of being slightly flawed.
- 3) Lastly, the need to *restrict life practices* to within narrow borders; to live as inconspicuous a life as possible.

Upon investigating the ten needs further, Horney also was able to condense them into three broad categories, viz., compliance, aggression, and detachment, which are explained below.

3.5.2 Categories of the Needs

Compliance

In the category “Moving towards people”, the needs one and two were assimilated and classified as the “*compliance*” category. According to Horney children facing difficulties and who develop fear and helplessness in their relationship with their parents use this strategy. Such fears and helplessness end up in what she termed as the “Basic Anxiety”. This basic anxiety makes persons within the compliance category to exhibit a need for affection and approval from adults as well as peers. They may also seek out a partner in whom they can confide in. They believe that their problems would be solved by the new partner in whom they can confide. They are unable to demand from others and also they feel like being inconspicuous rather than being apparent.

Aggression

Aggression may be used by neurotic persons, which falls in the category of “moving against people”, Within this category fall the following needs, that is three, four, five, six, and seven. Neurotic children or adults within this category often exhibit anger or basic hostility to those around them. That is, there is a need for power, a need for control and exploitation, and maintenance of a facade of omnipotence.

According to Horney, the aggressive individual may also wish for social recognition, not necessarily in terms of limelight, but in terms of simply being known (perhaps feared) by subordinates and peers alike. Aggressive types also tend to keep people away from them. On the other hand, they only care about their own wants and needs.

Detachment

This category encompasses the final three needs, and overlaps with the “compliance” trait. This neurotic trend is often labeled as the “moving away from” or “resigning”. They leave the situation and prefer to be detached from it. As neither aggression nor compliance solve parental indifference, Horney recognised that children might simply try to become self sufficient. The withdrawing neurotic may disregard others in a non-aggressive manner, and become aloof and stay in solitude and be independent of others.

3.5.3 Neurotic Needs

Horney identified ten *neurotic needs* that characterise neurotics in their attempts to combat anxiety.

- 1 neurotic need for affection and approval
- 1 neurotic need for a powerful partner
- 1 neurotic need to restrict one's life within narrow boundaries
- 1 neurotic need for power
- 1 neurotic need to exploit others
- 1 neurotic need for social recognition or prestige
- 1 neurotic need for personal admiration
- 1 neurotic need for ambition and personal achievement
- 1 neurotic need for self-sufficiency
- 1 neurotic need for perfection and unassailability.

These needs are embedded in three neurotic trends, namely (i) moving toward people (needs 1 and 2) (ii) moving against people (needs 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7) and (iii) moving away from people (needs 8, 9, and 10). Horney believed that both men and women have a motive to be ingenious and productive. Women are able to satisfy this need normally and interiorly. To do this, according to Horney they become pregnant and give birth. Men cannot satisfy this need in this way and so they do it through external ways, such as excelling in work or in some other field etc., and thus compensate for their inability to give birth to children.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What is the major concept and contribution by Horney?
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- 2) Discuss moving towards, moving against and moving away from people. How are these personalities developed?
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- 3) Discuss the neurotic needs as put forward by Karen Horney.
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3.6 THEORY OF HARRY STACK SULLIVAN

Harry Stack-Sullivan focused both on social aspects of personality and cognitive representations. This moved him away from Freud's psychosexual development and toward a more eclectic approach.

Sullivan, saw anxiety as existing only as a result of social interactions. He described techniques, much like defense mechanisms, that provide tools for people to use in order to reduce social anxiety.

He developed a model regarding failures in interpersonal relationships as being largely responsible for mental illnesses. In his words, it is the "interactional," not the "intrapsychic," forces that must be studied in order to find the causes, and develop treatments for, even the most severe psychoses. This search for satisfaction via personal involvement with others led Sullivan to characterise loneliness as the most painful of human experiences.

Selective Inattention is one such mechanism. According to Sullivan, mothers show their anxiety about child rearing to their children through various means. Selective inattention is soon learned, and the child begins to ignore or reject the anxiety or any interaction that could produce these uncomfortable feelings.

3.6.1 Personifications

Through social interactions and our selective attention or inattention, we develop what Sullivan called *Personifications* of ourselves and others. While defenses can often help reduce anxiety, they can also lead to a misperception of reality. Again, he shifts his focus away from Freud and more toward a cognitive approach to understanding personality. These personifications are mental images that allow us to better understand ourselves and the world.

There are three basic ways we see ourselves that Sullivan called the *bad-me*, the *good-me* and the *not-me*.

The *bad me* represents those aspects of the self that are considered negative and are therefore hidden from others and possibly even the self. The anxiety that we feel is often a result of recognition of the bad part of ourselves, such as when we recall an embarrassing moment or experience guilt from a past action.

The *good me* is everything we like about ourselves. It represents the part of us we share with others and that we often choose to focus on because it produces no anxiety. The final part of us, called the *not-me*, represents all those things that are so anxiety provoking that we can not even consider them a part of us. Doing so would definitely create anxiety which we spend our lives trying to avoid. The *not-me* is kept out of awareness by pushing it deep into the unconscious.

3.6.2 Modes of Experiencing

All experiences occur in one or more of the three 'modes' presented by Sullivan. These threemodes were: the prototaxic, parataxic, and syntaxic modes.

Prototaxic mode

As the Greek roots of this term indicate, the *prototaxic mode* refers to the first kind of experience the infant has and the order or arrangement in which it occurs. According to Sullivan's hypothesis all that the infant "knows" are momentary states,

the distinction of before and after being a later acquirement. The infant vaguely feels or ‘prehends’ earlier and later states without realising any real connection between them. The infant has no awareness of itself as an entity separate from the rest of the world. In other words, its felt experience is all of a piece, undifferentiated, without definite limits. It is as if his experiences were ‘cosmic’.

Parataxic

As the infant develops and maturation proceeds, the original undifferentiated wholeness of experience is broken. The child experiences many things in terms of the ‘parts and diverse aspects. The various kinds of experiences are not related or connected in a logical fashion. They ‘just happen’ together, or they do not, depending on circumstances.

In other words, various experiences are felt as concomitant, not recognised as connected in an orderly way. The child cannot yet relate them to one another or make logical distinctions among them. What is experienced is assumed to be the ‘natural’ way of such occurrences. There is no reflection and comparison by the child about the occurrences. . Since no connections or relations are established, there is no logical movement of ‘thought’ from one idea to the next.

Thus the *parataxic mode* is not a step by step process, but the child experiences everything as momentary, unconnected states of being.

Syntactic

As the child grows, it is able to understand the language and gradually learns the ‘consensually validated’ meaning of language. That is a particular term means a certain thing whether it is spoken by parents or siblings etc. These meanings have been acquired from group activities, interpersonal activities and social experience. Consensually validated symbol activity involves an appeal to principles which are accepted as true by the hearer. And when this happens, the youngster has acquired or learned the *syntactic mode* of experience.”

3.6.3 Developmental Epochs

Another similarity between Sullivan’s theory and that of Freud’s is the belief that childhood experiences determine, to a large degree, the adult personality. And, throughout our childhood, the mother plays the most significant role. He called the stages in his developmental theory Epochs. He believed that we pass through these stages in a particular order but the timing of such is dictated by our social environment. Much of the focus in Sullivan’s theory revolved around the conflicts of adolescence. His developmental stages are given below in the table.

Table: Sullivan’s developmental epochs

Infancy: Birth – 1 year	The child begins the process of developing but Sullivan did not emphasise the younger years to near the importance as Freud.
Childhood 1 – 5 years	The development of speech and improved communication is the key in this stage of development
Juvenile 6 – 8 years	The main focus is the need for playmates and the beginning of healthy socialisation
Pre adolescence 9-12 years	The child is able to form close relationship with a peer is the major focus. This relationship will later

	assist the child in feeling worthy and likable. Without this ability forming intimate relationships in late adolescence and adulthood will be difficult.
Early adolescence 13-17 years	The onset of puberty changes this need for friendship to a need for sexual expression. Self worth will often become synonymous with sexual attractiveness and acceptance by opposite sex peers.
Late adolescence 18-22/23 years	The need for friendship and need for sexual expression get combined during late adolescence. In this stage a long term relationship becomes the primary focus. Conflicts between parental control and self-expression are commonplace and the overuse of selective inattention in previous stages can result in a skewed perception of the self and the world.
Adulthood 23 years and above	The struggles of adulthood include financial security, career, and family. With success during previous stages, especially those in the adolescent years, adult relationships and much needed socialisation become more easy to attain. Without a solid background, interpersonal conflicts that result in anxiety become more commonplace.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the important features of Sullivan’s theory of personality development?
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- 2) Discuss different stages of development as per Sullivan’s theory.
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- 3) Elucidate the different modes of functioning in Sullivan’s theory.
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- 4) What are the developmental epochs? Discuss.
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3.7 LET US SUM UP

Social psychology is a discipline that uses scientific methods “to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of other human beings”.

Adler developed the school of individual psychology — the humanistic study of drives, feelings, emotions, and memory in the context of the individual’s overall life plan. Individual psychology, deals with as much as possible with what can be observed and as little as possible with what must be taken on faith. He discussed the various level of energy.

Eric Fromm added another dimension to this namely the idea of freedom. He allowed people to transcend the determinisms that Freud and Marx attribute to them. In fact, Fromm makes freedom the central characteristic of human nature. Fromm describes three ways in which we escape from freedom: authoritarian, destructiveness and automaton conformity. Fromm outlined two kinds of unproductive families: symbiotic and withdrawal families. Fromm believed that our social unconscious is best understood by examining the country’s economic systems.

Horney argued instead that the source of much female psychiatric disturbance is located in the very male-dominated culture that had produced Freudian theory. She introduced the concept of womb envy, suggesting that male envy of pregnancy, nursing, and motherhood—of women’s primary role in creating and sustaining life—led men to claim their superiority in other fields. Horney named ten patterns of neurotic needs, which were based upon things which she thought all humans require to succeed in life. Horney distorted these needs somewhat to correspond with what she believed were individuals’ neuroses. Horney identified ten *neurotic needs* that characterise neurotics in their attempts to combat anxiety.

Harry Stack-Sullivan focused on both the social aspects of personality and cognitive representations. This moved him away from Freud’s psychosexual development and toward a more eclectic approach. Sullivan, saw anxiety as existing only as a result of social interactions. He described techniques, much like defense mechanisms, that provide tools for people to use in order to reduce social anxiety. *Selective Inattention* is one such mechanism. According to Sullivan, mothers show their anxiety about child rearing to their children through various means. Selective inattention is soon learned, and the child begins to ignore or reject the anxiety or any interaction that could produce these uncomfortable feelings.

3.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Describe Adler’s theory. What are the dynamic features of Adler’s theory of personality.
- 2) Put forward the theory of Fromm’s personality theory and highlight the major features in that theory.
- 3) What are the typical personalities that will develop according to Eric Fromm?
- 4) Elucidate the ten neurotic needs of the individual according to Karen Horney’s theory of personality.
- 5) Put forward Harry Stack Sullivan’s theory of personality highlighting some of the important main features.

3.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, Calvin, S., Lindzey, Gardner, and Campbell, John B. (2007). *Theories of Personality*, 4th edition) Wiley India Pvt Ltd , New Delhi.

Ewen, Robert, B (1998). *An Introduction to Theories of Personality* (fifth edition). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers Mahwah, New Jersey, London.



UNIT 4 HUMANISTIC THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Introduction to Humanistic Theories
- 4.3 Theory of Abraham Maslow
 - 4.3.1 Hierarchy of Needs
 - 4.3.2 Homeostasis
 - 4.3.3 The Concept of Neurosis
 - 4.3.4 Metaneeds and Metapathologies
- 4.4 Theory of Carl Rogers
 - 4.4.1 Incongruity
 - 4.4.2 Defenses
 - 4.4.3 The Fully Functioning Person
 - 4.4.4 Therapy
- 4.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.6 Unit End Questions
- 4.7 Suggested Readings

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The Humanistic Approach began in response to concerns by therapists against perceived limitations of Psychodynamic theories, especially psychoanalysis. Individuals like Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow felt existing (psychodynamic) theories failed to adequately address issues like the meaning of behaviour, and the nature of healthy growth.

Maslow's ideas surrounding the Hierarchy of Needs concerning the responsibility of employers to provide a workplace environment that encourages and enables employees to fulfill their own unique potential (self-actualisation) are today more relevant than ever.

Humanist psychologist Carl Rogers opposed psychoanalytic personality theory as he was dissatisfied with the 'dehumanising nature' of this school of thought. The central tenet of humanistic psychology is that people have drives that lead them to engage in activities resulting in personal satisfaction and a contribution to society: the *actualising tendency*.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Define the humanistic approach to personality;
- 1 Describe the theory of Abraham Maslow;

- 1 Discuss the theory of Carl Rogers; and
- 1 Analyse the humanistic theories.

4.2 INTRODUCTION TO HUMANISTIC THEORIES

The Humanistic Approach began in response to concerns by therapists against perceived limitations of Psychodynamic theories, especially psychoanalysis. Individuals like Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow felt existing (psychodynamic) theories failed to adequately address issues like the meaning of behaviour, and the nature of healthy growth. However, the result was not simply new variations on psychodynamic theory, but rather a fundamentally new approach.

In humanistic psychology it is emphasised people have free will and they play an active role in determining how they behave. Accordingly, humanistic psychology focuses on subjective experiences of persons as opposed to forced, definitive factors that determine behaviour. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers were proponents of this view, which is based on the “phenomenal field” theory of Combs and Snygg.

Maslow and Rogers emphasised a view of the person as an active, creative, experiencing human being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships, and encounters. They disagree with the dark, pessimistic outlook of those in the Freudian psychoanalysis ranks, but rather view humanistic theories as positive and optimistic proposals which stress the tendency of the human personality toward growth and self-actualisation. This progressing self will remain the center of its constantly changing world, a world that will help mould the self but not necessarily confine it.

Rather, the self has opportunity for maturation based on its encounters with this world. This understanding attempts to reduce the acceptance of hopeless redundancy.

Humanistic therapy typically relies on the client for information of the past and its effect on the present, therefore the client dictates the type of guidance the therapist may initiate. This allows for an individualised approach to therapy. Carl Rogers found patients differ in how they respond to other people. Rogers tried to model a particular approach to therapy, that is he stressed the reflective or empathetic response. This response type takes the client’s viewpoint and reflects back his or her feeling and the context for it. An example of a reflective response would be, “It seems you are feeling anxious about your upcoming marriage”. This response type seeks to clarify the therapist’s understanding while also encouraging the client to think more deeply and seek to fully understand the feelings they have expressed.

4.3 THEORY OF ABRAHAM MASLOW

Abraham Maslow developed the Hierarchy of Needs model in the 1940-50’s in the USA, and the Hierarchy of Needs theory remains valid even today for understanding human motivation, management training, and personal development. Indeed, Maslow’s ideas surrounding the Hierarchy of Needs concerning the responsibility of employers to provide a workplace environment that encourages and enables employees to fulfill their own unique potential (self-actualisation) are today more relevant than ever.

Maslow took this idea and created his now famous hierarchy of needs. Beyond the details of air, water, food, and sex, he laid out five broader layers: the physiological

needs, the needs for safety and security, the needs for love and belonging, the needs for esteem, and the need to actualise the self, in that order.

4.3.1 Hierarchy of Needs

- 1) *The physiological needs:* These include the needs we have for oxygen, water, protein, salt, sugar, calcium, and other minerals and vitamins. They also include the need to maintain a pH balance and temperature. Also, there's the need to be active, to rest, to sleep, to get rid of wastes, to avoid pain, and to have sex.

Maslow believed, and research supports him, that these are in fact individual needs, and that a lack of, say, vitamin C, will lead to a very specific hunger for things which have in the past provided that vitamin C — e.g. orange juice. I guess the cravings that some pregnant women have, and the way in which babies eat the most foul tasting baby food, support the idea anecdotally.

- 2) *The safety and security needs:* When the physiological needs are largely taken care of, this second layer of needs comes into play. You will become increasingly interested in finding safe circumstances, stability, protection. You might develop a need for structure, for order, some limits.

Looking at it negatively, you become concerned, not with needs like hunger and thirst, but with your fears and anxieties. In the ordinary American adult, this set of needs manifest themselves in the form of our urges to have a home in a safe neighborhood, a little job security and a nest egg, a good retirement plan and a bit of insurance, and so on.

- 3) *The love and belonging needs:* When physiological needs and safety needs are, by and large, taken care of, a third layer starts to show up. You begin to feel the need for friends, a sweetheart, children, affectionate relationships in general, even a sense of community. Looked at negatively, you become increasingly susceptible to loneliness and social anxieties.

In our day-to-day life, we exhibit these needs in our desires to marry, have a family, be a part of a community, a member of a church, a brother in the fraternity, a part of a gang or a bowling club. It is also a part of what we look for in a career.

- 4) *The esteem needs:* Next, we begin to look for a little self-esteem. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs, a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, fame, glory, recognition, attention, reputation, appreciation, dignity, even dominance. The higher form involves the need for self-respect, including such feelings as confidence, competence, achievement, mastery, independence, and freedom. Note that this is the “higher” form because, unlike the respect of others, once you have self-respect, it's a lot harder to lose!

The negative version of these needs is low self-esteem and inferiority complexes. Maslow felt that Adler was really onto something when he proposed that these were at the roots of many, if not most, of our psychological problems. In modern countries, most of us have what we need in regard to our physiological and safety needs. We, more often than not, have quite a bit of love and belonging, too. It's a little respect that often seems so very hard to get!

All of the preceding four levels he calls deficit needs, or D-needs. If you do not have enough of something, that is, if you have a deficit, you feel the need. But if you get all you need, you feel nothing at all! In other words, they cease to be motivating.

4.3.2 Homeostasis

Maslow also talks about these levels in terms of homeostasis. Homeostasis is the principle by which your furnace thermostat operates: When it gets too cold, it switches the heat on, and when it gets too hot, it switches the heat off.

Maslow sees all these needs as essentially survival needs. Even love and esteem are needed for the maintenance of health. He says we all have these needs built in to us genetically, like instincts. In fact, he calls them instinctoid, that is, instinct like needs.

Under stressful conditions, or when survival is threatened, we can “regress” to a lower need level. When a person’s good career is in jeopardy, the person might seek out a little attention. Similarly when the family leaves the person for certain reasons, it seems that love is what the individual wanted. When the person faces sudden reduction in income, especially after a long and happy life, the person may not be able to think of anything except money.

Maslow suggested that we can ask people for their “philosophy of the future”, that is what would their ideal life or world be like and get significant information as to what needs they have or have not covered.

If the person had faced significant problems along the many stages of development, that is if the person had faced a period of extreme insecurity, or suffered from hunger pangs for long hours as a child, or had sustained the loss of a family member through death or divorce, or had faced the possibility of the person getting fixated at that stage of development where such problems occurred to the individual. Fixated means that the person continues to look for satiating those needs for the rest of life.

4.3.3 The Concept of Neurosis

As for neurosis, Maslow was of a totally different view point. He stated that every individual would like to reach the stage of self actualisation, which is the last stage in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Maslow has used a variety of terms to refer to this level and he has called this as growth motivation in contrast to deficit motivation. That is, there are certain needs which contribute to the growth and development of the person, and these are called as ‘being’ needs (or B-needs), which is in contrast to Deficit or the D-needs), and self-actualisation.

These are needs that do not involve balance or homeostasis. Once engaged, they continue to be felt. In fact, they are likely to become stronger as we “feed” them! They involve the continuous desire to fulfill potentials, to “be all that you can be.” They are a matter of becoming the most complete, the fullest, “you” — hence the term, self-actualisation.

Fortunately, he did this for us, using a qualitative method called biographical analysis.

He began by picking out a group of people, some historical figures, some people he knew, whom he felt clearly met the standard of self-actualisation.

The self-actualisers also had a different way of relating to others. First, they enjoyed solitude, and were comfortable being alone. And they enjoyed deeper personal relations with a few close friends and family members, rather than more shallow relationships with many people.

They enjoyed autonomy, a relative independence from physical and social needs. And they resisted enculturation, that is, they were not susceptible to social pressure to be “well adjusted” or to “fit in” they were, in fact, nonconformists in the best sense.

They had an unhostile sense of humor — preferring to joke at their own expense, or at the human condition, and never directing their humor at others. They had a quality he called acceptance of self and others, by which he meant that these people would be more likely to take you as you are than try to change you into what they thought you should be.

Further, they had a sense of humility and respect towards others — something Maslow also called democratic values — meaning that they were open to ethnic and individual variety, even treasuring it. They had a quality Maslow called human kinship or *Gemeinschaftsgefühl* — social interest, compassion, humanity. And this was accompanied by a strong ethics, which was spiritual but seldom conventionally religious in nature.

And these people had a certain freshness of appreciation, an ability to see things, even ordinary things, with wonder. Along with this comes their ability to be creative, inventive, and original.

And, finally, these people tended to have more peak experiences than the average person. A peak experience is one that takes you out of yourself, that makes you feel very tiny, or very large, to some extent one with life or nature or God.

Maslow doesn't think that self-actualisers are perfect, of course. There were several flaws or imperfections he discovered along the way as well: First, they often suffered considerable anxiety and guilt — but realistic anxiety and guilt, rather than misplaced or neurotic versions. Some of them were absentminded and overly kind. And finally, some of them had unexpected moments of ruthlessness, surgical coldness, and loss of humor.

Two other points he makes about these self-actualisers: Their values were “natural” and seemed to flow effortlessly from their personalities. And they appeared to transcend many of the dichotomies others accept as being undeniable, such as the differences between the spiritual and the physical, the selfish and the unselfish, and the masculine and the feminine.

4.3.4 Metaneeds and Metapathologies

Another way in which Maslow approaches the problem of what is self-actualisation is to talk about the special, driving needs (B-needs, of course) of the self-actualisers. They need the following in their lives in order to be happy:

Truth, rather than dishonesty.

Goodness, rather than evil.

Beauty, not ugliness or vulgarity.

Unity, wholeness, and transcendence of opposites, not arbitrariness or forced choices.

Aliveness, not deadness or the mechanisation of life.

Uniqueness, not bland uniformity.

Perfection and necessity, not sloppiness, inconsistency, or accident.

Completion, rather than incompleteness.

Justice and order, not injustice and lawlessness.

Simplicity, not unnecessary complexity.

Richness, not environmental impoverishment.

Effortlessness, not strain.

Playfulness, not grim, humorless, drudgery.

Self-sufficiency, not dependency.

Meaningfulness, rather than senselessness.

In fact, Maslow believes that much of the what is wrong with the world comes down to the fact that very few people really are interested in these values — not because they are bad people, but because they haven't even had their basic needs taken care of.

When a self-actualiser doesn't get these needs fulfilled, they respond with metapathologies — a list of problems as long as the list of metaneeds! Let me summarize it by saying that, when forced to live without these values, the self-actualiser develops depression, despair, disgust, alienation, and a degree of cynicism.

Maslow hoped that his efforts at describing the self-actualising person would eventually lead to a “periodic table” of the kinds of qualities, problems, pathologies, and even solutions characteristic of higher levels of human potential. Over time, he devoted increasing attention, not to his own theory, but to humanistic psychology and the human potentials movement.

Toward the end of his life, he inaugurated what he called the fourth force in psychology:

- 1 Freudian and other “depth” psychologies constituted the first force;
- 1 Behaviorism was the second force;
- 1 His own humanism, including the European existentialists, was the third force.
- 1 The fourth force was the transpersonal psychologies which, taking their cue from Eastern philosophies, investigated such things as meditation, higher levels of consciousness, and even Para psychological phenomena.

Perhaps the best known transpersonalist today is Ken Wilber, author of such books as *The Atman Project* and *The History of Everything*.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you understand by Humanistic approach in theories of personality?

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2) Discuss Maslow's hierarchy of needs with the help of diagrams.

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3) What are metaneeds and metapathologies?

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4.4 THEORY OF CARL ROGERS

Humanist psychologist Carl Rogers opposed psychoanalytic personality theory as he was dissatisfied with the ‘dehumanising nature’ of this school of thought. The central tenet of humanistic psychology is that people have drives that lead them to engage in activities resulting in personal satisfaction and a contribution to society: the *actualising tendency*. This tendency is present in all organisms and can be defined as the motivation present in every life form to develop its potentials to the fullest extent. Humanistic psychology is based on an optimistic view of human nature and the direction of people’s movement is basically towards self-actualisation.

The entire theory is built on a single “force of life” he calls the actualising tendency. It can be defined as the built-in motivation present in every life-form to develop its potentials to the fullest extent possible. Rogers believes that all creatures strive to make the very best of their existence. If they fail to do so, it is not for a lack of desire.

A person’s identity is formed through a series of personal experiences, which reflect how the individual is perceived by both him or herself and the outside world – the *phenomenological field*.

The concept of the self is, according to Rogers, primarily conscious. The most important determinants of behaviour are those that are conscious or are capable of becoming conscious. Rogers argues that a notion of the self that includes a reference to the unconscious (as with Freud) cannot be studied objectively as it can not be directly known.

Rogerian personality theory distinguishes between two personalities. The real self is created through the actualising tendency, it is the self that one can become. The demands of society, however, do not always support the actualising tendency and we are forced to live under conditions that are out of step with our tendencies. The ideal self is the ideal created through the demands of society.

Rogers does not see it as something to strive for (that is the real self) but an ideal imposed on us we can never fully reach. Rogers’ view of ‘hidden’ personality relates to the person one could be given the right circumstances within society and for an individual to be truly happy (and for self-actualisation to be realised) their public and private selves must be as similar as possible.

He said that an ecosystem such as a forest, with all its complexity, has a much greater actualisation potential than a simple ecosystem such as a corn field. If one bug were to become extinct in a forest, there are likely to be other creatures that will adapt to fill the gap;

On the other hand, one bout of “corn blight” or some such disaster, everything is destroyed. The same for us as individuals: If we live as we should, we will become increasingly complex, like the forest, and thereby remain flexible in the face of life’s little and big disasters.

Rogers tells us that organisms know what is good for them. Evolution has provided us with the senses, the tastes, the discriminations we need: When we are hungry, we find food not just any food, but food that tastes good. Food that tastes bad is likely to be spoiled, rotten and unhealthy. This is called *organismic valuing*.

Among the many things that we instinctively value is *positive regard*, Rogers umbrella term for things like love, affection, attention, nurturance, and so on. It is clear that babies need love and attention.

Another thing that we value is *positive self regard*, that is, self esteem, self worth, and a positive selfimage. We achieve this positive self regard by experiencing the positive regard others show us over our years of growing up. Without this self regard, we feel small and helpless, and again we fail to become all that we can be.

Rogers believes that, if left to their own devices, animals will tend to eat and drink things that are good for them, and consume them in balanced proportions. Babies, too, seem to want and like what they need. Somewhere along the line, however, we have created an environment for ourselves that is significantly different from the one in which we evolved.

Our society also leads us astray with *conditions of worth*. As we grow up, our parents, teachers, peers, the media, and others, only give us what we need when we show we are “worthy,” rather than just because we need it. We get a drink when we finish our class, we get something sweet when we finish our vegetables, and most importantly, we get love and affection if and only if we “behave!”

Getting positive regard on “on condition” Rogers calls *conditional positive regard*. Because we do indeed need positive regard, these conditions are very powerful, and we bend ourselves into a shape determined, not by our organismic valuing or our actualising tendency, but by a society that may or may not truly have our best interests at heart. A “good little boy or girl” may not be a healthy or happy boy or girl!

Over time, this “conditioning” leads us to have *conditional positive self-regard* as well. We begin to like ourselves only if we meet up with the standards others have applied to us, rather than if we are truly actualising our potentials. And since these standards were created without keeping each individual in mind, more often than not we find ourselves unable to meet them, and therefore unable to maintain any sense of self-esteem.

4.4.1 Incongruity

The aspect of your being that is founded in the actualising tendency, follows organismic valuing, needs and receives positive regard and self-regard, Rogers calls the real self. It is the “you” that, if all goes well, you will become.

On the other hand, to the extent that our society is out of synch with the actualising tendency, and we are forced to live with conditions of worth that are out of step with organismic valuing, and receive only conditional positive regard and self-regard, we develop instead an *ideal self*. By ideal, Rogers is suggesting something not real, something that is always out of our reach, the standard we can’t meet.

This gap between the real self and the ideal self, the “I am” and the “I should be” is called *incongruity*. The greater the gap, the more is the incongruity. The more the incongruity, the more the individual suffers. In fact, incongruity is essentially what Rogers means by *neurosis*: being out of synchrony with your own self.

4.4.2 Defenses

When you are in a situation where there is an incongruity between your image of yourself and your immediate experience of yourself (i.e. between the ideal and the real self), you are in a *threatening situation*. For example, if you have been taught to feel unworthy if you do not get A’s on all your tests, and yet you are not really all that great a student, then situations such as tests are going to bring that incongruity to light, that is tests will be very threatening.

When you are expecting a threatening situation, you will feel anxious. Anxiety is a signal indicating that there is trouble ahead, that you should avoid the situation. One way to avoid the situation, of course, is to pick yourself up and run for the hills. Since that is not usually an option in life, instead of running physically, we run psychologically, by using *defenses*.

Denial means very much what it does in Freud's system: You block out the threatening situation altogether. An example might be the person who never picks up his test or asks about test results, so he doesn't have to face poor grades (at least for now!). Denial for Rogers does also include what Freud called repression: If keeping a memory or an impulse out of your awareness — refuse to perceive it — you may be able to avoid (again, for now!) a threatening situation.

Perceptual distortion is a matter of reinterpreting the situation so that it appears less threatening. It is very similar to Freud's rationalisation. A student that is threatened by tests and grades may, for example, blame the professor for poor teaching, trick questions, bad attitude, or whatever. The fact that sometimes professors are poor teachers, write trick questions, and have bad attitudes only makes the distortion work better: If it could be true, then maybe it really was true! It can also be much more obviously perceptual, such as when the person misreads his grade as better than it is.

Rogers also has a partial explanation for *psychosis*: Psychosis occurs when a person's defense are overwhelmed, and their sense of self becomes "shattered" into little disconnected pieces

4.4.3 The Fully Functioning Person

Rogers, like Maslow, is just as interested in describing the healthy person. His term is "*fully-functioning*," and involves the following qualities:

- 1) *Openness to experience*. This is the opposite of defensiveness. It is the accurate perception of one's experiences in the world, including one's feelings. It also means being able to accept reality, again including one's feelings. Feelings are such an important part of openness because they convey organismic valuing. If you cannot be open to your feelings, you cannot be open to actualisation. The hard part, of course, is distinguishing real feelings from the anxieties brought on by conditions of worth.
- 2) *Existential living*. This is living in the here-and-now. Rogers, as a part of getting in touch with reality, insists that we not live in the past or the future — the one is gone, and the other isn't anything at all, yet! The present is the only reality we have.
- 3) *Organismic trusting*. We should allow ourselves to be guided by the organismic valuing process. We should trust ourselves, do what feels right, what comes natural. Rogers meant trust your real self, and you can only know what your real self has to say if you are open to experience and living existentially. In other words, organismic trusting assumes you are in contact with the actualising tendency.
- 4) *Experiential freedom*. Rogers felt that it was irrelevant whether or not people really had free will. We feel very much as if we do. This is not to say, of course, that we are free to do anything at all: We are surrounded by a deterministic universe, so that, flap my arms as much as I like, I will not fly like Superman. It means that we feel free when choices are available to us. Rogers

says that the fully-functioning person acknowledges that feeling of freedom, and takes responsibility for his choices.

- 5) *Creativity*. If you feel free and responsible, you will act accordingly, and participate in the world. A fully-functioning person, in touch with actualisation, will feel obliged by their nature to contribute to the actualisation of others, even life itself. This can be through creativity in the arts or sciences, through social concern and parental love, or simply by doing one's best at one's job. Creativity as Rogers uses it is very close to Erikson's generativity.

4.4.4 Therapy

Carl Rogers is best known for his contributions to therapy. He originally called his therapy to be *non-directive*, because he felt that the therapist should not lead the client, but rather be there for the client while the client directs the progress of the therapy. As he became more experienced, he realised that, as "non-directive" as he was, he still influenced his client by his very "non-directiveness". In other words, clients looked to therapists for guidance, and they did find it even when the therapist was trying not to guide.

So he changed the name to *client-centered*. He still felt that the client was the one who should say what is wrong, find ways of improving, and determine the conclusion of therapy. His therapy was still very "client-centered" even while he acknowledged the impact of the therapist. Unfortunately, other therapists felt that this name for his therapy was not correct as many other therapies are also client centered taking care of the client and oriented towards clients.

Rogers used to describe his therapy as "supportive, not reconstructive," for example: When you help a child to learn to ride a bike, you can not just tell them how. They have to try it for themselves. And you can not hold them up the whole time either. There comes a point when you have to let them go. If they fall, they fall, but if you hang on, they never learn.

It is the same in therapy. If independence (autonomy, freedom with responsibility) is what you are helping a client to achieve, then they will not achieve it if they remain dependent on the therapist. They need to try their insights on their own, in real life beyond the therapist's office.

Reflection is the mirroring of emotional communication: If the client says "I feel like shit!" the therapist may reflect this back to the client by saying something like "So, life's getting you down, hey?" By doing this, the therapist is communicating to the client that he is indeed listening and cares enough to understand. Reflection must come from the heart — it must be genuine, congruent.

Rogers felt that a therapist, in order to be effective, must have three very special qualities:

- 1) Congruence — genuineness, honesty with the client.
- 2) Empathy — the ability to feel what the client feels.
- 3) Respect — acceptance, unconditional positive regard towards the client.

He says these qualities are "*necessary and sufficient*:" If the therapist shows these three qualities, the client will improve, even if no other special "techniques" are used. If the therapist does not show these three qualities, the client's improvement will be minimal, no matter how many "techniques" are used.

Self Assessment Questions

1) Discuss the theoretical concept of Rogers.

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2) Define the following:

i) Condition of worth

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ii) Ideal self

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iii) Perceptual distortion

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iv) Organismic Value

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v) Conditional positive self regard.

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4.5 LET US SUM UP

The Humanistic Approach began in response to concerns by therapists against perceived limitations of Psychodynamic theories, especially psychoanalysis. Individuals like Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow felt existing (psychodynamic) theories failed to adequately address issues like the meaning of behaviour, and the nature of healthy growth.

Maslow's ideas surrounding the Hierarchy of Needs concerning the responsibility of employers to provide a workplace environment that encourages and enables employees to fulfill their own unique potential (self-actualisation) are today more relevant than ever. Maslow took this idea and created his now famous hierarchy of

needs. Beyond the details of air, water, food, and sex, he laid out five broader layers: the physiological needs, the needs for safety and security, the needs for love and belonging, the needs for esteem, and the need to actualise the self, in that order.

Maslow suggested that we can ask people for their “philosophy of the future” — what would their ideal life or world be like — and get significant information as to what needs they do or do not have covered.

Humanist psychologist Carl Rogers opposed psychoanalytic personality theory as he was dissatisfied with the ‘dehumanising nature’ of this school of thought. The central tenet of humanistic psychology is that people have drives that lead them to engage in activities resulting in personal satisfaction and a contribution to society: the *actualising tendency*. The entire theory is built on a single “force of life” he calls the actualising tendency. Rogers discussed on positive regards, positive self regard, condition of worth, condition positive regard and conditioned positive self regard. Rogers used to describe his therapy as “supportive, not reconstructive.

4.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the humanistic theories in terms of their contribution.
- 2) Elucidate the theory of Abraham Maslow.
- 3) How does Maslow conceptualise self actualisation? What is its importance?
- 4) What are the meta cognitive needs and what are meta cognitive pathology?
- 5) What is Carl Rogers Theory?
- 6) Discuss incongruity, defenses in terms of Rogers theory.
- 7) What do you understand by the term fully functioning person? Elucidate.
- 8) What is client centered therapy of Rogers? Why is it called person centered therapy?

4.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT 1 TRAIT AND TYPE THEORIES OF PERSONALITY, DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRAIT AND TYPE

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Type Approach
 - 1.2.1 Hippocrate's Typology
 - 1.2.2 Krestchmer's Typology
 - 1.2.3 Sheldon's Typology
 - 1.2.4 Jung's Typology
 - 1.2.5 Spranger's Typology
 - 1.2.6 Holland's Typology
- 1.3 Evaluation of Type Theories
- 1.4 Trait Theories
 - 1.4.1 Allport's Trait Theory
 - 1.4.2 Cattell's Trait Theory
 - 1.4.3 Eysenck's Trait Theory
- 1.5 Trait Vs. Types
- 1.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.7 Unit End Questions
- 1.8 Suggested Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous block we studied the concept of personality and various issues related to it. Now we will study two major theories of personality, Type theory and Trait theory of personality in detail. We will start with trait and type approach and end up with the Big five Factor model. Different psychologists have approached to explain personality from different angles. The earliest efforts to explain personality were to classify people in certain categories and label these categories according to some commonly shared characteristics. This approach finds mention as early as in 356-323 B.C. This was followed by trait approach and various other explanations.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Understand and discuss the concept of type in personality;
- 1 Discuss in your own words Hippocrate's personality types;
- 1 Discuss in your own words Krestchmer's personality types;
- 1 Discuss in your own words Sheldon's personality types;

- 1 Discuss in your own words Jung’s personality types;
- 1 Discuss in your own words Spranger’s personality types;
- 1 Discuss in your own words Holland’s personality types;
- 1 Evaluate type approach to personality;
- 1 Describe in your own words the trait approach of Allport;
- 1 Understand and discuss Cattell’s and Eysenck’s approach to personality; and
- 1 Differentiate between type and trait approach to personality.

1.2 TYPE APPROACH

According to Morgan and King, “A type is simply a class of individuals said to share a common collection of characteristics.” It means that people are classified into categories according to the characteristics they share in common. For example, some people prominently show tendencies of being outgoing, happy-go-lucky nature, mixing with people, less task orientation etc. These people are classified as extrovert. A number of thinkers have given their typological models to explain personality, some of which include (i) Hippocrate’s typology (ii) Kretchmer’s typology (iii) Sheldon’s typology.

1.2.1 Hippocrate’s Typology

In 400 B.C. Hippocrates attempted to explain personality in terms of body fluid or humors. He postulated that our body has four types of fluid; yellow bile, black bile, blood and phlegm. Every person is characterised by the prominence of one type of fluid which determines the temperament of the person concerned. Thus he classified people into four types which are given below:

- a) *Choleric* – people with predominance of yellow bile are irritable, restless and hot blooded.
- b) *Melancholic* – people with high black bile are sad, depressed and devoid of hope in life
- c) *Sanguinary* – When blood content is high the person remains cheerful, active and he is optimistic in life.
- d) *Phlegmatic* – predominance of phlegm makes a person calm and quite and usually there behaviour is marked by inactiveness.

1.2.2 Kretschmer’s Typology

Kretschmer was a German psychiatrist who on the basis of his observation of patients classified people into four types. He used the physical constitution and temperament for this purpose. The four types he talked about included: (i) Pyknic type (ii) Asthenic type (iii) Athletic type (iv) Dysplastic type. Let us briefly study each of these types.

Pyknic Type – Such people are short in height with heavily built body type. They have short, thick neck. Temperament wise they exhibit characteristics of being social and cheerful. They are happy-go-lucky, they like to eat and sleep. Kretschmer called them “cycloid” as they have high probability of falling prey to manic-depressive type of psychopathology.

Asthenic Type – Such persons are tall and thin with underdeveloped muscles. They are also underweight. They are irritable and shirk away from responsibility. They

have the habit of day dreaming and are lost in the world of fantasy. Temperament wise they are categorized as “schizoid” and may develop disorder of schizophrenia.

Athletic Type – These are muscular types and have well built muscles and are neither tall nor short. They have stable and calm nature and are able to adjust themselves to changes in the environment.

Dyspalstic Type – This category includes people who do not exhibit any of the characteristics mentioned above but are mix of all three types.

1.2.3 Sheldon’s Typology

Sheldon on the basis of physical constitution categorised personality into somatotypes. For this he analysed nude photographs of 4000 students and classified their personality into three basic types. These three types are: (i) Endomorphic (ii) Ectomorphic (iii) Mesomorphic.

- i) *Endomorphy* – Such persons are short and fatty with a round shape of body. Endomorphs are similar to “pyknic” type mentioned by Kretschmer. They like to eat and drink and make merry. They are gregarious by nature and have leisurely attitude toward life. Temperament wise Sheldon termed them “viscerotonia.”
- ii) *Mesomorphy* – These people are muscular types. Their muscles and bones are quite well developed and they are physically well shaped. These people generally are considered to be toughminded, risk taking, assertive and aggressive. They like to boss over others. Sheldon called these personalities as “somatonia”
- iii) *Ectomorphy* – Such people are tall but thin. Sheldon called them “cerebrotonia”. These people like to remain away from people.

1.2.4 Jung’s Typology

Jung postulated personality theory based on psychological characteristics. He divided people into two broad types i.e. extroverts and introverts.

Extroverts – Such people are socially oriented. They like to mix up with people, are fun loving, optimistic. They are realistic in their approach towards life. Often such people exhibit leadership qualities.

Introverts – They are the opposite of extroverts. They do not like to mingle with people. They have very few friends. They are self-centered and conservative. Such people are dogmatic in the sense that they follow traditions and customs of the society without ever giving thought to their justifiability.

Jung’s classification has been criticised on the ground that it is not possible to divide people into two watertight compartments because a significant number of people do not fall in either of the categories. They exhibit characteristics of both the extrovert and introvert type. To compensate for this psychologists placed such persons into another category called *ambiverts*.

1.2.5 Spranger’s Typology

Spranger in his book “Types Of Man” described six types of man, taking into account their value orientation in life. Thus he had theoretical types, economic types, aesthetic types, social type, political type and religious type.

Theoretical Type – They are seekers of truth. They try to understand and make sense of the world around them through reason and logic. They are interested in finding answers to questions like what is God? How this world with diversity and complexity beyond comprehension is governed? Is there any supreme power that controls and regulates this universe?

Economic Type – They are basically utilitarian. They view things from the point of view of practicality and their economic value. For example, just imagine what would happen to a rose flower if you give it to an economic type of man. Let me give the answer, this man instead of praising the rose for its fragrance or beauty will think how to make practical use of it or how to profit from it economically. He may make a bouquet of it and sell it for some rupees thus making practical use of it and minting money from it.

Aesthetic Type – These people are lovers of nature and beauty. They lay emphasis on form and harmony and believe in making life attractive and charming. To make you understand it through an example let us take help of rose flower once again. Now imagine what would happen to rose if you give it to an aesthetic type. Do you think he will wrap it in sylphon paper, make a bouquet of it and sell it for money. No, certainly he will not behave like this. I think he will smell the fragrance of rose, praise its beauty and enamoring form and would like to preserve it in book to remind him of its beauty and fragrance or he may make a lovely arrangement of these flowers in his drawing room and enjoy its very presence in the room.

Social type – Such people are gregarious, like to mingle with people in social gatherings. They reach out for help to people in distress. They often enjoy good prestige in society. Now let us understand such person's behaviour through rose flower once again. What a social type of person will do to the rose in question. This type of person may greet friend's birthday by presenting him with beautiful flower like rose.

Political Type – These are persons who value power and influence. Such persons rank people on the basis of power they yield. Their behaviour is oriented toward gaining power and influence over others. For example, a person of this type may make a garland of roses and garland the powerful politician to win his favour.

Religious Type – This type of person lays emphasis on the unity of cosmos. They have spiritual bent of mind and believe in God. Now again can you predict such person's behaviour with the help of rose. A person with religious orientation of mind may lay the rose on the feet of the God in a church or a temple.

1.2.6 Holland's Typology

Holland's is the latest type theory put forth for the explanation of personality. According to him personality is a combination of interests, values and competencies. He classified people into six types:

- i) *Realistic Type* – These are practical person who can make things and operate machinery and many complex instruments. These are engineers, technicians and others who do highly skilled work in which they have been trained. Such people design, create and operate equipments.
- ii) *Investigative Type* – These are basically scientists, researchers and such other highly creative and innovative persons. These are people who gather data, analyse and interpret them with a view to solve problem. For example, Research scientist.

- iii) *Artistic Type* – Such persons are actually artists, painters, designers and so on. They are skilled in designing, creating new and innovative structures, artistic in their approach and they are excellent in decoration and they are dramatists, actors and entertainers.
- iv) *Social Type* – Such persons are compassionate in their approach, they like to work for others and bring relief to people in distress. To give examples of such people, we can mention social workers, disaster management persons and related others.
- v) *Enterprising Type* – These are people who are kind of entrepreneurs. They are persons who want to contribute to the society or to their business. They are the ones who take risks and are ready to take a challenge. These people also are such that they can wield influence and pressure on others and mould their behaviour accordingly.
- vi) *Conventional Type* – These are people who are traditional in their approach. They go by rules and regulations and will expect others also to follow the same. Such persons codify and regulate things like accountant.

1.3 EVALUATION OF TYPE THEORIES

The first and foremost assumption underlying the type theories is that all persons can be categorised in one or other type. But when we look at the reality we find it is not so. Some time a person behaves like an introvert in one situation and other time he behaves like an extrovert at another time, and such a person cannot be categorised into either extroverts or introverts. Besides, most people have both the characteristics, except that one characteristic is relatively more dominant than the other.

Another assumption of type theory is that a person having one characteristic will have all the other related characteristics. For example, an introvert is assumed to have all other characteristics of this type besides being emotionally sensitive and seclusive. But in actuality he may not exhibit emotional sensitivity. Thus assumption again does not hold good.

Type theories explain the structure of personality but fail to explain the development of personality. Type theory do not mention factors that influence and shape development of personality.

Type theories, particularly those based on physical constitution like that of Sheldon, do not at all take into account the social and cultural factors which are extremely important in the development of personality, Lack of considering this is one of the shortcomings of these theories.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What is meant by type of personality?

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2) How do we differentiate between type and trait?

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3) Describe the type theories with suitable examples. How do these theories differ from each other.

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1.4 TRAIT THEORIES

According to trait theory personality is made up of different traits. Traits are the building blocks and human behaviour can be described in terms of these traits. A trait generally is a description of behaviour, for example, friendliness, social, assertive are words that describe human behaviour. Now the question is do these words really describe behaviour? No, because to be called a trait it must manifest consistency. For example, if a person shows assertiveness in all situations he is said to show consistency but if he does not show assertiveness when the situation demands it he is not showing consistency.

Besides consistency of a trait should also show the characteristics of stability and relative permanency. In other words, the trait should remain manifest itself in the person's behaviour for long periods of time. For example, if a person shows honesty in his behaviour across all situations for a month or so but after that honesty is not reflected in his behaviour, then the trait of honesty does not have stability.

According to Atkinson, Atkinson and Hilgard "A trait refers to any characteristic that differs from person to person in a relatively permanent and consistent way." Trait approach got maximum impetus from the work of Allport, Cattell and Eysenck. We will be studying these in detail

1.4.1 Allport's Trait Theory

Allport mentioned two types of traits ; common traits and personal traits.

Common Traits – are the traits found in the majority of persons living in a society or culture. Thus people of a society or culture can be compared on that trait. For example. If X shows a trait of cooperativeness in his behaviours in various situations, and if similar behaviours are obtained in a large number of persons from that community or culture, this trait will be considered common Trait. Common traits thus are those which are reflected in the behaviour of most of the persons in a society or a community or culture.

Personal Traits – This refers to the unique characteristics of a person and not shared by other members of the society or community or culture. Such a personal trait is not comparable with those of others in that culture. These traits are inculcated by a person more in the process of socialisation and thus many of do's and don'ts of the parents or caregivers become part of the personality and these traits are unique to this individual. Another important aspect is that, these traits are highly consistent and can be seen in almost all behaviours of this individual irrespective of the situation concerned. To give an example, trait of parsimony, is something which an individual will show in almost every aspect of his behaviour whether he is at home or office or school or anywhere. He will for example put off the lights to economise on electricity consumption whether at office or at home. Similarly he would be very

Careful not to waste paper and will use for rough work one side pages in the office as well as at home.

Allport further divided personal traits into three subcategories: a) cardinal dispositions, b) central dispositions, and c) secondary dispositions.

a) **Cardinal dispositions:** such traits have overriding and overwhelming influence on the behaviour of a person in that they manifest themselves in all that a person does and guides the behaviour of that person. For example, Mahatma Gandhi had firm belief and conviction in peace and non-violence. Message of peace and non-violence were explicitly seen in whatever Mahatma Gandhi did in his life, whether at home or abroad.

b) **Central dispositions:** This is found in all persons and one can have 5 to 10 central dispositions. These are not equivalent to cardinal traits but one can assess the personality of an individual in terms of these traits. These traits actually define the personality of a person. Let us take an example of a person who has the traits of honesty, punctuality, parsimony, cleanliness and generosity. Such a person will be always on time to the office, and keep the scheduled meetings on time and never will waste anyone's time, will be always straight forward and deal directly with his employer and employees, and would ensure that nothing is wasted and will make sure others do not waste anything and when ever someone comes for help would be generous enough to offer help and solve the problem.

c) **Secondary dispositions:** These traits of a person are less consistent, less explicit and less meaningful for the person and hence are called secondary traits. These traits are of not much help in explaining the personality. For example, hair style, dressing sense, eating pattern or preferences etc.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What are trait theories?

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2) How do traits describe personality?

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3) According to Allport's trait theory what are traits, and what are dispositions? Elaborate.

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1.4.2 Cattell's Trait Theory

After Allport, major contribution to trait theory was made by R.B. Cattell. He divided traits into two categories, viz., surface traits, and source traits.

Surface Traits – As the name suggests these are found on the periphery of personality i.e. these are reflected in the day to day interactions of the person. Their expression is so explicit that it leaves no doubt about their existence in the personality.

Source Traits – These represent the structure of personality. They are present in less number than surface traits. These traits are not observable in day to day interactions of the person. Source traits come to notice when some of the surface traits are joined together. For example, sociability, unselfishness and humor are surface traits which when joined together create a source trait known as friendliness.

Cattell mentioned two types of source traits i.e. environmental mould traits and constitutional traits. In the development of some source traits environmental factors play more important role than genetic factors, therefore, such traits are called environmental mould traits. Source traits determined by genetic factors are called constitutional traits.

Cattell also divided traits according to the behaviour they are related to and these include the dynamic traits and ability traits.

Dynamic Traits are those which direct the behaviour of the person in a particular direction. Attitude and sentiments are examples of dynamic traits. For example, suppose a person feels strongly for girls education / women’s education, then he may join an NGO or an organisation which is concerned with spreading women’s education and offering education to girls and women. This trait will be reflected in all his activities in terms of writing articles in the newspapers and various other magazines advancing the cause of women and girls education.

Ability Traits – traits that are instrumental in reaching to a goal are called ability traits. For example, musical ability is a must for becoming a musician.

Temperamental Traits – These develop out of a person’s efforts to reach a goal and relate to emotional state and energy of the person.

<p>Self Assessment Questions</p> <p>1) Describe Trait theory of Cattell?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>2) What are the important features of Cattell’s theory? Can personality be entirely explained by trait theory of Cattell?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>
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1.4.3 Eysenck’s Trait Theory

H.J. Eysenck proposed that personality could be reduced into two broad dimensions. These dimensions are Neuroticism, and Extraversion-Introversion dimensions.

According to Eysenck, these are biologically and genetically based and each dimension subsumes under it a number of specific traits. He drew a scale with one end having normal dimension and at another extreme having the Neuroticism

dimension. In between the person could have in varying degrees many traits which are part of these dimensions. Let us take up neuroticism as the first dimension and see the traits under the same.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism is the name Eysenck gave to a dimension that had persons who tend to be quite “nervous.” These people tend to suffer more frequently from a variety of “nervous disorders”, hence the name of the dimension. But it does not mean that people who score high on the neuroticism scale are necessarily suffering from neurotic disorders, but it only shows that such persons are relatively more susceptible to develop neurotic problems as compared to the normal persons.

Eysenck was convinced that this dimension of normality, neuroticism, etc were true temperaments and they were genetically determined and physiologically supported dimension of personality. He therefore tried to find possible explanations in the realm of physiological research. Eysenck hypothesized that some people have a more responsive sympathetic nervous system than others. Some people remain very calm during emergencies, while some persons feel considerable fear or other emotions. Some are terrified by even very minor incident while for some even major accidents do not disturb them. Eysenck suggested that the former group had a problem of sympathetic hyperactivity, which made them vulnerable to develop neurotic disorders. Perhaps the most “archetypal” neurotic symptom is the panic attack. Eysenck explained panic attacks as something like the positive feedback you get when you place a microphone too close to a speaker. The small sounds entering the mike get amplified and come out of the speaker, and go into the mike, get amplified again, and come out of the speaker again, and so on, round and round, until you get the famous squeal that we all love to produce when we were kids. (Lead guitarists like to do this too to make some of their long, wailing sounds.)

Well, the panic attack follows the same pattern: You are mildly frightened by something, as for example, crossing a bridge. This gets your sympathetic nervous system activated, causing you to become more nervous, and so more susceptible to stimulation, which gets your system even more in an uproar, which makes you more nervous and more susceptible. You could say that the neurotic person is responding more to his or her own panic than to the original object of fear!

Extraversion-introversion

His second dimension is extraversion-introversion. By this he means something very similar to what Jung meant by the same terms, and something very similar to our common sense understanding of them, that is Shy, quiet people “versus” out-going, loud people. This dimension, too, is found in everyone, but the physiological explanation is a bit more complex. According to Eysenck, extraversion-introversion is a matter of the balance of “inhibition” and “excitation” in the brain itself. Excitation is the brain waking itself up, getting into an alert, learning state.

Inhibition is the brain calming itself down, either in the usual sense of relaxing and going to sleep, or in the sense of protecting itself in the case of overwhelming stimulation.

Thus someone who is extraverted, he hypothesized, has good, strong inhibition: When confronted by traumatic stimulation — such as a car crash — the extravert’s brain inhibits itself, which means that it becomes “numb,” you might say, to the trauma, and therefore will remember very little of what happened. After the car

crash, the extravert might feel as if he had “blacked out” during the event, and may ask others to fill them in on what happened. Because they don’t feel the full mental impact of the crash, they may be ready to go back to driving the very next day.

The introvert, on the other hand, has poor or weak inhibition: When trauma, such as the car crash, hits them, their brains don’t protect them fast enough, don’t in any way shut down. Instead, they are highly alert and learn well, and so remember everything that happened. They might even report that they saw the whole crash “in slow motion!” They are very unlikely to want to drive anytime soon after the crash, and may even stop driving altogether.

Neuroticism and extraversion-introversion

Another thing Eysenck looked into was the interaction of the two dimensions and what that might mean in regard to various psychological problems. He found, for example, that people with phobias and obsessive-compulsive disorder tended to be quite introverted, whereas people with conversion disorders (e.g. hysterical paralysis) or dissociative disorders (e.g. amnesia) tended to be more extraverted.

Here’s his explanation: Highly neurotic people over-respond to fearful stimuli; If they are introverts, they will learn to avoid the situations that cause panic very quickly and very thoroughly, even to the point of becoming panicky at small symbols of those situations — they will develop phobias. Other introverts will learn (quickly and thoroughly) particular behaviours that hold off their panic — such as checking things many times over or washing their hands again and again.

Highly neurotic extraverts, on the other hand, are good at ignoring and forgetting the things that overwhelm them. They engage in the classic defense mechanisms, such as denial and repression. They can conveniently forget a painful weekend, for example, or even “forget” their ability to feel and use their legs.

Psychoticism

Eysenck recognised a third factor which he labeled as psychotic. Like neuroticism, high psychotic trait does not mean that a person is psychotic but only that one exhibits some qualities commonly found among psychotics, and that one is more susceptible to becoming psychotic. Psychotic people include a certain recklessness, a disregard for common sense or conventions, and a degree of inappropriate emotional expression. It is the dimension that separates those people who end up in institutions from the rest.

<p>Self Assessment Questions</p> <p>1) Discuss Eysenck’s Trait theory of personality?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>2) Describe Neuroticism as visualized by Eysenck.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>

3) Elucidate the Extraversion introversion dimension of personality.

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4) What is meant by psychoticism?

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1.5 TRAITS VS. TYPES

Traits are durable characteristics of a person. *Types* are collections of traits that are said to occur together in some individuals. For example, we might define *the macho type* as a person who tries to be tough, independent, courageous, or whatever the person perceives as masculine behaviour. Trait on the other hand makes a person behave in a certain way in almost all situations in a consistent manner. Honesty as a trait is an example. While we can use traits to describe persons, it is not easy to categorise a person in terms of a type. The type is not as consistent as the traits not is it as enduring as a trait.

The type is something a person can visualize from his mind. It is a construct and it may not be possible to relate it to any stable thing in the real world. Also, types tend to be a product of a particular place, time, and culture.

Types do not represent durable personality patterns; they reflect changing cultural patterns. Finally, when a type is identified, there is always the risk of stereotyping or creating a caricature of a group of people. This may not represent the real picture.

1.6 LET US SUM UP

In the present unit we studied type and trait approach to personality. In the type approach we studied Hippocrate's typology followed by Krestchmer, Sheldon, Jung, Spranger and Holland's typology. Some of these theorists have based their typologies in the psychological nature or temperament of humans while others particularly Sheldon and Krestchmer followed constitutional approach. This was followed by a critical evaluation of type theories. Then we studied traits. We introduced ourselves to the concept of traits and studied different trait approaches to explain personality. In it we studied Allport, Cattell and Eysenck's trait approach. In the end we made a comparative study of traits and type approaches to personality.

1.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What are different type approaches to personality based of temperament?
- 2) What are different type approaches to personality based of constitutional structure?
- 3) Critically evaluate type theories of personality.
- 4) Discuss in detail various trait theories of personality.
- 5) Differentiate between trait and type approach.

1.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, Calvin S. and Lindzey, A (1978). *Theories of Personality*. John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey

Dan, P. McAdams (2008). *The Person: An Introduction to the Science of Personality Psychology*. John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey.



UNIT 2 ALLPORT'S TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Structure of Personality
 - 2.2.1 Definition of Personality
 - 2.2.2 Traits or Dispositions
 - 2.2.3 The Proprium
- 2.3 Dynamics of Personality
 - 2.3.1 Functional Autonomy
 - 2.3.2 Conscious and Unconscious Motivation
 - 2.3.3 Psychological Maturity
- 2.4 Evaluation of Allport's Theory
- 2.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.6 Unit End Questions
- 2.7 Suggested Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Gordon Allport's theory is considered to be one of the more scientific theories which has put forward the concept of traits in understanding personality. He takes the biological approach to an extent and mentions about how children are born with reflexes and as they use the reflexes continuously, how in course of time these reflexes become a habit and how habits by indulging in them continuously turn into traits, which are relatively permanent entities in the individual and which are reflected in the individual's many behaviours in many different situations. Allport's theory puts forward the new idea of functional autonomy in which he says a particular behaviour indulged in initially for some specific purpose, becomes the constant behaviour in the individual in course of time. For instance, a person who initially goes to a hill station because the doctor advised, later on goes to the hill station every year as it gives him a satisfaction and his urge gets fulfilled. Allport's theory is considered humanistic in one sense and personalistic in another sense. He combines the opposites in his theory such as objectivity and subjectivity, rationality and irrationality etc. In this unit we will be studying definition and Structure of Personality as conceived by Allport, his ideas about traits, the types of traits and personal dispositions, etc. We will also be considering the dynamics of personality and how traits help in making a person behave in a certain way. We will deal with the concept of Proprium and functional autonomy which are two important concepts of Allport's theory.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Define Allport's theory of personality;
- 1 Describe Allport's concept of trait and the theory of personality;
- 1 Delineate the dynamics of personality as mentioned by Allport;
- 1 Explain the structure of personality;
- 1 Differentiate between traits and types;
- 1 List out the various traits of personality; and
- 1 Evaluate the theory of personality by Allport.

2.2 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Allport considered the structure of personality into three parts, viz., (i) definition of personality, (ii) personality traits, and (iii) proprium. Let us consider in details each of these in the following section.

2.2.1 Definition of Personality

According to Allport, personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment. Allport, (1938). This definition has put forward many aspects and let us look at these aspects.

i) Psychophysical Systems

Personality is a system that has both psychological and physical aspects, which interact between themselves. The interacting factors include at the physiological level the endocrine system and the various glands in the system. As for the interacting factors in the psychological aspects these include, traits, emotions, intellect, temperament, character and motives. All these interact with the physiological aspects and contribute to the personality development and behaviour.

ii) Dynamic Organisation

Different elements of psychological system are independent but function in an interlocking manner with physiological and other systems and amongst themselves and are subject to change. However this change can take place in a gradual manner over a long period of time.

iii) Unique Adjustment to Environment

Every individual is characterised by a dynamic organisation of psychological traits that makes his adjustment. The reason for this is that experiences of every person are unique and therefore their reaction to the environment is also unique. It is well known that the identical twins though are from the same fertilized egg, do show considerable variations in their behaviour because of such unique aspects within them.

2.2.2 Traits or Dispositions

According to Allport traits constitute the basic unit of individual's personality. He defined traits as the predisposition to respond and react in the same or similar

manner to stimuli in the environment. According to him, there are two types of traits (i) Common traits (ii) Personal traits or dispositions. Some of the important characteristics of traits are as given below:

- 1 Traits are not theoretical structures or constructs but are real and found within the individual.
- 1 Traits guide and direct behaviour and enable the individual to behave in a particular manner.
- 1 Traits are verified empirically.
- 1 Different traits are not absolutely independent of each other but have overlapping functions,
- 1 Stable traits can also change over time.

i) Common traits

We all are aware that persons belonging to a certain country or a community within a society behave similarly in a number of situations. They will hold the same view points and behave in like manner as others. This is so because cultural factors play a very significant role in the development of personality. Keeping this in view, Allport gave considerable importance to this factor and he stated that within any particular culture, there are certain behaviours that are commonly obtained **as** part of that culture and everyone in that culture recognises the same and even can label them. As for instance, greeting with a hand shake by the Europeans and greeting with a namaste by Indians. You can also obtain common behaviours in terms of eating, marriage ceremonies and many rituals that they follow.

Common traits can be considered abstractions which reflect social values and social mores. These traits originate from social pressure on members to behave in a particular manner. Allport did not attach much importance to common traits as they are only surface manifestations. In our culture, we commonly differentiate between introverts and extraverts or modern and traditional behaviours. We also know what we mean by traditional or modern, but a person from a different culture may not have heard about these terms in the same way as we are thinking or visualizing. Thus for them these words will have no meaning or value. Thus their behaviours will be different from that of ours.

ii) Personal traits or dispositions

Allport was of the view that personal disposition is something unique to the individual and this disposition makes him behave consistently in the same way in a number of situations that are similar. He said that it is a generalised neuropsychic structure that is unique to the individual concerned and this makes for the difference in the behaviours of many individuals even though they may face the same situation. For example, in a TV programme when a sad scene is shown one person cries, another turns the other way from the TV not wanting to see the scene, and the third criticizes the scene as most unreasonable and unrealistic. These three different reactions are typically due to the personal disposition of the three different individuals.

In his own words, Allport defined this personal disposition as “a generalized neuropsychic structure, unique to the individual, with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent, and to initiate and guide consistent or equivalent forms of adaptive and stylistic behaviour.” (Allport, 1938)

Let us now see what are the important features of the above definition of personal disposition:

- 1) A personal disposition produces equivalences in function and meaning between various perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and actions that are not necessarily equivalent in the natural world, or in anyone else's mind. Personal dispositions have also been termed as morphological traits.
- 2) Personal dispositions guide and motivate a person's specific acts of adjustment.
- 3) Personal dispositions are important as they reflect the structure and organisation of personality.

Initially Allport used the word trait for personal characteristics but later he substituted the word dispositions for traits and usage of traits was reserved for common traits. A person with the personal disposition of fear of certain phenomenon, as for example fear of speaking in public, may consider all persons who hesitate to speak in public as similar to himself and respond to them in the same way. But according to Allport it must be kept in mind that one person may be basically an introvert and may not want to talk in public, another may have no idea about the language and so may not want to talk in public and yet the third person may find the topic uninteresting and so may not want to talk in public. Hence the individual concerned will have to interact with them differently and not in the same manner as he would respond to a person like him who is afraid of talking in public. Thus the personal dispositions are concrete, can be easily recognised and they are invariably consistent.

Allport believes that traits are essentially unique to each individual, as for example, one person's "fear of speaking in public for instance may not be the same for two different individuals, as mentioned above. If one has to understand the person and his behaviour, it is important to study the individual in detail and in depth. This can be done by interviewing the person, or observing the person or analysing his speeches and writings to get a clear view of what is making the person afraid to speak in public. This method was termed as the idiographic method by Allport.

Also Allport categorized the personal dispositions into three groups, viz.,

- i) cardinal traits
- ii) central traits and
- iii) secondary traits.

Let us see how these traits are explained by Allport.

i) Cardinal traits

These are central to the individual and these traits manifest themselves in almost all situations and in the individual's very personality. For instance if we take compassion as a cardinal trait in one person, you will see that this compassion is manifested in almost all aspects of the individual's behaviour, as for instance, if he sees a child begging, he will offer her some eatable or money. Such a person may also join many NGOs that are dealing with orphans and destitutes so as to help these needy persons. He would also write in newspapers and magazines about the conditions of such people and call for help and assistance to be given to them. So his behaviour will be reflecting this unique disposition of compassion in almost all aspects of his behaviour.

Thus Cardinal traits have an overwhelming influence on the behaviour of the individual in that they guide and direct almost all types of behaviour of the person. These traits are at the very core of the personality. These are considered as building blocks of

the individual's personality. When you describe someone, you are likely to use words that refer to these central traits: aristocratic, street smart, timid, aggressive, arrogant etc. According to Allport each individual has about 5 to 10 such cardinal traits in them. One of these is indeed dominant while others do dominate but do not have the over riding influence on the person's behaviour. Through such traits one can define the personality of the individual concerned. These central traits reveal the structure and organisation of personality.

ii) **Secondary traits**

These are not overwhelming like the cardinal traits but it can be reflected or seen in the various preferences and attitudes of the individual concerned. These to an extent are specific to situations, that is, for instance showing a disdainful attitude towards a particular community person. These are rather too general and are not as consistent as the cardinal traits. They can also change in certain special situations. For example the negative disdainful attitude may not be obvious when the person is with others who are in favour of that community person and his contributions.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define Allport's theory of personality.
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- 2) What are the unique features of Allport's theory of personality?
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- 3) Define traits and indicate how are they formed.
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- 4) Distinguish between common traits or common dispositions and personal dispositions.
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- 5) How are cardinal traits unique and what are the important aspects of a cardinal trait? Give suitable examples.
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6) What are secondary traits and how do they differ from cardinal traits? In what way they give a clue to the individual's personality?

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2.2.3 The Proprium

Allport clarified that personality is not bundle of unrelated traits but they are traits in a personality which have between them a consistency, unity and integration. This implies that the personality has a clear organisation and structure and also is governed by certain important principles. This entire organisation was called by Allport as the Proprium.

Let us see what is proprium. According to Allport, proprium is the highest in the personality structure which consists of all aspects of personality which bring about inward unity and consistency in the personality of the individual. These aspects together in the proprium govern the entire organisation of personality. The proprium contains within it dynamic and manifests itself in almost all aspects of human behaviour.

Let us see how this Proprium develops. According to Allport it develops through seven stages and these stages are given below:

- i) Sense of body
- ii) Self-identity
- iii) Self-esteem
- iv) Self-extension
- v) Self-image
- vi) Rational coping
- vii) Propriate striving

An individual develops through the above seven stages. In the beginning the child is a bundle of living being, and as it grows and develops many sensations develop and the child is able to understand its own body organs and many other aspects related to self. As the child continues to grow many other aspects emerge wherein the child is able to differentiate between his own body and the other things in the environment. From a sense of whole, the child is able to differentiate the parts. Let us take these one by one and discuss:

i) Sense of body: (First 2 years of life)

As pointed out earlier, the child in the beginning stages has no idea about which is his body and which is that of another. Even a pillow is part of himself. As he experiences over a period of time, when the pillow is taken away by the mother, he realises that it is not part of his body. This idea of the sense of one's own body develops as a result of experiences that the child goes through in its interaction with the environment. Allport went ahead and said that the aspects the child experiences as the most essential and which is warm and central and which gives him comfort are the most central aspects of his experience.

The sense of body has boundaries, that is, we all feel the pain, touch and many other sensations including movement, etc. which all contribute to our becoming

aware of our own selves. Allport had a favorite demonstration of this aspect of self: Imagine spitting saliva into a cup - and then drinking it down! What's the problem? It's the same stuff you swallow all day long! But, of course, it has gone out from your bodily self and become, thereby, foreign to you.

ii) **Self identity**

Another aspect that develops during the first two years is what Allport called as Self identity. In course of his experience, the child is able to become aware that pillow is not himself and mother is not himself but the pillow can be brought to him and that he is separate from the pillow. This kind of realisation through experience continues on and the person is able to develop a sense of his own self called as self identity. This self awareness leads to the recognition of oneself as having a past, present and a future. The person is able to see himself as a separate entity who is separate from the pillow, from the mother and various others in his environment. This differentiation of the self from the whole is an important aspect of the development of self identity. Every individual has a name and a family and this identity is entirely the individual's own.

iii) **Self esteem (2 to 4 years of age)**

This aspect develops in the individual around the age of two to four years. The child is able to move around now and is able to accomplish many things that he never used to in the past due to the non maturation of many of the organ systems. As the child is growing and many of his organs are maturing he is able to make many movements both refined and non refined and is able to reach his goals, as for instance to fetch a toy from another corner of the room etc. As the child experiences many achievements and accomplishments he feels good about himself, becomes more confident and tries to do things like climbing the stairs and reaching the rooms on the first floor etc. He is able to control also many of his reflexes in terms of controlling his bowel and bladder. All these are appreciated by the caregivers and the child feels good about himself and thus develops a good concept about himself that he is capable and is appreciated. Thus he develops self esteem which is positive. On the other hand if the experiences were in the negative direction the self esteem would also have been negative.

iv) **Self extension: (4 to 6 years)**

The extension to one self develops between four to six years of age. There are many things in the environment which are supplementary and complementary to the growth and development of the individual. The individual is able to understand that Mr. X and Ms. Y are his parents. They are his own. He lives in a place which again is his own, he has a room in which he studies and does a lot of things including listening to music etc. and these are all his own. Thus there is an extension of self here into many things in the environment which all are identified with himself. Some people as they grow up may even identify themselves with being a sportsman, an athlete or a swimmer etc. Some belong to a group or a clan or a gang and identify themselves with the same. Some identify themselves with an occupation such as being a psychologist or a doctor or a lawyer. Thus there is self extension into many aspects of the environment .

v) **Self Image (4 to 6 years)**

Self image means, the self of the person as others see it. It is a mirroring of one's image by others. The impression that the individual makes on others by looks, clothes,

behaviour etc. In addition other aspects of self that are important include the social esteem or status one enjoys in the society and in the social circle . It also includes the person's sexual identity. Many times the ideal self and self image may not be the same. While one may have an ideal image in mind as for example one wants to be like Amitab Bachhan in looks and behaviour, the actual image may not be anywhere near it. In some cases others may consider the individual as resembling someone in looks and behaviour, but the person concerned may consider his self image as different. Thus there could be a discrepancy in the self image and what others think about the person.

vi) **Rational coping (6-12 years)**

As the individual grows up and his personality develops he is able to have higher cognitive functioning with increase in his thinking abilities, decision making and memory capacities. These in turn help the individual to make decisions on many matters related to that age level. The person is able to now think rationally on many issues and is able to understand the pros and cons and takes relatively more appropriate decisions as compared to the earlier age levels. He puts in efforts to understand things and is able to accomplish far more tasks than before. This ability to cope with many life related situations rationally is an important development that takes place during these years.

vii) **Proprium**

Every individual has to finally take charge of his life. The individual has to be responsible for his thinking, actions and behaviours. After the varied experience in life the individual is able to look back on his goals, achievements and accomplishments, and then say now is the time he would try to spend on activities that gives him internal satisfaction and a sense of fulfillment. This is almost akin to that of self actualisation as put forward by Maslow, though in a number of ways it is different. The propiate striving starts only after the age of 12 years and the individual is able to clearly identify his goals, what his future plans are and in which direction would he like to move and what is the purpose of his life etc. He is able to now say that he is the man in charge of his life and would like to do things as he wishes and desires. In all this ofcourse the person acts rationally and logically.

2.3 DYNAMICS OF PERSONALITY

What are the various factors underlying the functioning of an individual's personality is a question that needs to be answered if one has to understand the personality of an individual. In Allport's theory he has put forward three basic concepts as underlying dynamics of personality and these are (i) Functional Autonomy (ii) Conscious and Unconscious Motivation (iii) Psychological Maturity.

Allport described personality dynamics in terms of functional autonomy, conscious and unconscious motivation and psychological maturity. These dynamics are being explained below:

2.3.1 Functional Autonomy

Allport did not believe in looking too much into a person's past in order to understand his present. This belief is most strongly evident in the concept of **functional autonomy**: Your motives today are independent (autonomous) of their origins. In other words the means employed for the attainment of a goal are now themselves a

goal. For example, a person develops and inculcate discipline and hardwork in his life to become rich and famous. But even after becoming rich and famous he continues to live with discipline and hardwork. Actually discipline and hardwork are no longer the means for being rich and famous but they have replaced the goal of being rich and famous in that discipline and hard work by themselves are goals. What is now is more important than what was in the past or what is going to be in the future. A person may have been persuaded by parents to become a lawyer, but as the individual practiced law, it was so interesting and so satisfying, that there was no need for the parents persuasion any more, being a lawyer and practicing law by itself has become a goal for this individual. The shys of becoming a lawyer or why you like the lawyer profession have all no meaning now, what is important is that you are a lawyer now and practicing law.

Types of functional autonomy: There are two types of functional autonomy, viz., i) Perseverative functional autonomy and (ii) Propriate functional autonomy. Let us see what these two types of functional autonomy are:

i) **Perseverative functional autonomy**

This refers to various behaviours in which a person continues to indulge. These behaviours really have no purpose at the present moment yet, we continue to indulge in these behaviours. To give an example, a person develops the habit of drinking alcohol because he was having a problem and was tense and wanted to relieve the tension. In course of time this habit of drinking continues even though there may be no more tensions and drinking really serves no purpose.

This kind of behaviour in which a person indulges because of sheer habit is called the perseverative functional autonomy. Similarly a person must have been told by his doctor to play tennis in the evenings for 2 hours so as to reduce weight and cholesterol. As time pass by even though the person's weight has reduced and the cholesterol content also come down to normal, the person continues to go for tennis for two hours every day.

ii) **Propriate functional autonomy** on the other hand refers to the values that the person holds. This comes about as a result of socialisation and childrearing practices in which parents incorporate values of honesty, hard work, diligence, generosity, compassion etc. in children through both rewards and punishment. The children internalise the values as they want to be appreciated and rewarded and also want to avoid punishment. Thus these behaviours become internalised as value systems in the individual. Such persons when they do anything against these values that he or she holds, feel guilty and thus go back to their values as they hold them. This process of these behaviours becoming a value of an individual is called by Allport as Propriate functional autonomy.

Based on these ideas, Allport with his colleagues devised a scale called Allport-Vernon Scale of values.

Propriate functional autonomy is controlled by three principles and these are (a) Principle of organising (b) Principle of mastery (c) Principle of propriate patterning. Let us elaborate these below:

- a) **Principle of organising:** Here the organising refers to the organising of one's energy into different activities. According to Propriate functional autonomy, the energy is organised into many novel and creative activities which are productive and not in activities which are non productive.

- b) **Principle of Mastery** and competence refers to the person's efforts to satisfy his needs at a higher cognitive levels and higher levels of satisfaction. He therefore not only masters and competently deals with various situations, he also continues to refine and enrich whatever he is doing. This gives satisfaction to the individual at the highest level. This is another important principle of propriate functional autonomy.
- c) **Principle of propriate patterning:** Self is most important in the proprium of an individual. This self consists of all perceptual and cognitive processes of the individual's higher level cognitive functions. In other words the various cognitive functions are organised around this self. Since every behaviour cannot be explained by functional autonomy principles many of these patterning if understood can explain a person's behaviour.

The behaviours which can be explained by functional autonomy of motives are given below:

- 1 Behaviours originating from biological drives
- 1 Reflex actions
- 1 Constitutional elements
- 1 Habits
- 1 Any behaviour abandoned or not done due to lack of reinforcement
- 1 Behaviours of a person which represent conflicts in childhood.
- 1 Behaviours related to repressed desires in childhood
- 1 Sublimations

Allport and his colleagues also categorized values as per the contents of the values. For instance a scientist values the truth and so the value was termed as theoretical. A businessperson may value usefulness or utility aspects and he called these values as the economic value. Given below are the classification of values by Allport and his colleagues.

- 1) **the theoretical** – a scientist, for example, values truth.
- 2) **the economic** – a business person may value usefulness.
- 3) **the aesthetic** – an artist naturally values beauty.
- 4) **the social** – a nurse may have a strong love of people.
- 5) **the political** – a politician may value power.
- 6) **the religious** – a monk or nun probably values unity.

Most of us, of course, have several of these values at more moderate levels, plus we may value one or two of these quite negatively. There are modern tests used for helping children find their careers that have very similar dimensions.

Propriate functional autonomy is controlled by three principles:

- i) Principle of organising the energy level tells that an individual invests his remaining energy in novel, useful and productive works.
- ii) Principle of mastery and competence reveals that person tries to satisfy his need at higher levels of satisfaction. He does not stop after making some achievement but continues to refine and enrich his proficiency and grow further.
- iii) Principle of propriate patterning. It reveals that all the propriate motives are not independent but woven around the self. An individual organises all his perceptual and cognitive processes around this self.

2.3.2 Conscious and Unconscious Motivation

Allport in his theory laid emphasis on conscious motivation stating that an adult individual is fully aware of what he is doing. But he also gave due recognition to the concept of unconscious motivation. Infact all the conscious motivations are somehow influenced by desires hidden in the unconscious. He refuted Freud's claim that ego does not have energy of its own and personality is controlled by the unconscious. Allport claimed that a mature normal adult's personality is fully in control of the conscious.

2.3.3 Psychological Maturity

If you have a well-developed proprium and a rich, adaptive set of dispositions, you have attained psychological maturity, Allport's term for mental health. He lists seven characteristics:

- 1) Specific, enduring **extensions of self**, i.e. Involvement.
- 2) Dependable techniques for **warm relating** to others (e.g. trust, empathy, genuineness, tolerance...).
- 3) **Emotional security** and self-acceptance.
- 4) Habits of **realistic perception** (as opposed to defensiveness).
- 5) **Problem-centeredness**, and the development of problem-solving skills.
- 6) **Self-objectification** - insight into one's own behaviour, the ability to laugh at oneself, etc.
- 7) A unifying **philosophy of life**, including a particular value orientation, differentiated religious sentiment, and a personalised conscience.

2.4 EVALUATION OF ALLPORT'S THEORY

A careful analysis of the theory reveals certain merits and demerits which are:

Merits

Allport developed his personality theory in academic settings instead of psychoanalytic settings. For this reason this theory gained much importance and recognition among academic psychologists.

According to Allport present and future are more important in understating personality than past of an individual. Motivations and behaviour of an individual can be better understood by present and future. This characteristic of Allport's theory helps understand the structure of personality more scientifically.

Allport's idiographic approach to personality research is quite praise worthy as it aids understanding and detailed analysis of personality.

Allport made an important contribution to the field of psychology through his explanation of personality in terms of traits.

Demerits

Feist criticized Allport's theory saying that it is grounded more in philosophical speculations and common sense than in scientific research.

Psychoanalysts objected to Allport's concept of proprium which puts more emphasis of present and future and ignores his past. They say that such ignore of past hinders

complete understanding of personality. Past events and experiences that went into the shaping of present personality can't be totally delinked from the present personality.

Allport's theory describes the functionally autonomous motives of a psychologically healthy person but motive of children, psychotics and neurotics do not find any mention in his theory. Allport in his theory failed to explain their behaviour.

Allport in his theory does not mention how an original motive develops into a functionally autonomous motive. For example, discipline and hard work which originally acted as means to get rich and famous become functionally autonomous once the person is rich and famous. Thus it is difficult to predict which motive of childhood develops into autonomous motive during adulthood.

Critics also point to the idiographic approach taken to the personality taken by Allport. According to them nomothetic approach which requires study of several persons at the same time and subjecting the data so gathered to statistical analysis is the only right method for studying personality.

Allport's theory is based only on the study of normal and psychologically healthy persons and does not take account of neurotics and others. This fact limits its applicability.

Some of the concepts in Allport's theory do not lend themselves to empirical testing. For example, functional autonomy is a concept that can't be manipulated in experimental conditions.

Psychologists also refute Allport's claim of discontinuity in the personality of children and adults and normal and abnormal.

Further Allport do not make mention of the impact of social factor on personality.

<p>Self Assessment Questions</p> <p>What are the characteristics of a psychologically mature person?</p> <p>1)</p> <p>2)</p> <p>3)</p> <p>4)</p> <p>5)</p> <p>6)</p> <p>7)</p>

2.5 LET US SUM UP

Allport is one of those theorists who was so right about so many things that his ideas have simply passed on into the spirit of the times. His theory is one of the first humanistic theories, and would influence many others, including Kelly, Maslow, and Rogers. One unfortunate aspect of his theory is his original use of the word trait, which brought down the wrath of a number of situationally oriented behaviourists who would have been much more open to his theory if they had bothered to understand it. But that has always been a weakness of psychology in general and personality in particular: Ignorance of the past and the theories and research of others.

In the present unit we studied Allport's theory of personality. We studied about his definition of personality and his views about the basic nature of personality. A discussion took place on the concept of proprium, its meaning and the principles it operates upon. Allport regarded traits as the building blocks of personality and mentioned two types of them namely – common traits and personal dispositions or traits. Personal traits were further subdivided into cardinal, central and secondary traits. We studied dynamics of personality and within it we introduced ourselves to the concepts of functional autonomy, the principles upon which it operates, conscious and unconscious motivation and psychological maturity. In the end we made an evaluation of Allport's theory in the light of criticism done by various psychologists.

2.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss in detail the concept of personality as propounded by Allport.
- 2) Discuss the structure and dynamics of personality as mentioned by Allport.
- 3) Critically evaluate Allport's theory.

2.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, Calvin S. and Lindzey, A (1978). *Theories of Personality*. John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey.

Dan, P. McAdams (2008). *The Person: An Introduction to the Science of Personality Psychology*. John Wiley and Sons, New Jersey.

UNIT 3 TYPE A AND TYPE B PERSONALITY THEORY, TRAIT THEORIES OF PERSONALITY (CARL JUNG AND THE MYERS-BRIGGS TEST)

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Type A and Type B Personality Theory
 - 3.2.1 Type A Personality
 - 3.2.2 Type B Personality
 - 3.2.3 Development of Type A Behaviour
 - 3.2.4 Health Implications
 - 3.2.5 Criticism of Type A and Type B Theory
- 3.3 Jung's Theory
 - 3.3.1 Archetypes
 - 3.3.2 The Persona
 - 3.3.3 The Dynamics of the Psyche
 - 3.3.4 The Self
 - 3.3.5 The Functions
- 3.4 Myers Briggs® Type Indicator (MBTI)
- 3.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.6 Unit End Questions
- 3.7 Suggested Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The word personality is an all inclusive concept. It is the sum total of an individual's properties as a distinct and unique human being. The external properties are directly observed while the internal are only inferred from the behaviour of a person. The concept of personality is a derived concept. In this unit we will be dealing with Type A and Type B personality theories. Type A and Type B Personality Theory. First we will find out how Type A theory developed and trace its history briefly. Following this, we will learn about the health implications of Type A behaviour. We would then contrast this Type A with Type B behaviour and indicate the typical personality features related to the same. We will then take up Carl Jung's theory and deal with its major features and characteristics and explain how personality develops according to Jung's theory. The measurement of personality has also been dealt with in terms of Jung's approach and based on this, Myer's Briggs Type Indicator is also discussed.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Define Type A and Type B behaviour;
- 1 Elucidate the theory of Type A and Type B Personality;
- 1 Discuss the characteristic features of the Type A and Type B personality;
- 1 Explain the implications of type A behaviour on health;
- 1 Trace the history of the development of type A behaviour concept;
- 1 Discuss and describe Jung's theory of personality;
- 1 Elucidate the concepts of extroversion and introversion;
- 1 Describe Myers Briggs Type Indicator of personality; and
- 1 Analyse how Myers Briggs system works in identifying a personality type.

3.2 TYPE A AND TYPE B PERSONALITY THEORY

There are persons who are extremely active, get things done on time and are extremely target oriented. For them achieving, completing and accomplishing tasks are very important. They are generally tense if they find that they cannot get their work done. They are extremely punctual and time bound in all their activities and actions. Contrast to this is the B type personality persons who are calm, collected, not over concerned with achieving things on time, less time bound and generally affable by nature and tend to take things easy and work also in groups with greater efficiency.

Both these personalities are important in that they both have excellent characteristics which help to achieve goals but their approach to life and reaching goals vary a great deal. The Type A and Type B personality theory was developed out of observations of patients, who came for treatment either for stress related disorders or hypertension and who suffered from migraine or other forms of disorders including extreme anxiety etc. As the in depth understanding of these persons took place it came to light that these are persons who are anxiety prone and possess certain characteristics that describe a pattern of behaviours that could be characterised as Type A, indicative of the person's vulnerability to stress, anxiety etc., and are prone to develop psychosomatic disorders. Such persons were found to be more prone to develop coronary heart disease. Although, the theory has been widely criticized for lacking scientific rigour, it is still being used by many.

Some characteristics of a Type A Personality are:

- 1 Always in a hurry. Eats fast, walks and talks fast (often interrupting others)
- 1 Restless when waiting
- 1 Highly competitive
- 1 Very precise
- 1 Ambitious, sets own goals, takes work very seriously
- 1 Tries to do more than one thing at a time
- 1 Aggressive

Friedman and Rosenman observed that certain behaviours of the above given ones were more likely to exist in people with heart disease than in others. They called the combination of these behaviours the Type A behaviour pattern and the absence of these characteristics as Type B personality.

Another important aspect of Type A personality is that it is defined as one in which 'A' type behaviour pattern characterised by tenseness, impatience and aggressiveness, often result in stress related symptoms such as psychosomatic disorders, insomnia, ulcer, indigestion etc. and possibly increasing the risk of heart disease.

Two American cardiologists named Friedman and Rosenman in the early 1950s, found that some of their patients sat on the edge of the sofas and clutched at the armrests as if they were wanting to finish up the job and flee from the place. The unusual "sitting behaviour" of their patients led Friedman and Rosenman to find out the link between the restless personality type and heart problems.

In one interesting experiment conducted by researchers, they gave to men and women subjects a frustrating anagram puzzle to solve. It was interesting to find that those who were more hostile and suspicious (based on a questionnaire the subjects filled up before they took up the experiment) had a tendency to show a higher increase in blood pressure than their counterparts who were not hostile or suspicious. Such research provided evidence that some persons are more stressed and are susceptible to hypertension which is one of the important risk factors for developing heart disease.

In addition to Type A and B personalities there is also a personality type called as Type C personality.

Personality Type C

These personality typology is more prone to develop cancer. Every individual is well aware that smoking is related to cancer and that if one is a heavy smoker they must try to give it up in order to prevent developing cancer. Normally not that every one who smokes develops cancer, it is only some who are more prone to or have a predisposition to develop cancer, suffer from the disease. These persons who have a proneness to develop cancer and the behaviour patterns that they manifest are called Type C personality. Such people respond to stress by becoming depressed and / or by feeling helpless and hopeless. Such persons are also introverts, dependent to an extent, obedient, respectful, eager to please others and always conforming to the norms and requirements. They are also passive individuals who do not have the fighting spirit in themselves. Whether being of this type of personality contribute to the typical lifestyle that is related to developing cancer, is yet to be scientifically established. As for instance, a person who chews tobacco may do so whenever he is tense and later on even the slightest tension may make him resort to tobacco chewing which may eventually end up in the development of cancer. Cure from cancer or a person's lifespan increase could also be due to inculcating 'fighting spirit' within themselves.

There has been some evidence to suggest that a person's personality type may have some relationship to his chances of surviving cancer. Those who respond with a "fighting spirit" or those who have a sense of denial seem to do better than the type C personalities who seem to accept their fate passively. A Stanford University (in the USA) professor named David Spiegel discovered that cancer patients who joined a support group which fostered a "fighting spirit" had a tendency to live on average, 18 months longer than those who were not in such a group.

However, there are many contradictory findings in research work and hence one cannot clearly and conclusively state that such personalities will develop cancer in course of time. Taken to an extreme, some individuals may even feel guilty in considering that their personality type may be responsible for their disease, which may only add to their problems. If personality type does have some effect on the disease process, it is probably related more to the weakening effect it has on the immune system, functioning through an individual's response to stress. This can then undermine the body's defenses and make an individual more vulnerable to infection. However, much more research needs to be done to understand the effect of personality type on physical health.

The Type A persons keep struggling to overcome the real and imagined obstacles imposed by events, other people, and, especially, time. Their main struggle is actually against time as they try to finish their tasks on time. They are time bound and target oriented. They feel guilty if they do not complete the task within the given time. The struggle against time is so pervasive in them that they get heavily tensed up if they do not complete the task on time. Type A persons are frequently impatient, competitive, easily irritated, quick to anger, suspicious, and hostile. They are often highly successful in their professions, but are dissatisfied with whatever they achieve. They try to do more than one thing at a time, like for instance talking on the phone while working on the computer, or eat while driving. They are constantly preoccupied with deadlines. They tend to speak rapidly and loudly, are impatient and often interrupt or finish others' sentences.

Type B individuals, in contrast, are described as patient, relaxed, and easy-going, generally lacking an overriding sense of urgency. Because of these characteristics, Type B individuals are often described by Type A individuals as apathetic and disengaged. There is also a Type AB mixed profile for people who cannot be clearly categorized. In fact in every individual there are aspects of Type A and Type B characteristic traits, but one of these is more dominant than others.

Type B people, as mentioned earlier are less driven and less competitive, more easygoing and usually as successful as or more successful than their Type A counterparts. In fact type B people represent behaviour characteristics just obverse of type A people. Friedman and Rosenman are of the view that that Type A behaviour represents an effort to diminish an underlying sense of insecurity or self-doubt.

Type A behaviour ends up in a kind of vicious cycle, which is self defeating in all respects. The person is driven towards a goal to complete, and there is a fear that he may not be able to complete the same on time, this in turn causes stress and anxiety. Once he is stressed and anxious he puts in more efforts to complete the task and gets all the more stressed and the anxiety and stress itself may not help in completing the task and thus more stress and more anxiety and non completion of task and the resulting guilt and anxiety. This vicious cycle has to be stopped before the person develops disorders like hypertension, cardio vascular heart disease etc. In some cases it has been seen that Type A personality persons also strive to not only achieve their targets but also aim to achieve more and at higher levels. As they complete one, they take up another challenging task and this kind of putting oneself on to a more and more difficult and challenging tasks lead to tension and fear of failure. All these in turn lead to different types of problems including hypertension etc.

This aggressive striving leaves them in prolonged contact with the very situations that provoked feelings of insecurity in the first place, and the cycle is repeated. The

reason for Type A persons being more vulnerable to ill health than Type B persons is that they have a substantially greater sympathetic nervous system which responds to stressful or demanding circumstances. This leads to secretion of more stress hormones, a faster heart rate, higher blood pressure, etc. Because Type A people tend to view a greater number of circumstances as demanding and also place themselves in many demanding circumstances, they experience heightened physiological responses for longer periods of time each day. Many studies have found that Type A individuals tend to maintain high levels of stress hormones throughout the daytime hours and this level does not come down even after they have gone to sleep. Thus, the deleterious effects of stress hormones on the heart and the arteries (described previously) are greater for these persons as compared to persons who are not stressed out.

3.2.1 Type A Personality

The Type A personality generally lives at a higher stress level. Some of the factors related to their working at this level are given below:

- 1 They enjoy achievement of goals.
- 1 They enjoy achieving goals that are more difficult.
- 1 They constantly keep working hard to achieve their goals.
- 1 Once they start to work they cannot stop, even when they have achieved goals.
- 1 They feel the pressure of time, as they have to reach their goals within the stipulated time period.
- 1 They work so hard that there is no rest that they take and thus are totally exhausted.
- 1 They are highly competitive and generally creates competition if there is none as it gives them great enjoyment and pleasure to compete and win.
- 1 They hate failures and work hard to avoid it.
- 1 They are well educated persons and successful too and physically they appear fine even though they are highly stressed out.

3.2.2 Type B Personality

The Type B personality generally lives at a lower stress level.

- 1 They work steadily, enjoying achievements but not becoming stressed when they are not achieving or have failed to reach the target.
- 1 When faced with competition, they do not mind losing
- 1 They may be creative and enjoy exploring ideas and concepts.
- 1 They are often reflective, thinking about the outer and inner worlds.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you understand by the term Type A and Type B personality ?

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2) Elucidate the Type A and Type B personality theory. What are its important features and indicate the underlying dynamics.

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3) What are the typical characteristic features of Type A, B and C personality? What distinguishes them?

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4) How are psychosomatic disorders and Type A personality associated? Elaborate.

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3.2.3 Development of Type A Behaviour

The question arises as to how the Type A behaviour develops. Is the person born with these traits? Or does he develop these traits in the process of socialisation? There are evidences to show that such Type A behaviour can be seen even in children as young as 3 years of age. This is to an extent indicative of hereditary factors contributing to Type A behaviour. This in a way suggests a genetic contribution. Also, there have been a large number of studies on twins who have more or less the same heredity endowment, but yet show differences in Type A and Type B behaviour. It is not that if one of the twins has Type A personality the other one also must have the same Type A personality. By providing these children different environment, it would perhaps be possible to develop them into Type A or Type B personalities. At the same time some of these studies on twins have shown that at least some of the Type A characteristics are inherited. On the other hand, several theorists are of the view that if the parents have Type A personality, because of their behaviours, children would model their behaviours and thus tend to become Type A personality.

Dr. Karen Matthews, of the University of Pittsburgh, has noted striking parallels between the behaviour of Type A adults and Type A children. Type A children, like their parents who are Type A adults, work at rapid rates (with and without deadlines), have high aspirations, and try to complete the tasks assigned on time. They would never take anything lightly and they would strive to achieve the highest and aspire for more and more and work hard towards the same.

Type A behaviour may also develop as a result of child-rearing practices in which parents and strangers alike urge children to achieve at higher and higher levels, but do not give them exactly what to achieve and which level to reach. Since children have worked hard to achieve the highest and have also achieved the same, they wonder what is meant by achieving more especially when the parents and strangers or teachers tell them that 'they are doing fine, but next time they should try harder'. This kind of vague statements leave the children frustrated, as they are not sure what target they have to achieve.

3.2.4 Health Implications

Stress related diseases and psychosomatic disorders are quite commonly obtained in the medical practice. In the present day with the fast pace of life, and to achieve and make quick money and own a car and many other things, there is considerable stress and also fear that one may be left behind in this race to achieve and may remain a back number. No one wants this, and hence they try and put in considerable hard work to achieve and complete the tasks assigned to them or try to achieve more and more challenging tasks which would make them stand apart from all the others. This leads to stress and worry and anxiety which all may end up in not only high blood pressure and coronary heart disease but as pointed out by the cardiologists Meyer Friedman and R. H. Rosenman that Type A behaviour runs double the risk of coronary heart disease as compared to a normal healthy individuals. Their research had an enormous effect in stimulating the development of the field of health psychology, in which psychologists look at how a person’s mental state affects his or her physical health.

3.2.5 Criticism of Type A and Type B Theory

Type A and Type B personality theory: During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined what they called Type A and Type B behaviour patterns. As pointed out earlier Type A personalities had a higher risk of coronary disease. Type B people, on the other hand, were stated to be more relaxed, less competitive, and lower in risk. There was also a Type AB mixed profile which consisted of the striving type and the relaxing type of personality. However latter researches refuted Friedman’s claim that Type A personalities ran higher risk of coronary heart disease. Current research indicates that only the hostility component of Type A may have some bearing on health. Psychologists have criticized the theory on the ground that it tended to oversimplify a number of personality dimensions.

Statisticians have argued that the original study by Friedman and Rosenman had serious limitations, including large and unequal sample sizes, and less than 1% of the variance in relationship explained by Type A personality.

Self Assessment Questions

1) How does Type A personality develop? Elucidate.

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2) What are the health implications of Type A personality?

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3) The Type A and Type B personality theories are criticized as invalid yet they are being used widely. Discuss this aspect.

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3.3 JUNG'S THEORY

Jung divided the psyche into three parts namely, (i) the ego (ii) Personal Unconscious (iii) Collective Unconscious. Let us see what these are.

- i) **Ego**, according to Carl Jung is the conscious mind.
- ii) **Personal Unconscious**, includes anything which is not presently conscious, but can be. It includes both memories that are easily brought to mind and those that have been suppressed for some reason.
- iii) **Collective Unconscious**. This is also called as “psychic inheritance.” As is well known over many many centuries and centuries, the human being for example has been seeing the sun rising from the East and setting in the West. Similarly many natural phenomenon recur and these get implanted into the mind of the person and almost all human beings will be having these at their unconscious realm. This actually is the reservoir of our experiences as a species, a kind of knowledge we are all born with. This influences all of our experiences and behaviours about which we may not be consciously aware but can understand it indirectly.

One of the examples for this is the near-death experience. It seems that many people, of many different cultural backgrounds, find that they have very similar recollections when they are brought back from a close encounter with death. They speak of leaving their bodies, seeing their bodies and the events surrounding them clearly, of being pulled through a long tunnel towards a bright light, of seeing deceased relatives or religious figures waiting for them, and of their disappointment at having to leave this happy scene to return to their bodies. Perhaps we are all “built” to experience death in this fashion.

3.3.1 Archetypes

Archetypes are contents in the collective unconscious. Jung also called them dominants, images, mythological or primordial images. It is an innate tendency to experience things in a certain way. It acts as an “organizing principle” on the things we see or do. For example, at first, the baby just wants something to eat, without knowing what it wants. Later, with experience, the child begins to yearn for something more specific when it is hungry, a cookie, a slice. The archetype is like a black hole in space, one only knows that it is there but do not know how it draws matter and light to itself. There are many archetypes in Jung’s system that is, the mother archetype, the mana, the shadow etc. Let us deal with these in detail.

The mother archetype

The mother archetype is a particularly good example. We all know that every one born in this world has a mother and all our ancestors we know had mothers. We would never have survived without a nurturing mother especially during our times as helpless infants. Thus it is assumed that we are “built” in a way that reflects the evolutionary environment. We come into this world from the mother, we depend on her to feed us for our very survival, we seek her, we recognize her, and deal with her. Thus the mother archetype refers to our innate ability to recognize a certain relationship, that of “mothering.” We project the archetype onto a particular person, usually our own mothers and when a real person is not available we personify the archetype into a mythological character. The mother archetype is symbolised by the primordial mother or “earth mother” of mythology.

Mana

The archetypes are not really biological entities. They are more spiritual demands. They usually symbolize *mana*, or spiritual power. These symbols are displayed on occasions when the spirits are being called upon to increase the yield of corn, or fish, or to heal someone. The connection between the penis and strength, between semen and seed, between fertilisation and fertility are understood by most cultures.

The shadow

Sex and the life instincts, in Jung's system, are part of an archetype called the *shadow*. It is the "dark side" of the ego, and it is believed that the evil that we are capable of is often stored there. Actually, the shadow is amoral in that it is neither good nor bad, just like animals. An animal is capable of tender care for its young and vicious killing for food, but it does not choose to do either. It just does what it does. It is "innocent." Symbols of the shadow include the snake (as in the garden of Eden), the dragon, monsters, and demons.

3.3.2 The Persona

The persona represents public image. The word is, obviously, related to the word person and personality, and comes from a Latin word for mask. So the persona is the mask we put on when we enter the outside world. It is just the "good impression" we all wish to present as we fill the roles society requires of us.

Anima and animus

A part of our persona is the role of male or female we must play. For most people this role is determined by physical gender. But Jung felt that we are all really bisexual in nature. When we begin our lives as fetuses, we have undifferentiated sex organs that only gradually, under the influence of hormones, become male or female. Likewise, when we begin our social lives as infants, we are neither male nor female in the social sense. However in the process of socialisation the individual learns the role that he she has to play as a result of the gender.

The *anima* is the female aspect present in the collective unconscious of men, and the *animus* is the male aspect present in the collective unconscious of women.

3.3.3 The Dynamics of the Psyche

So much for the content of the psyche, now let us turn to the principles of its operation. Jung put forward three principles, viz., principle of opposites, principle of equivalence and principle of entropy. Let us see what these are.

Principle of opposites: We all know that when ever we think of something positive, there is always an opposite of it that is negative. As for example, every wish immediately suggests its opposite. If I have a good thought, for example, I cannot help but have in me somewhere a bad thought opposite of the good thought. In fact, it is a very basic point. In order to have a concept of good, you must have a concept of bad, just like you can not have up without down or black without white.

Principle of equivalence: The energy created from the opposition is "given" to both sides equally. So, when I held that baby bird in my hand, there was energy to go ahead and try to help it. But there is an equal amount of energy to go ahead and crush it. I tried to help the bird, so that energy went into the various behaviours involved in helping it. But what happens to the other energy? Well, that depends on

your attitude towards the wish that you did not fulfill. If you acknowledge it, face it, keep it available in the conscious mind, then the energy goes towards a general improvement of your psyche. You grow, in other words. But if you pretend that you never had that evil wish, if you deny and suppress it, the energy will go towards the development of a *complex*.

Principle of entropy: This is the tendency for oppositions to come together, and so for energy to decrease, over a person's lifetime. For example, adolescents tend to exaggerate male-female differences, with boys trying hard to be macho and girls trying equally hard to be feminine. And so their sexual activity is invested with great amounts of energy! Plus, adolescents often swing from one extreme to another, being wild and crazy one minute and finding religion the next. As we get older, most of us come to be more comfortable with our different facets. We are a bit less naively idealistic and recognise that we are all mixtures of good and bad. We are less threatened by the opposites within us.

3.3.4 The Self

The goal of life is to realise the **self**. The self is an archetype that represents the transcendence of all opposites, so that every aspect of your personality is expressed equally. You are then neither male nor female but a little of both male and female, and we are neither the ego nor the shadow, and we are neither good nor bad but a combination of all these aspects some being more dominant than the other varying from situation to situation. The self-realised person is actually less selfish.

Synchronicity

Synchronicity is the occurrence of two events that are not linked causally, nor linked teleologically, yet are meaningfully related. Often, people dream about something, like the death of a loved one, and find the next morning that their loved one did, in fact, die at about that time. Sometimes people pick up the phone to call a friend, only to find that their friend is already on the line. Most psychologists would call these things coincidences, or try to show how they are more likely to occur than we think. Jung believed that these were indications of how we are connected, with our fellow humans and with nature

Introversion and Extroversion

We are all aware that amongst people we come across those who are extremely shy, withdrawn and remain mostly within themselves. They hardly mix with others socially and generally avoid people. They have a few very close friends with whom they deal with and interact with, barring which they remain to themselves. Introverts are also people who prefer their internal world of thoughts, feelings, fantasies, dreams, and so on. They are shy and less sociable.

On the other hand extroverts prefer the external world of things and people and activities. They are more sociable and enjoy interacting with others. Jung said that such people with extrovertive personality more often faced toward the persona and outer reality, or toward the collective unconscious and its archetypes.

3.3.5 The Functions

Whether we are introverts or extroverts, we need to deal with the world, and each of us has our referred ways of dealing with the world, the ways which make us comfortable. Jung suggests there are four basic ways and these are termed by him

as **functions**. These functions include (i) Sensing (ii) Thinking (iii) intuiting and (iv) feeling.

- i) **Sensing**. Sensing means getting information by means of the senses. A sensing person is good at looking (visual senses) and listening (auditory senses) and getting to know the world through these senses. For example we see things and we hear things and the information we receive from these are responded to by us. The information obtained is through our two senses. We can also get information through touch, taste and smell.
- ii) **Thinking**. This is a rational activity. In this whatever information we receive we try to think about it, understand it, look at its logic and rational aspects and respond to it with all facts and figures in view. Thinking means evaluating information or ideas rationally, logically. Jung termed this as the **rational** function, meaning that it involves decision making or judging, rather than simple intake of information.
- iii) **Intuiting**. Intuiting is a kind of perception that works outside of the usual conscious processes. It is irrational or perceptual, like sensing, but comes from the complex integration of large amounts of information, rather than simple seeing or hearing. Jung said it was like seeing around corners.
- iv) **Feeling**. All of us feel things, all of us have emotions and all of us express emotions in many ways. Feeling about a things comes about as a result of experiencing and sensing something. When something sad happens weall feel sad and depressed. Sometimes it comes automatically without really much of thinking and sometimes it may happen in a very logical manner. Feeling, like thinking, is a matter of evaluating information, this time by weighing one's overall, emotional response. Jung calls feeling as rational. Every one has these feelings but each of us has it in different proportions. To a sad episode that takes place one may cry loudly, while another may remain stoic. When something exciting happens some may show extremely joyous feelings while another may just remain calm and show no emotions.

We all have these functions and these could be categorized into (i) Superior functions (ii) Secondary function (iii) Tertiary function and (iv) inferior function. Superior function is the one that is well developed in us, whereas in regard to the secondary function, we are aware of the function and use it in support of our superior function. In regard to the tertiary function, it is only slightly less developed and we are not very conscious of it. As for the inferior function, it is poorly developed and so unconscious, and as a result we may deny its existence in ourselves. Most of us develop only one or two of the functions, but our goal should be to develop all the four.

<p>Self Assessment Questions</p> <p>1) What are the important features of Jung's theory of personality?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>2) What do you understand by the term collective consciousness?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>

3) What archetypes? Mention all the archetypes considered by Jung and indicate each of its importance.

.....

.....

4) Discuss the dynamics of the Psyche by Jung? How does the psyche function?

.....

.....

5) What are functions according to Jung? Describe each of the functions with a suitable example.

.....

.....

3.4 MYERS BRIGGS® TYPE INDICATOR (MBTI)

The Myers Briggs® Type Indicator is a widely used and highly regarded system for understanding and interpreting personality, and derives most of its tenets from Carl Jung’s theory of personality.

The purpose of MBTI® is to “make the theory of psychological types described by Jung understandable and useful in people’s lives. According to it the much seemingly random variation in the behaviour is actually quite orderly and consistent. The variations in the behaviour are in fact due to basic difference in the way individuals prefer to use their perception and judgment.

Myers Briggs® theory is a method for understanding personality and preferred modes of behaving. The Myers Briggs® MBTI® system uses a four-scale structure for identifying and categorising an individual’s behavioural preferences.

Each of the four MBTI® scales represents two opposing ‘preferences’. In other words, preferred styles or capabilities with their opposites are presented. All abbreviations are obvious first letters, other than N for Intuition, which causes the word to be shown sometimes as **iNtuition** just in case you were wondering. The Myers Briggs® Judging-Perceiving dimension equates to Jung’s Rational/Irrational categories of the two pairs of Jungian Functional types

(E)	Extraversion	or	Introversion	(I)	the focus or direction or orientation of our behaviour-outward or inward	‘Attitude’ or orientation
(S)	Sensing	or	iNtuition	(N)	how we gather information	Function or Perceiving
(T)	Thinking	or	Feeling	(F)	how we decide	Function or Judging
(J)	Judging	or	Perceiving	(P)	how we react to the world-do prefer to make decisions or keep open to options (and also which middle ‘Functions’ do we favour)	Myers Briggs’® added dimension equating to Jung’s ‘Irrational’ and ‘Rational’

Myers Briggs® added a fourth dimension to the three dimensions as proposed by Jung (Introvert-Extravert, Thinking-Feeling, Sensation-Intuition), namely **Judging-Perceiving**, which refers to the approach taken by the person in decision-making, and particularly how the personality deals with the outer world (Extraverted) as distinct from the inner world (Introverted). The **Judging-Perceiving** dimension can also be used to determine functional dominance between the two preferred functional types (aside from Introvert-Extravert, which are not functions but ‘Attitudes’, or orientations).

Most people use both preferences within each of the four scales, but each of us tends to have (and therefore will indicate via testing) a certain preference for one style or another in each of the four scales. According to the Myers Briggs® system **each of us is represented by four preferences**, one from each of the four scales.

(E)	Extraversion or Introversion	(I)	do we focus on outside world (E) or inner self (I) - do we find people energising (E) or somewhat draining (I)?
(S)	Sensing or Intuition	(N)	the way we inform ourselves - how we prefer to form a view and receive information - observed facts and specifics (S) or what we imagine things can mean (N)?
(T)	Thinking or Feeling	(F)	our way of deciding - how we prefer to make decisions - objective and tough-minded (T) or friendly and sensitive to others and ourselves (F)?
(J)	Judging or Perceiving	(P)	our method for handling the outside world and particularly for making decisions - do quite soon evaluate and decide (J) or continue gathering data and keep options open (P)?

The sequence of the four-letter preferences within the Myers Briggs® code, whatever the combination, does not change:

The **1st letter** denotes the Jungian ‘Attitude’ or **orientation**; the **direction or focus of the personality - Introvert or Extravert**

The **middle two letters** denote the Jungian ‘Functional Type’ preferences, namely:

The **2nd letter** is the preferred Jungian ‘Irrational’ function (Myers Briggs® ‘perceiving’) - **Sensing or Intuition**

The **3rd letter** is the preferred Jungian ‘Rational’ function (Myers Briggs® ‘judging’) - **Thinking or Feeling**

The **4th letter** is Myers Briggs’® added dimension to indicate the **preferred way of dealing with the outer world**; to evaluate and decide or to continue gathering information - **Judging or Perceiving** - equating to Jung’s ‘Irrational’ and ‘Rational’ functional type categories, and thereby enabling functional dominance to be determined.

From this Indicator, one can delineate 4 types of personality viz., sanguine or artisan, melancholic or guardian, choleric or idealist and phlegmatic or rationalist. However,

neurologist, psychiatrist, psychologists, and psychotherapist prefer the following four-way grouping because these types are the four most distinguishable when we observe behaviour of people: TJ, ('Thinker-Judgers') FJ ('Feeler-Judgers'), SP ('Sensor-Perceiver') and NP ('Intuitive-Perceiver').

Thus, most people display type-behaviours that resemble many of the sixteen types in any one day, depending on the circumstances. However, in normal circumstances an individual will consistently have a certain preferred type with which he is most comfortable, and which according to the MBTI® model, reflects his 'personality'.

3.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we studied type A and Type B personality. What are the behavioural characteristics of Type A behaviour and Type B behaviour, and its implications for physical and mental health of the individual. We also studied Jung's theory of personality. Jung divided personality types into extroverts and introverts, and neurotics. He talked about collective conscious and archetypes. Now we understand his concepts on the dynamics of personality. This was followed by Myers-Briggs type indicators (MBTI). MBTI has been developed on the concepts of Jung. It mentions sixteen different combinations of personality types. These combinations in fact reveal a person's tendency or preference to behave in a particular style.

3.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the concept of type A and type B behaviour and how they develop?
- 2) Throw light on dynamic process of personality as mentioned by Jung.
- 3) Discuss in detail the MBTI.

3.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT 4 EYSENCK'S PERSONALITY THEORY AND BIG FIVE FACTOR THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Five Factor Model
- 4.3 Trait Units of Personality
 - 4.3.1 NEO-PI-R Facet Scales Associated with the Big Five Trait Factors
 - 4.3.2 Research Evidence
 - 4.3.3 Diagnosis of Personality Disorders
- 4.4 Eysenck's Personality Theory
 - 4.4.1 Definition of Personality by Eysenck
 - 4.4.2 Hierarchical Nature of Personality
 - 4.4.3 Structure of Personality
 - 4.4.4 Physiological Basis of Personality
- 4.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.6 Unit End Questions
- 4.7 Suggested Readings

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Personality has been described by many a psychologists using different approaches. Some psychologists advocate idiographic approach while others support nomothetic approach. Some attempt to explain personality in terms of temperament and still others explain personality in terms of constitutional characteristics. Among the present model of personality which have gained higher importance are from psychologists of which we have the Big Five Factor Model and Eysenck's personality theory. In this unit we will be dealing with the five factor model and understand how this model came about and how personality traits are combined together to make it the Big Five theory of personality. We also would understand the importance of this theory vis a vis all other trait theories. Following this we will be considering in detail Eysenck's theory of personality starting from definition to the nature and structure of personality as put forward by Eysenck.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Define the five factor model of personality;
- 1 Describe the different dimensions of personality;
- 1 Discuss the research findings in support of five factor model;
- 1 Define personality as conceived by Eysenck;

- 1 Explain the personality theory of Eysenck;
- 1 Discuss the hierarchical nature of personality;
- 1 Analyse the structure of personality; and
- 1 Explain the physiological basis of personality.

4.2 FIVE FACTOR MODEL

Although the major concepts of Allport, Cattell, and Eysenck had been developed by the 1960s, a common view or trait taxonomy had not been achieved. Since then other three-factor models have been developed, some based on factor analysis and others based on individual differences in the functioning of physiological systems.

Over the years, many factor-analytic studies were performed by a variety of psychologists and researchers. However there was no unanimity concerning the basic trait units. As of the present situation, it appears that a consensus that is emerging around what has been called the Big Five (Goldberg, 1981, 1993) or the five-factor model (FFM) of personality (McCrae & Costa, 1999): Much of what psychologists mean by the term personality is summarized by the FFM, which has become one of the most accepted models in contemporary psychology. In fact the Five Factor Model has generated an enormous amount of research and that there is wide support and enthusiasm for the model. Although slightly different terms have been used for the Big Five factors, we use the terms *Neuroticism*, *Extraversion*, *Openness to Experience*, *Agreeableness*, and *Conscientiousness*. These terms are being discussed in the following section.

4.3 TRAIT UNITS OF PERSONALITY

Neuroticism (N) represents a personality that is worrying, nervous, anxious, poorly adjusted, emotionally agitated, stressed, emotional, insecure, unstable. This dimension is able to identify individuals who are also unemotional, hardy, inadequate, prone to psychological distress, insecurity, self-satisfied hypochondriacal, unrealistic ideas, excessive cravings or urges, and maladaptive coping responses.

Extraversion (E): This dimension represents sociability in a person, active versus inactive tendencies, Higher frequency and intensity of extraverted behaviours, the extent to which a person is reserved, sober, talkative, person-oriented and interpersonally attracted. This dimension also deals with activity orientation, unexuberant behaviour, aloofness, optimism, fun-loving characteristics, the need for stimulation, etc. It also deals with how much the person is task oriented, how much is the individual withdrawing or a retiring type and whether capable of affection, whether can enjoy life and could the person be quiet when needed.

Openness to Experience (O): This dimension deals with the extent to which the individual is curious, has broad interests, how proactive seeking the person is, whether the person is conventional, how far creative is the individual, how original the person is etc. It also assesses if the person appreciates the experience that he or she is subjected to, how narrow or broad is the individual's imagination, how traditional or modern are the ideas and behaviours the extent to which the person is able to have tolerance and is able to explore one's interest areas, whether the person is artistic and the extent to which he / she is artistic, how analytical is the person etc.

Agreeableness (A): This represents soft-hearted, soft spoken, good person, and how much the person is self critical in order to change self, whether the person is

cynical, rude, suspicious in nature, trusting, helpful, personal orientation of helpfulness etc. How cooperative, forgiving, and how gullible is the person, and in a continuum from compassion to antagonism, where the person fits, how vengeful is the person, how ruthless or straightforward is the person in thoughts, feelings, and actions. Whether the person is irritable, manipulative etc.

Conscientiousness (C): This dimension focuses on the extent to which a person is organised, reliable, hardworking, persistent, goal directed, disciplined, careful, strong and scrupulous. This also examines the opposites of the above traits such as whether the person is unorganised, unreliable, lazy, inconsistent, undisciplined, careless, weak and unscrupulous etc.

4.3.1 NEO-PI-R Facet Scales Associated with the Big Five Trait Factors

- 1 Neuroticism in the above scales includes anxiety, anger, hostility, depression, selfconsciousness, impulsiveness, vulnerability, etc.
- 1 Extraversion refers to the aspects in the personality of the individual such as warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement seeking, positive emotions.
- 1 Openness to Experience includes fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, values.
- 1 Agreeableness refers to trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, tendermindedness.
- 1 Conscientiousness refers to the individual's competence, whether the person is orderly, whether takes his duties seriously, order, dutifulness, achievement, striving, self-discipline, deliberation.

4.3.2 Research Evidence

Proponents of the FFM propose that trait dimensions are biologically based. Evidence of biological nature of traits comes from:

First, there is considerable evidence of a genetic contribution to personality traits. Both Eysenck and Cattell emphasised a strong genetic, inherited aspect of traits. Comparisons were made of the similarity of personality test scores of individuals varying in degree of genetic similarity and degree of environmental similarity.

For example, identical (MZ) twins are identical genetically whereas fraternal (DZ) twins and ordinary siblings share about 50% of their genes in common.

Unrelated individuals, such as adopted siblings, share no genes in common. Individuals reared together are assumed to share a greater environmental similarity than do individuals reared apart. Considering the degree of personality similarity to be related to genetic and environmental similarity allows researchers (*behavioural geneticists*) to estimate the percentage of variance in test scores that can be accounted for on the basis of genes alone, environment alone, and gene-environment interactions.

A critical concept, **heritability**, refers to the proportion of variance (i.e., individual differences) of a particular trait that is due to the contribution of genes. It is estimated that about 40% of individual differences in personality can be accounted for on the basis of inheritance (Loehlin, 1992).

It is clear that the correlations are much higher for identical (MZ) twins than for fraternal (DZ) twins.

Further evidence of the genetic component is the fact that biological siblings scores generally show higher correlations than do adoptive sibling scores. In addition, parent scores are more highly correlated with scores of their biological offspring than with scores of their adoptive children.

Much of the early behavioural genetic data were based on self reports. However, a more recent study included peer ratings of identical (MZ) and fraternal (DZ) twins. The results confirmed the earlier findings of a genetic influence on the basic trait factors that were based on self-reports (Riemann, Angleitner, & Strelau, 1997).

Whereas the behavioural genetic data speaks to a general relation between genes and personality, scientists have begun to find links between specific genes and specific personality characteristics. For example, there have been reports of discovery of a gene linked to the trait of novelty seeking, similar to Eysenck's P factor and to low C on the Big Five (Benjamin et al., 1996; Ebstein et al., 1996).

Although such a possible linkage has been found, it is important to recognise that the gene involved contributes to individual differences on the trait but is not totally responsible for such individual differences. This is because personality traits reflect the operation of multiple genes and the interplay of genetic and environmental influences during the course of development.

Evidence of a genetic contribution to traits lends itself to an evolutionary interpretation, that is, that there is survival value to the traits. Thus, many trait theorists now view the five-factor model, and traits generally, within an evolutionary perspective.

Second, there is the view that important individual differences exist because they have played some role in the process of evolution by natural selection. The fundamental question asked is "How did traits evolve to solve adaptive tasks?" which entails the question "If not for this reason, why would they exist at all?"

Presumably, individual differences relate to such basic evolutionary tasks as survival and reproductive success. Traits such as dominance, friendliness, and emotional stability (the other end of the N dimension) might be particularly important, for example, in relation to mate selection. Emotional stability, conscientiousness, and agreeableness might be particularly important in relation to group survival. Thus, individual differences in traits and trait terms reflect the tasks humans have had to face in the long history of their evolutionary development.

Third, it has been observed that some trait dimensions enjoy continuity across species. A review of researches on individual differences in personality dimensions in nonhuman animals found evidence for the existence of the Extraversion, Neuroticism, and Agreeableness dimensions across species. The review included studies conducted on dogs, cats, donkeys, and pigs as well as various primates. Although the research could not find the factor of Conscientiousness but it has been found in research with chimpanzees. All these evidences led to the conclusion that the major dimensions of "animal personality" are not much different from those found in human beings.

The deciding evidence for the biological basis of five factor model comes from the field of neuroscience. It has been a complex field, since different trait models have pointed out different relationships between specific traits and biological functioning, one should not expect simple relationships between one aspect of biological functioning and individual differences in a specific trait.

Such individual differences reflect the combined interaction among a number of biological variables. However, several findings are suggestive of the relationships

that have been observed. For example, an association has been found between individual differences in extraversion and neuroticism and differences in brain reactivity.

For instance scores on extraversion were found to be correlated with reactivity to positive stimuli in specific areas of the brain, and scores on neuroticism were found to be correlated with brain reactivity to negative stimuli in specific brain areas.

An area in neuroscience receiving considerable attention is that of neurotransmitter functioning, in particular the neurotransmitters dopamine and serotonin.

Neurotransmitters are chemical substances that transmit information from one neuron to another. The neurotransmitter *dopamine*, has been associated with extraversion, positive emotions, and responsiveness to rewards, while low levels of the neurotransmitter *serotonin* have been associated with negative emotions, chronic irritability, and impulsivity. Negative emotionality also has been correlated with high levels of the hormone *norepinephrine*, and the hormone *testosterone* has been associated with a wide variety of dominance-related behaviours.

At a very fundamental level, connections are being made between individual differences in responses to rewards and punishments and various aspects of biological functioning. Related to this have been findings of differences in typically positive, approach related responses as opposed to typically negative, withdrawal related responses and differences in brain system functioning.

In particular, there is evidence that left cerebral hemispheric dominance is associated with positive emotion and approach related responses while right cerebral hemispheric dominance is associated with negative emotion and avoidance related responses.

In recognising these links between traits and various aspects of biological functioning it is important to keep in mind that this does not mean that one's personality is fixed at birth or by early qualities of one's biological structure. There is considerable, and growing, evidence of plasticity in our biological functioning. It is recognised now that experiential and environmental processes themselves build changes in brain structure and functioning, both before and after birth.

4.3.3 Diagnosis of Personality Disorders

A fourth line of validating evidence concerns the effort to relate the five-factor model and the NEO-PI to the diagnosis of personality disorders. Some clinicians view personality disorders as separate, distinct categories of psychopathology, unrelated to normal personality traits.

Proponents of the five-factor model view personality disorders as falling on a continuum with normal personality. For example, the compulsive personality might be seen as someone extremely high on the Conscientiousness factor and the antisocial personality as someone extremely low on the Agreeableness factor. Beyond scores on single factor dimensions is the pattern of scores on the five factors that may be of considerable significance for diagnosis.

There are two particularly important points in this approach to personality disorder classification and diagnosis. In this regard the following needs to be mentioned:

- 1) The first, already mentioned, is that the disorders in personality are viewed as extremes on a continuum with normal personality traits.
- 2) The second is that personality disorders are seen as the result of patterns of traits that end up in a particular personality style.

These points contrast with the view that personality disorders represent distinct categories, a view that is more similar to a medical model than a psychological model of disorder.

Although still in its early stages of development, is called the *dimensional* approach to personality disorder diagnosis is important because it is based on a general model of personality functioning, and it may offer a basis for the assignment of patients with different personality disorders to different treatments (Wiggins & Pincus, 1992).

- 3) Finally, it is important because it represents a potentially important contribution by psychologists in an area that previously has been dominated by medical models and psychiatrists. At the same time, a recent reviewer of the literature cautions that “evidence of systematic relationships does not mean that measures such as the NEO-PI-R are optimal ways to represent personality disorder diagnoses. Personality involves more than basic traits, and the clinical concept of personality disorder refers to more than maladaptive expressions of basic traits” (Livesley, 2001, pp. 281, 283). What else might be involved? The author suggests that personality disorders involve problems in the organising and integrative aspects of personality functioning, areas that are not directly tapped by the five-factor model.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) How many traits does Five Factor Model mention?
a) 6 b) 3
c) 4 d) 5
- 2) Discuss research evidence in regard to personality traits and behaviours
.....
.....
.....
- 3) What are the dimensions of Five Factor Model personality theory?
.....
.....
.....
- 4) How do FFM view personality disorders?
.....
.....
.....

4.4 EYSENCK'S PERSONALITY THEORY

Hans J Eysenck is somewhat difficult to identify or classify as to whether he is a learning theorist or behaviourist. He supports a model of personality characterised by types and traits because he firmly believes that the most fundamental personality characteristics are inherited. His equally strong belief that both heredity and environment determine behaviour supports his active verbal support of learning theory and the behaviour therapies.

Eysenck shares with Cattell the view of people as creatures with lasting and measurable qualities. From the beginning of his career, Eysenck was certain that most personality theories are too complicated and too loosely formulated. He has attempted to derive conceptions of behaviour that are simple and can be used to its maximum in proper working order, and as a result, his system is characterised by a very small number of major dimensions that have very thorough empirical definition. At the same time, his conceptions reflect his study and absorption of the thought of many different figures in our intellectual history wherein we have stalwarts like Hippocrates, Galen, Kretschmer, Jung, Pavlov, Hull, Spearman, and Thurstone.

4.4.1 Definition of Personality by Eysenck

Expanding on the definitions of Allport and Murray, Eysenck suggested that personality is the sum total of the actual or potential behaviour patterns of the organism as determined by heredity and environment. It originates and develops through the functional interaction of the four main sectors into which these behaviour patterns are organised, viz., (i) the cognitive sector (intelligence), (ii) the conative sector (character), (iii) the affective sector (temperament), and the (iv) somatic sector (constitution).

Eysenck called attention to a statement to which many of the theorists would support by including the role of heredity and environment in this definition that we are creatures of both inheritance and our experience. No theorist, however, with the possible exception of Cattell, has focused as much specific research effort on this proposition as Eysenck.

Eysenck’s inclusion of the “somatic sector” underlines his interest in relating the behavioural aspects of personality to underlying physiological structure and function. Although like Sheldon he has given some attention to the relations between physique and personality, Eysenck’s major effort has gone into probing the possible relations between observable behaviour and the functioning of various parts of the brain.

4.4.2 Hierarchical Nature of Personality

For Eysenck, personality consists of acts and dispositions organised in a hierarchical fashion in terms of their level of generality.

Table: Behavioural Acts and Dispositions

Levels	Generality	Example
Specific response	Least General	A person may buy food, telephone a friend or move furniture.
Habitual response	Less General	A person may give a lot of parties, and each time he does so he may go shopping for food and drinks, telephone friends to invite them, and rearrange his furniture to accommodate a crowd.
Trait	More general	Someone not only gives a party frequently but is often seen with groups of people, is the campus salesperson for The New York Times and is planning a career in career of sociability, inasmuch as he appears to choose activities that involve his with other people.

Type	Most general	A person's sociability is combined with tendencies to be venturesome, lively, and the like, we might further hypothesize that he is on the extravert side of the extraversion-introversion dimension
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4.4.3 Structure of Personality

When describing the nature of personality, Eysenck appear to have been influenced most by Hippocrates, Krestchmer and Jung. He proposed three other broad dimensions, viz., (i) introversion extroversion, (ii) neuroticism stability, and (iii) psychoticism.

He further stated that no one is ever a pure anything, that is a neurotic person's not neurotic all the time.

But our typical levels of behaviour do differ, so that each of us reflects a distinctive combination of these three dimensions and their many sub dimensions. Thus the dimension, if it were to represent the person described properly, would have to be greatly expanded so as to include each type that contributes to this individual's personality, together with each type's subsidiary traits and habitual specific responses.

Eysenck developed types, or dimensions by studying soldiers who were treated at the hospital where he served as staff psychologist during World War II. Initially he isolated two variables of introversion extraversion and normality neuroticism. These two factors were extracted from the analysis of a large number of variables, many of which were traits (e.g., anxiety, dependency) but some of which were factual data (e.g., age, martial status). Much of Eysenck's initial database consisted of ratings by psychiatrists and life-history information. Subsequent explorations, however, led him to add another dimension namely psychoticism.

Eysenck clearly distinguished between introversion and extraversion dimensions and these are presented in the table below.

Table: Distinguishing characteristics between Introversion and Extraversion

Introversion: tender mindedness; introspectiveness; seriousness; performance interfered with by excitement; easily aroused but restrained; inhibited; preference for solitary vocations; sensitivity for pain	Extraversion: tough mindedness; impulsiveness; tendency to be outgoing; desire for novelty; performance enhanced by excitement; preference for vocations involving contact with other people; tolerance for pain
Neuroticism: Below-average emotional control, will-power, capacity to exert self; slowness in thought and action; suggestibility; lack of persistence; tendency to repress unpleasant facts; lack of sociability; below average sensory acuity but high level of activation.	
Psychoticism: Poor concentration; poor memory; insensitivity; lack of caring for others; cruelty; disregard for danger and convention; occasionally originality and/or creativity; liking for unusual things; considered peculiar by others.	

The major dimensions are independent of one another: for example, normal behaviour may take introverted or extraverted forms, as may neurotic behaviour. The table above describes some components of introversion(I), extraversion(E), and neuroticism(N), and depicts combinations of these dimensions and accompanying

sets of traits. As you can see, for example, the normal extravert tends, among other things, to be lively and responsive, whereas the normal introvert is stated to be reliable and thoughtful. The neurotic extravert may be touchy and aggressive, whereas the neurotic introvert may be anxious and pessimistic.

The third major dimension, along which people vary, Eysenck proposes, is normality-psychoticism. Note that psychoticism (P) is not equivalent to psychosis as, for example, in schizophrenia, although a schizophrenic person would be expected to score high on psychoticism, the high-P person tends to be hostile and unconventional and considered “peculiar” by acquaintances.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Which of the following is not a level mentioned in the hierarchy of personality.
 - a) Specific response
 - b) Habitual Response
 - c) Trait
 - d) Conditioned Response
- 2) What are the distinguishing characteristics between introversion and extraversion?
.....
.....
.....
- 3) What is the structure of personality of Eysenck’s theory.
.....
.....
.....

4.4.4 Physiological Basis of Personality

Eysenck not only described personality in terms of three dimensions but also clarified their physiological basis. According to him introversion- extroversion dimension has its basis in the functioning of ascending reticular activating system (ARAS). Activity level of ARAS determines the level of activity of higher brain centres which in turn determines their degree of control over lower centres of the brain. Extroverts exhibit low levels of cortical excitation while introverts have higher levels of cortical excitation. Consequently extra stimulation is required to stimulate extroverts as compared to normal persons while a little amount of excitation is enough to stimulate introverts.

Similarly, neuroticism-normality dimension has its roots in the activities of autonomic nervous system. Persons with higher levels of activity in ANS usually react to events in their environment with increased emotionality and consequently have higher probability of becoming neurotic. Neurotic behaviour is learned: traumatic events can produce particularly strong neurotic reactions in people who have inherited tendencies to neuroticism. Conditioned fears come to be elicited not only by the original events that triggered them but similar events. Learned neurotic behaviours can be unlearned, through behaviour therapies.

He further argued that people who are both introvert and neurotic have tendency to develop phobia, obsessive compulsive neurosis. Such people are victim of “disorders

of the first kind". And those who are characterised as both extrovert and neurotic are victims of "disorders of the second kind." They may develop into psychopathic personality.

Psychoticism has its roots in the male sex hormones.

4.5 LET US SUM UP

The present unit dealt with two theories of personality. In it we studied Five Factor Model by McCrae & Costa. They state that all the variations of human behaviour can be understood in terms of five dimension of personality i.e. neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and Conscientiousness. McCrae & Costa cited a number of evidences in their support from genetics, evolutionary science, cross-cultural studies and neuroscience. This was followed by study of Eysenck's personality theory.

4.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss in detail the FFM model of personality.
- 2) Discuss Eysenck's theory of personality.
- 3) What are the evidences in support of FFM?

4.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT 1 CLASSICAL CONDITIONING BY PAVLOV

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Concept of Classical Conditioning
- 1.3 Pavlov's Experiment on Classical Conditioning
 - 1.3.1 The Experiment
 - 1.3.2 Interpretation of the Results of the Experiment
 - 1.3.3 Principles of Classical Conditioning
- 1.4 Implications of Pavlov's Classical Conditioning in Understanding Personality
 - 1.4.1 Conditioned Emotional Responses – the Case of Little Albert
 - 1.4.2 Classical Conditioning of Social Attitudes
 - 1.4.3 Psychopathological Conditions Explained by Classical Conditioning
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Does your baby daughter start crying whenever she sees a man with big moustache? Does your brother fall helplessly in love with every lady who uses a particular perfume?

The fear of your child, the blind attraction of your brother, may have at their bases, the principles of classical conditioning. Both of them may have been behaving precisely like 'Pavlov's dog'.

How did your daughter develop the fear? You may recall the incident when your uncle with a pair of long moustache visited your house. Holding your daughter in his big burly arms, he had bellowed 'Hey there - my sweetie'. Even you jumped up at the sudden sound. Your little girl was terrified and cried out in fear. Your uncle was a bit embarrassed and tried to soothe the baby. 'Now, NO - NO... No more crying..' he roared. The baby now got so scared that you had to intervene and take her from the boisterous grandfather's arms. Since then she had been scared of any man who happens to have a bunch of bushy hair below his nose, causing your anxiety and your uncle's mortification.

What had happened? The sudden loud sound caused a startle response in the baby generating the emotion of fear. Every time the frightening sound emerged, the baby

saw a pair of dancing bushy moustaches – the most prominent feature on your uncle’s face. So this innocent growth of hair, the sign of pride for your uncle, became the sign of danger to your daughter. She anticipated the frightening roar whenever she encountered any man with moustache and cried even before the sound came.

The fact that your daughter has thus *acquired* this new and uncomfortable association of the moustache and the sound is an instance of Classical conditioning. But you can erase this learning, or put new learning in her also. In this Unit, you will know about Classical conditioning. Classical conditioning is one basic model of learning which was a landmark in the history of understanding behaviour. The man behind it was a Russian physiologist named Ivan Petrovich Pavlov. In this Unit, you will learn about Pavlov’s basic experiment, the concepts emerging thereof, and the application of classical conditioning in personality theory and psychopathology.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- 1 Define classical conditioning;
- 1 Describe Pavlov’s experiment in classical conditioning;
- 1 Differentiate among unconditioned stimulus, unconditioned response, conditioned stimulus and conditioned response;
- 1 Draw a schematic diagram of classical conditioning experiment with its essential elements;
- 1 Explain the implications of Pavlov’s classical conditioning in understanding personality; and
- 1 Discuss the applications of classical conditioning in psychotherapeutic settings.

1.2 CONCEPT OF CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

Classical conditioning is a learning paradigm from behavioural point of view. Consider any stimulus (S1) capable of eliciting a natural response (R1). Imagine any other neutral stimulus (S2) that does not elicit this particular response. Suppose within the experimental situation, these two stimuli (S1 and S2) are consistently presented together. After a few exposures of S1 and S2 together, the natural response to the first stimulus (R1) would occur in the presence of the second stimulus (S2) also, even if the first stimulus (S1) is absent. Thus after conditioning, the second stimulus, originally incapable of eliciting the specific response, becomes capable of doing the same.

Consider the example of the boisterous uncle. The loud voice was the natural stimulus (S1) that elicited the natural fear response (R1) in the child. The moustache was, originally, a neutral stimulus (S2) incapable of eliciting fear. But, as it always accompanied the big sound, it gradually became capable of eliciting the fear, even when the sound was absent.

The term classical conditioning is define as *learning by association, whereby a neutral stimulus, by virtue of its occurrence in close time and space with a natural stimulus that gives rise to a natural response, becomes capable of eliciting that natural response, even in absence of the natural stimulus*. Classical conditioning is applicable only for reflexive and spontaneous responses, and not for voluntary responses.

the association was established, the dog elicited the saliva in response to the bell. Thus, it was a new learning for the dog.

Pavlov identified four essential elements of the learning processes. They are:

- i) **Unconditioned stimulus (UCS):** The natural stimulus that elicits a natural response. In Pavlov's experiment, the meat powder was the UCS.
- ii) **Unconditioned response (UCR):** The natural response elicited to the natural stimulus. In Pavlov's experiment, the salivation was the UCR.
- iii) **Conditioned stimulus (CS):** The neutral stimulus that does not naturally elicit the target response, but may do so after being associated with the UCS for a number of times. In Pavlov's experiment, the light or the sound of the bell was the CS.
- iv) **Conditioned response (CR):** The target response similar to the UCR that originally occurred to the UCS only, but after conditioning occurred to CS, even in absence of the UCS. In Pavlov's experiment, the salivation that occurred in response to the light or bell was the CR. You must remember here that the UCR and the CR are similar but not the same. Pavlov noticed that the amount of salivation was less in response to the light / bell in comparison to the original salivation in response to meat powder.

Box 1

Before conditioning:

UCS (food) ————— UCR (salivation)

NS (bell) ————— No salivation

During conditioning

CS (bell) ————— UCS (food) ————— UCR (salivation)

After conditioning

CS (bell) ————— CR (salivation)

(UCS -unconditioned stimulus, UCR- unconditioned response, NS- neutral stimulus, CS- conditioned stimulus, CR -conditioned response)

You must remember that classical conditioning is not limited to salivation and similar other anticipatory approach responses only. One may condition anticipatory withdrawal responses as well. Pavlov examined this phenomenon by delivering an electric shock to the paw of the dog. On each learning trial, the bell rang and the shock was delivered immediately after. The reflexive withdrawal of the paw, a natural response to the shock, now started to take place after the sound of the bell and before delivery of the actual shock.

Box 2

Before conditioning : An electric shock given to the dog ——— Dog withdrawing its paw
Ring the bell ————— No withdrawal of the paw by dog

During conditioning :

Ring the bell ——— Give electric shock to the paw of the dog ——— dog withdraws its paw

After conditioning :

Ring the bell ————— Dog withdraws its paw

Pavlov used the term ‘*acquisition*’ to denote the new learning. In classical conditioning the acquisition occurs due to *temporal contiguity of the stimuli*, or association in time. In the following section we would see how varying this association may influence the learnt behaviour.

Self Assessment Questions 1

1) Who was Ivan Petrovich Pavlov? What is he famous for?

.....

2) What is classical conditioning?

.....

3) Tick the correct answer for questions a, b and c :

a) In Pavlov’s experiment, the sound of the bell was the

- (i) UCS (ii) CS (iii) UCR (iv) CR

b) In Pavlov’s experiment, food was

- (i) UCS (ii) CS (iii) UCR (iv) CR

c) In Pavlov’s experiment salivation is the index of

- i) both UCS and UCR and they are identical.
- ii) both UCS and CR and they are identical.
- iii) both UCS and CS but they are not identical.
- iv) both UCR and CR but they are not identical.

1.3.3 Principles of Classical Conditioning

Now you know that the food was given to the dog just after the light / sound of the bell and conditioning resulted. Have you thought what would happen if the sound of the bell came after the food? Have you considered whether the bell would continue to elicit salivation if meat powder was not given to the dog for a number of times?

After formulation of basic principles of classical conditioning, Pavlov engaged himself in exploring and illustrating some of principles of classical conditioning. In the following sections you would learn about some such *principles*.

i) **Reinforcement:** You know that you can elicit a conditioned response by the pairing of CS and UCS. Since UCS (meat powder) comes later than CS (bell), the presentation of CS alone elicits salivation. But you need to give the dog the UCS consistently after the bell. So here meat powder serves as the reinforcer, as it strengthens the bond between the CS and the UCR (salivation in this case).

Reinforcement is a very important concept in conditioning. Reinforcement refers to the presentation or removal of a stimulus to maintain or increase the probability of a target response. Reinforcement may be primary or secondary and positive or negative. Primary reinforcers are those that satisfy a basic need. The food in

Pavlov's experiment is a primary reinforcer. If the same experiment is conducted on a child and she is handed over a chocolate as her reward, that will be secondary reinforcer, as chocolates are not essential for survival. Secondary reinforcers are rewarding or punishing because they have been associated with a primary reinforcer earlier in time. A positive reinforcer is one that is pleasurable to the organism. A negative reinforcer is one which is unpleasurable to the organism. While food is a positive reinforcer to connect salivation with sound, electric shock might be a negative reinforcer to connect paw flexion with sound.

Timing of reinforcement is important. It has been observed that the first few trials of the conditioning experiment are of special importance. The major bulk of acquisition occurs during this period. A plateau may be seen in the learning curve during the later trials. Also, the CS must precede or occur almost simultaneously with the UCS. It loses much of its conditioning power if it is presented after the UCS.

- ii) **Extinction:** What will happen if you do not reinforce the association between the CS and UCS? In other words, after conditioning is established, you sound the bell but do not reward the dog by giving meat powder? You will observe that after a few such trials with no reinforcer, the salivation still occurs, but in a decreased amount. Gradually, as the unreinforced trials continue, the dog would stop salivating in response to the sound of the bell. What you have here is a case of extinction. The conditioned response has been made extinct, or in other words, deconditioning has taken place as a result of failure to reinforce the association.
- iii) **Spontaneous recovery:** Sometimes, after extinction, and after a time interval with no exposure to CS, the conditioned response may suddenly come back if the CS is given once again. The dog's salivation to the bell has been stopped. The bell has also not been sounded for a considerable time. If after this gap the bell is suddenly sounded, the dog may start salivating once again. Since this phenomenon of reappearance seems to appear from no known cause, it is referred to as spontaneous recovery. However, the intensity of this recovered response is usually less than the original response. After spontaneous recovery, if the CR is reinforced, the learning comes back. If reinforcement is still not given, permanent extinction may take place.
- iv) **Stimulus generalisation:** Will the dog salivate only in response to the sound of the specific bell or to the specific light? Will it respond by salivating to other bells as well? Pavlov conducted further experiments to examine these questions. He initially made a standard UCS-CS connection of food and a specific sound of a bell. On test trials, he substituted the original sound with other sounds varying in similarity. He found that the dog salivated to other sounds as well, but the amount of salivation was proportional to the similarity of the sound of the bell to the original CS. More similar the sound to the original CS, greater the amount of salivation, and less similar the sound, less is the salivation. This phenomenon is known as stimulus generalisation.

The dogs was not given any food as reinforce during test trails; that is no new association of the second sound with food was established. Generalisation occurred spontaneously from the original learning trials. From the generalisation to stimuli of different degrees of similarity with the original CS, a gradient of conditioned response can also be obtained. After conditioning the salivation of the dog to the sound of the bell, you can give another sound of the test trial, which is slightly different in pitch from the original bell. The amount of salivation

will be slightly less than the conditioned response. If on another test trial you expose the dog to even another sound which is a bit more dissimilar to the original CS, the amount of salivation will be even less. Thus for successively less similar stimuli, decreasing amount of salivation will be obtained. You will get, as a result, a gradient of conditioned response.

- v) **Discrimination:** This is the opposite of generalisation. You have learnt that generalisation occurs to stimuli similar to the CS. But if stimuli similar to the CS and eliciting the CR are presented repeatedly without *ever* being associated with the UCS, those stimuli will cease to elicit the CR, thus enabling discrimination between similar stimuli. Suppose the original CS is the sound of a bell that we call B. The dog learns to salivate to B, and also salivates to B1 and B2 through generalisation. However, if B1 is systematically reinforced and B2 is not reinforced, then the dog will respond differentially to B1 and B2. It will salivate to B1 and not to B2.
- vi) **Counter conditioning:** Once conditioned, ever conditioned? Of course not. As you can extinct an acquired learning, you can also counter condition it by associating the CS with UCS of different nature. For example, you can first condition a dog to withdraw its paw at the sound of a bell, as the bell is systematically followed by a shock. Then you can countercondition it by systematically pairing the same sound to food. Now the dog may be conditioned to salivate to the sound of the bell.

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) Write True (T) or False (F) beside each statement:
- a) Repeated exposure of the CS without reinforcement will lead to extinction ()
 - b) The animal, after conditioning will respond with the conditioned response to the specific stimulus only and not to other similar stimuli ()
 - c) Once conditioning has taken place, it cannot be changed ()
- 2) Tick the correct answer
- a) A cat has been subjected to a red light immediately before an electric shock. As a result it has learnt to withdraw its paw when it sees the red light. Subsequently it is being exposed to a red light immediately before getting food.
This is an example of (i) reinforcement (ii) counter conditioning (iii) discrimination (iv) extinction.
 - b) A rabbit has been exposed to a red light before being delivered a pellet of cabbage leaf. As a result it salivates to red light alone. Subsequently the experimenter wants to see if it can generalise its learning.
Which of the following stimuli would be appropriate to demonstrate generalisation?
(i) cauliflower leaf (ii) blue light (iii) pieces of carrot (iv) orange light

1.4 IMPLICATIONS OF PAVLOV'S CLASSICAL CONDITIONING IN UNDERSTANDING PERSONALITY

So far we had been dealing with dogs. But we started the chapter with your little daughter. How do we pass on from the dog's saliva to the baby's fear? How far this fear conditioned in your daughter may make her an anxious woman throughout her life? In this section, you will learn about the application of classical conditioning principles to complex human behaviour and personality characteristics.

Pavlov's lead was followed by a number of behaviourists. They conducted experiments with conditioning and deconditioning of various emotional and social behaviours. Among the earlier works in this direction, the most famous is the case of Little Albert reported by John Broadus Watson (1878 - 1958).

1.4.1 Conditioned Emotional Responses - the Case of Little Albert

A classic experiment conducted by John B. Watson and Rosalie Rayner in 1920. Watson was an ardent behaviourist and a critic of complex psychoanalytical explanation of emotion (Watson, 1913, 1920). They worked with an 11 month old boy called Albert. Watson and Rayner were able to instil fear of rats in the boy. Initially, Albert was not afraid of rats and used to play with rats fondly. Watson and Rayner exposed the boy to white rats and simultaneously made a very loud sound by the bang of a hammer on a suspended steel rod. The loud sound produced a startle response in the boy. After a series of such exposures, Albert showed signs of fear of rats. Gradually his fear was generalised to many other furry objects like rabbit, dog and also cotton balls.

Watson and Rayner claimed that this experiment proved that irrational fear of apparently harmless things is not due to deep emotional complexes but owing to simple temporal association of fear generating objects.

Although you might think that the results are straight forward enough, actually there are a few gaps. Later investigations suggested that Albert's fear was perhaps neither as strong as claimed, nor as much generalised. There was a gross ethical violation involved as well, at least by today's standard. Albert's fear was never de conditioned.

(Source: You can see the experiment of Albert by Watson and Rayner in the internet by clicking <<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iYEIUVByBGc>>)

Watson and Rayner succeeded to show that at least some degree of conditioning of emotional reactions is possible. It has further been supported by the clinical cases where de conditioning of irrational fear has been made. In 1924, Mary Cover Jones reported de conditioning of a 3 year old boy's fear of rabbit. This boy, called Peter was exposed to other children who were not afraid of rabbits. The presence of rabbit was also associated in time with pleasurable activities and playful words. Gradually through a repeated association of rabbit with pleasant things, Peter could outgrow his fear. This experiment also paves the way for using classical conditioning principles in therapeutic setting. In the following section, we will learn about the classical conditioning of attitudes.

1.4.2 Classical Conditioning of Social Attitude

Suppose you meet a person for the first time in your life during a lunch session of workshop or a seminar. After a brief discussion / interaction what are your reactions about the person. How do you judge the person? Exactly this question has been explored by Gregory Razran in the late 30s. Razran (1940) elicited the ethnic bias for or against certain photographs of women. Initially he found that his subjects rather disliked women of ethnic minority origin and considered Jewish women and intelligent and ambitious in comparison to the Italian women. However, when the subjects judged the same pictures during a nice free lunch, the differences in attitude reduced considerably. Razran concluded that the positive association with food reduces the negative bias considerably.

The modern management gurus have embraced the implications. They call it the 'luncheon technique' As you know, many business deals are finalised over a sumptuous dinner. Association of gastronomic pleasure increases the probability of looking at the proposal in a more positive way.

1.4.3 Psychopathological Conditions Explained by Classical Conditioning

Pavlov himself attempted to explain 'experimental neurosis'. In 1921 an experiment with dogs had been conducted by Shenger-Krestovnikova. A dog was initially trained to respond by producing excitatory salivation to a circular stimulus. Then it was trained to produce inhibitory withdrawal response to an elliptical stimulus. Subsequently the difference between the circle and the ellipse were reduced. The dog reacted by howling and struggling – a behaviour that resembles human psychopathology. Pavlov reasoned that the dog's neurosis was due to a collision of excitatory and inhibitory tendencies.

More sophisticated explanation of psychopathology using the classical conditioning paradigm has been offered as the knowledge of conditioning of emotions and attitudes have grown. Indeed, the case of Little Albert, or of your daughter, is an example of phobia made into the child through classical conditioning. Phobia and other anxiety disorders are sometimes explained by the principles of classical conditioning.

Another common example of classical conditioning may be enuresis. Enuresis means inability to control urination in older children or adults, especially during sleep. You may interpret enuresis as inadequate bodily conditioning to wake up when the bladder is full. Normally we are conditioned to wake up when urination is about to take place. For the patient of enuresis this conditioning might be absent or faulty. If this explanation is accepted, you can plan treatment of enuresis by establishing classical conditioning.

Actually that is what the doctors suggest for treating enuresis. The standard instruction by the doctor to family members is to awaken the patient at fixed times during the night and take her to the toilet. Gradually the patient becomes conditioned to wake up after the specific time interval following going to bed.

Other examples may be obtained from the group of somatoform disorders. Take somatoform pain disorder as an instance. You may recall your school friend who always suffered from a stomach ache whenever she had to attend the class of a particular teacher. Of course, the teacher and some of the classmates also considered it a feigned complain. Yet you remember how she always vouched for the stomach ache to be a real one. One possibility is that she had some repeated unpleasant

encounters with the teacher. The tension associated in those instances caused severe gastric contraction in her for a few times. Then it got conditioned to the teacher's presence, and each time she had to encounter this teacher, she felt the gastric contraction, even though the events for tension were absent.

You must remember that while the explanation by classical conditioning may be tenable in some instances of psychopathology, in most cases, the causes are much more complex. However, attempt to treat such pathologies with deconditioning of faulty acquisition and counter conditioning in a desirable manner has been successful at least partially in treatment of such disorders. In the next section we shall get acquainted with such principles of psychotherapeutic intervention based on classical conditioning.

1.5 APPLICATION OF CLASSICAL CONDITIONING IN PSYCHOTHERAPY

Let us discuss the therapeutic techniques that utilise the principles of classical conditioning. The most well known application is in case of systematic desensitisation. Consider a case of phobia. In phobia, as in case of Little Albert, the person is irrationally afraid of certain neutral things. You may assume that the fear is the result of some kind of classical conditioning. Therefore the principles of extinction and counter conditioning may be used to free the person from the irrational fear.

The technique of systematic desensitisation was introduced by a psychologist named Joseph Wolpe (1915-1997). In this technique, the subject is exposed to the object of fear in a graded manner. Suppose, as in Albert's case, the rat is the object of irrational fear. As therapist you must design a step by step exposure to rat. Initially you may show him a picture of the rat from a distance and ensure he is fully relaxed. When the picture is acceptable to the child and he is relaxed enough, a plastic model of rat may be shown to him. Gradually you may try a live rat, but from a distance so that the child is not traumatized. When the child accepts the rat at a distance, you may gradually think of bringing it closer to him. This is utilisation of the principle of extinction. But your work will be facilitated if you also associate something pleasant with the rat. For example, every time the picture of the rat is shown to the child, you may offer him a candy. The child will learn to associate rat with something pleasant. Thus along with extinction, you may also utilise the principle of counter conditioning.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) Tick the correct answer
 - a) The case of Little Albert demonstrates that
 - i) social attitudes can be conditioned, ii) emotions can be conditioned, iii) fear can be de conditioned, iv) classical conditioning can be used in therapy.
 - b) The psychologist who developed the notion of systematic desensitization was:
 - i) Joseph Wolpe, ii) Gregory Razran, iii) Rosalie Rayner, iv) Ivan Pavlov.
 - c) Social attitudes can be brought in one's favour by associating the object of attitude with (i) unpleasant stimuli (ii) systematic graded exposure (iii) pleasant stimuli (iv) persuasion.

2) Give the suitable answers to the following:

i) What is Luncheon technique?
.....
.....
.....
.....

ii) What is aversion therapy?
.....
.....
.....
.....

1.6 CRITICAL EVALUATION OF CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

Classical conditioning has been criticized for providing a mechanical view of human behaviour. It ignores the role of cognitive factors in learning. There are ample evidences that cognitive factors like motivation, expectation and attitudes help or hinder learning. Particularly in the case of human beings, cognitive factors are of immense importance. In fact, it has been observed that if a stimulus is well exposed to the animal or human before conditioning, then it cannot be used easily as a conditioned stimulus (CS). That is already formed ‘attitudes’ hinder its use as a CS. Thus classical conditioning is not as simple and mechanistic as it seems. Consider the case of the child suffering from oppositional defiance disorder. The aggressive motive of the child may far surpass the impact of simple reinforcements and the disruptive behaviour continues till the cognitive and affective parts are taken care of. Similarly, consider the case of physically challenged persons like Helen Keller who, by sheer motivation and grit succeeded to overcome the handicaps. Perhaps, the principles of classical conditioning are not adequate for explaining such cases.

A second criticism has come from the strict biological standpoint. You cannot condition any species beyond its biological limitation. Furthermore the biological instinct to survive interacts with the conditioning paradigm. It is easy to condition a person to hate and avoid specific food, but conditioning the same person to hate and avoid flowers would be much more difficult. One is biologically more predisposed to be afraid of poisoned food for basic survival reasons than of poisoned flowers. The critics assert that classical conditioning in such cases is just working on the biological predispositions.

A third critique of application of classical conditioning has come from ethical perspective. There have been unconfirmed reports of classical conditioning being used unethically on war prisoners of different countries, and unethical use of classical conditioning in advertisements.

All of these criticisms point out correctly to the limitation of classical conditioning principles. But that hardly makes it redundant. In fact, in recent years, the interest in classical conditioning principles has been renewed, as it has been observed that our immunity system may be classically conditioned (Ader and Cohen, 2001; Niemi, 2006) and therefore, these principles seem to have impact on our health.

1.7 LET US SUM UP

What did we learn in this Unit? We have learnt about the concept of classical conditioning as the acquisition of a response to a neutral stimulus when the neutral stimulus has been associated temporally with a stimulus that naturally elicits the specific response. In this context we have learnt about the work of Ivan Petrovich Pavlov and his famous experiment. We have learnt that classical conditioning occurs for reflexes and is maintained by a CS-UCS bond in time, the UCS serving as the reinforcement. We have also covered the principles of classical conditioning, particularly extinction, spontaneous recovery, generalisation and discrimination, and counter conditioning. We have learnt how emotions and social attitudes can be conditioned. In this context, we have read the experiment of Watson and Reyner on Little Albert. Then we have learnt how different psychopathological conditions can come about through classical conditioning and as examples we have discussed phobia, enuresis and somatoform disorders. We have learnt how classical conditioning principles can be used for therapeutic purposes, through systematic desensitisation and aversion therapy. Finally we have discussed the major critics of classical conditioning from cognitive, biological and ethical perspectives and have concluded that despite limitations, the significance of classical conditioning in human behaviour cannot be denied.

1.8 GLOSSARY

- Classical conditioning** : Classical conditioning is an associative learning technique where a naturally occurring stimulus generating a specific response is paired with a neutral stimulus. After repeated pairing, the previously neutral stimulus elicits the specific response even in absence of the naturally occurring stimulus.
- Unconditioned stimulus** : In the classical conditioning paradigm, an unconditional stimulus is the natural stimulus that evokes a natural response.
- Conditioned stimulus** : In the classical conditioning paradigm, a conditional stimulus is the previously neutral stimulus which, after conditioning, is capable of evoking a response that occurred earlier only to the natural (unconditional) stimulus.
- Unconditioned response** : In the classical conditioning paradigm, an unconditional response is the natural response that is evoked by a natural stimulus.
- Conditioned response** : In the classical conditioning paradigm, a conditional response is the response which occurred earlier only to natural stimulus, but after conditioning is evoked by the conditioned stimulus, which was, earlier, a neutral stimulus.
- Reinforcement** : Reinforcement is an event or a condition that increases the likelihood of a specified response. In the classical conditioning paradigm, the unconditioned stimulus itself acts as reinforcement.

- Extinction** : In the classical conditioning paradigm, when a conditioned stimulus ceases to be paired with an unconditioned stimulus for a number of times the occurrences of a conditioned response decrease or disappear. This is known as extinction.
- Spontaneous recovery** : In the classical conditioning paradigm, spontaneous recovery is the sudden reappearance of the conditioned response following a rest period after extinction.
- Stimulus generalisation** : In classical conditioning paradigm, stimulus generalisation is the tendency of the conditioned response to occur to stimulus similar to the conditioned stimulus.
- Discrimination** : In classical conditioning paradigm, discrimination refers to the condition where an organism learns to produce a conditioned response to one stimulus but not to another similar stimulus, as the latter has been systematically kept non-reinforced.
- Counter conditioning** : Counter conditioning is a replacement of an undesirable conditioned response by a desirable one, by changing the association of conditioned and unconditioned stimulus.
- Systematic desensitisation** : A therapeutic technique based on classical conditioning. The client is exposed to the phobic object or its image in graded stages, starting from a point where she is fully relaxed, and then guided progressively toward staying relaxed even in situations where she experienced intense fear.
- Aversion therapy** : A therapeutic technique used to modify undesirable habits. The client's real or imagined undesirable behaviour is associated with an aversive or painful stimulus. It is expected that after repeated pairing the aversive response would be generated by the undesirable habit itself.

1.9 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Examine the role of reinforcement in classical conditioning.
- 2) Define and give examples of extinction and spontaneous recovery.
- 3) Differentiate between extinction and counterconditioning.
- 4) Differentiate between generalisation and discrimination in classical conditioning.
- 5) Discuss with suitable examples, the classical conditioning of psychopathology.
- 6) 'Systematic desensitisation is an example of application of classical conditioning in therapy' - illustrate with example.
- 7) Discuss the criticisms of classical conditioning.

1.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, C.S. and Lindzey, A. (1997). *Theories of Personality*, New York, Wiley

Liebert, R. M. & Spiegler, M. D. (1987) *Personality: Strategies and Issues*. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.

Pervin, L. A. & John, O. P. (1997) *Personality: Theory and Research*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Internet source: [http:// www. Youtube.com/watch? v=CpolxEN54ho& feature=related](http://www.Youtube.com/watch?v=CpolxEN54ho&feature=related).

1.11 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) Ivan Petrovich Pavlov was a Russian physiologist. He is famous for his experiment on classical conditioning using dog's salivary response.
- 2) Classical conditioning is learning by association, whereby a neutral stimulus, by virtue of its occurrence in close time and space with a natural stimulus that gives rise to a natural response, becomes capable of eliciting that natural response, even in absence of the natural stimulus.

Correct answers are:

- i) both UCS and UCR and they are identical.
- ii) both UCS and CR and they are identical.
- iv) both UCR and CR but they are not identical

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) a) True b) False c) False
- 2) a) counter conditioning b) orange light

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) a) emotions can be conditioned
b) Joseph Wolpe
c) pleasant stimuli
- 2) i) Luncheon technique is a management technique based on classical conditioning principle. Here a business proposal is presented with a well arranged lunch or dinner party, so that the association of good food makes the key decision makers more inclined toward accepting the proposal.
ii) Aversion therapy is a technique based on classical conditioning. Here, the undesirable behaviour which the therapist wants removed is paired with an aversive stimulus, so that the undesirable behaviour itself turns out to be aversive to the subject.

UNIT 2 OPERANT CONDITIONING BY SKINNER

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Concept of Operant Behaviour and Operant Conditioning
- 2.3 Skinner's Experiment on Classical Conditioning
 - 2.3.1 The Experiment
 - 2.3.2 Interpretations of the Results of the Experiment
 - 2.3.3 Measuring Operant Behaviour
- 2.4 Functional Analysis of Behaviour
 - 2.4.1 Shaping
 - 2.4.2 Reinforcements in Operant Conditioning and its Schedules
 - 2.4.3 Punishment
 - 2.4.4 Generalisation and Discrimination in Operant Conditioning
- 2.5 Operant Conditioning and Human Behaviour
 - 2.5.1 Skinner's View of Human Nature
 - 2.5.2 Psychopathology from Operant Conditioning Perspective
 - 2.5.3 Operant Conditioning of Social Attitudes
- 2.6 Application of Skinnerian Principles to Psychotherapy
- 2.7 Critical Analysis of Skinner's Approach to Personality
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- 2.10 Unit End Questions
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- 2.12 Answers to Self Assessment Questions

2.0 INTRODUCTION

".....the traditional view supports Hamlet's exclamation, '*How like a god!*' Pavlov, the behavioural scientist emphasised '*How like a dog!*' But that was a step forward.....".

These lines are from the book 'Beyond Freedom and Dignity' by Burrhus Frederick Skinner.

Did you smile as you read the above quotation? If you did, why? "Oh, the lines are humorous", you would say. Professor Skinner would object immediately. "It explains nothing", he would affirm, "lines cannot be humorous by themselves". If you modify your answer and state that you were simply tickled by the contrast of man as god and man as dog, Skinner would accuse you of being vague and mentalist.

Analyse how you have learnt to laugh in response to inconsistent stimuli, Skinner would suggest. What were the antecedents of your smile? What followed it? Did you, now or earlier, get any positive feedback after learning to laugh in response to incongruous ideas? Did the similarity of the letters used to spell 'god' and 'dog' add to your 'fun'? How did you learn that when similar things connote the opposites it is funny? Would you still laugh if you get an electric shock after every smile?

You learn to laugh, to cry, to love, to hate as a result of rewards and punishments, Skinner opines. You learn, from environmental feedback, every single habit and attitude that makes you what you are. You learn through getting rewards and punishments. The duty of a psychologist is to analyse behaviour and to identify the environmental contingencies that made your learning possible. Nothing is granted, nothing is given just because you are born a human. You must make the tortuous journey of learning at each single step of life. If, as a scientist, you can observe these elements of learning in an individual and analyse the antecedents and consequents of each unit of behaviour, Skinner asserts that you have moved a step forward.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- 1 Discuss the concept of operant conditioning;
- 1 Describe Skinner's classic experiment on operant conditioning;
- 1 Explain the concept of functional analysis of behaviour;
- 1 Discuss skinner's view pertaining to human nature, psychopathology and social attitudes;
- 1 Discuss the application of operant conditioning in psychotherapeutic settings; and
- 1 Critically evaluate Skinner's operant conditioning approach to personality.

2.2 CONCEPT OF OPERANT BEHAVIOUR AND OPERANT CONDITIONING

B. F. Skinner's (1904 - 1990) was an American. His experiments on operant conditioning won him world wide fame. Skinner defined operant conditioning as the process of learning that elicits operant behaviour. So, what is operant behaviour?

According to Skinner, there are two types of behaviours, namely *respondent behaviour and operant behaviour*. You blink your eye in response to a flash of light. This reflexive behaviour is elicited directly by the environment. So this is respondent behaviour - spontaneous response to stimuli. But most of our behaviours are not so simply generated by the environment. You are not forced by the environment to look at this book, to talk, to sing, and to eat. These behaviours are emitted by you, the individual. Through such behaviours, you operate upon the environment. These are called operant behaviours.

You might argue that we eat because we are hungry, and so it cannot be operant behaviour. But eating as a process is not a direct response to hunger, as is gastric secretion. To eat, you have to locate the bread on the plate on your table, stretch your hand, grab it and bring the hand back to your mouth, put the bread in your mouth and chew and swallow. How did you know that you have to go through this complicated chain of behavioural units to reduce the uncomfortable sensation in

your stomach? You have seen from your experiences, that if you put certain kinds of things in your mouth and chew and swallow it, your hunger pang reduces. This had been a rewarding experience for you. You have also seen that the food does not automatically jump into your mouth. You have to pick it up and put it in your mouth. Thus, a series of rewards have taught you this process of finding, picking and eating. Again, you would not grab the food by hand if it were burning hot. You had learnt that the pain of touching something hot is unpleasant. The punishment had taught you to pick it with a fork. Skinner claims that we learn most of our operant behaviours through this kind of consequences. If the consequence is favourable, we tend to repeat the behaviour. If the consequence is unpleasant we tend to refrain from doing it.

2.3 SKINNER'S EXPERIMENT ON CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

Skinner as a young research scholar at Harvard University conducted a series of experiments on animals to formalise his idea of operant conditioning. Some of you may have heard of the '*Skinner Box*', which is a sort of mini laboratory for acquiring operant behaviour. In this section you would learn how Skinner conducted his experiments with the help of this box and what its implications are for behaviour modification.

2.3.1 The Experiment

The Skinner box is a simple box used to condition operant behaviour in animals. This box usually contains a lever, or some other device which must be manipulated to get some reward. In his classic experiment Skinner placed a semi-starved rat in the box. There was a lever which, after being pressed, released a mechanism to deliver a pellet of food to the rat. Initially, the rat is engaged in a number of random behaviours like walking, sniffing and scratching. None of these helped to get the food. At some point of time, the rat accidentally hit the lever and the food was delivered. Of course, for the semi-starved rat, this was a big reward. Skinner observed that after a few accidental manipulations of the lever, the rat started spending more time near the lever, and then deliberately pressed the lever whenever it was hungry. So now pressing the lever became a new operant for the rat.

Skinner further noted that if the pressing of the lever did not deliver food any longer, the operant behaviour by the rat decreased and gradually stopped altogether. This is known as *experimental extinction* of operant conditioning. You may note its similarity with the concept of extinction in classical conditioning that you learnt in the Unit 1.

2.3.2 Interpretations of the Results of the Experiment

You have now learnt about Skinner's experiment, but what does it imply? In Skinnerian terms, every random behaviour that the rat demonstrated within the box was also some kind of operant behaviour. But these have been conditioned in the rat prior to your working upon it. The rat had been rewarded earlier for each of these behaviours. For example, earlier, it had scratched a paper packet and food had spilled from it. But now, within the Skinner box, none of them succeeded to reduce its hunger. Then accidentally another behaviour (pressing of lever), which was completely new for the rat, brought about the reward. The food served as the reinforcer to strengthen this new operant. As in successive trials, the newly acquired behaviour continued to be rewarded, the probability of its occurrence also increased.

Skinner developed his thesis of environmental determination of behaviour. The first pressing of the lever by the rat was accidental. But this accidental behaviour could be 'shaped' into a relatively long lasting modification in behavioural repertoire by manipulating its consequences in a specified direction. One significant point in Skinner's view is that *learning is determined by the consequences of the behaviour and not by the antecedents*. Antecedents provide the context, but consequents really decide whether the behaviour would be conditioned or not. You may readily understand that this is a rather provocative statement and opens up a large number of possibilities for manipulation of human behaviour.

2.3.3 Measuring Operant Behaviour

Quantification of operant behaviour was crucial to Skinner's work. He needed to demonstrate that through appropriate use of reward and punishment you can actually increase the probability of occurrence of a conditioned operant behaviour. Therefore Skinner introduced the *rate of occurrence of the target behaviour* as the measure of operant conditioning. He simply counted how many times the learnt behaviour has taken place within a given time. In fact, he used the *cumulative frequency* of the operant behaviour as the final indicator. If you put it in a graphical form you will readily see whether the probability of the occurrence of that behaviour has actually increased over time.

Take for example, the lever pressing behaviour of the rat which it learnt in three hours. Let us say we divide the total time in three equal units, one hour each. In the first hour the rat was more engaged in random behaviour. At the end of the first hour it accidentally pressed the lever and food was delivered. During this second hour, it also pressed the lever three times more. Then it started staying close to the lever, and in the third and final hour pressed the lever deliberately ten times.

When the rat pressed the lever 10 times it clearly indicated that the rat has learnt that behaviour which Skinner wanted it to learn – that is, pressing the lever when hungry in order to satiate the hunger.

Self Assessment Questions 1

1) What is an operant?

.....
.....
.....

2) Tick the correct answer:

- a) Skinner's theory states that if a behaviour is rewarded its probability of occurrence is
 - (i) stabilized (ii) increased (iii) decreased (iii) tending to zero
- b) The Skinner Box is a box where the rat is
 - (i) fed and tended (ii) observed for natural behaviour (iii) taught to follow instructions (iv) taught new behaviour
- c) Skinner suggested that as a measure of operant conditioning we should use
 - (i) the number of reinforcements given for training (ii) the number of errors committed (iii) the number of frequency of occurrence of the behaviour (iv) none of the above.

2.4 FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR

Skinner stated that Psychology is as yet unprepared for theory building as we do not have enough data to justify our theory. Therefore he suggested that instead of proposing a readymade theory of personality we should go for *Functional Analysis of Behaviour*. To conduct functional analysis of behaviour you must intensively observe the behaviour of the organism and conduct repeated experiments to establish the relationship of a behaviour with its antecedents and consequents. If during this observation, you hypothesize any inner state like 'thinking' or 'feeling', Skinner would disapprove them as redundant. You are supposed to observe only what you can measure in terms of rate of occurrence.

Thus, according to Skinner, the functional analysis of behaviour must be done in terms of two observable things – the operant defined as specific observable behaviour and the consequence that lies outside the organism in the environment.

Skinner's main interest in functional analysis of behaviour lies in its potential to divide complex chunks of behaviours in manageable smaller units. For example, your act of reading this paragraph. You can divide it in reading of letters, words and sentences. The discrete straight and curve lines make the letters. You had learnt it through earlier reward punishment process. As you read letters, you may form words. Similarly each word joins to make a meaningful sentence. All these have been conditioned into you in your childhood through manipulating consequences. So if you report your difficulty in reading this paragraph, based on functional analysis of behaviour you would analyse which part is problematic for you, letters, words, sentences and with appropriate reinforcement condition you can correct the problem and shape it your desired way. In fact, this is exactly what you would need to do with a child with learning disorder.

2.4.1 Shaping

Have you ever seen a potter making an earthen doll? Have you seen how he takes fistfuls of wet earth, makes a clumsy elongated mass around a bamboo or wooden frame, and then with the skill and quick pressure of his fingers gradually brings out the intended shape? You may not recognise at first what he is working about, but soon you recognise the head and body, the hands and legs separately. You may observe him working on the doll's face. You would see the specific parts emerging from the mass - the nose, the forehead, the cheek, the chin, the lips, even the parting of the hair. You recognize the eyes too. Soon it is a face - waiting to be coloured. The potter, through his skill, slowly but surely approximates the final shape by changing small aspects of the original shapeless lump. According to Skinner, animals and human beings behaviour are also shaped by the environment.

Shaping is an extremely important concept in operant conditioning as it refers to the application of its principles of behaviour modification. Shaping means modification of the organism's behaviour to the experimenter's desired end. Shaping does not occur all in one go, Skinner says. It takes place only through '*successive approximations*'. Suppose you are trying to modify a child's behaviour by selectively rewarding the response desired by you. Before the ultimate desired behaviour is enacted, the child's usually engaged in numerous other behaviours which may be considered as steps to the final behaviour. They are close to the target, but not the target per se. If these approximate target behaviours are rewarded, shaping is facilitated.

Skinner discovered this principle of successive approximation rather accidentally. He was conditioning a pigeon to swipe a ball with its beak movement which in turn would release a food magazine. The pigeon was not lucky enough. After waiting for the accidental success to happen for a long time Skinner was bored. So, just casually, he decided to reward any behaviour that might lead toward the target behaviour, even if it is as simple as glancing at the ball. As these approximate behaviours were successively rewarded, to Skinner's surprise, the total process was quickened. Very soon 'the ball was caroming off the walls of the box as if the pigeon had been a champion squash player' (Skinner, 1938, p. 38). Rewarding of the simpler step has automatically led to the next higher step and so on. (This is successive approximation)

How would you know which behaviours are approximating the target? Skinner proposed that you need to do the functional analysis of behaviour for understanding and controlling shaping. This analysis will help you to identify the elements of the final behaviour as well as the possible successive steps to it. For each small step you must identify the antecedents and consequents. The antecedent will lead to the next step and the consequent will reinforce it. This kind of breaking down of behaviour into *antecedent - behaviour - consequent* chain is famously known as *ABC technique*.

As each step is rewarded (or punished), the learner automatically proceeds to the next step. Thus through successive approximation to the target she finally reaches the desired behaviour. This is, according to Skinner, the fundamental principle of shaping. Furthermore, for shaping, you need to deliver reinforcements and punishments in an intelligently pre-determined manner. In the following subsections you would learn about different types of reinforcements and punishments.

2.4.2 Reinforcements in Operant Conditioning and its Schedules

In the Unit 1 on Classical conditioning you have been acquainted with the concept of reinforcement. It is defined as those events, which through their absence or presence, increase the probability of the target behaviour. In the context of operant conditioning also, reinforcement has a significant role. However, reinforcement takes on somewhat different meanings in classical and operant conditioning. In classical conditioning, reinforcement is identical with unconditioned stimulus. For Pavlov's dog, food was the UCS as well as positive reinforcer, and electric shock was the UCS and the negative reinforcer. But in operant conditioning, the concept of CS and UCS are not applicable, as we are concerned with shaping of target behaviour. So here reinforcement comes separately as a consequence of desirable behaviour. It simply serves to strengthen the response. The food pellet emerges only if the lever is pressed, and not otherwise. So it is contingent upon operant behaviour and strengthens the same.

Positive and negative reinforcement: As in classical conditioning, reinforcements can be positive and negative in operant conditioning also. Positive reinforcers are those pleasurable consequences of behaviour that make the behaviour more probable. Example is praise from the teacher after being able to tell the square root of 169. Negative reinforcers are those unpleasurable consequences of not producing the target behaviour that makes the behaviour more probable. For example, the teacher asks you the square root of 169 and looks with fiery eyes at you. He will continue to do it till you give the correct answer. By producing the desired response, you terminate the look - the negative reinforcer.

Primary and secondary reinforcement: Reinforcements may be primary – that is concerned with our basic needs. Or it can be secondary or conditioned, acquiring its reinforcement value only through association with the primary reinforcer. Food is a primary reinforcer. But if you make me work for money or for sweet words, you are using the secondary or conditioned reinforcer. We can neither eat nor drink nor sleep money; yet we are all reinforced by money because of its symbolic value through association. The famous tale of King Midas actually highlights the significance of primary reinforcer (food and water) over the secondary one (gold).

Schedules of reinforcement: You may wonder whether in operant conditioning we *always* reinforce the ‘correct’ behaviour? Does it work properly? What would happen if we decide to stop it? Indeed, you might think of your son whom you reinforce with a toffee for ‘being a good boy’, and after a few days, he just loses interest in the candy. He would neither be a good boy, nor would he care for your bribe. Can’t the same happen with rats and pigeons? The Skinnerians also attended to this problem and suggested that proper conditioning depends on intelligent scheduling of reinforcement.

You can schedule reinforcement for your operant conditioning experiment in various ways. Basically, it can be *Continuous or Intermittent*. In continuous reinforcement, the target behaviour is reinforced every time it occurs. Just as you always gave a candy to your son if he behaved. Intermittent or partial reinforcement means you reinforce the target behaviour at times, and not always.

What will be the basis of intermittent reinforcement? It may be based on *interval of time or ratio of responses*. Each of these again may be subdivided in *fixed or variable* scheduling.

Let us now consider the nature and example of each subtype of schedule of intermittent reinforcement.

Interval schedule: Interval scheduling means that reinforcement would be given after a certain time interval following the target behaviour. In *fixed interval schedule of reinforcement*, for example, you may decide to reinforce the rat’s first lever pressing response after every fifteen minutes. It is possible that within the fifteen minutes the rat had pressed the lever twice. But you wait for the fifteen minutes to pass and give the food pellet only after the first response after fifteen minutes. Again you wait for fifteen minutes irrespective of the rat’s behaviour. But you reward again the first desired response that occurs after the fifteen minutes had elapsed.

In *variable interval schedule of reinforcement*, the deliverance of the food pellet is varied randomly around an average time interval. For example, you may decide to reinforce the target behaviour of your subject around an average of 12 minutes interval. You can reinforce at a random schedule of 5, 12, 7, 20 and 16 minutes, the average of these being 12. So you reward the first target response, then wait for 5 minutes and reinforce the immediate next target response. Then you wait for 12 minutes and again reinforce the next immediate target response that takes place and so on. You can go for a completely different set of random variations if you wish.

Ratio Schedule: Ratio schedule refers to reinforcing the target behaviour after a specified number of behaviours. In *fixed ratio schedule*, you reinforce the target response after, say every five correct response, irrespective of the time elapsed. In *variable ratio schedule*, as in variable interval schedule, you reinforce the target behaviour after an unpredictable number of responses, but around an average number of responses.

Rate of learning in different schedules: The rate of learning differs in these different schedules. In fixed interval schedules, greater target behaviour is observed near the end of the schedule, but the rate falls down immediately after the delivery of the reward. The variable interval schedule produces a slow steady rate of response. In general, ratio scheduling produces better response than interval scheduling. Fixed ratio schedule results in a steady and high rate of response. The variable ratio scheduling has been found to be the best as it maintains a high level of expectation and thus produces a very high and steady rate of response.

Examples of different schedules of reinforcement from real life: Let us consider some examples from our school days to understand the application of various schedules of reinforcements in human life. Everyday and every time you greet a teacher by saying 'Good morning, teacher', you get a reply 'Good morning'. This is *continuous reinforcement*. You know this pleasant interaction is always there for you if you behave. Now let us try a few examples of intermittent or partial reinforcement. Remember the happiness you felt during the last ten minutes of the class? The bell for the end of class would sound after every one hour, and you would be released for a break. This is an example of *fixed interval reinforcement*. Suppose you love Madam B's classes, but she takes your class only when some regular teacher is absent. However, every week, usually two regular teachers are absent, and you get about 2 to 3 weekly classes of Madam B on an average. This is *variable interval reinforcement*.

Now for ratio scheduling. Consider your examination time. You have some questions which do not allow part marking. You have to answer all three components of the question and you get either 1 or 0 depending on whether you have done them all correct or not. So every three correct responses you earn a reward of one mark. This is a *fixed ratio reinforcement*.

For *variable ratio reinforcement*, consider the most knowledgeable but moody teacher you had. On some occasions, he/she would simply grunt if you give the correct answer. But sometimes, when you happen to satisfy he/ her by a brilliant stroke of idea, he/she would beam all over and heap praises on you. Getting a word of appreciation from her makes you feel special that day. Since he/her praise means a lot to you and you never know which answer would satisfy her most, you always try to give your best to her.

Outside the school premise and in the adult world, gambling is one example of variable ratio reinforcement. So are adventures in unpredictable conditions. Have you seen Charlie Chaplin in 'Gold rush' or Omar Sharif in 'Mackenna's Gold'? Did you ever wonder why people went at all for such indefinite prospects? An answer lies in the effectiveness of variable ratio scheduling of reinforcements. You know that out of thousands, some excavations would be rewarded with heaps of gold. And since there is no fixed rule, who knows, you might be the chosen one.

2.4.3 Punishment

All of us have been punished sometime or other in school for being inattentive or disobedient. How far those punishments have been successful in controlling the unruly behaviour? In the parlance of operant conditioning, punishment is that event or condition which, if consistently delivered following a response, will reduce the likelihood of the occurrence of that response. Each time you talk with your friend during the class you would be required to remain standing for five minutes. The teacher expects that this will reduce the probability of your chatting with your friend

while the class is going on. So *punishment is an aversive consequent of undesired behaviour.*

Like reinforcement, punishment can be positive or negative. Positive punishment is the situation when an unpleasant thing, presented as a consequence of a behaviour, decreases the probability of that behaviour. If you scold your child for her misbehaviour it is positive punishment. Negative punishment occurs when the withdrawal or removal of a pleasant thing as a consequence of a specific behaviour decreases the probability of that behaviour. If you do not greet your child your usual smiling way because of her misbehaviour, it is negative punishment.

You have already learnt about negative reinforcement which also uses aversive stimuli. Are negative reinforcement and punishment synonymous? *Negative reinforcement is used to elicit a desired behaviour.* Pavlov wanted the dog to learn withdrawal of paw. The shock as an unpleasant stimulus was given and the dog learnt to withdraw the paw. So in this case the shock was a negative reinforcer as it increased the probability of paw withdrawal. *Punishment, on the other hand, is used to stop undesirable behaviour.* If we suppose that walking of the dog in the laboratory is an undesirable behaviour and deliver the shock every time the dog starts walking, expectedly the dog's probability of walking would be reduced. In this instance, shock will be punishment. In other words, when negative reinforcer is given, you act in a desired way to stop the unpleasant condition. When punishment is given you associate it with whatever undesirable thing you did before, and refrain from repeating it.

Remember that negative reinforcement and punishment differ depending on their purpose. The same unpleasant stimulus of electric shock can be used as a negative reinforcer for one purpose and punishment for another.

Controversy remains as to how effective punishment is. Traditional child rearing practices are often punishment based. 'Spare the rod and spoil the child', they say. But don't we often see that the abused child becomes seasoned to beatings and continues with the disruptive behaviour? Skinner himself was not too much in favour of punishment. He considered positive reinforcement as the best technique for training, and considered punishment to have too much side effects. Some recent researchers however have reported that punishment delivered without hostility and to a measured amount in a consistent manner may bring about desired result without much harm.

2.4.4 Generalisation and Discrimination in Operant Conditioning

As in case of classical conditioning, you can have your subject's behaviour generalised to situations similar to the conditioned one. You learnt to wash your hands before taking food at home, and you generalised it at school. In fact, if it were not so, we had to condition each and every operant conditioning separately for every context.

Discrimination is the opposite of generalisation. Through manipulation of consequences, we learn to respond to one stimulus which is rewarded / punished and not to a similar stimulus which is not rewarded / not punished. For example, you talk and laugh when Mr. M. is taking classes, but you think twice before moving your neck when Mr. N. is in charge.

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) Tick the correct answer.
 - a) Functional analysis of behaviour means
 - (i) specifying the functions of a behaviour (ii) a mathematical model of behaviour (iii) establishing a relationship between organism and environment (iv) establishing a relationship of behaviour with antecedents and consequences
 - b) Shaping takes place through
 - (i) successive approximation (ii) functional analysis of behaviour (iii) operant conditioning (iv) practice
 - c) Intermittent positive reinforcement means
 - (i) reinforcing every correct response only (ii) reinforcing some of the correct responses and not all (iii) reinforcing some correct and some incorrect responses (iv) Suddenly stopping giving reinforcements.
- 2) Write True (T) or False (F)
 - a) Gambling is an example of variable interval schedule of reinforcement. ()
 - b) ABC analysis stands for Appropriate Behaviour Control. ()
 - c) Variable ratio scheduling is the best technique for learning through reinforcement. ()
 - d) Negative punishment means punishing very hard. ()

2.5 OPERANT CONDITIONING AND HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

In the following sections you would learn about application of principles of operant conditioning in real life.

2.5.1 Skinner's View of Human Nature

Skinner considers the world as a large version of the Skinner box within which 'technology of behaviour' plays its role. You learn everything here through reinforcements and punishments. Skinner, in his book 'Beyond freedom and dignity' (1971) presents his view of human existence as a series of learning processes. You may wonder what 'personality' is from Skinner's point of view? Skinner does not use the word 'personality'. But he speaks on human nature in general. According to Skinner, human being is completely determined by his conditioning history. There is nothing called free will. One does what one is reinforced to do. There is also no point in debating whether man is rational or irrational. Both are inner states, and hence outside the domain of scientific analysis of behaviour.

Skinner opines that human behaviour is changeable, and this change constitutes what we think as 'personality growth'. It does not occur from within, but from manipulation of reinforcements from outside. There is no mystery in human existence. It is completely objective and knowable through scientific investigation. We know a person so far we know his/her environmental contingencies.

Skinner also comments in his book that usually we think that those who manipulate human behaviour are evil persons. Those who manipulate for evil purpose may be condemned. But manipulation of human behaviour is something which cannot be avoided. Indeed, we have no other alternative than to be controlled and manipulated.

2.5.2 Psychopathology from Operant Conditioning Perspective

From Skinnerian perspective, psychopathology is the resultant of faulty conditioning with improper reinforcement. No individual is sick; only he/she has not learnt to elicit the right behaviour at the right moment.

Take the case of compulsion. Suppose the client needs to wash his/her hands with soap thirty times a day, otherwise he/she does not feel clean. Skinner would assume that cleaning is a correct response in some situations. But for this particular client, cleaning has been conditioned erroneously to situations where it is actually not required and has been overgeneralised.

Depression from Skinner's perspective is absence of reinforcement from the environment. The quick fatigueability of depression has been explained by Skinner as low rate of response as there had been too much withdrawal of positive reinforcers.

Some of you may have seen children and adolescents with conduct disorder. Imagine a boy who demands a costly video game. When his/her parents object to the unreasonable demand, he/she threatens to destroy his/her school books. After some efforts to pacify him/her, the parents buy the game. Similar extortions continue. At one point she/he demands a costly mobile with many features. Unless she/he gets it, she/he would burn the wardrobe, she/he threatens. The distraught parents yield again. Now, she/he is a big boy, and she/he wants a car for his/her own use. If she/he is not given a car he/she would create problems for her/his mother. From she/he a Skinnerian perspective such cases may be explained by reinforcement of the wrong behaviour. Every time, from his/her childhood days, aggressive outburst and threat of violence had won him his desired object. Her antisocial trend has been positively reinforced.

2.5.3 Operant Conditioning of Social Attitudes

Do you wear a particular ring whenever you go to face an interview? "My little luck" – you say indulgently. It may sober you up to learn that Skinner observed development of 'superstition' in pigeons. He found that if reinforcements are completely unpredictable and any random behaviour is accidentally reinforced, the pigeon may develop an association between the behaviour and the reward. Suppose a pigeon was flapping its wings when the food pellet was given. If it accidentally occurs a few times, the pigeon would start flapping its wings whenever it is hungry.

Do you believe in the ideals of a specific political party? You think you have enough justification? Skinner would say that it is not your much advocated rational self, but a mere series of conditioning that made you declare your affiliation to those 'ideals'. If you are repeatedly rewarded for chanting a particular slogan, you will soon start 'believing' in that slogan and chant it frequently.

2.6 APPLICATIONS OF SKINNERIAN PRINCIPLES TO PSYCHOTHERAPY

You have already learnt how psychopathology has been conceptualised by Skinner as faulty learning. From this premise, you may readily conclude that psychotherapy would consist of unlearning of the faulty conditioning and relearning of correct operants through appropriate reinforcement. In fact, the major bulk of behaviour therapy depends on Skinnerian principles.

You may observe the applications of Skinner’s principles in behaviour therapy at two stages. One is in setting and defining the targets of modification, and the second is in executing the change process itself.

The basic requisite of behaviour therapy is to identify the short term and long term targets by analysing the maladaptive behaviour. Essentially, you need to conduct the functional analysis of behaviour for this purpose. If a child is brought to you for aggressive outbursts, you need to make a thorough record of her behaviour from herself and from his/her informants. You need to identify the contexts of his/her un-socialised aggressive behaviour – and identify the feedback he/she gets from her social environment. Once these are identified you break down the total behaviour in successive stages from easy to difficult. You approach the small and easy targets first, reinforce the adaptive responses and through the principles of shaping reach the final goal of changing her behaviour.

What kind of reinforcements should be given? While the reinforcements can be of different kinds – verbal and non-verbal, one particular mode of reinforcement has been closely linked with Skinnerian principle. This is known as ‘token economy’. This is most applicable for children and in-patients under strict hospital supervision, in other words for those whose reinforcements can be maintained within a structured environment. In this method, plastic or paper tokens are given to the person for desirable behaviour. Tokens are charged from the person for undesirable behaviour. For example, during lunch time you get 2 tokens for standing in line, 1 token for taking the plate and napkin in the correct order, 3 tokens for eating cleanly and so on. If you grab food out of turn 3 tokens are taken back. With the tokens you can buy candy, pictures, an hour out with a friend and other things you enjoy. An extensive application of token economy was conducted by Atthowe and Krasner (1968) in a hospital set up and considerable behaviour gains were reported. Token economy is still found useful in training hyperactive children, children with mental retardation and developmental disorders.

<p>Self Assessment Questions 3</p> <p>1) What is ‘technology of behaviour?’</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>2) Write ‘True’ (T) or ‘False’ (F)</p> <p>a) Skinner thinks that human beings can escape manipulation by environment due to their free will. ()</p>

- b) In behaviour therapy easier and smaller targets should be approached before harder targets. ()
- c) Token economy is best applicable under structured condition. ()

2.7 CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF SKINNER'S APPROACH TO PERSONALITY

Even within behavioural paradigm, Skinner's approach has been criticized for excessive emphasis on consequence and less on the stimulus. However, Skinner has been critiqued mainly from the cognitive perspective. Noam Chomsky (1959) severely criticized Skinner's thesis by saying that his experiments were inapplicable to human beings, and the approach was 'scientistic', but not scientific. Chomsky also accused Skinner of supporting a totalitarian political face. That cognitive learning does exist was also proved through Edward Tolman's (1932) famous experiment on latent learning that demonstrates that learning is possible even without any reinforcer. The biological critics have observed that certain species are predisposed to learn certain types of things. Everything cannot be taught to every species.

These criticisms limit the generalisability of Skinner's approach, but do not downgrade its impact in applied psychology. Indeed, if we use the Skinnerian principles judiciously, behavioural gains may be obtained in many areas of educational and clinical psychology.

2.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have learnt about the concept of operant behaviour and its conditioning. We now know about the basic experiment of Skinner where rats were conditioned to press a lever to obtain food, and this was done by manipulation of reinforcement. We have also learnt Skinnerian principles of functional analysis of behaviour and shaping through successive approximation. The nature of reinforcements and their schedules have been discussed in detail. We have learnt about punishment and the distinction between punishment and negative reinforcement. We have discussed Skinner's view of human nature as completely determined by reinforcements from the environment. We have also discussed the nature of psychopathology and social attitude formation from Skinner's point of view. We have learnt how Skinnerian principles can be used in Behaviour therapy, particularly in the context of token economy and time out procedures. Finally we engaged in a critical evaluation of Skinner's point of view.

2.9 GLOSSARY

- Operant Conditioning** : Operant conditioning refers to a learning paradigm where the desired behaviour is taught to the organism by discriminatively reinforcing the correct responses.
- Functional Analysis of behaviour** : In operant conditioning paradigm, functional analysis of behaviour is the breaking down of the complex behaviour in small units and to

- Shaping** : relate each unit of behaviour to its antecedents and consequences.
- Schedule of Reinforcement** : Shaping refers to the conditioning of a desired behaviour through the technique of successive approximation. Here the behaviours approximating the final target are successively reinforced.
- Continuous Reinforcement** : In operant conditioning paradigm, schedule of reinforcement refers to the rate of reinforcement delivered in response to the correct responses.
- Intermittent Reinforcement** : In operant conditioning paradigm, continuous reinforcement refers to delivering the reinforcement every time the correct response occurs.
- Punishment** : In operant conditioning paradigm, intermittent reinforcement refers to the non-continuous reinforcement of desired behaviour based on a pre-designed schedule. It can be based on time interval or number of correct responses. It can also be at a fixed rate or a variable rate.
- Token Economy** : In operant conditioning paradigm, punishment is the negative consequence of undesired behaviour delivered by the experimenter to reduce probability of occurrence of that behaviour.
- Token Economy** : A technique in behaviour therapy where the principles of reinforcement are used. Tokens are given to the clients for desired behaviour and taken away for undesired behaviour. Probability of occurrence of desired behaviour is expected as it becomes associated with positive outcome of getting tokens.

2.10 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Describe with the help of Skinner's classic experiment the nature and principles of operant conditioning.
- 2) Discuss the role of Functional Analysis of Behaviour in operant conditioning.
- 3) Define shaping. Illustrate in this context the principle of successive approximation.
- 4) Discuss with suitable examples the different schedules of reinforcement.
- 5) Distinguish between negative reinforcement and punishment with examples from everyday life.
- 6) Discuss the Skinnerian view of human nature.
- 7) Discuss from Skinnerian perspective the genesis of psychopathology and its treatment.

2.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, C.S., Lindzey, G., Campbell, J. B. (1997) *Theories of Personality*. New York: Wiley.

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Liebert, R. M. & Spiegler, M. D. (1987) *Personality: Strategies and Issues*. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.

Internet source: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lpG_NM88fjY>

<<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mm5FGrQEyBY>>

2.12 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) An operant is a behaviour that is emitted by the individual to operate upon the environment. According to Skinner, these behaviours are learnt through conditioning.
- 2) a) increased, b) taught new behaviour, c) the number of frequency of occurrence of the behaviour.

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) a) establishing a relationship of behaviour with antecedents and consequences
b) successive approximation c) reinforcing some of the correct responses and not all
- 2) a) False b) False c) True d) False.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) Technology of behaviour is a Skinnerian term for manipulation of human behaviour to reach a desired end.
- 2) a) False b) True c) True.

UNIT 3 DOLLARD AND MILLER THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 The Stimulus Response Paradigm
- 3.3 Structure versus Dynamics of Personality: The Major Elements
 - 3.3.1 Habit
 - 3.3.2 Drive
 - 3.3.3 Cue
 - 3.3.4 Reinforcement
- 3.4 Miller's Experiment on Secondary Drives
 - 3.4.1 Implications of Miller's Experiment
- 3.5 Explanation of Social Behaviour of Human beings and Higher Mental Processes Using the S-R Paradigm
 - 3.5.1 Language and Culture
 - 3.5.2 Principles of Development of the Human Child
- 3.6 Conflict
- 3.7 Psychopathology and Treatment
- 3.8 Critical Evaluation of Dollard and Miller's Approach to Personality
- 3.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.10 Glossary
- 3.11 Unit End Questions
- 3.12 Suggested Readings
- 3.13 Answers to Self Assessment Questions

3.0 INTRODUCTION

We hope that you must have watched the TV serial “Mahabharat”. In that TV serial after the great war of Kurukshetra was over, Duryodhana, the king of the Kauravas was hiding beside the Dvaipayana Lake. The Pandavas, accompanied by Krishna, sought him out and challenged him for the last duel. Duryodhana opted for a mace fight with his archenemy Bhima. Both Duryodhana and Bhima were of almost equal ability in mace fighting, with Duryodhana having a slight edge over Bhima. The duel started and both were striking to kill. As the battle continued, Bhima started showing signs of fatigue. At that moment Krishna drew Bhima's attention to himself and slapped his own thigh. In mace fighting hitting below the waist is illegal. But with the cue from Krishna, Bhima remembered the promise he had made during the dice game at the court of Hastinapur. In that ill fated game, Draupadi was conquered by the Kauravas. When Duryodhana was hurling insults on her, Bhima had promised that he would break Duryodhana's thigh with a mace. Now, enraged, he hit

Duryodhana on the thigh. Duryodhana fell down vanquished. The Pandavas and Krishna rejoiced, while Duryodhana was left to die a painful death.

If you analyse this well known story from a psychological perspective you would be intrigued by a few questions. What was the motive of fighting? Were the motives same for Bhima and Duryodhana? What happened as the fighters affronted each other? How did they decide their strategies of action? What was the impact of Krishna's behaviour on the motive of Bhima? What were the consequences? You may identify the following elements – a motive or drive, a habitual pattern of responses, a set of stimuli and cues, a range of different modes of responses to those cues and finally the reinforcement in the form of fulfillment of motive for the Pandavas and the opposite for Duryodhana.

In the previous units you have learnt about classical and operant conditioning. It may have occurred to you that complex social situations like this episode from Mahabharata cannot be explained on the basis of conditioning only. While psychoanalytical assumptions can provide an explanation of such motives and actions, they are not scientifically verifiable. Catering to the need of explaining complex social issues, two American psychologists named John Dollard (1900 - 1980) and Neal E. Miller (1909 -2002) worked within the stimulus-response paradigm during the thirties and forties. Both of them were trained in psychoanalysis, and wanted to demystify the tenets of psychoanalysis by demonstrating that many psychoanalytical principles can be explained in behavioural terms and even verified by animal experiments.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- 1 Discuss Dollard and Miller's position within S-R paradigm;
- 1 Compare between the structure and dynamics of personality;
- 1 Discuss Miller's experiment on secondary drives;
- 1 Explain the social behaviour and higher mental processes from the viewpoint of Dollard and Miller;
- 1 Explain the role of culture and socialisation in human behaviour from the viewpoint of Dollard and Miller;
- 1 Discuss Miller's experiment on conflict; and
- 1 Critically analysis the S-R paradigm of behaviour with reference to Dollard and Miller.

3.2 THE STIMULUS RESPONSE PARADIGM

In unit 2 you have read that Skinner emphasised on the association of operants with the reinforcement. In Skinner's approach the stimulus itself was of relatively less importance. Also, the antecedent of behaviour, though included in ABC analysis, was regarded as nothing more than a context of behaviour. What is the nature of stimulus itself and its relevance to the motive of the organism determine the response? This deficit of Skinner's approach has been addressed in the Stimulus response paradigm.

Unlike classical conditioning and operant conditioning, the stimulus-response paradigm of learning cannot be attributed to the work of any single scientist. The contributions were of Dollard and Miller served as a bridge between learning theories

and the cognitive approach. You would learn more the next unit. Dollard and Miller worked upon the premises forwarded by Hull, who emphasised the concepts of 'Drive' and 'Habit'. Hull (1943) postulated that every behaviour is a response to a specific stimulus, and this behaviour is impelled by a drive. If repeatedly the drive is reduced by the organism's response to the stimulus, a 'habit' is formed.

Dollard and Miller took off from Hull's postulates and through animal experiments and theorisation, extended the concepts to diverse human behaviour. They recognised the significant role of culture and socialisation in determining the nature of drive, response and drive reduction. Apart from Dollard and Miller, some other famous scientists working within this paradigm were J. F. Brown, L. W. Doob, R. R. Sears, O. H. Mowrer, who collaborated with Dollard and Miller on a number of research articles.

3.3 STRUCTURE VERSUS DYNAMICS OF PERSONALITY: THE MAJOR ELEMENTS

What do you understand by the two terms 'structure of personality' and 'dynamics of personality'? Structure refers to a relatively stable aspect of personality that is expressed repeatedly in different situations. If you say 'P is depressive in disposition', you are talking about structure. Dynamics is the relatively flexible process of development of certain characteristics. If you say 'P had lost her parents early in life, and consequently had a difficult childhood; now 'P' has lost her husband also and is extremely depressed', you are talking about dynamics.

Dollard and Miller were more concerned with dynamics of behaviour, though they did not ignore structure. In Hullian terms, 'habit' is a relatively stable association and thus may represent structure of personality. Drives, stimulus (cue) and reinforcements that lead to development of a habit are elements of the dynamics. Dollard and Miller's approach to personality rests on the understanding of these elements. You would learn about the elements within the S-R paradigm as postulated by Dollard and Miller in the following subsections.

3.3.1 Habit

You may define habit as an association between a stimulus (cue) and the organism's responses to it. Personality structure largely constitutes of habits. Perhaps your mother was a bit over-anxious whenever you had a late night party. This is her habit – a relatively stable bond between your adventure and her negative apprehensions.

3.3.2 Drive

Drive is the energizer of behaviour. It is a stimulus, often internal, which is strong enough to make the individual engage in action. Hunger is the drive that impels your eating behaviour.

However, you must remember that though drive pushes you to action, it does not determine the direction of behaviour. When hungry, you would feel the pang and would be restless, but drive would not tell you what to eat and how to eat. That you can eat a cake and not a piece of stone has been learnt by you through experience. You need other stimuli or cues for that.

Drives may be primary or secondary. Primary drives are linked with physiological processes. Examples are hunger, thirst, sleep, sex etc. Secondary drives are acquired

through experience. Especially for human beings, most of what we do throughout the day is energized by secondary drives. Your passion for music is an acquired or secondary drive.

3.3.3 Cue

A cue is a stimulus that guides the organism to act in a specific mode. Thus cues give direction to our actions. You may say it supplements drive. If you are driven by hunger you would take anything that reduces the drive. If you get a piece of bread, you would chew it. If you get a glass of milk you would drink it. Chewing and drinking behaviours are different. Your choice of behaviour depends on the 'cue' you get – a solid thing on a plate or a liquid thing in a glass.

3.3.4 Reinforcement

After a response has taken place, you may see two possible consequences. It can reduce your drive, or your drive may continue in the same or even greater intensity. If you are thirsty and you drink water, your thirst will be quenched. If you eat a couple of biscuits, you would feel thirstier. So water would be a positive reinforcer, while biscuits would be a punishment. You would learn to drink water and avoid biscuits whenever you feel similar dryness in your throat.

Just like drives, reinforcers can be primary or secondary. Food is a reinforcer to your primary drive of hunger. A sitar recital by Pandit Ravishankar is a reinforcer for your secondary drive of enjoying music.

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) Write True (T) or False (F)
 - a) Sex is a secondary drive.
 - b) A habit is an association between a stimulus and the response.
 - c) Drives give direction to our behaviour.
- 2) Who was the major proponent of the concept of habit and drive within the S-R paradigm?

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3.4 MILLER'S EXPERIMENT ON SECONDARY DRIVES

Miller conducted a series of experiments with rats to understand the nature of drive, cue and reinforcement. In his now classic experiment (Miller, 1948) a number of albino rats were placed in a white compartment whose door opened to a black compartment. The rats received an electric shock while placed in the white compartment and learnt to run through the open door to the black one. Subsequently Miller made a different arrangement within the white compartment. The door, previously kept open, was now kept closed and a wheel had to be rotated to open

it. The rats were not given any shock. However, as soon as they were placed in the white compartment, they tried to go to the black one, and even without any shock, learnt to rotate the wheel and to open the door. Their urge to move to the black compartment was so strong that even if after learning wheel rotation, the mechanism was changed and a bar had to be pressed for opening the door, the rats quickly learnt to press the bar.

3.4.1 Implications of Miller's Experiment

Miller interprets the rat's behaviour at the second phase of the experiment as an evidence of secondary drive. The electric shock generated in the rats a primary drive of avoiding pain. The experimental arrangement however developed in them a secondary drive – that of fear of the white compartment. In the second condition, the placing of the rats within the white compartment itself (which was earlier a neutral stimulus) generated in them a secondary fear drive. This drive impelled them to learn to rotate the wheel, or press the bar although the shock was not given. Miller calls this fear drive secondary as it is not associated with the original drive of escape from pain, but is a derivative of it. The learning to rotate the wheel to open the door is known as *Instrumental Learning*, as it is instrumental to the drive reduction.

In unit 1 and 2 the concepts of generalisation and discrimination in Pavlov's and Skinner's theories have been discussed. Dollard and Miller also emphasised the generalisation and discrimination take place in relation to stimulus response bond. For example, if the rat develops a secondary drive of fear for a red compartment, it may develop fear of an orange coloured compartment as well. Similarly, if a rat that has developed a secondary fear reaction to a red compartment is given a reward of food from an orange compartment, it will learn to discriminate successfully between the two.

Dollard and Miller also emphasised the fact that apart from learning to respond in a certain way, we also learn *not to respond* under certain circumstances. We learn to suppress the immediate response tendencies because of the negative value of certain stimuli. This is of immense importance in development of human social behaviour, as you would shortly come to know.

3.5 EXPLANATION OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR OF HUMAN BEINGS AND HIGHER MENTAL PROCESSES USING THE S-R PARADIGM

Dollard and Miller's special credit lies in their attempt to explain human behaviour in complex social situation in terms of stimulus response paradigm. Coming back to the case of Bhima and Duryodhana, we can try to analyse in Dollard and Miller's terms, the habit, drive, cue and reinforcement.

The habits were almost same for Duryodhana and Bhima – aggression, arrogance, responding to challenge and egoism. But the drives were different for the two characters. For Bhima, it was a fight for officially establishing the victory of the Pandavas – the final way to ruling the kingdom. Thus it was more of a secondary drive. For Duryodhana it was a kill or die situation. His drive was survival – a primary one, and perhaps, establishing his superiority was a secondary one. As the duel started, both Bhima and Duryodhana were trying to win. They were manoeuvring every move according to the demand of the situation. Both were keenly observing the movement of the other and responding to the other's movement by being

defensive, or initiating a new offence. Each movement was a stimulus or cue to the other's response. The course of fight, where Bhima was slowly but steadily losing ground, was interrupted by a different cue from Krishna – the slapping of the thigh. Indeed, Krishna strategically changed the cue and aroused a different drive in Bhima by this cue. It changed the mindset of Bhima – the drive now became revenge fuelled by the memory of a past pain, of the frustration of not being able to save his wife from public humiliation. His aggressive vigour increased, and violating the rule of fair fighting, he defeated Duryodhana through unjust means. What were the reinforcements? Of course, it was the positive feedback of joyous feeling and enhanced esteem for Bhima. For Duryodhana, it was the opposite - extreme pain, degradation and loss of hope.

3.5.1 Language and Culture

It was indeed a cue to a complex memory – a *symbolic behaviour*. In other words, you may call it a non-verbal gesture with a very significant 'meaning'. You may as well call it a *language* to communicate a certain idea to the fighting man. In our everyday social interaction, and even in 'talking to ourselves', language is the single greatest resource. Dollard and Miller (1950) suggested that words and gestures may also serve as secondary reinforcers. When you get angry because somebody has spoken in a demeaning way about your family, you are actually responding not to any physical harm, but to the symbolic value of the words spoken. Here words are the secondary reinforcers to generate the same response as the actual physical harm directed toward your loved ones. We know how certain gestures also elicit our responses – take 'V' for victory sign with fingers as an example.

It is through language and its value as secondary reinforcers that you can claim yourself as a rational being. The very logic you use is expressed through symbols. Language is the vehicle of your emotions also. Thus culture strives on the secondary reinforcement value of our language. In turn, it is the culture itself which, through an elaborate learning procedure create a large array of secondary reinforcers and make our life a rich and complex one.

In the previous section you have learnt that we practice not to respond to certain stimuli. What culture or socialisation really teaches you is a kind of discrimination among stimuli. You may respond freely to some stimuli. But socialisation means that you must respond in a symbolic way to most stimuli, and also inhibit your spontaneous response tendencies for many. For example, a child can run and embrace her mother. But at school he/she soon learns to express his/her positive feelings to the teacher not by embracing hi/her, but by smiling and greeting. He/she also learns to suppress his/her anger against his/her teachers, although he/she may express it in controlled ways with his/her peers. Thus the mother, the teacher and the peers need to be discriminated, a function carried out skill fully through the process of socialisation.

3.5.2 Principles of Development of the Human Child

The above discussion emphasizes that socialisation is of singular importance in the life of an individual. Indeed, this is not a premise of S-R paradigm only. Each and every observer of human behaviour emphasises the role of child rearing techniques and stages of development..

Dollard and Miller (1950) provided an account of how the 'infant' gradually acquires a number of secondary reinforcements through feeding schedules, toilet training and other socialisation processes. Thus Dollard and Miller agree with psychoanalysis

that there are certain critical periods of development. The different stimuli acquire meaning through this process, and the child learns to respond to some stimuli in a particular way, and also learns not to respond for others. In this context, Dollard and Miller (1941) recognised the role of *imitation* in human development. For example, a young girl sees her elder brother finishing his breakfast cleanly and hears her mother praise him. She imitates this behaviour and receives praise. So the elder sibling becomes a model to be followed for the young girl, who starts imitating him in other respects also. In S-R paradigm, imitation is also known as *matched dependent behaviour*. You will learn in the next Unit how cognitive theorists like Albert Bandura rendered a very significant place to imitation and modelling for human behaviour modification.

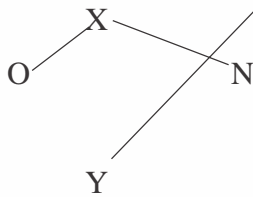
You need to know in this context how Dollard and Miller explained the defences that are crucial in Freudian notion of development. *Repression*, for Dollard and Miller is learning not to think about certain things. Obviously they conceptualised repression as one point on a continuum from slight difficulty to remember certain things to complete forgetting. *Displacement* has also been given considerable emphasis by Dollard and Miller. You may have heard of Miller's famous Bobo-doll experiment where he showed experimental generation of displacement (Miller, 1939). Rats were trained to hit another rat to get food. It was observed that if, after training, a Bobo doll was kept in the cage instead of a second rat, the hitting was directed against the doll. Thus Miller explained displacement also in terms of secondary drive and reinforcement, where the doll acquired a symbolic value as cue to aggression.

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) Tick the correct answer.
 - a) In Miller's experiment the secondary drive was the
(i) white compartment (ii) fear of the electric shock (iii) running (iv) fear of the white compartment.
 - b) Miller's Bobo doll experiment gave an explanation of (i) secondary drive (ii) displacement (iii) repression and (iv) habit.
 - c) If a pigeon learns to pull up a cover to get the grains kept under it, this may be called (i) instrumental learning (ii) operant learning (iii) cognitive learning (iv) habit formation.
- 2) Write True (T) or False (F).
 - a) Dollard and Miller suggested that socialisation is responsible for developing secondary drives in human infants. ()
 - b) Imitation cannot be explained in terms of S-R paradigm. ()
 - c) Words may serve as secondary drives. ()

3.6 CONFLICT

Conflict refers to contradictory response tendencies elicited by one or more than one stimuli. If you want to eat the cake and have it too, you are in a conflict, because after you satisfy your impulse to eat, you cannot have it! Conflict, in behavioural terms may be of four types: Approach-Approach conflict, Approach-avoidance conflict, Avoidance -Avoidance conflict and Double Approach Avoidance conflict.



In this figure you can see two points - 'X' and 'Y'. They intersect at the point 'N'. Suppose you are the organism and you are placed slightly nearer to X, which means the valence of X is a bit higher than Y for you. If both X and Y are pleasant and elicit approach responses, what will you do? Probably you will go straight for X without hesitation and be satisfied with it, as Y has relatively less attraction to you because of its distance from O. However, if you are placed just in the middle at N, you may experience approach-approach conflict – should you take the 'gulab jamoon' or the 'ice cream'? Usually this is a mild form of conflict and once you decide for the gulab jamoon, you are happy with it.

What happens if both X and Y are unpleasant and elicit avoidance? Since X is more repellent to you owing to your position, you would go away from X and come up to the intersection N. As you cross this point N, the avoidance force of Y becomes stronger. You tend to go away from it till you cross the intersection again and go nearer to X. Thus in your attempt to avoid both, you would run from one to the other. Of course it is assumed that you have no way out. This is avoidance - avoidance conflict.

In approach avoidance conflict there are not two points like X and Y. There is only one point - X, which generates both approach and avoidance tendencies. Consider how you feel when you are tempted by your friend with a dish of your favourite sea food. You remember how you suffered from nasty spells of stomach ache after you savoured sea food a month ago.

Miller (1944) along with his associates studied behaviour of albino rats in conflict of approach and avoidance tendencies. They trained the rats in semi starved condition to run an alley to get food from a place where a light was on. Then they trained the same animals under satiated condition to avoid the same place by giving electric shock as soon as they reached there. The intensity of the shock varied for different groups of rats. Then the rats were released at the start of the alley under different levels of starving and their behaviour was observed.

For each rat the point with a light represented a conflict as this point was associated with hunger reduction and pain avoidance. Just like your dish of sea food, it represented both approach and avoidance. It was found that the rats went to a certain extent toward the goal and at one point near the goal stopped. It was further observed that when hunger was strong and the intensity of shock during training was less the rats came closer to the goal point rather than when the shock was strong or hunger less. This means that whether you would succumb to the temptation or not depends on how much you like the food and how strong the stomach ache was.

Double approach avoidance conflict is an extension of the same where both X and Y points are present and both represent approach and avoidance. This is the toughest of the choices.

3.7 PSYCHOPATHOLOGY AND TREATMENT

You may now have an educated guess as to how Dollard and Miller would explain psychopathology. Often, the faulty or unwarranted acquisition of secondary drives

like fear responses to neutral stimuli may cause expression of symptoms. Anxiety disorders may be explained as a kind of erroneous development of secondary drives. A phobia may be the result of secondary fear drive to an innocuous stimulus. At other times, psychopathology is an expression of unresolved conflict. For example a strong double approach avoidance conflict may lead to a feeling of being trapped in an insoluble condition, and since break from the situation is not possible, the organism may break from reality orientation itself, thus manifesting psychotic features.

In this context, you also need to learn about the *frustration aggression hypothesis* forwarded by Dollard et al. (1939). They stated that when a goal directed behaviour is thwarted, frustration ensues. This in turn leads to aggression. Later on they modified their notion to state that frustration leads to arousal, but aggression takes place only if the individual has learnt that aggression might be successful for drive reduction in such cases. Other reactions to frustration are also possible. However, in a number of disorders where aggression in a pathological form is the main symptom, the role of frustration needs to be understood.

So far as treatment is concerned, the problematic acquisition of secondary drive must be taken care of (Dollard and Miller, 1950). You may try to make this drive extinct and facilitate a new learning. When conflict is the major source of problem, you may try to change the parameters within the conflict situation by either shifting the relative valence of the conflicting issues, or providing a realistic way out of the limited situation by opening up new action possibilities. In case of pathological aggression, the frustrated drive may be taken care of either by fulfilment, or by modifying its nature through new learning.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) Write True (T) or False (F).
 - a) Conflict always entails at least two stimuli. ()
 - b) If I have to choose between two distasteful food items, I may experience approach avoidance conflict. ()
 - c) Dollard and Miller explained psychopathology in terms of unconscious conflict. ()
- 2) What is Frustration aggression hypothesis?

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3.8 CRITICAL EVALUATION OF DOLLARD AND MILLER'S APPROACH TO PERSONALITY

As may be apparent to you, Dollard and Miller's approach is an attempt to incorporate complex human life within the behavioural paradigm. Thus apparently it may be applied more convincingly to human conditions than, for example, Skinnerian approach. However, it has been criticized as over simplistic and shallow. The psychoanalysts strongly criticize the simplification of defences and unconscious processes.

The S-R paradigm in general has been critiqued as lacking a singly unified theory. Miller's discrete experiments are valuable by themselves, but alternate interpretations may be made when generalised to human social situation. The experiments may not be adequate to claim the explanation applicable to all the richness of human life.

However, the main merit of the approach lies in the attempt to bridge the gap between strict behavioural and the cognitive approaches.

3.9 LET US SUM UP

In this Unit, we have learnt about the nature of S-R paradigm and Dollard and Miller's position within this paradigm. We have learnt to analyse with experimental examples the components of behaviour, namely habit, drive, cue and reinforcement. We have gone through the explanation of complex human behaviour by using these concepts. In the course of this learning, we have also come across how Dollard and Miller have tried to integrate psychoanalytical notions in behavioural paradigm. We have learnt about their views on development of the individual within the society and the nuances of it. We have also learnt about different types of conflict. Finally we have studied the explanation of psychopathology and suggested treatment by Dollard and Miller.

3.10 GLOSSARY

- Habit** : Within S-R paradigm, habit is an association between a stimulus and a response.
- Drive** : Within S-R paradigm, drive is a stimulus that impels or energizes behaviour.
- Primary drive** : An innate and internal stimulus that energizes behaviour.
- Secondary drive** : A learnt internal stimulus that energizes behaviour.
- Cue** : An external stimulus that gives direction to behaviour.
- Reinforcement** : An event that follows a stimulus response bond and increases the possibility of occurrence of the response. Within the S-R paradigm reinforcement consists of reduction of drive.
- Instrumental learning** : Within S-R paradigm, the learning of responses that is instrumental to bringing about a desirable goal.
- Conflict** : Within S-R paradigm, conflict refers to simultaneously present opposing drives.
- Types of conflict** : There are four types of conflict. When the organism is equally driven toward two stimuli, it is known as approach-approach conflict. When the organism is equally repelled by two stimuli it is known as avoidance-avoidance conflict. When the organism is simultaneously attracted toward and repelled by a single stimulus, it is known as approach-avoidance conflict. When the organism is simultaneously attracted toward and repelled by two stimuli, it is known as double approach-avoidance conflict.

3.11 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the stimulus response approach to behaviour with special reference to Dollard and Miller's point of view.
- 2) Differentiate between primary and secondary drive.
- 3) Define with suitable examples, habit, drive, cue and reinforcement.
- 4) Write a critical note on Dollard and Miller's explanation of psychoanalytical concepts in terms of learning paradigm.
- 5) Describe Miller's experiment of approach - avoidance conflict.

3.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, C.S., Lindzey, G., Campbell, J. B. (1997) *Theories of Personality*. New York: Wiley.

Pervin, L. A. & John, O. P. (1997) *Personality: Theory and Research*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

3.13 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) a) False b) True c) False
- 2) Clark L. Hull

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) a) (iv) b) (ii) c) (i)
- 2) a) True b) False c) True.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) a) False b) False c) False.
- 2) Frustration aggression hypothesis refers to an assumption by John Dollard and Neal Miller. It states that when goal directed behaviour is thwarted, frustration ensues resulting in aggression. Initially they tried to posit aggression as the invariable effect of frustration. Later they modified their premise by recognising other reactions to frustration also.

UNIT 4 BANDURA'S SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 The Person as an Agent
 - 4.2.1 Intentionality
 - 4.2.2 Forethought
 - 4.2.3 Self Reactiveness
 - 4.2.4 Self Reflectiveness
- 4.3 Observational Learning
 - 4.3.1 Stages and Factors of Observational Learning
 - 4.3.2 Bandura's Experiment on Performance Versus Acquisition
 - 4.3.3 Vicarious Conditioning
- 4.4 Applications of Social-Cognitive Approach for Changing Behaviour
- 4.5 Social Cognitive Approach to Psychopathology and Treatment
 - 4.5.1 Explanation of Psychopathology in Terms of Social-cognitive Learning
 - 4.5.2 Treatment of Psychopathology Using Social-cognitive Approach
- 4.6 Critical Analysis of Social-Cognitive Approach to Personality
- 4.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.8 Glossary
- 4.9 Unit End Questions
- 4.10 Suggested Readings
- 4.11 Answers to Self Assessment Questions

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Remember your first love? You needed a whole week before you decided to ask your girl friend if she would have a cup of coffee and a bite of sandwich with you at the nearest joint. You - reputed to be the smartest guy around, got tongue tied. And when finally you asked her out, and she replied 'Why not?', the sky seemed to be filled with music and you felt yourself the luckiest man that ever stepped on the earth. Your confidence soared; your bathroom mirror seemed to reflect back a more handsome face. How would you dress for the occasion? You stood in front of your wardrobe. You touched your costliest T shirt and the new pair of denims; no - she might think you are showing off. The trousers you wear everyday and an ordinary shirt? She would think you do not really care. Finally you decided but let's not bother about what you decided. Let's analyse from a psychological perspective your behaviour before your decision.

Why were you hesitant to ask her out? Skinner would say it is because of the association between your earlier approach behaviours to ladies and their negative

consequences. Dollard and Miller would say that you were socialised into being hesitant before you approach a lady, as there might be an approach - avoidance conflict between your secondary drives of love and the avoidance of pain that may result from the effort. What about your thoughts in front of the open wardrobe? Skinner would say that your inner thoughts are of no relevance, and we must look into what you actually did. Dollard and Miller would go on about the power of words as secondary drive, as you imagine what she might say.

Yet, do you feel that there is something missing in all these explanations? Actually, 'you' is missing - you – the person, who fears, who loves, who decides. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, a number of psychologists, including Albert Bandura brought in the 'person' into psychology – the cognitive turn. The social-cognitive approach to personality recognises the role of the person as an agent with the ability to choose the course of action within a given social environment. It is true that the pattern of choices and tendencies may have come through earlier feedback from the environment. However, once the person learns it, he/she is in a position to utilise it in his/her own fashion. He/she responds not merely by mechanically repeating habitual reactions to specific stimuli. He/she interacts with the environment in a constructive manner. During an action, a person is undoubtedly influenced by the environment, but also actively constructs and influences the environment.

In this unit, you will be learning about Bandura's approach to personality. This approach is known as the social-cognitive approach as it involves an interaction of the social environment with the person's conscious cognition. In fact, Bandura initially named his approach the 'Social learning' theory. Later on it was renamed as social-cognitive approach to emphasise the cognitive component involved in it.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 Discuss the role of personal as an agent; and its components;
- 1 Define observational learning;
- 1 Describe the experimental evidences the nature of observational learning;
- 1 Discuss the social cognitive approach to psychopathology;
- 1 Discuss the social cognitive approach to treatment of psychopathology; and
- 1 Critically analysis the social-cognitive approach to personality.

4.2 THE PERSON AS AN AGENT

From the social-cognitive approach, a person is the conscious agent of one's own existence. You are empowered to select what you would do within the specific environment. Bandura (2001) in this context talked of the *functional consciousness*. It refers to an individual's purposive selection and processing of information. The person consciously selects, constructs, regulates, and evaluates the possible courses of action and decides the final behaviour. For this purpose the person can access concrete events as well as symbolic representations of activities, goals and future occurrences. Bandura coined the term '*Reciprocal determinism*' to represent this person-environment dependence. Bandura (2001) analysed the core features of personal agency. These are: (i) Intentionality, (ii) Forethought, (iii) Self reactivity and (iv) Self reflectiveness

4.2.1 Intentionality

What do you mean by intention? Your intention is a *representation of the future course of action* which you would probably perform. If you are going to read through this unit this evening, this is your intention. You usually intend to do something because you mentally represent the positive consequences it would bring about. You must remember however, that intentionality and actual consequences may not match. You may read this unit with the intention to know about social-cognitive approach to personality, and probably your consequences would match your intention. But if you read it to score high marks in the examination, it may so happen that there is no question from this unit at all in the question paper!

4.2.2 Forethought

Intention always involves some planning. Forethought refers to the planning dimension of agency. This is a temporal extension of the personal agency in future. In simpler terms, it means you project yourself in future, and see your position through imagination. When you are engaged in forethought, you are setting goals, anticipating the likely consequences of available courses of actions, and evaluating their feasibility. When, you were trying to decide about the best dress to attend a social event, you were engaged in forethoughts. As you were judging the different consequences of your choice of dress, you were physically at the present moment, but were engaged in projections of future events. Bandura calls these projections '*anticipatory consequences*'.

Your forethoughts served as motivators for your action or in this particular case, not to act. You may note that you constructed the future reality yourself on the basis of your *expectancies*. You never knew for sure whether you have chosen a right colour on this occasion. But you expected the crowd to disapprove. Thus you acted on your anticipated consequences.

4.2.3 Self Reactiveness

Once you have a fore thought you also have goals. However, simply having some goals does not lead to directed actions. You must have heard about the absent minded professor who wanted to lie down on the bed. However, being absent minded, he laid down his walking stick on the bed and stood by the door all night. He forgot to actualise his goal.

Agentic implies the ability to actualise the goal, to give shape to appropriate courses of action and to regulate their execution. This *self regulation* is the sine qua non of agentic behaviour. When of all possible options, you choose to behave in a certain way, you regulate your own behaviour. You select the behaviour or the course of action in terms of your personal standard. You also utilise the feed back you get from your action and prepare yourself for the next move.

In this context, Bandura highlights the fact that neither do we always need to engage in trial and error behaviour, nor do we need to depend on external reinforcement. Human beings more often use *self reinforcement*. Self reinforcement refers to self produced consequences of an action. A person possesses an internal standard – a feedback for one's own performance.

Take for example your decision to take this Psychology course. Probably nobody forced you to go for it. You wanted to have a degree in Psychology because in your

own standard you consider it valuable. Thus, you were able to exercise *self-regulation* – an extremely important concept in Bandura’s theory of personal agency.

Experimental Evidence of Self Reinforcement: In 1967 Bandura and Perloff conducted an experiment with children. They wanted to compare the relative effectiveness of self monitored versus externally reinforced work. The participating children had to engage in a manual task of cranking a wheel. They earned scores depending on the number of crankings they could produce within a given time. Eight crankings earned them a score of 5, sixteen earned them 10, and so on. Production of higher number of cranking required investment of greater physical energy.

The children were assigned randomly to any of the four groups as follows:

- 1 A no reinforcement group where no reward was given
- 1 An advance reward group where a pre fixed reward was given in advance
- 1 A self reinforced group that set their own standards for themselves
- 1 An externally reinforced group where the same reward selected by Group 3 was given by external decision.

Results revealed that the self rewarded group selected quite stringent performance criteria. This group and the externally rewarded group produced almost double in comparison to the other two groups. The children in self reward group were also observed to raise their standard during the work. From this study Bandura concluded that self reward is essential for getting people motivated to work.

Moral conduct as a self reinforcing issue: In Bandura’s view, internal reinforcements and self regulation are far more important for human beings, and this is the specific area where animal experiments cannot be directly generalised to humans. You may think of a number of examples from moral reasoning. We do not steal because we have learnt that stealing is bad. If we steal, we would consider ourselves immoral. We also reason that if everybody steals every other person’s belongings, then society will collapse. The first line of thinking is moral judgment in terms of right or wrong. The second one is moral reasoning. Bandura states that while explaining our conduct, we often emphasise moral reasoning. But the ultimate moral conduct, for example, refraining from stealing, is dependent on how well we can translate moral reasoning into action through moral judgment of wrong and right. Bandura states that moral conduct can be inhibitory or proactive. The example of not stealing is inhibitory. Altruism or helping others is proactive. Both can be explained by the self regulatory mechanism.

Bandura further states that moral standards are not fixed. They vary depending on our evaluation of situations. In this respect legality and morality may not conform. Would you steal under emergency to save a few lives? Would you help an evil person who had killed innocent people? Answers may vary, but so far as the process of decision making is concerned, they all revolve around the point of self regulation.

4.2.4 Self Reflectiveness

Human beings are capable of meta-cognition. This means that they are able to observe their own cognitive processes. Bandura states that this ability of meta-cognition enables us to observe and critically evaluate our own behaviour. Thus, we can compare our past, present and future actions, and consider our position in relation to the situational demand. This ability brings us to one of the most pronounced concepts in Bandura’s theorization – that of Self efficacy.

Self efficacy: Bandura does not endorse a fixed structure called 'self', but considers the process of self description in terms of efficacy as crucial in determining behaviour (Bandura, 1995). You may describe your self efficacy in terms of your perceived ability to cope with a given situation. Bandura believes that every person has a self-judgment whereby she imaginably compares her ability to the demands of the situation. She is likely to choose her tasks accordingly, and her persistence as well as emotional reactions to the task would also be determined by it. Thus *symbolisation and abstraction* are often involved in self efficacy beliefs.

Bandura assigns a pivotal role to self efficacy. The self regulation in terms of setting the standard, choosing the challenge, expecting the outcome is dependent on self efficacy. However, you may have higher self efficacy in one area under a particular situation, and lower self efficacy in another. You may set a very high standard for yourself and expect highly rewarding outcome in a tennis court, but may have a low self efficacy if you are asked to sing a song. Thus, Bandura does not talk of a total development of personality, but of situational developments.

You may rightly guess that self efficacy beliefs may go completely wrong. If you have seen Satyajit Ray's famous children's film entitled 'Goopi Gyne Bagha Byne', you may recall how Gupi, a simple youth with a horrible off-tune voice, believed that he was the best musician under the sun. He retained the belief till the villagers drove him out of the village. Of course later on he was able to sing wonderfully, thanks to the king of the ghosts who happened to appreciate his song. His erroneous self efficacy came to be made true magically. While most of us would not encounter the king of ghosts, we too can make our now erroneous self efficacy come true by training. In the next section you would learn how self efficacy develops through observational learning.

Bandura stated that while simple reinforcements are important, the role of observational learning and vicarious conditioning are crucial to learning social behaviour. Particular emphasis has been given by Bandura on observational learning, more popularly known as modelling.

Self Assessment Questions 1

1) What was Social cognitive theory called earlier?

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2) What are the characteristic features of personal agency?

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3) Write True (T) or False (F)

a) Reciprocal determinism refers to the reciprocal interaction of two persons in society.

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|---|-----|
| b) Self efficacy means the ability to anticipate consequences beforehand. | () |
| c) Meta cognitive capacity of human beings are represented through self reflectiveness. | () |

4.3 OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

Observational learning refers to the process of change in the behaviour of one person simply by being exposed to another person's behaviour. This second person is known as the model. Modelling, according to Bandura, refers to the behaviour of the observed person and not to the behaviour of the person who follows. The child observes parents behaviour and parents are role models. The child imitates the parents' behaviour. In Bandura's version, the parents model a specific behaviour and the child imitates.

4.3.1 Stages and Factors of Observational Learning

The stages of observational learning includes exposure to the model, acquiring the model's behaviour (learning) and accepting it as one's own. People tell you that your way of talking 'Hello' over the phone is just like your mother's? Your mother never taught you to say 'Hello' in this way. But you had been exposed to her special way of greeting. The mannerism remained somewhere inside you, and at some point it became your own style.

Four factors seem to influence observational learning. These are: (i) *attention* (ii) *retention* (iii) *motor reproduction* and (iv) *motivation* (Bandura, 1977). Simple exposure would not suffice to enable observational learning, unless the observer attends to the specific behaviour to be learnt. One implication of this is that if you want to make another person learn through observing your modelling behaviour, your own behaviour must be made attractive to draw her attention. You imitated your mother's 'Hello', because you naturally loved her. The objective and subjective determinants of attention would be relevant in this context.

To accept the observed behaviour as one's own, the target behaviour must be processed. It involves coding in long term memory and the ability to retrieve it. All the laws of memory would be important here. For example, you can facilitate observational learning of your child by repeating it, by providing cues for it, by associating it with other information and so on.

Motor reproduction refers to the fact that the observer must be endowed with the physical and psychological capabilities and situational facilities to enact what has been observed. Unless it is given the scope of expression, it may become extinct.

The final factor is motivation and reinforcement. Enactment of observed behaviour would require an expectancy of positive results. This may be learnt by observing that the model had been rewarded for the same behaviour. This factor of motivation as the external reward and internal self reinforcement has been emphasised repeatedly by Bandura. In sub section 4.3.2 we have discussed Bandura's experiment and et.al.

4.3.2 Bandura's Experiment on Performance Versus Acquisition

Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963) conducted an experiment to demonstrate the conditions under which observational learning may take place and also the conditions of its expression in performance. Three groups of children observed a model performing an aggressive act toward a Bobo doll. The consequences of aggression varied for the three groups. For one group, the children found that there was no consequence of aggressive behaviour. For the second group, aggression was punished. For the third group the models performing aggressive act were rewarded.

Subsequently the children were left alone in a room with many attractive toys including the Bobo doll. They were watched through a one way screen from outside. These children were subjected to two conditions. In Condition 1 (Incentive condition) they were told that if they imitated the model, they would be rewarded. In Condition 2 (No Incentive condition), no instruction had been given.

Results revealed that under 'No Incentive' condition the children who observed their aggressive models rewarded engaged in maximum aggressive act, followed by the no consequence condition group. Those who saw their models punished demonstrated the least aggression. It is notable however that they did engage in some aggressive act despite seeing their models punished. These differences, however, were levelled out in Incentive condition. When the children learnt that they would be rewarded for imitating the model, they engaged in aggressive acting out with the Bobo doll irrespective of the consequences of their models.

Interpretation of the experiment: The findings may be interpreted to demonstrate that observational learning occurs whenever the children watch an aggressive model. Learning occurs irrespective of condition. But whether the children would execute the learnt behaviour in real life would depend on the observed consequences of the model. However if immediate situation reinforces aggressive acting out, it would facilitate performance of learnt aggression irrespective of consequences.

In other words, you learn to aggress when you see models aggressing. But you may or may not show this aggressive behaviour outwardly. Whether you would perform the aggressive act would depend on the motivation.

4.3.3 Vicarious Conditioning

How come the children were influenced by the observed consequences of the models? Bandura noted that human subjects who observed a model expressing a conditioned fear to a naturally neutral object learns to fear the same. It was observed even in monkeys. The baby monkeys learnt to be afraid of a toy snake because their mothers were taught to be afraid of.

This kind of learning of emotional reactions through imitating other's emotions is called 'Vicarious conditioning'. Bandura noted that a large number of emotions that we feel toward persons and objects are not born out of direct experience, but through this kind of vicarious conditioning.. We imitate not only the overt behaviour, but also the emotional reactions of the model.

Self Assessment Questions 2

1) What are the stages of observational learning?

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2) What are the factors of observational learning?

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3) Write true (T) or false (F)

- a) In the experiment by Bandura, Ross and Ross the consequences of aggression for the model were kept invariant. ()
- b) In the same experiment the consequences had more effect on the observer's aggressive acts in 'No incentive' condition. ()
- c) In vicarious conditioning the observer learns emotional reactions of the model. ()

4.4 APPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL-COGNITIVE APPROACH FOR CHANGING BEHAVIOUR

Modelling may be used to change one's behaviour in a desired direction. It is used extensively, knowingly or unknowingly in rearing up children at home and school. You may remember the teachers whom you adored and who left a lasting influence in your life. If you look closely to yourself, you may still find remnants of their personality in your behaviour and attitude.

Modelling has been used deliberately in changing attitudes. Indeed, the '*model*' of the advertisement is supposed to be copied by the general people with regard to a specific behaviour. You know that when famous actors or players are offered modelling roles for a product, they are forbidden to use any other competing product in public. You may recall that when Sachin Tendulkar agreed to be a model for a specific Cold Drink, he denied taking any other Cold Drink offered during a flight. The gesture may be explained by the principles of modelling. It is expected that with the attention value drawn by Tendulkar, mere exposure to his drinking a particular brand would motivate people to do the same by imitation. The clear cut message may get confused if he is seen drinking a competing brand.

You may be reminded of some of the popular television programmes on animal life. When we look at a person comfortably handling a snake or a crocodile, we tend to think these animals less dangerous than we assumed earlier. Thus modelling helps in *awareness development*.

Bandura's initial experimental works were conducted with *modelling of violence*. Therefore, a major implication of his theory pertains to televised violence. The issue revolves around whether children become more aggressive by viewing aggressive scenes on television. From a review of the available studies by Bandura and others, it may be concluded that prolonged exposure to televised violence may have four effects on children's aggression:

- 1 the children imitates the aggressive style of conduct
- 1 the inhibition against aggression is reduced
- 1 desensitized the children to violence and makes it more acceptable
- 1 it alters one's image of reality, thus thinking violence as a positive coping mode to deal with situations.

Modelling is also used, knowingly or unknowingly in *training gender role behaviour*. Some traditional modelling themes are the mother being praised for good housework and the father for meeting the financial needs of the family. When a tradition is broken, for example, women go for jobs, or fathers change the baby's nappy, the modelling patterns change and so does the attitude of the observers. This is of course not done without resistance. The earlier modelling may be difficult to break. But social change is ultimately brought through changes through individual observational learning. Helping behaviour and other moral conducts are also usually taught similarly.

Among the different uses of modelling in socialisation of children, one application is in training *delay of gratification*. Delay of gratification refers to the ability to stall one's immediate impulse to satisfy the drive. Immediate gratification often needs to be delayed in the hope of a greater gratification later in time. For example, you are feeling sleepy and would like nothing better than to close the book and drop down onto the bed. But you are carrying on with your study, as you expect to get good marks in the examination. How did you learn to do it? Presumably you learnt it by following models who have sacrificed small physical pleasures to attain a higher goal. However, you were tremendously self rewarded by this act, as it gave you the satisfaction of completing your study. Bandura noted that delay of gratification is related closely to the standard of excellence we put for ourselves. Since delay of gratification is always self motivated, you need judgment and self regulation to employ it. During exercising delay of gratification we make a mental comparison of the immediate and the distant gratifications. If we judge the latter to be worthier, we renounce the immediate one in favour of the latter.

At this juncture, you may wonder how far modelling is effective? Studies have revealed that modelling can be quite efficient even in a brief period of time, provided the attention and motivation are high. Modelling is a highly preferred mode of personality change in desired direction, because, it can be used symbolically as well. We do not necessarily need the real model every time, but a film or video would suffice.

You know that modelling changes personal agency by altering the self efficacy. But Bandura (1997) goes beyond personal agency and suggests *collective agency* as well. Bandura believes that we have one kind of efficacy as an individual; but when we operate as a group, we have a collective agency which is more than the sum of the separate self efficacies of the members. Suppose you have a moderate level of self efficacy so far you can be successful as a cricket player. But if you are a member of your college team, the interaction and the transactional dynamics of the group change your level of expectation.

4.5 SOCIAL COGNITIVE APPROACH TO PSYCHOPATHOLOGY AND TREATMENT

In this following section you would learn about these in more detail and with examples.

4.5.1 Explanation of Psychopathology in Terms of Social Cognitive Learning

A number of fear and avoidance responses may be acquired through modelling and vicarious conditioning. The personal agency and efficacy of the child may be disturbed as a result of undesirable modelling by the parents and other elders.

You also know that Bandura's initial experiments were with aggression. He believes that children often have faulty modelling at home, where they see certain styles of aggression rewarded in various ways. The media also adds to the faulty representation of aggression. Bandura considers antisocial behaviour as a result of this kind of modelling. Indeed, if you look into the history of the criminals, you would often find that their childhood was replete with occasions when brute force and subjugation of other were the models offered by the elders at their home and locality.

You may remember cases reported in newspapers where children have tried to imitate TV characters. Flying like a comic hero or trying to bind a rope around a friend's neck are typical examples that have resulted even in one's own or the friend's death.

4.5.2 Treatment of Psychopathology Using Social Cognitive Approach

Modelling therapies have been designed for fear and avoidance responses. Bandura and Menlove (1968) used this technique to reduce avoidance behaviour in children with fear of dogs. Another elaborate experiment with the same technique was conducted by Spiegler, Liebert, McMains and Fernandez (1969) developed a film where one model was handling non-poisonous snakes comfortably and a female undergraduate student served as the second model. The student model in the film initially demonstrated aversive and fearful reactions. Gradually, seeing the first model managing the snake with ease, the second model could come out of the fear and handle the snake.

In one of a series of experiments, the researchers showed this film to a number of volunteers from the community. They were selected because all of them reported significant fear of snake disabling their daily life. Their initial fear was assessed on a behavioural measure. The participants were divided in three groups. One group was exposed to relaxation therapy. The second group saw the film. A third group received relaxation therapy and also saw the film. Results revealed that the group that received combined therapy gained the greatest in terms of fear reduction. Relaxation only was less effective than film only.

This experiment reveals that modelling as a therapeutic technique may be more effective when properly designed than some other behavioural therapies. Also it highlights the fact that modelling can be used in combination with other therapies and works best under proper combination.

How does modelling work in case of fear reduction? You have already learnt that modelling has significant impact on self efficacy beliefs. If you are afraid of snakes,

you believe yourself incapable of handling snakes. As you see the first model working with snakes you may think that some people can handle snakes easily. As you see the second model, who is as naïve as you, learn to handle snake, you start imitating the behaviour of the models. As the self efficacy belief of the second model in the film changes, so does yours. You start considering yourself as capable of doing what you could not earlier.

Using the same logic, modeling has been successfully used to treat test anxiety, to train assertiveness and to alleviate fear of medical procedures (eg. injection) among children. The same procedure may be used to retrain persons with maladaptive and antisocial behaviour as well. If we assume that antisocial behaviour is the result of undesirable modeling, we can expose the persons to models whose aggression is of a desirable style and the consequences are so manipulated that only desired mode of aggression is rewarded.

Modeling does not always need to be through direct exposure from outside. You can also opt for *covert modeling technique*. In this technique the client is taught to imagine different scenes vividly. Subsequently, she is instructed to imagine scenes where the desired behaviour is enacted. For example, if you are afraid of assertive behaviour in front of others, you may imagine a scene where a student, wrongfully accused by the teacher, is calmly but assertively making her point clear to the teacher. Through repeated imagining of such scenes in different situations, covert imitation takes place, bringing change to behaviour.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) Tick the correct answer:
 - a) Bandura conducted modelling experiments regarding
 - (i) children's interaction (ii) children's choice (iii) children's aggressive behaviour (iv) children's altruistic behaviour.
 - b) Modelling refers to
 - (i) the model's behaviour (ii) the experimenter's behaviour (iii) the learner's behaviour (iv) none of these.
 - c) You are waiting before eating until all guests are served the food. Your child also does the same. She is learning (i) modelling (ii) self reinforcement (iii) altruism (iv) delay of gratification.
- 2) Write True (T) or False (F)
 - a) In Spiegler et al.'s experiment, the group that saw the film only was benefited the most. ()
 - b) Collective agency is greater than the sum of the individual agencies. ()
 - c) In covert modelling technique the client does not see the model, but listens to the drama. ()

4.6 CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL-COGNITIVE APPROACH TO PERSONALITY

Bandura's approach is popular in behaviours. However, the very emphasis on person as a constructing agent has been criticized by biological theorists. They argue that the social-cognitive approach completely ignores the biological disposition involved in the personality formation. The staunch supporters of conditioning also denounce

this approach as they believe that conditioning is sufficient to explain all behaviours. They complain that postulating personal agency or internalisation of reinforcement unnecessarily confuses one's understanding of the contingencies.

Bandura's Bobo-doll experiments have been criticized methodologically because usually he aroused the aggression of children by teasing or frustrating them before putting them in the room for observation. His experiments have also been criticized as unethical, since aggression has been impressed upon the children.

Bandura's claim that TV viewing of aggressive themes increases aggression has been seriously criticized. Indeed, there have been some evidences that viewing aggressive films helps to vent out aggression on the characters, and help to behave more rationally in real life (Feshback and Singer, 1971). This process of letting out aggression is known as catharsis, borrowing a term from psychoanalysis.

Despite partial validity of all these criticisms, it may be stated that Bandura opened up a new direction in behavioural approach to personality and has paved way to a number of effective therapeutic techniques.

4.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have learnt about the essential concept of Bandura's social-cognitive approach to personality. We have learnt that human beings can engage in self regulated behaviour and may have personal agency. The factors and components of agency have been discussed in section 2. The roles of self reinforcement and self-efficacy beliefs have also been highlighted. We have learnt that self efficacy develops through observational learning. It involves modelling by a model and its imitation by the learner. We have discussed a number of experiments by Bandura where the effects of viewing aggressive models on children's aggressive behaviour have been studied. We have learnt how vicarious conditioning takes place in the context of observational learning. We have made a brief review of how modelling and imitation may be used in different social and clinical domains. We have focuses on explanation of psychopathology from social-cognitive point of view. We have reviewed some of the therapeutic techniques that are used to treat fear and avoidance behaviour, to train assertiveness and to change antisocial behaviour. Finally, we have discussed about the critical analysis of the social cognitive theory of personality.

4.8 GLOSSARY

- Reciprocal Determinism** : In social-cognitive approach, the continuous interaction among behavioural, cognitive and environmental influences that ultimately determine human behaviour.
- Personal agency** : Bandura's notion of the human being's ability to select and internally reinforce behaviour.
- Anticipatory consequences** : The expectancy based on prior experience that a particular behaviour would lead to a specific consequence.
- Self efficacy** : In social-cognitive approach, the perceived ability of a person to deal with a specific situation.

Self reinforcement	: The process by which human beings reinforce themselves by rewarding or punishing themselves for some behaviour.
Observational learning	: Bandura's concept of learning by merely observing other persons perform something.
Modeling	: Learning by imitating the behaviour of other persons or models.
Vicarious conditioning	: The process of learning emotional reactions by observing the model reacting emotionally to something.
Delay of gratification	: The postponement of immediate pleasure for a later greater pleasure.
Covert modeling	: The process of learning by observing a model that has been created imaginally by oneself to represent the desired kind of behaviour.

4.9 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What do you understand by personal agency? Discuss its characteristic features.
- 2) Define self efficacy. How does it influence behaviour?
- 3) Describe with experimental evidences the nature of observational learning.
- 4) Discuss the stages and factors of observational learning.
- 5) Discuss with suitable examples the application of social-cognitive approach in changing human behaviour.
- 6) Discuss with examples social cognitive approach to psychopathology and its treatment.
- 7) Critically analysis Bandura's social-cognitive approach to personality.

4.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Hjelle, L. A. & Zeigler, D. J. (1981) *Personality Theories: Basic Assumptions, Research and Applications*. Auckland: McGraw Hill.

Liebert, R. M. & Spiegler, M. D. (1987) *Personality: Strategies and Issues*. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.

Internet source: <<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vdh7MngntnI>>

4.11 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) Social learning theory
- 2) Intentionality, Forethought, Self reactive ness and Self reflective ness
- 3) a) False b) False c) True

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) Exposure to the model, acquiring the model's behaviour (learning) and accepting it as one's own.
- 2) Attention, retention, motor reproduction and motivation
- 3) a) False b) True c) True.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) a) iii b) i c) iv.
- 2) a) False b) True c) False.

