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GYAN VIHAR**
UNIVERSITY
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**Master of Arts
(Psychology)**

**Personality theories
Semester-I**

Author- Monika Yadav

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Centre for Distance and Online Education
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Personality Theories (paper-3)

Learning out comes

Students will be able to understand:

Unit-1

- Understand the basic nature of human beings and the various factors influencing personality development.
- Recognize the structure of personality, considering components like the id, ego, and superego.
- Explore the impact of early experiences, socialization, and biological factors on personality.

Unit-2

- Understand the key concepts and foundations of each theory.
- Recognize the structure of personality and how it develops in Analytical Psychology and Individual Psychology.
- Explore further applications, including therapeutic practices, assessments, and practical implications of each psychological perspective.

Unit-3

- Understand the key concepts and principles of each theory.
- Recognize the structure of personality and how it develops in Ego Psychology and Self-Actualization Theory.
- Explore further applications, including therapeutic practices, interventions, and practical implications of each psychological perspective.

Unit-4

- Understand the key concepts and principles of each theory.
- Explore the basic nature of human beings according to each perspective.
- Recognize the structure of personality and how it develops in Self-Actualization Theory and Social Cognitive Theory.

Unit-5

Define and understand the purpose of personality tests.

Explore the characteristics and applications of the Big Five Personality Test and Myers-Briggs Personality Test.

Understand projective tests and their use in revealing unconscious aspects of personality.

PERSONALITY THEORIES SYLLABUS

UNIT I

FREUD'S THEORY

Introduction to Personality, Sigmund Freud – Psychoanalysis, Basic Nature of Human Beings, Structure of Personality, Application of Personality Development

UNIT II

C.G. JUNG AND ALFRED ADLER

Introduction, Analytical Psychology by C.G. Jung, Basic Nature of Human Beings, Structure of Personality, Development of Personality, Individual Psychology by Alfred Adler, Creative Power, Birth Order, Basic Nature of Human Beings, Structure of Personality, Development of Personality

UNIT III

ERIK ERIKSON AND CARL ROGERS

Introduction, Ego Psychology by Erik Erikson, Basic Nature of Human Beings, Structure of Personality, Development of Personality, Self Actualization by Carl Rogers, Rogers' Theory of Personality, Basic Nature of Human Beings, Structure of Personality, Development of Personality

UNIT IV

ABRAHAM MASLOW AND ALBERT BANDURA

Introduction, Self Actualization Theory by Abraham Maslow, Basic Nature of Human Beings, Structure of Personality, Development of Personality, Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory, Basic Nature of Human Beings, Structure of Personality, Development of Personality

UNIT V

PERSONALITY TESTS

Introduction, Personality Tests, Big Five Personality Test, Myers Briggs Personality Test, Type of Personality Test, Projective Techniques, Rorschach's Personality Test, TAT, CAT, Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement Test, Rosenzweig-Picture Frustration Test

UNIT

I

FREUD'S THEORY

STRUCTURE

- 1.1 Learning Objective
- 1.2 Introduction to Personality
- 1.3 Sigmund Freud - Psychoanalysis
- 1.4 Basic Nature of Human Beings
- 1.5 Structure of Personality
- 1.6 Application of Personality Development
- 1.7 Chapter Summary
- 1.8 Review Questions
- 1.9 Multiple Choice Questions



1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

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

- Understand Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality by Sigmund Freud.
- Learn basic nature of human beings.
- Know about the structure of personality.
- Understand the application of personality development.

1.2 INTRODUCTION TO PERSONALITY

Personality means the constitution of mental as well as the physical health of an individual. Personality may be defined as the characteristic pattern of behavior that determines an individual's adjustment to the environment or situation.

Personality has a long history. It dates from the time of Greek physician Hippocrates (460-377 BC). In order to understand the behavior of people in the organizational setting, we need to know the basic nature of personality. It is a psycho-social phenomenon, which analyses the cognitive features and presentation of individual in the society.

Personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behavior of an individual. These attributes make a person unique. Personality originates within the individual and remains fairly consistent throughout life. Personality exhibits distinctive qualities of a person, especially those distinguishing personal characteristics that make one socially appealing. If a person wins an election on his own, society may say that he/she has won "more on personality than on capability".

Personality reveals distinctive traits of mind and behavior of a person. It is a pattern of collective character which includes behavioral, mental, temperamental, and emotional traits of a person that makes one socially appealing. It exhibits the quality of a person, which is visible and impresses or disturbs others. For example, the statements such as "He has a pleasing personality Raju is a Crude persona" reveal the collective characters of a person which exhibits positive or negative personality.

"Personality is the supreme realization of the innate idiosyncrasy, of a living being. It is an act of courage thing in the face of life, the absolute affirmation of all that constitute the individual, the most successful adaptation to the universal, conditions of existence, coupled with the greatest possible freedom of self-determination." — C.G. Jung

"Personality is the relatively stable set of psychological attributes that distinguish one "person from another." — Lawrence Ervin

"Personality refers to the relatively stable pattern of behaviors and consistent internal states that explain a person's behavior tendencies." — RT Hogan.

"Personality is the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others." — Stephen P. Robbins

The basic components of personality refer to the personality trait. Many researchers have shown interest to know about individual's personality as it is linked with behavior. If one can predict the behavior of individuals, modification of behavior can be done in

a smoother way towards achieving the organizational goals. Each personality factor represents a collection of related or cluster of traits. These clusters of traits determine whether the individual is achievement-oriented, dominating, responsible, etc.



1.3 SIGMUND FREUD - PSYCHOANALYSIS

The Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality is an idea that the personality of an individual will develop in a series of stages. Each stage is characterized by certain and very specific internal psychological conflicts. It is a theory that can be characterized by 4 key points.

1. Human behavior is the result of three component interactions.

Freud described these three internal components as being the id, the ego, and the superego. It is the conflict within their interactions that helps to develop personality.

2. Most of the conflicts are unconscious.

People are not aware of how their three internal components are in conflict with each other, despite the fact that this conflict shapes the mind in terms of personality and even behavior.

3. Sexual identification can influence this conflict.

Freud identified five different stages of psychosexual development which he believed would influence the outcomes of the conflicts occurring through the id, ego, and superego.

4. Social expectations and biological drives must be integrated.

As children develop, there are certain social expectations that are placed upon them. These expectations may be at odds with what their biological drive is telling them to do. How child navigates through this process allows them to master their stages of development and this helps to provide the foundation of a mature personality.

Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality often comes under criticism because of its primary focus on individualized sexuality identification. This emphasis then led to an importance on the dreams that a person has what the interpretation of that dream might be, and the defense mechanisms that an individual might use to protect their biological drive against societal expectations that are counter to them.

THE 3 ELEMENTS OF PERSONALITY STRUCTURE

The Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality is dependent on the definition of the three elements of personality structure. Freud identified each element in this manner.

ID: This part of a person's personality is driven by an internal and basic drive. It is essentially a need for self-survival and replication. This means the needs of the id are based on instinct: thirst, hunger, or a desire to have sex would all be considered part of this element of personality. The decisions within this element are often impulsive.

EGO: This part of the personality is driven by reality. It is the balance between the instinctual form of personality and the moral form of personality. The ego, according to Freud, rationalizes the urges and instincts of the individual and separates what is real from the restrictions that societal groups place upon individuals.

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SUPEREGO: This personality element is driven by morality principles. It is where people are able to connect with logic and other forms of higher thought or action. Instead of making a decision that is based on instinct, an individual engaged with their superego would make a judgment on right or wrong and use guilt or shame to encourage behaviors that are socially acceptable in themselves or in others.

The key to unlocking an individual's personality is the development of the unconscious mind. This is where the true feelings, thoughts, or emotions of an individual happen to be. In order to understand these components of personality, it becomes necessary to access the unconscious mind. According to Freud, dreams would be the place where people could do such a thing.

What It Means to Get Stuck in Freud's Theory

Freud's ideas about individualized personality development are dependent on the progression of the individual. Freud believed that there are different stages that occur based on how a person's libido is focused on specific, but different body parts. In his order of progression, there is oral, anal, phallic, latency, and then genital.

Only if people are able to meet all of their needs through every other stage will they be able to meet at the genital stage with any available sexual energy. If needs are not met in the other stages, then that individual becomes fixated within that stage until their needs are met.

If a person were to be stuck, the unconscious mind may attempt to communicate this fact through the use of dreams. It may also come out in the form of a Freudian slip, which would show evidence of the ego or superego not working properly. This, in turn, would affect an individual's personality because no progression could be made until the communication from the unconscious mind was addressed.

Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality does have limits. Environmental impacts are not included despite evidence of its influence. There is no empirical data to support the theory, and culture and its influence are disregarded. Despite these limits, the approach does offer an explanation for certain defense mechanisms and why they are used, showing how individual personalities can develop over time.

1.4 BASIC NATURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

Human beings begin life as simple organic units and develop into personalities with complex spiritual qualities. From a helpless beginning they grow into spiritual dynamos, capable of mastery of themselves and of their social environment. The process is largely one of inter-social stimulation and response, and the product is human personalities with their attitudes and values of life. According to this analysis, social psychology studies inter-social stimulation; and response, social attitudes, values, and personalities. It begins with individual human beings and original human nature and traces their growth through inter-social stimulation into persons with socialized attitudes.

Out of inter-social stimulation personal nature slowly and fitfully evolves. That it has a physical basis, akin to that of animal nature, no one can well disprove. It is in part a neuro-

muscular system, vastly complex and not very well understood; it is also psychical and social. It is at once a product and a cause, a resultant and a generator.

When Dr. William Healy refers to the individual “as the product of conditions and forces which have been actively forming him from the earliest moment of unicellular life,” he is emphasizing a part of the truth, the product phase to the exclusion of the ascendancy phase. Dr. Healy’s experiences with delinquents and persons who are “victims of circumstance” have led him perhaps to overlook somewhat the inventor, the leader, or even normal persons who modify or change material and spiritual environments. Social psychology deals primarily with normal persons as both products and initiators in the inter-social stimulation process.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. **What it means to get stuck in Freud’s theory?**
2. **List the elements of personality structure.**
3. **“Human behavior is the result of three component interactions.” Explain.**
4. **Describe the key points for characterizing Freud’s Psychoanalytic Theory.**
5. **What is the definition of personality according to Lawrence Ervin and RT Hogan?**

1.5 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Personality according to Freud is made up of the Id, ego and superego. They involve in the process of shaping the individual’s mind. According to Buskist William (1990), “the unconscious mind is a perceptual battleground in which the Id, ego and superego are engaged in unending conflict.” “The result from the battle cause everyone to behave or react differently forming and showing a different personality. According to Freud the Id is the pleasure principal that seeks gratification and the instincts are: food, sexual pleasure and aggression.” The adolescents are often hungry and teachers would find them eating in class, fighting to get justice they think they deserve rather than complaining to the teachers. To deal with these behavior teachers need to understand the students’ personalities.

The ego involves cognitive thinking which allows reasoning, reality and process information about the environment. The ego links the individual and the environment and self awareness. According to Santrock (1994:31), Freud states that the Id is an absolute ruler, owed complete obedience; it is spoiled, willful, impatient and self-centered. The ego has the job of getting things done; it is tuned into reality and is responsive to society’s demands. The superego is concerned with right and wrong; its role is to tell the greedy Id that nobler purposes should be pursued. The superego is the moral part of the self.

According to Santrock (1994) Defense Mechanisms which are unconscious methods by which the ego distorts reality to protect itself from anxiety are:

- Repression is a powerful and pervasive defense mechanism since it works to push unacceptable Id impulses out of awareness and back into the unconscious mind.



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- Rationalization is the psychoanalytic defense mechanism that occurs when the real motive for an individual's behavior is not accepted by the ego and is replaced by a sort of convert motive.
- Displacement occurs when the involvement of unacceptable feelings from one object to another, more acceptable object.
- Sublimation occur when a useful course of action replaces and unacceptable one.
- Projection occurs when we attribute our own shorting, and faults to others.
- Reaction formation occur when we express an unacceptable impulse by transforming it into its opposite.
- Regression occur when we behave in a way characteristic of a previous developmental level.

COMPARING PERSONALITY THEORIES

INNATE VS. LEARNED FACTORS

The question is which factors affect the personality more innate or learned? Both of these factors are important in the development in an individual's personality. In the study of fraternal twin who were separated at birth proves that both twin were very different. They had the same genetic composition but their environment was different. One of the twins was in a wealthy environment with everything and the other in a poorer environment and they both turned out so different all because of the environment they were exposed to.

The environment or society you belong to will influence your personality since your will be groomed and taught what that society feel is right or wrong. The richer family will provide moral, emotional support, financial security which all human beings need as stipulated by Abraham Maslow in the theory of hierarchy of needs. However, a different society or a poor society will think differently and react differently. If your change the persons environment they will adapt to the new environment and change their personality to adapt to their present environment. It is simply our human nature of survival.

According to Santrock (1994), Skinner and social learning theorist believe "personality is behavior that is environmentally determined." However, humanistic theories believe that "personality is influences by experience and can be changed and people have innate ability to self actualized." It can be seen that both heredity and environment plays and important part in an individual's personality development.

CONSCIOUS VS. UNCONSCIOUS

According to Freud in Buskist William (1990:505), "personalities are determined by both conscious and unconscious powers, with the unconscious exerting considerable influence on the conscious." Therefore repressed ideas, thoughts and wished influence our conscious way of thinking and behavior. Also repressed ideas and thoughts can surface in dreams and mistakes of speech known as Freudian Slips.

The Conscious mind hold things we are fully aware of, that we can think and rationalize while the unconscious mind is the bulk of the mind. The mind suppresses the things we don't want to remember like pain, hurt, conflict, abuse and things we hid from the world

that we hid it so far we ourselves do not remember. According to Freud, “our deeply repressed experiences in infancy and early childhood determined what our personality will be in adulthood. While psychoanalytical theorist argues that individuals are unaware of our personality development.” Students are different and they all have different personality and to understand their needs teachers need to understand personality. Students in our classroom have pain and hurt deep within them causing them to behave reserved or misbehave and the teacher without studying the child plaster a label as “indiscipline, pest, dunce” without understanding or thinking about what is causing this child to behave this way.

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INTERNAL VS. EXTERNAL DETERMINANTS

The internal dimensions of personality according to Freud are the Id, ego and superego while the external determinants being cognitive and social learning. People are prisoners of their past since the problem may have hurt the person's ego before when a similar problem arises the individual struggles with low self-esteem and low self-confidence. Also the cognitive development, social learning and moral guidance help to make decisions rather than overacting with the Id but the superego controls all the extreme actions and it helps both the internal and external determinants to harmonize.

According to Freud:

The poor ego feels hemmed in on here sides, threatened by three kinds of danger to which, if it is hard pressed it reacts by generating anxiety. Thus the ego, driven by id, confined by the superego, repulsed by reality, struggles to master it economic talk of bringing about harmony among the forces and influences working in and upon it, and we can understand how it is that so often we cannot suppress a cry: “Life is not easy!”

THE BIG FIVE FACTORS OF PERSONALITY

Some individual have a high level of intellect or gifted while some students are slow learners. Some students are social and interact while others are reserved and quiet, some are funny and jolly while some are sad and depress and these are all personalities of people. Everyone deal with situation differently since everyone is being guided differently by their superego. Everyone is taught different values depending on their culture. According to Child (1998), Eysencks big five are:

- Neuroticism - Emotional Stability
- Introversion - Extraversion
- Openness - Convergence
- Agreeableness - Antagonism &
- Conscientiousness - Undirectedness

1.6 APPLICATIONS OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Application refers to the procedures used to evaluate or differentiate people on the basis of certain characteristics. The goal of assessment is to understand and predict behavior with minimum error and maximum accuracy. We try to study what a person generally

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does, or how s/he behaves, in a given situation. Besides promoting our understanding, it is also useful for diagnosis, training, placement, counseling, and other purposes.

Psychologists have tried to assess personality in various ways. The most commonly used techniques are:

- Psychometric Tests
- Self-Report Measures
- Projective Techniques &
- Behavioral Analysis

These techniques are rooted in different theoretical orientations; hence they throw light on different aspects of personality.

1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Personality refers to an individual's mental and physical health constitution. Personality can be described as the distinctive pattern of behavior that dictates an individual's response to his or her surroundings or situation. Sigmund Freud's psychodynamic perspective of personality was the first comprehensive theory of personality, explaining a wide variety of both normal and abnormal behaviors. According to Freud, unconscious drives influenced by sex and aggression, along with childhood sexuality, are the forces that influence our personality. Freud attracted many followers who modified his ideas to create new theories about personality.

These theorists, referred to as neo-Freudians, generally agreed with Freud that childhood experiences matter, but they reduced the emphasis on sex and focused more on the social environment and effects of culture on personality. The perspective of personality proposed by Freud and his followers was the dominant theory of personality for the first half of the 20th century. Understanding how personality develops can provide insight into others, as well as into us. There are many different theories as to how personality forms, each of which has contributed to what we know about personality today.

1.8 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Briefly discuss the basic nature of human beings.
2. What are the three elements of personality structure?
3. What it means to get stuck in Freud's Theory?
4. What are the commonly used techniques used by psychologists to assess personality?
5. What do you understand by 'superego'?

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What is the definition of 'Personality' according to Sigmund Freud?
2. Discuss the 'Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality' in detail.

3. Compare the personality theories by Santrock and Sigmund Freud.
4. What is the reason of criticism for Sigmund Freud's theory?
5. Discuss the variety of qualities exhibited by personality.

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1.9 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. _____ is a powerful and pervasive defense mechanism
 - a. Repression
 - b. Rationalization
 - c. Regression
 - d. None of these
2. _____ refers to an individual's mental and physical health constitution.
 - a. Plebeian
 - b. Personality
 - c. Mediocrity
 - d. None of these
3. _____ occurs when we attribute our own shorting, and faults to others.
 - a. Reaction
 - b. Displacement
 - c. Projection
 - d. None of these
4. _____ is essentially a need for self-survival and replication.
 - a. ID
 - b. Ego
 - c. Superego
 - d. None of these
5. _____ is the balance between the instinctual form of personality and the moral form of personality.
 - a. ID
 - b. Superego
 - c. Ego
 - d. None of these
6. _____ occur when a useful course of action replaces and unacceptable one.
 - a. Reaction
 - b. Displacement
 - c. Projection
 - d. Sublimation
7. _____ refers to the procedures used to evaluate or differentiate people on the basis of certain characteristics.
 - a. Displacement
 - b. Ego

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- c. Superego
 - d. Application
8. 'Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality' was given by _____.
- a. Sigmund Freud
 - b. Santrock
 - c. Hippocrates
 - d. Stephen P. Robbins
9. The Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality is dependent on the definition of the _____ elements of personality structure.
- a. Two
 - b. Three
 - c. Four
 - d. Five
10. "Personality is the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others" this definition is given by _____.
- a. C.G. Jung
 - b. Lawrence Ervin
 - c. RT Hogan
 - d. Stephen P. Robbins

♦♦♦♦

C.G. JUNG AND ALFRED ADLER

STRUCTURE

- 21 Learning Objective
- 2.2 Introduction
- 2.3 Analytical Psychology by C.G. Jung
- 2.4 Basic Nature of Human Beings
- 2.5 Structure of Personality
- 2.6 Development of Personality
- 2.7 Individual Psychology by Alfred Adler
- 2.8 Creative Power
- 2.9 Birth Order
- 2.10 Basic Nature of Human Beings
- 2.11 Structure of Personality
- 2.12 Development of Personality
- 2.13 Chapter Summary
- 2.14 Review Questions
- 2.15 Multiple Choice Questions



2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

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

- Understand the analytical psychology by C.G. Jung.
- Learn about the structure of personality.
- Know about development of personality.
- Understand the individual psychology by Alfred Adler.
- Learn about birth order.

2.2 INTRODUCTION

Carl Jung was working as a psychiatrist in Zurich when he came across Interpretation of dreams. He was highly impressed by the concepts and started sharing his work and writings with Freud, which marked a regular correspondence between the two. On April 7, 1907, Freud wrote to Jung, “that you have inspired me with confidence for the future, that I now realize that I am as replaceable as everyone else and that I could hope for no better than yourself, as I have come to know you, to continue and complete my work” (Freud/Jung, 1974, p.27). Thus, Freud decided Jung to be his academic successor/heir. But, gradually personal as well as theoretical differences between the two started erupting, ending their correspondence and relationship in 1913. Later, Jung founded his own school and called it analytical psychology. In the following section, we will outline the tenets and contributions of Jungian analytical psychology.

2.3 ANALYTICAL PSYCHOLOGY BY C.G. JUNG

What Is Analytical Psychology?

Carl Jung was not only the founder but also the major theorist of analytical psychology. What is analytical psychology? He created analytical psychology, and according to him, an analytical psychology definition would be a wholistic methodology which utilizes empiricism to investigate the human psyche while emphasizing early childhood experiences, creativity, dreams, and supernatural elements.

Jung developed analytical theory after splitting from his mentor Sigmund Freud and some of his theories. However, analytical psychology is still closely aligned with the clinical approach of psychoanalysis. The main assumption of analytical psychology is that the human mind is composed of both the personal unconscious and a collective unconscious. Furthermore, the analytical psychologist looks to help an individual by utilizing the collective unconscious to benefit an individual’s personal unconsciousness.

History of Analytical Psychology

Sigmund Schlomo Freud and Carl Gustav Jung first met in Vienna, Austria in the year 1907. Freud was about 19 years older than Jung, who was so enthralled with his teacher it is reported they spent over 12 hours in deep conversation. About six years later in 1913, the relationship between Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung saw the former intending to pass on the mantle of the leader of psychoanalysis to the latter.

However, disagreements over some of the specifics of Freud's theories led to Jung breaking off and forming his own school of thought. Analytical psychology has the underlying goals of the individual moving toward increased self-knowledge, searching for various meanings in their dreams as well as creative work, and making their human unconscious known. In 1955, the International Association of Analytical Psychology (IAAP) was founded by a group of Carl Jung's actual associates to carry on his legacy of teachings.

Analytical Theory

While Freud's theory involved the:

- Conscious
- Preconscious
- Unconscious

Jung divided the human psyche into:

- Collective unconscious
- Personal unconscious

It is clear that both Freud and Jung taught that behavior was influenced by repressed human emotions, but Jung believed dreams reflected human aspects far beyond just desire. Furthermore, while Freud rejected both religions along with spirituality in his teachings, despite the fact he was raised in the Jewish faith, Jung embraced the supernatural instead.

One professional misfortune took place due to Jung ignoring Freud's advice. While Freud insisted on his patients facing away from him, Jung preferred face-to-face encounters during therapy. As Freud predicted could happen, one of Jung's clients, Sabina Spielrein, fell in love with the married Jung during their therapy sessions.

Neurosis

According to analytical psychology, neurosis, also known by the monikers neurotic disorder or psychoneurosis, is a comparatively mild form of mental illness which doesn't involve completely losing touch with reality. It originates as a type of self-division between the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious. If an individual is overwhelmed by the collective unconscious, then psychosis, or a much stronger form of neurosis, may result.

On the other hand, if an individual becomes disconnected from the collective unconscious, they may experience a shallow and self-absorbed life instead. Symptoms of neurosis include:

- Anxiety
- Depression
- Fears
- Fetishes
- Phobias

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According to Jung's analytical psychology, these symptoms are kindred to dreams in that they contain some sort of concealed meaning.

Complexes and Archetypes

A complex entails a pattern of feelings along with thoughts which are suppressed. Furthermore, this complex revolves around a theme furnished by an archetype. According to Jung, an archetype can be described as a broad symbol that exists somewhere in the collective unconscious. Examples of archetypes include:

- Anima and Animus
- Clown or Joker
- Father Figure
- Mother Figure
- The Self
- Wise Old Man

Based on Jung's theories, when an individual identifies with a particular complex, a neurosis may result.

Shadow and Persona

The shadow in Jungian psychology is the darker and more mysterious side of a person. Its purpose is for the individual to hide their self-perceived negative qualities out of anxiety, embarrassment, or shame. This is in contrast to the persona, which is the face a person presents to others. Its purpose is for the individual to play the positive role expected of them by society. The persona is somewhat akin to the ego while the shadow is somewhat akin to the id in Freudian psychology.

2.4 BASIC NATURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

Personality Theory

In his theory of personality, Carl Jung distinguishes two different attitude types: Introverts, which are those people who receive stimulation from within, and extroverts, which are those who receive their stimulation from the environment.

Introverts can be perceived as withdrawn or shy, but they are more defined as those who get their energy from being alone and being able to recharge through less stimulating activities, whereas extroverts get their energy from being around other people and engaging in stimulating activities. For example, Donna is an extrovert. She loves to go out on adventures with lots of people and see exciting new things. Her friend David, though, is the opposite. Given the choice, he'd rather read a book on his couch than go skydiving with Donna. David is an introvert.

Jung also separates introverts and extroverts into four subtypes according to the functions that control the way they perceive the world. Both introverts and extroverts can be any of these subtypes, so there are eight possible personality types. These four functions are:

- **Thinking**

Applying reasoning to the situations and environments you encounter. For example, David likes to think things through and consider all the pros and cons before he makes a decision about anything.

- **Feeling**

Applying subjective, personal assessment to the situations and environments you encounter. Unlike David, Donna relies on her feelings to tell her how to make a decision. If something feels good, she goes for it; if it doesn't, she avoids it.

- **Sensation**

Applying aesthetic value to the situations and environments you encounter. For example, when deciding how to arrange his living room, David tries to make things very symmetrical. If there's a chair on one side of the room, he has to put the same chair on the other side of the room to balance it. This symmetry makes the room look nice.

- **Intuition**

Using your unconscious or the mystical to understand your experiences. For example, Donna thinks David is arranging his furniture all wrong. Donna believes it is important to arrange furniture more spaced apart in order to bring about positive energy.

2.5 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Jung's approach to personality was different from Freud's, as he believed that the major issue was to make sense of and explain the construction of fantasies and dreams that exemplifies symbols and themes which are more than an individual's personal experience. Thus, the personality was divided into three major zones: the conscious ego, the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious.

The Conscious Ego

Functioning as the conscious part of personality, the ego includes perceptions, memories, thoughts and feelings. It has an important role to play in an individual's self-awareness, identity, and continuity. It roughly corresponds to Freudian concept of ego.

The Personal Unconscious

It is similar to that of Freudian preconscious, but Jung discussed a few more features and added to it. It consists of content that due to inattention or lack of usage is not a part of conscious awareness, but can become conscious at will. It may contain experiences that were once conscious and have been forgotten, suppressed, ignored and lost their intensity. It also contains ideas and impulses that may have been actively withdrawn from consciousness because it involved motives that were unacceptable to the ego of the individual. For Jung, the unconscious is both retrospective and prospective in nature.

Thus, oriented to both past and future anticipation (Jung, 1916). The unconscious also serves as a compensatory function. If the attitude of an individual tilts too much in one direction, the unconscious may compensate for it by producing fantasies and dreams stressing the opposite tendency to balance it (Jung, 1916).



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The Collective Unconscious

Collective or transpersonal unconscious is the level that exists deeper than the personal unconscious. It is considered as an important contribution of Jungian psychology and one of the most controversial ones as well. It is “detached from anything personal and is common to all men, since its contents can be found everywhere” (Jung, 1917). It is a storehouse of primordial images and ideas inherited from one’s ancestral past which includes the racial history of humans and also their pre-human and animal ancestry (Hall, Lindzey, & Campbell, 1957). These primordial images, termed as archetypes are believed to be the possibilities of action, predispositions to respond to certain external events in particular ways, and potentialities of shaping experience in certain directions (Jung, 1936).

Thus, they become the flexible templates or models for current experiences and shape the course of an individual’s interactions with the external as well as the inner world—the personal unconscious. Personal and collective unconscious are two unconscious regions of the mind and are of great importance to humans: “It (the unconscious) holds possibilities which are locked away from the conscious mind, for it has at its disposal all subliminal contents, all those things which have been forgotten or overlooked, as well as the wisdom and experience of uncounted centuries, which are laid down in its archetypal organs” (Jung, 1953). Jung had discussed that ignorance of the wisdom of unconscious by ego may result in the distortion of conscious processes. This discard or neglect of the unconscious processes may become a reason for symptoms such as phobias, delusions and other irrationalities.

Archetypes

Archetypes are the structural components of the collective unconscious. They are also called as the primordial images or even mythological images. It is a permanent deposit in the mind of perpetually repeated experiences occurred over the generations. For instance, numerous generations have seen the event Neo-Freudians of the sun rising and then setting. According to Jungian theory, repetition of this magnificent event became fixed in the collective unconscious over a period of time as an archetype of sun-god. This archetype carries with itself the image of powerful, dominating, light-giving body that people started either defying or worshipping. The archetypes in the collective unconscious are a residue of ancestral emotional life (Jung, 1917).

2.6 DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

Two important terms discussed by Jung in the context of personality development were individuation and transcendent function. He divided the stages of personality development into four basic stages- childhood, youth, middle age, and old age. He laid a lot of emphasis on the middle age or the second half (mid-life) of the life. At this stage and here onwards, he believed individuals have sufficient opportunity to fulfill a major goal of the personality self-actualization. Individuation, in its very basic sense refers to the process of becoming a whole person or an individual.

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Transcendent function refers to going beyond the ordinary development and bringing together different aspects of personality in harmony, thus integrating even the conscious

and unconscious material. The concepts such as complexes, psychic energy have been criticized by the psychologists but no one can deny the influence Jung had on psychology nor the extent he inspired many more theorists and theoretical concepts, opening another side of the field for us.

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CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Explain the concept of collective unconscious as discussed by Carl Jung.
2. Define archetypes.
3. What Is Analytical Psychology?
4. What do you understand by conscious ego?
5. State the symptoms of neurosis.

2.7 INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY BY ALFRED ADLER

Alfred Adler's primary training was in medicine and thus, he practiced psychiatry. He theorized in the field of abnormal psychology and formulated a theory of neurosis before expanding its scope and including normal personality in it. Unlike Freudian theory, his theory minimized the role of sexual instinct in the dynamics of behavior. Rather, he added that humans are primarily social and not sexual beings, thus, motivated by social interest. The concepts that shaped the Adlerian, Individual psychology are as follows:

Inferiority-Superiority

Organ inferiority and compensation Adler asserted that every man succumbs to disease in the organ which has been less developed, less successfully functioning and mainly "inferior" from birth. This inferiority may exist due to heredity or because of some developmental abnormality. Whatever the weakness (for example: damaged limbs, speech defect, sensory defect etc.), environmental demands have a huge role to play on the inferior organ, and the way in which the individual would adapt to life. Adler emphasized that the person with the defective organ often tries to compensate this weakness by strengthening it with intensive training. Undergoing increased growth and functioning power, the inferior organ may "overcompensate" for the former deficit as the individual consciously centers his attention on that area of functioning (Adler, 1907).

For example, an individual with speech deficit as a child may become so fervent in overcoming his stuttering that he may turn his inferiority into a career such as an actor, orator or perhaps a speech therapist. Glenn Cunningham with severe leg injuries eventually became an athlete. While broadening this concept further Adler added that the feeling of inferiority may rise from the actual bodily weakness and it may also stem from subjectively felt psychological or social disabilities. He contended Neo-Freudians that feeling of inferiority is not a sign of abnormality, rather, cause of all improvements in the humans. The Aggression Drive Adler (1908) proposed that there are two basic drives that govern the course of an individual's life the drive of sexuality and aggression.

Along with these various secondary drives related different sensory processes also play an important role in the behavior of an individual. But, it is important to note that no drive stands alone on its own. These drives could be displaced, and transformed from their

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original form and could be expressed in new ways (Monte, 1995). Pure expression of this drive may take place in forms of fighting, biting, cruelty etc. but, it may also take less direct forms. When the aggression drive is turned inwards, the individual may display opposite traits such as humility, submission or even masochism in certain cases. So, the basic idea here is that the hostile attitude is towards the perceived helplessness in obtaining satisfaction, which may get reversed into an opposite drive.

Masculine Protest

In the Adlerian conception, aggressive impulse was replaced by the “will to power”. He believed that the child begins life with the conviction that he is powerless, weak and dependent (Adler, 1927). The child realizes and learns that there are only two things that are in his power: the pleasure and displeasure of his elders. Adler identified power with “masculinity” and weakness with “femininity”. A “masculine protest” is an over compensatory striving for superiority, to annihilate his dependency and assert autonomy. Both men and women engage in it when they feel inferior and weak. Everyone, thus engages in this protest to superior. Adler perhaps succumbed to the historical moment while choosing to name this phenomenon “masculine protest” and identifying masculinity with superiority and femininity with inferiority.

Superiority Striving

Striving for superiority or the need for higher self-esteem is a two phase process. In the first phase, the individual’s biological disability or sense of inferiority with regard to adults around him leads to feelings of insecurity, smallness, and timidity. In the second phase, strive for superiority, autonomy compensates for the feelings of inferiority. The compensatory traits of the masculine protest can be seen as masks concealing the actor’s/ individual’s flaws. Adler had clarified that by superiority he did not mean social distinction, leadership etc.

2.8 CREATIVE POWER

Creative power plays a major role in developing the style of life. Adler believed that all of us possess freedom to create our own life style and thus, we are responsible for who we are and how we behave. It is the creative self-Neo-Freudians that acts upon the societal norms and eventually transforms into it into a dynamic and unique personality.

2.9 BIRTH ORDER

Another well-known Adlerian concept was the impact of a child’s birth order on the development of personality. He had discussed four types of birth orders:

- **The First Born (oldest):** Lives a favoured existence of an only child till his/her sibling is born. This child eventually learns that the mother is too busy and trains oneself for isolation. They may learn to survive alone and independently without anyone’s affection. A healthy outcome would be to imitate the parents in their attention towards the younger children of the family and thus become their helpers.

- **The Second Born:** Is raised in a world where mother's attention is already divided but enjoys a favored existence as she/he has a "pacemaker" in the form of an older sibling. They are usually achievement oriented, conquerors who use direct and even devious means to surpass the pacemaker.
- **The Youngest child:** Each succeeding child "dethrones" the previous one but the last one, the baby of the family, can never be removed from her/his pampered position. This child is at the greatest risk of being a problem child but due to the presence of various "pacemakers" (siblings) they are driven to desire success.
- **The Only child:** They are the rival of their father and is highly pampered by mother— "tied to his mother's apron strings" (Adler, 1929). In later life when they may not be the center of attention, it may become detrimental to them. Adler's main contribution was to provide a framework for a unified and holistic personality. It was more optimistic and realistic, recognizing the impact of social forces in shaping the human behavior. But, for his hypotheses and insights to be placed in the broader field, they need to be empirically tested.

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2.10 BASIC NATURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

Nature of human life style is the chief idiographic principle of Adlerian psychology. It explains the uniqueness of an individual to arrive at a particular goal. It is a product of several forces such as heredity, environment, social interest etc. and no two people develop the same style. Everyone tries to be superior but one may try to become superior through developing intellect whereas the other one may direct all efforts towards muscular perfection. The style of life also determines how an individual faces three life problems mentioned above. Four general life style attitudes proposed are as follows:

- **The ruling type:** High in activity but low in social interest, deal with life problems by dominating them.
- **The getting type:** Low in activity and social interest expects everything they need would be given to them.
- **The avoiding type:** Low in activity and social interest avoids defeat by avoiding the problem itself.
- **The socially useful type:** High in activity and social interest, their activities are in service of others.

2.11 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

We can compare a newborn baby's situation to that of any of us arriving in a foreign country without knowledge of the language and with the desire to receive citizenship. In the beginning, when the newcomer cannot fend for himself, he is lucky. A loving family, and in particular the mother of the family, assume responsibility for and take care of all his needs. He looks around, listens, follows the goings-on around him, and learns. He draws conclusions about people and processes in the foreign country. He draws conclusions based on what he sees and experiences in that family. He might, for example, conclude that people are happy in this country or that people are tense. If people disappoint him

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frequently and do not attend to his needs for nourishment and warmth, he might conclude that one cannot rely on others in this country, and he must take care of himself or take care of others.

If, for example, they take care of him constantly, and all of their efforts focus on his needs while they neglect themselves and others, he may conclude that he is special and deserves special, ongoing attention. He quickly begins to act out of his own initiative and discovers that, while some of his actions result in positive reactions from others, other actions cause others to keep their distance from him, which causes him frustration. Different kinds of behavior lead to different reactions. He might conclude that when the family thinks he is nice, he feels good. Or, when the family exerts pressure on him and tries to control him with power, he might find it unpleasant. In such a case, he might believe that he is accepted only when he gives in.

Based on many experiences and impressions (which for him are objective facts), as well as his subjective perception and interpretation of these facts, the “newcomer” creates a life plan for himself. Based on his interpretations of what is going on, he slowly forms assumptions about how things work in his new country. He conceptualizes what kind of a person he is, what place he has in the group, what possibilities are available to him, what he is capable of, and what he is incapable of. He creates a plan about the path he will walk in this country (in life). He marks the goal he wants to strive towards so that he will have a place as a successful citizen in this country (humanity) where he has arrived and will remain in for the rest of his life.

All of these processes are creations of the newcomer. We can never know what conclusions he will come to, how he will interpret events, and what plan he will create for himself. The baby acts like the newcomer. It wants to succeed in the world he has arrived in, meaning he wants to feel a sense of belonging and a sense of value. He constructs interpretations, draws conclusions, and makes assumptions. We must remember and this is one of the sources of our difficulties in life that these interpretations and conclusions are made by a child with the cognitive ability from the ages of zero to five. This is the explanation for why the assumptions are often not compatible with common sense and that they are often overgeneralizations.

We cannot predict the way in which the child will choose to behave or the goal towards which he will strive, but he will undoubtedly create a plan for himself that will include both his goal and his strategies to achieve it. The strategies for reaching the goal vary. For example, a child may believe that in order to feel like he has a significant place in his family he must always be in the center of attention and receive services from family members. He may discover that he can attain this goal by being sick because parents naturally give special attention to a sick child (this may then develop into hypochondria). He may discover that he can gain attention and even admiration by talking all the time and by saying “smart” things.

He may discover that he can gain attention and special services by doing nothing. He might stare at his socks for twenty minutes in the morning instead of putting them on, inciting his parents to urge him on every few minutes and, when he continues to do nothing, to put



the socks on his feet themselves. This is as much a mechanism of attention as the active one I described. Indeed, there are many ways to reach a goal. Adler calls the ideological construct which includes our assumptions, beliefs, our goal, and our strategies to reach this goal our “private logic.” Can logic be private? This expression seems to include an internal contradiction, as logic is concerned with universal analytic truths accepted by all.

Adler illustrated the two sides of the coin with this expression. On the one hand, the meaning of logic in this context is that if one accepts the basic assumptions an individual has about himself (for example, “I am small and weak”) and about others (for example, everyone wants to hurt me”), then the logic behind the conclusion the individual has come to is understandable (for example, “I must be careful of people”). Yet Adler contrasts the expression “private sense” (or logic) with “common sense.” Private logic is based on the person’s subjective interpretation of reality. We will always find some distance between private logic and what Adler calls “the iron logic of communal life” (Adler, 1967).

For Adler, this logic is the “truth.” Several factors influence, but do not determine, the lifestyle the child creates. The main factors that influence life structure are:

- Family constellation: position in the birth order; age gaps between siblings, gender of siblings
- Family atmosphere: a certain atmosphere characterizes each family
- Educational methods of the parents

2.12 DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

Adler believed that a style of life or Lifestyle develops early in life by age six. This includes a self-concept, a self-ideal, and a view of the world, view of other people, and a conclusion or a final fictional goal of a place of significance.

It also includes certain basic points of personality development, which are:

- Adler basic assumption is that human behavior is purposeful and goal-directed.
- Every one of us has the capacity to choose and create.
- Our personal goals are the sources of our motivation.
- The goals that provide us with security and help us in overcoming the feelings of inadequacy are important in our personality development.
- Alfred Adler’s view every individual suffers from feeling of inferiority that are experienced during infancy and childhood. During childhood, child is helpless and depends on others for help and support.

2.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Now that we have come to the end of this unit, let us recapitulate all the major points that we have learnt. Carl Jung rejected Freudian overemphasis on sexual instinct and thus broke his professional ties to found his analytical psychology. Although his idea of ego was very similar to that of Freud’s but his major contribution was the construct of collective unconscious and archetypes. Adler made significant contribution to the field of psychology through his concepts of organ inferiority, superiority striving, style of life

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and birth order. He has discussed that the birth order of a child influences his personality development. Four types of birth order discussed were the first born, the second born, the youngest child and the only child.

2.14 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Name the general life style attitudes proposed by Alfred Adler.
2. What is the 'style of life' according to Alfred Adler?
3. What is Masculine Protest?
4. Define 'Neurosis'.
5. Explain the birth order as stated by Alfred Adler.

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Elucidate Jung's idea of the collective unconscious and archetypes in detail.
2. Outline the four functions and two attitudes in Jung's psychology.
3. Discuss the concept of inferiority-superiority complex.
4. Differentiate between personality development of the youngest child and the only child as per Adler's views on birth order.
5. Elaborately explain the 'Personality Theory' by Carl Jung.

2.15 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. _____ are those people who receive stimulation from within them.
 - a. Introverts
 - b. Extroverts
 - c. Ambiverts
 - d. None of them
2. Carl Jung divided the stages of personality development into _____ basic stages.
 - a. Two
 - b. Three
 - c. Four
 - d. Five
3. Alfred Adler's primary training was in _____.
 - a. History
 - b. Medicine
 - c. Geography
 - d. Mathematics
4. Sigismund Schlomo Freud and Carl Gustav Jung first met in _____.
 - a. New Zealand
 - b. Canada
 - c. Australia
 - d. Austria

5. _____ are the structural components of the collective unconscious.
- Archetypes
 - Ornithopods
 - Ceratopsians
 - None of these
6. This _____ may exist due to heredity or because of some developmental abnormality.
- Inferiority
 - Notability
 - Exceptionality
 - Impeccability
7. Who was the founder of 'analytical psychology'?
- Lawrence Ervin
 - RT Hogan
 - Carl Jung
 - Alfred Adler
8. What is the full form of IAAP?
- Integral Association of Analytical Psychology
 - International Association of Analytical Psychology
 - International Assessment of Analytical Psychology
 - None of these
9. _____ is a comparatively mild form of mental illness which doesn't involve completely losing touch with reality.
- Neurosis
 - Monikers neurotic disorder
 - Psychoneurosis
 - All of the above
10. _____ refers to going beyond the ordinary development and bringing together different aspects of personality in harmony, thus integrating even the conscious and unconscious material.
- Transcendent function
 - Individuation
 - Archetypes
 - None of these

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STRUCTURE

- 3.1 Learning Objective
- 3.2 Introduction
- 3.3 Ego Psychology by Erik Erikson
- 3.4 Basic Nature of Human Beings
- 3.5 Structure of Personality
- 3.6 Development of Personality
- 3.7 Self Actualization by Carl Rogers
- 3.8 Rogers' Theory of Personality
- 3.9 Basic Nature of Human Beings
- 3.10 Structure of Personality
- 3.11 Development of Personality
- 3.12 Chapter Summary
- 3.13 Review Questions
- 3.14 Multiple Choice Questions

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

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

- Understand about the ego psychology by Erik Erikson.
- Know about self-actualization by Carl Rogers.
- Learn about Roger's theory of personality.

3.2 INTRODUCTION

Erik Erikson is best known for his famous theory of psychosocial development and the concept of the identity crisis. His theories marked an important shift in thinking on personality; instead of focusing simply on early childhood events, his psychosocial theory looks at how social influences contribute to our personalities throughout our entire lifespan.

Erik Erikson spent time studying the cultural life of the Sioux of South Dakota and the Yurok of northern California. He utilized the knowledge he gained about cultural, environmental, and social influences to further develop his psychoanalytic theory. While Freud's theory had focused on the psychosexual aspects of development, Erikson's addition of other influences helped to broaden and expand psychoanalytic theory. He also contributed to our understanding of personality as it is developed and shaped over the course of the lifespan.

His observations of children also helped set the stage for further research. "You see a child play," he was quoted as saying in his New York Times obituary, "and it is so close to seeing artist paint, for in play a child says things without uttering a word. You can see how he solves his problems. You can also see what's wrong. Young children, especially, have enormous creativity, and whatever's in them rises to the surface in free play."

Carl Rogers (1902-1987) was a humanistic psychologist who agreed with the main assumptions of Abraham Maslow. However, Rogers (1959) added that for a person to "grow", they need an environment that provides them with genuineness (openness and self-disclosure), acceptance (being seen with unconditional positive regard), and empathy (being listened to and understood).

Without these, relationships and healthy personalities will not develop as they should, much like a tree will not grow without sunlight and water.

Rogers believed that every person could achieve their goals, wishes, and desires in life. When, or rather if they did so, self actualization took place. This was one of Carl Rogers most important contributions to psychology and for a person to reach their potential a number of factors must be satisfied.

3.3 EGO PSYCHOLOGY BY ERIK ERIKSON

Ego Psychology: A Different Beginning

Erik Erikson wasn't trained by Sigmund Freud, nor did he hold a Doctorate at a highly respected university. In fact, he was not formally educated like the vast majority of his psychodynamic colleagues. Although his parents pushed for medical school, Erikson saw

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himself as an artist and spent his youth wandering through Europe living the artist's life. In 1927, he took a job working with children of Freud's patients and friends. The school approached development psychoanalytically and Erikson was soon to master this theory and begin developing his own theories relating to personality development. His two major contributions to psychodynamic thought include a reappraisal of the ego and an extended view of developmental stages.

The New Ego

Erik Erikson believed that the ego Freud described was far more than just a mediator between the superego and the id. He saw the ego as a positive driving force in human development and personality. As such, he believed the ego's main job was to establish and maintain a sense of identity. A person with a strong sense of identity is one who knows where he is in life, has accepted these positions and has workable goals for change and growth. He has a sense of uniqueness while also having a sense of belonging and wholeness.

Those who have weaker egos encounter trying times, or who have poorly developed egos get trapped in what is termed an identity crisis. According to Erikson, an identity crisis is a time in a person's life when they lack direction, feel unproductive, and do not feel a strong sense of identity. He believed that we all have identity crises at one time or another in our lives and that these crises do not necessarily represent a negative but can be a driving force toward positive resolution.

Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

Like Freud and many others, Erik Erikson maintained that personality develops in a predetermined order. Instead of focusing on sexual development, however, he was interested in how children socialize and how this affects their sense of self. He saw personality as developing throughout the lifetime and looked at identity crises at the focal point for each stage of human development.

Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development has eight distinct stages, each with two possible outcomes. According to the theory, successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and successful interactions with others. Failure to successfully complete a stage can result in a reduced ability to complete further stages and therefore a more unhealthy personality and sense of self. These stages, however, can be resolved successfully at a later time.



**Trust versus Mistrust**

From age's birth to one year, children begin to learn the ability to trust others based upon the consistency of their caregiver(s). If trust develops successfully, the child gains confidence and security in the world around him and is able to feel secure even when threatened. Unsuccessful completion of this stage can result in an inability to trust, and therefore an sense of fear about the inconsistent world. It may result in anxiety, heightened insecurities, and an over feeling of mistrust in the world around them.

Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

Between the ages of one and three, children begin to assert their independence, by walking away from their mother, picking which toy to play with, and making choices about what they like to wear, to eat, etc. If children in this stage are encouraged and supported in their increased independence, they become more confident and secure in their own ability to survive in the world. If children are criticized, overly controlled, or not given the opportunity to assert themselves, they begin to feel inadequate in their ability to survive, and may then become overly dependent upon others, lack self-esteem, and feel a sense of shame or doubt in their own abilities.

Initiative vs. Guilt

Around age three and continuing to age six, children assert themselves more frequently. They begin to plan activities, make up games, and initiate activities with others. If given this opportunity, children develop a sense of initiative, and feel secure in their ability to lead others and make decisions. Conversely, if this tendency is squelched, either through criticism or control, children develop a sense of guilt. They may feel like a nuisance to others and will therefore remain followers, lacking in self-initiative.

Industry vs. Inferiority

From age six years to puberty, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments. They initiate projects, see them through to completion, and feel good about what they have achieved. During this time, teachers play an increased role in the child's development. If children are encouraged and reinforced for their initiative, they begin to feel industrious and feel confident in their ability to achieve goals. If this initiative is not encouraged, if it is restricted by parents or teacher, then the child begins to feel inferior, doubting his own abilities and therefore may not reach his potential.

Identity vs. Role Confusion

During adolescence, the transition from childhood to adulthood is most important. Children are becoming more independent, and begin to look at the future in terms of career, relationships, families, housing, etc. During this period, they explore possibilities and begin to form their own identity based upon the outcome of their explorations. This sense of who they are can be hindered, which results in a sense of confusion ("I don't know what I want to be when I grow up") about themselves and their role in the world.

Intimacy vs. Isolation

Occurring in Young adulthood, we begin to share ourselves more intimately with others. We explore relationships leading toward longer term commitments with someone other

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than a family member. Successful completion can lead to comfortable relationships and a sense of commitment, safety, and care within a relationship. Avoiding intimacy, fearing commitment and relationships can lead to isolation, loneliness, and sometimes depression.

Generativity vs. Stagnation

During middle adulthood, we establish our careers, settle down within a relationship, begin our own families and develop a sense of being a part of the bigger picture. We give back to society through raising our children, being productive at work, and becoming involved in community activities and organizations. By failing to achieve these objectives, we become stagnant and feel unproductive.

Ego Integrity vs. Despair

As we grow older and become senior citizens, we tend to slow down our productivity, and explore life as a retired person. It is during this time that we contemplate our accomplishments and are able to develop integrity if we see ourselves as leading a successful life. If we see our lives as unproductive, feel guilt about our pasts, or feel that we did not accomplish our life goals, we become dissatisfied with life and develop despair, often leading to depression and hopelessness.

3.4 BASIC NATURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

Psychosocial development is just a fancy phrase that refers to how a person's individual needs (psycho) mesh with the needs or demands of society (social). According to Erikson, a person passes through eight developmental stages that build on each other. At each stage we face a crisis. By resolving the crisis, we develop psychological strengths or character traits that help us become confident and healthy people.

Erikson's theory of psychosocial development gives us a way to view the development of a person through an entire lifespan. But like all theories, it has its limitations: Erikson doesn't describe the exact way that conflicts are resolved. Neither does he detail how you move from one stage to the next.

3.5 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Perhaps Erikson's greatest innovation was to postulate not five stages, as Freud had done, but eight. Erikson elaborated Freud's genital stage into adolescence plus three stages of adulthood. We certainly don't stop developing - especially psychologically - after our twelfth or thirteenth birthdays; it seems only right to extend any theory of stages to cover later development!

Erikson also had some things to say about the interaction of generations, which he called mutuality. Freud had made it abundantly clear that a child's parents influence his or her development dramatically. Erikson pointed out that children influence their parents' development as well. The arrival of children, for example, into a couple's life, changes that life considerably, and moves the new parents along their own developmental paths. Nothing makes you "grow up" faster than having kids of your own! It is even appropriate to add a third (and in some cases, a fourth) generation to the picture: Many of us have been influenced by our grandparents and grandchildren, and they by us.



A particularly clear example of mutuality can be seen in the problems of the teenage mother. Although the mother and her child may have a fine life together, often the mother is still involved in the tasks of adolescence, that is, in finding out who she is and how she fits into the larger society. The relationship she has or had with the child's father may have been immature on one or both sides, and if they don't marry, she will have to deal with the problems of finding and developing a new relationship as well. The infant, on the other hand, has the simple, straight-forward needs that infants have, and the most important of these is a mother with the mature abilities and social support a mother should have. If the mother's parents step in to help, as one would expect, then they, too, are thrown off of their developmental tracks, back into a life-style they thought they had passed, and which they might find terribly demanding. And so on!

The ways in which our lives intermesh are terribly complex and very frustrating to the theorist. But ignoring them is to ignore something vitally important about our development and our personalities.

Stage one

The first stage is the infant, approximately the first year or year and a half of life. The task is to develop trust without completely eliminating the capacity for mistrust. If mom and dad can give the newborn a degree of familiarity, consistency, and continuity, then the child will develop the feeling that the world - especially the social world - is a safe place to be, that people are reliable and loving. Through the parents' responses, the child also learns to trust his or her own body and the biological urges that go with it. If the parents are unreliable and inadequate, if they reject the infant or harm it, if other interests cause both parents to turn away from the infants needs to satisfy their own instead, then the infant will develop mistrust. He or she will be apprehensive and suspicious around people.

If the proper balance is achieved, the child will develop the virtue hope, the strong belief that, even when things are not going well, they will work out well in the end. One of the signs that a child is doing well in the first stage is when the child isn't overly upset by the need to wait a moment for the satisfaction of his or her needs: Mom or dad don't have to be perfect; I trust them enough to believe that, if they can't be here immediately, they will be here soon; Things may be tough now, but they will work out in the end. This is the same ability that, in later life, gets us through disappointments in love, our careers, and other domains of life.

Stage two

The second stage is the toddler, from about eighteen months to three or four years old. The task is to achieve a degree of autonomy while minimizing shame and doubt. If mom and dad (and the other care-takers that often come into the picture at this point) permit the child, now a toddler, to explore and manipulate his or her environment, the child will develop a sense of autonomy (independence). The parents should not discourage the child, but neither should they push. A balance is required. People often advise new parents to be "firm but tolerant" at this stage and the advice is good. This way, the child will develop both self-control and self-esteem.

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On the other hand, it is rather easy for the child to develop instead a sense of shame and doubt. If the parents come down hard on any attempt to explore and be independent, children will soon give up with and assume that they cannot and should not act on their own. We should keep in mind that even something as innocent as laughing at the toddler's efforts can lead the child to feel deeply ashamed, and to doubt his or her abilities.

And there are other ways to lead children to shame and doubt: If you give children unrestricted freedom and no sense of limits, or if you try to help children do what they should learn to do for themselves, you will also give them the impression that they are not good for much. If you aren't patient enough to wait for your child to tie his or her shoelaces, your child will never learn to tie them, and will assume that this is just too difficult to learn!

Shame and doubt sound very negative. Do we really need them? Yes, unless you think it is a good idea to run around naked in public or jump off of buildings. If you get the proper, positive balance of autonomy and shame and doubt, you will develop the virtue of willpower (determination). One of the most admirable - and frustrating - thing about two- and three-year-olds is their determination. "Can do" is their motto. If we can preserve that "can do" attitude (with appropriate modesty to balance it) we are much better off as adults.

Stage three

Stage three is the preschooler. From three or four to five or six, the task confronting every child is to learn initiative without too much guilt. Initiative means a positive response to the world's challenges, taking on responsibilities, learning new skills, feeling purposeful. Parents can encourage initiative by encouraging children to try out their ideas. We should accept and encourage fantasy and curiosity and imagination. This is a time for play, not for formal education. The child is now capable, as never before, of imagining a future situation, one that isn't a reality right now. Initiative is the attempt to make that non-reality a reality.

But if children can imagine the future, if they can plan, then they can be responsible as well, and guilty. If my two-year-old flushes my watch down the toilet, I can safely assume that there were no "evil intentions." It was just a matter of a shiny object going round and round and down. What fun! But if my five year old does the same thing... well, she should know what's going to happen to the watch, what's going to happen to daddy's temper, and what's going to happen to her! She can be guilty of the act, and she can begin to feel guilty as well.

The capacity for moral judgment has arrived. Do we really need guilt? Very much. The only people that don't feel guilt are called psychopaths. A good balance leads to the psychosocial strength of purpose. A sense of purpose is something many people crave in their lives, yet many do not realize that they themselves make their purposes, through imagination and initiative. I think an even better word for this virtue would have been courage, the capacity for action despite a clear understanding of your limitations and past failings.

**Stage four**

Stage four is the school-age child from about six to twelve. The task is to develop a capacity for industry while avoiding an excessive sense of inferiority. Children must “tame the imagination” and dedicate themselves to education and to learning the social skills their society requires of them. There is a much broader social sphere at work now: The parents and other family members are joined by teachers and peers and other members of the community at large. They all contribute: Parents must encourage, teachers must care, peers must accept. Children must learn that there is pleasure not only in conceiving a plan, but in carrying it out. They must learn the feeling of success, whether it is in school or on the playground, academic or social.

A good way to tell the difference between a child in the third stage and one in the fourth stage is to look at the way they play games. Four-year-olds may love games, but they will have only a vague understanding of the rules, may change them several times during the course of the game, and be very unlikely to actually finish the game, unless it is by throwing the pieces at their opponents. A seven-year-old, on the other hand, is dedicated to the rules, considers them pretty much sacred, and is more likely to get upset if the game is not allowed to come to its required conclusion.

If the child is allowed too little success, because of harsh teachers or rejecting peers, for example, then he or she will develop instead a sense of inferiority or incompetence. An additional source of inferiority Erikson mentions is racism, sexism, and other forms of discrimination: If a child believes that success is related to whom you are rather than to how hard you try, then why try? A happier thing is to develop the right balance of industry and inferiority - that is, mostly industry with just a touch of inferiority to keep us sensibly humble. Then we have the virtue called competency.

Stage five

Stage five is adolescence, beginning with puberty and ending around 18 or 20 years old. The task during adolescence is to achieve ego identity and avoid role confusion. It was adolescence that interested Erikson first and most, and the patterns he saw here were the bases for his thinking about all the other stages. Ego identity means knowing who you are and how you fit in to the rest of society. It requires that you take all you’ve learned about life and yourself and mold it into a unified self-image, one that your community finds meaningful.

There are a number of things that make things easier: First, we should have a mainstream adult culture that is worthy of the adolescent’s respect, one with good adult role models and open lines of communication. If the teenager looks around and sees nothing but sexism, racism, war-mongering, unbridled materialism, self-centered hedonism, puritanical self-righteousness, etc. - why bother to become an adult?

Further, society should provide clear rites of passage - certain accomplishments and rituals that help to distinguish the adult from the child. In primitive and traditional societies, an adolescent boy may be asked to leave the village for a period of time to live on his own, hunt some symbolic animal, or seek an inspirational vision. Boys and girls may be required to go through certain tests of endurance, symbolic ceremonies, or educational

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events. In one way or another, the distinction between the powerless but carefree time of childhood and the powerful and responsible time of adulthood, is made clear.

Without these things, we are likely to see role confusion, meaning an uncertainty about one's place in society and the world. When an adolescent is confronted by role confusion, Erikson says he or she is suffering from an identity crisis. In fact, a common question adolescents in our society ask is a straight-forward question of identity: "Who am I?" Notice how long it takes, in our society, before we have an answer to the parallel question "What do I want to be when I grow up?"

If you successfully negotiate this stage, you will have the virtue Erikson called fidelity. Fidelity means loyalty, the ability to live by society's standards despite the imperfections and incompleteness and inconsistencies. We are not talking about blind loyalty, and we are not talking about accepting those imperfections. After all, if you love your community, you will want to see it become the best it can be. But fidelity means that you have found a place in that community, a place that will allow you to contribute.

Stage six

If you have made it this far, you are in the stage of the young adult, which lasts (in modern society) from about 20 to about 30. The ages in the adult stages are much fuzzier than in the childhood stages, and people may differ dramatically. The task is to achieve some degree of intimacy, as opposed to remaining in isolation.

Intimacy is the ability to be close to others, as a lover, a friend, and as a participant in society. Because you have a clear sense of which you are, you no longer need to fear "losing" yourself, as many adolescents do. The "fear of commitment" some people seem to exhibit is an example of immaturity in this stage. This fear isn't always so obvious. Many people today are always putting off the progress of their relationships: I'll get married (or have a family, or get involved in important social issues) as soon as I finish school, as soon as I have a job, as soon as I have a house, as soon as.... If you've been engaged for the last ten years, what's holding you back?

Neither should the young adult need to prove him- or herself anymore. A teenage relationship is often a matter of trying to establish identity through "couple-hood." A teenager might respond to "Who am I?" with "I'm her boy-friend" or "I'm his girl-friend". The young adult relationship should be a matter of two independent egos wanting to create something larger than them.

If you successfully negotiate this stage, you will carry with you for the rest of your life the virtue or psychosocial strength Erikson calls love. Love, in the context of his theory, means being able to put aside differences and antagonisms through "mutuality of devotion." It includes not only the love we find in a good marriage, but the love between friends and the love of one's neighbor, co-worker, and compatriot as well.

Stage seven

The seventh stage is that of the middle adult. It is hard to pin a time to it, but it would include the period during which we are actively involved in raising children. For most

people in our society, this would put it somewhere between 30 and 60. The task here is to cultivate the proper balance of generativity and stagnation.

Generativity is an extension of love into the future. It is a concern for the next generation and all future generations. As such, it is considerably less “selfish” than the intimacy of the previous stage: Intimacy, the love between lovers or friends, is a love between equals, and it is necessarily reciprocal. Oh, of course we love each other unselfishly, but the reality is such that, if the love is not returned, we don’t consider it a true love. With generativity, that implicit expectation of reciprocity isn’t there, at least not as strongly. Few parents expect a “return on their investment” from their children; If they do, they aren’t very good parents!

Although the majority of people practice generativity by having and raising children, there are many other ways as well. Erikson considers teaching, writing, invention, the arts and sciences, social activism, and generally contributing to the welfare of future generations to be generativity as well.

This is the stage of the “midlife crisis.” Sometimes men and women take a look at their lives and ask that big, bad question “what am I doing all this for?” Notice the question carefully: Because their focus is on themselves, they ask what, rather than whom, they are doing it for. In their panic at getting older and not having experienced or accomplished what they imagined they would when they were younger, they try to recapture their youth. Men are often the most flamboyant examples:

They leave their long-suffering wives, quit their humdrum jobs, buy some “hip” new clothes, buy a Porsche, and start hanging around singles bars. Of course, they seldom find what they are looking for, because they are looking for the wrong thing! But if you are successful at this stage, you will have a capacity for caring that will serve you through the rest of your life.

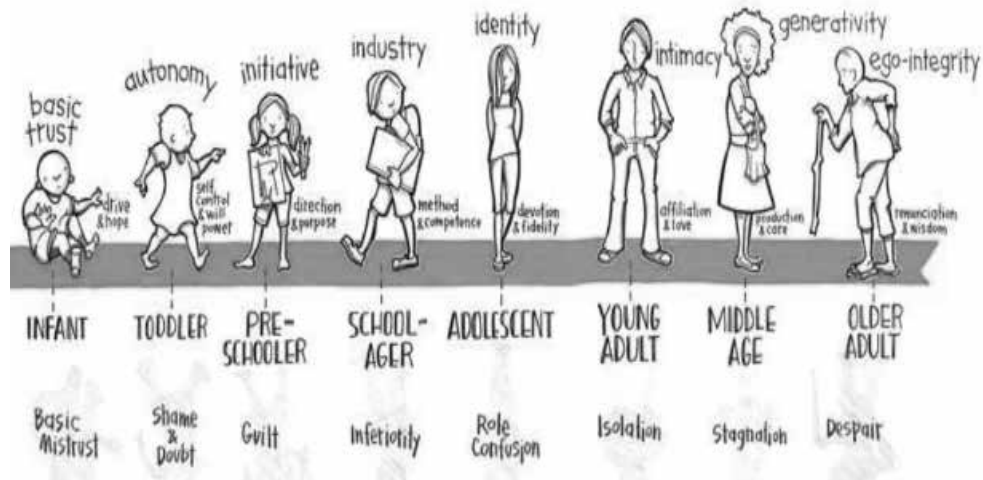
Stage eight

This last stage, referred to delicately as late adulthood or maturity, or less delicately as old age, begins sometime around retirement, after the kids have gone somewhere around 60 years old in our society. Some older folks will protest and say it only starts when you feel old and so on, but that’s an effect of our youth-worshipping culture, which has even old people avoiding any acknowledgement of age. In Erikson’s theory, reaching this stage is a good thing, and not reaching it suggests that earlier problems retarded your development!

3.6 DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

Erik Erikson was an ego psychologist. He emphasized the role of culture and society and the conflicts that can take place within the ego itself. He maintained that personality develops in a predetermined order, and builds upon each previous stage. This is called the epigenic principle. He assumes that crisis occurs at each stage of development and they are of the psychosocial nature. Successful completion of each stage leads to a healthy personality and acquisition of basic virtues. Failure to complete the stage successfully can lead to inhibition in completion of other stage and an unhealthy personality.





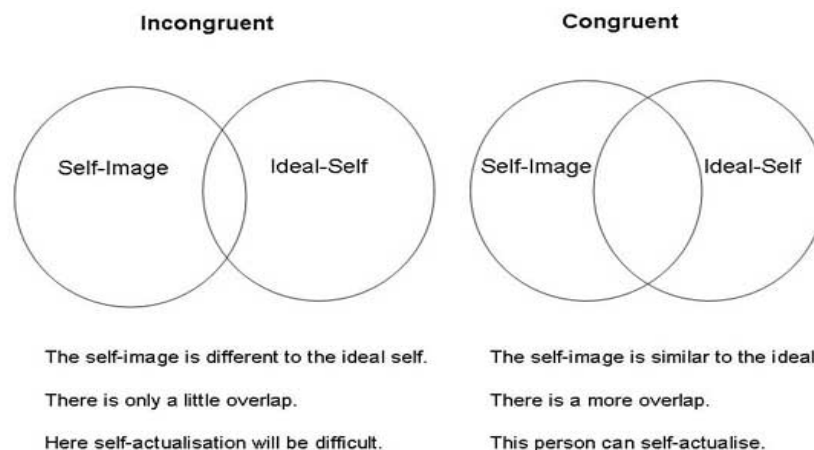
CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Describe development of personality as per Erik Erikson.
2. Briefly discuss trust versus mistrust.
3. Give a brief account of Erik Erikson.
4. What do you understand by epigenic principle?
5. List Erikson's stages of psychosocial development.

3.7 SELF ACTUALIZATION BY CARL ROGERS

Carl Rogers described self-actualization the continuous lifelong process whereby an individual's self-concept is maintained and enhanced via reflection and the reinterpretation of various experiences which enable the individual to recover, change and develop (Rogers, 1951).

According to Rogers (1967) the human organism has an underlying "actualizing tendency", which aims to develop all capacities in ways that maintain or enhance the organism and move it toward autonomy. Carl Rogers believed that for a person to achieve self-actualization they must be in a state of congruence. This means that self-actualization occurs when a person's "ideal self" (i.e., who they would like to be) is congruent with their actual behavior.





Rogers (1967) posits that the structure of the self is a consistent yet fluid pattern of perceptions of oneself which is organized and formed via evaluational interactions. However, tension between one's ideal sense of self and one's experiences (or self-image) can produce incongruence, a psychopathological state stemming from the perversions of one's unitary actualizing tendency. For Roger, a person who is in the process of self-actualizing, actively exploring potentials and abilities and experiencing a match between real and ideal selves, is a fully functioning person.

Becoming a Fully functioning person means "that the individual moves towards 'being', knowingly and acceptingly, the process which he inwardly and actually 'is'. He moves away from what he is not, from being a facade. He is not trying to be more than he is, with the attendant feelings of insecurity or bombastic defensiveness. He is not trying to be less than he is, with the attendant feelings of guilt or self-deprecation. He is increasingly listening to the deepest recesses of his psychological and emotional being, and finds himself increasingly willing to be, with greater accuracy and depth, that self which he most truly is (Rogers, 1967)".

Fully functioning people are in touch with their own feelings and abilities and are able to trust their innermost urges and intuitions. To become fully functioning, a person needs unconditional positive regard from others, especially their parents in childhood. Unconditional positive regard is an attitude of acceptance of others despite their failings.

However, most people don't perceive the positive regard of others as being unconditional. They tend to think they will only be loved and valued if they meet certain conditions of worth. These conditions of worth create incongruity within the self between the real self (how the person is) and the ideal self (how they think they should be or want to be).

3.8 ROGERS' THEORY OF PERSONALITY

The primary concern of Rogers was not to develop a theory of personality. It was the clinical work of Rogers, the research he conducted and the personality change that occurred as a result of his therapy that resulted in the theory of personality called as the client centered theory or to be called later as the person-centered theory of personality. Some of the important components of Rogers's theory of personality are presented below.

The Developing Infant

The child at the time of birth has its own world of experience. What the infant experiences is its reality. It is the child's organismic experience for its growth. In this organismic world the basic motivation is self-actualization tendency. It is the inborn tendency that forces the infant to do what is good for itself. If the child feels hungry it tries to get food through crying. Along with self-actualization the infant has inherent capacity to add positive and negative value to the experiences.

The positive values are given when experiences appear to enhance organism. If security is experienced in the presence of mother, the child gives positive value to the presence of mother near itself. On the contrary when experiences are perceived as negative, fearful, unpleasant etc., and are contrary to the self-actualization tendency the child attaches negative value to such experiences. It is well known that infants cry when it is lifted and

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handled by an unknown. The infant does not be with people who are unknown to it. Thus this organismic valuing process helps to direct behavior to achieve the goal of self-actualization.

The Self Concept

As the child grows up, it is able to discriminate between the experiences of its own and the experiences of other people. Self concept develops through the child's experience and perception, which in turn is influenced by the need for positive regard. Thus along with the organismic need, positive regard is also important for the individual, as this need for positive regard also directs the human behavior. In other words, the person has to see whether the particular behavior being manifested is fulfilling the organismic need as well as receive positive regards from others. To get the required things, the child wants to cry but mother does not like a crying baby. To get positive regard from mother the child should not cry but be quiet.

Condition of Worth

It is of course well known that a child needs love, care, nurturance, affection and acceptance from parents to fulfill its own needs of positive self regard, but sometimes a behavior which is forced by organismic need is contrary to the need of positive regard. Parents do not accept such organismic behavior because their value process is different due to their different needs for self-actualization. In such contradictory situation the child starts differentiating between its own experiences which are worthy for positive regard and not worthy for such regard. Sometimes he feels that its own organismic experiences are against its well being. With this perception the child avoids or denies its organismic experiences.

In this way the condition of worth becomes a part of its self regard system. The child feels the positive self regard when its experiences are in line with the experience for which it has received positive regard. On the other hand, if the child's experiences are those for which it has not received positive regard, the child experiences negative self regard. To state this concept in simple terms, it may be stated that the self regard of the person is dependent on the social acceptance from significant people.

Though the individual starts giving importance to positive regard and condition of worth, yet the self actualization tendency remains the basic motivation for the individual. The problem arises when organismic need and condition of worth are expecting different behaviors'. The individual has to solve this conflict by choosing one behavior. To maintain the positive self regard the child may choose to behave according to condition of worth, that is, the behavior that gives positive self regard. For instance the child may perceive that the organismic needs are not allowing self to become a good person, so the child decides to act as per condition of worth. Thus the needs for self regard overpower the organismic need. In this kind of situation, at times the individual may even deny the organismic experience, even though it may not get extinguished.

Fully Functioning Person

The next important component of Rogers's personality theory is the concept of fully

functioning individual. This refers to the person's behavior being fully in line with the self actualization tendency. Such a person has the following qualities:

1. Open to experience
2. Accepting of one's own feelings
3. Living in the present rather than past or future
4. Make free choices and act spontaneously
5. Trusting self
6. Creative and non-confirming

This approach is based on the theory called "self theory" of personality. This assumes that the individual's view of self determines the individual's action. How the person perceives self in the context of the environment around, does affect how the person deals with the difficulties. For example if persons perceive their parents as negative then they may get hostile towards their parents especially when they have to deal with problems related to them. The self worth of a person is dependent on the perception if he or she had received adequate love and support from the people who are significant in their life.

That means if the parents encourage their children and love them then children will grow up with the feeling of self worth. On the other hand, if the perception is that they have not been given adequate love, and nurturing, then children will grow up with a defensive attitude, and may start fighting with people. This perception is the reality for that youngster who is growing up and if this is causing some problem, personal reality can be changed through counseling.

The above approach of Rogers shows great confidence in the clients. There are four basic beliefs regarding this which is given below:

- People are trustworthy
- People move towards self actualization automatically
- People have positively inner resources to move.
- Every person has his own phenomenal world.

3.9 BASIC NATURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

A consistent theme underlies most of Rogers' writings - a deep faith in the tendency of humans to develop in a positive and constructive manner if a climate of respect and trust is established (Corey, 1986). Rogers believed that people are essentially good and that human nature possesses a basic sense of trust in the client's ability to move forwards in a constructive manner if conditions conducive to fostering growth are present. Furthermore, his perceived human nature as a product of environmental and societal factors as well as heredity, early development, and an innate self-drive striving for grow throughout life. In short, Rogers, and the humanistic view in general, sees human nature in an extremely positive light.

This positive view of human nature greatly directs the practice of Rogers' person-centered therapy. Because of this idea that a person has an innate, inherent capacity to escape



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the wrath of maladjustment and to enter the realm of psychological health, the primary responsibility is directed at the “client.” Therefore, person-centered therapy is rooted in the client’s capacity for awareness and his or her ability to make decisions (Corey, 1986). And, by perceiving individuals/clients in this positive light, the focus is shifted to what is right with the person not on what is wrong with him or her.

As a result, humanistic practitioners strive to challenge individuals to make positive changes that will lead to living more fully and authentically, with the realization that this kind of existence demands an ongoing struggle. It is a continuous journey, whereby individuals never arrive at a static state of being self-actualized. Instead, people are perpetually involved in the process of actualizing themselves.

Dr. Scott Peck (1978) said it best in his book, *The Road Less Traveled*, “Life is difficult. This is a great truth, one of the greatest truths. It is a great truth because once we truly see this truth, we transcend it. Once we truly know that life is difficult - once we truly understand and accept it - then life is no longer difficult. Because once it is accepted, the fact that life is difficult no longer matters. Life is a series of problems. Do we want to moan about them or solve them? Because it is in this process of solving problems that life has meaning”

3.10 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Carl Rogers, an American humanistic psychologist belonged to the school of humanism. He propagated the humanistic theories of learning. He tried to distinguish two types of learning-cognitive and experiential.

He termed Cognitive learning as meaningless in itself unless it is subjected to some use. Such learning is knowledge-based. He also mentioned that experiential learning is quite vital to one’s progress and welfare.

The theory of experiential learning by Carl Rogers:

- It is associated with the effective application of the acquired knowledge. It is self-initiated as the learner willingly takes the initiative to engage in such type of learning. The learner himself evaluates the results and outcomes of such learning by applying it to the realization of learning objectives.
- It leaves a pervasive effect on the learner whatever is learned through this method can be made into use when and where he needs it.
- According to Carl Rogers, all human beings have a natural inclination toward learning and a desire to grow and progress.
- The role of teachers and parents is only to help the children in their inherent desire for personal change and growth

Hence, it could be concluded that in Carl Rogers’ theory, the **main structure of personality is the self.**

3.11 DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

Our personality is those patterns of enduring thoughts, feelings, emotions and behaviors that basically determine our unique individualities from each other. For psychologist

Carl Rogers (Boundless, 2016), “humans are constantly reacting to stimuli with their subjective reality (phenomenal field), which changes continuously. Over time, a person develops a self-concept based on the feedback from this field of reality.

Basically, for Rogers, personality develop overtime and from childhood to the present, we are always in a constant state of personality development, as experience continue to add more stimuli and knowledge to what we know so that while we exhibit a pattern of similar likes and dislikes, we also introduce new ways of reacting to learned information from the world we life or are a part of. For Carl Rogers, this is how personality gets established (Boundless, 2016), “in the development of self-concept, positive regard is key.

Unconditional positive regard is an environment that is free of preconceived notions of value. Conditional positive regard is full of conditions of worth that must be achieved to be considered successful. Human beings develop an ideal self and a real self based on the conditional status of positive regard. How closely one’s real self matches up with their ideal self is called congruity.” In other words - personality, while it appears rigid, is actually flowing and is subject to change and influence.

What I have come to understand from this is that personality is under erasure, development and is subject to change. If humans react to stimuli thrown at them in the social world, then this reaction brings about some sort of impact on personality. For example, a child has grown up in an abusive environment. The reaction from the abuse around can lead to a personality that is quick to anger, mistrust and introverted as a form of personality-environment feedback.

Additionally, as human beings we have ideals of what we think we are. When the reality does not fit our ideas of self, we need to confront or determine our enduring patterns to ‘self-actualize’ as only so can we find congruence in the ideal vs. the real. Thus, one can say that the development of personality is subject to change and while some patterns endure, how we think, how we react, it always is subject to influence, and thus, change.

3.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Theories of development provide a framework for thinking about human growth, development, and learning. According to Freud’s theory, child development occurs in a series of stages focused on different pleasure areas of the body. While Erikson’s theory shared some similarities with Freud’s, it is dramatically different in many ways. Erikson believed that social interaction and experience play a decisive role. His eight-stage theory of human development described this process from infancy through death. Person centered therapy is non directional therapy. Problems arise because people do not act as per their natural tendency i.e. self actualization. It is inherent motivation to guide behavior for maximum development. To get positive regard the person at times ignores this natural tendency. When persons ignore inner experience of self actualization and behave as per condition of worth it creates incongruence. Every person has the ability to solve his or her problem effectively. Counsellor makes the persons aware of their natural experiences through genuineness, empathetic understanding and unconditional positive regard. With proper therapeutic relation positive change occurs in clients. Person centered approach is applied in various settings like, counseling and training.



3.13 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What are the qualities of a self actualized person?
2. What is full fully functioning person? Discuss in the context of Carl Rogers theory.
3. Write personality theory of Carl Roger with suitable examples?
4. What is the organismic valuing process?
5. What do you understand by self concept?

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Explain theory of experiential learning by Carl Rogers.
2. Describe the theory of eco psychology by Erik Erikson in detail.
3. Discuss Roger's theory of personality in detail.
4. State the Erikson's stages of psychosocial development in detail.
5. Discuss the development of personality by Carl Rogers in detail.

3.14 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Theory of Psychosocial Development was given by _____.
 - a. Erik Erikson
 - b. Carl Rogers
 - c. Carl Jung
 - d. Charles Darwin
2. Theory of Psychosocial Development has _____ distinct stage.
 - a. Six
 - b. Seven
 - c. Eight
 - d. Nine
3. 'The Road Less Traveled' is a book written by _____.
 - a. Dr. Scott Peck
 - b. Carl Rogers
 - c. Erik Erikson
 - d. None of these
4. Organismic valuing process helps to direct behavior to achieve the goal of
 - a. Maturity
 - b. Self actualization
 - c. Social interaction
 - d. Natural tendency
5. _____ is an extension of love into the future.
 - a. Generativity
 - b. Personal centered therapy

- c. Cognitive learning
d. None of these
6. _____ **believed that every person could achieve their goals, wishes, and desires in life.**
- a. Dr. Scott Peck
b. Carl Rogers
c. Erik Erikson
d. None of these
7. _____ **Theory of psychosocial development gives us a way to view the development of a person through an entire lifespan.**
- a. Rogers's
b. Peck's
c. Freud's
d. Erikson's
8. _____ **is rooted in the client's capacity for awareness and his or her ability to make decisions**
- a. Person-centered Therapy
b. Generativity
c. Self actualization
d. Social interaction
9. _____ **assumes that the individual's view of self determines the individual's action.**
- a. Self Theory
b. Person-centered Therapy
c. Self Actualization Therapy
d. None of these
10. **Problems arise because people do not act as per their natural tendency i.e. _____.**
- a. Maturity
b. Self actualization
c. Social interaction
d. Natural tendency

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STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Learning Objective
- 4.2 Introduction
- 4.3 Self Actualization Theory by Abraham Maslow
- 4.4 Basic Nature of Human Beings
- 4.5 Structure of Personality
- 4.6 Development of Personality
- 4.7 Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory
- 4.8 Basic Nature of Human Beings
- 4.9 Structure of Personality
- 4.10 Development of Personality
- 4.11 Chapter Summary
- 4.12 Review Questions
- 4.13 Multiple Choice Questions



4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

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

- Understand the self actualization theory by Abraham Maslow.
- Know about the hierarchy needs.
- Learn about social cognitive theory by Albert Bandura.

4.2 INTRODUCTION

The theories which focus on the entire person and emphasize the view that persons are inherently good with unique attributes for greatness has been labeled as humanistic, or organismic, or person-centered theories of personality. In this unit we will first discuss the characteristic features of humanistic theories, and then we will come across to explain the distinctive features of Abraham Maslow's Humanistic Theory of Personality. After that we will turn to discuss the Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory.

4.3 SELF ACTUALIZATION THEORY BY ABRAHAM MASLOW

Psychologist Abraham Maslow's theory of self-actualization contends that individuals are motivated to fulfill their potential in life. Self-actualization is typically discussed in conjunction with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which posits that self-actualization sits at the top of a hierarchy above four "lower" needs.

Origins of the Theory

During the mid-20th century, the theories of psychoanalysis and behaviorism were prominent in the field of psychology. Though largely very different, these two perspectives shared a general assumption that people are driven by forces beyond their control. In response to this assumption, a new perspective, called humanistic psychology, arose. The humanists wanted to offer a more optimistic, agentive perspective on human striving.

The theory of self-actualization emerged out of this humanistic perspective. Humanistic psychologists claimed that people are driven by higher needs, particularly the need to actualize the self. In contrast to the psychoanalysts and behaviorists who focused on psychological problems, Maslow developed his theory by studying psychologically healthy individuals.

Defining Self-Actualization

To Maslow, self-actualization is the ability to become the best version of one. Maslow stated, "This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming." Of course, we all hold different values, desires, and capacities. As a result, self-actualization will manifest itself differently in different people. One person may self-actualize through artistic expression, while another will do so by becoming a parent, and yet another by inventing new technologies.

Maslow believed that, because of the difficulty of fulfilling the four lower needs, very few people would successfully become self-actualized, or would only do so in a limited capacity. He proposed that the people who can successfully self actualize share certain characteristics. He called these people *self-actualizers*. According to Maslow,

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self-actualizers share the ability to achieve peak experiences, or moments of joy and transcendence. While anyone can have a peak experience, self-actualizers have them more frequently. In addition, Maslow suggested that self-actualizers tend to be highly creative, autonomous, objective, concerned about humanity, and accepting of themselves and others.

Maslow contended that some people are simply not motivated to self-actualize. He made this point by differentiating between deficiency needs, or D-needs, which encompass the four lower needs in his hierarchy, and being needs, or B-needs. Maslow said that D-needs come from external sources, while B-needs come from within the individual. According to Maslow, self-actualizers are more motivated to pursue B-needs than non-self-actualizers.

Characteristics of Self-actualizers

According to Maslow, people who are self actualized, were:

- Reality-centered, this means they could differentiate what is fake and dishonest from what is real and genuine.
- Problem-centered, meaning they treated life's difficulties as problems demanding solutions, not as personal troubles to be railed at or surrendered to.
- Had a different perception of means and ends. They felt that the ends do not necessarily justify the means, that the means could be ends themselves, and that the means, that is the journey was often more important than the ends.
- Had different ways 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.
- Enjoyed autonomy, a relative independence from physical and social needs. 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.
- Had an un-hostile sense of humor. They preferred to joke at their own expense, or at the human condition, and never directing their humor at others.
- Had a quality of 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. This same acceptance applied to their attitudes towards themselves: If some quality of theirs wasn't harmful, they let it be, even enjoying it as a personal quirk.
- They were often strongly motivated to change negative qualities in themselves that could be changed. They possessed qualities such as spontaneity and simplicity. They preferred being themselves rather than being pretentious or artificial.
- They had a sense of humility and respect towards others something Maslow also called democratic value. They had a quality Maslow called human kinship, that is social interest, compassion, and humanity.

- Were strong in their ethical behaviors. They were spiritual but never conventionally religious in nature. They had a certain freshness of appreciation, an ability to see things, even ordinary things, with wonder. They had the ability to be creative, inventive, and original.
- They 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. It gives you a feeling of being a part of the infinite and the eternal. These experiences tend to leave their mark on a person, change them for the better, and many people actively seek them out. They are also called mystical experiences, and are an important part of many religious and philosophical traditions.

Maslow did not however think that self actualized persons were perfect. There were several flaws or imperfections he discovered along the way as well. These were as given below:

- They often suffered considerable anxiety and guilt. These anxiety and guilt were realistic ones rather than misplaced or neurotic versions. Some of them were absent minded and overly kind.
- Also some of them had unexpected moments of ruthlessness, surgical coldness, and loss of humor.
- Maslow also stated that when a self actualized person does not get their needs fulfilled, they respond with meta-pathologies. That is they respond with a list of problems.
- When forced to live without these values, the self-actualizer develops depression, despair, disgust, alienation, and a degree of cynicism.

Criticism and Further Study

The theory of self-actualization has been criticized for its lack of empirical support and for its suggestion that lower needs must be met before self-actualization is possible. In 1976, Wahba and Bridwell investigated these issues by reviewing a number of studies exploring different parts of the theory. They found only inconsistent support for the theory, and limited support for the proposed progression through Maslow's hierarchy. However, the idea that some people are more motivated by B-needs than D-needs was supported by their research, lending increased evidence to the idea that some people may be more naturally motivated towards self-actualization than others.

A 2011 study by Tay and Diener explored the satisfaction of needs that roughly matched those in Maslow's hierarchy in 123 countries. They found that the needs were largely universal, but that the fulfillment of one need was not dependent on the fulfillment of another. For example, an individual can benefit from self-actualization even if they have not met their need to belong. However, the study also showed that when most citizens in a society have their basic needs met, more people in that society focus on pursuing a fulfilling and meaningful life. Taken together, the results of this study suggest that self-actualization can be attained before all of the four other needs are met, but that having



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one's most basic needs met makes self-actualization much more likely. The evidence for Maslow's theory is not conclusive. Future research involving self-actualizers is needed in order to learn more. Yet given its importance to the history of psychology, the theory of self-actualization will maintain its place in the pantheon of classic psychological theories.

4.4 BASIC NATURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

Abraham Maslow's interest and research in understanding human behavior was the result of his early career as a psychologist. He tried to understand human behavior through psychoanalysis. Maslow develops the concept of holistic psychology. This, he calls the 'third force' the other two being Behaviorism and Psychoanalysis. Maslow directs his main efforts in the field of personality.

He argues that psychology had hitherto concentrated too much on human frailty and neglected human strengths. He contends that human nature is essentially good. As human personality develops through maturation, the creative capacity becomes more sharply defined. If human beings are miserable, the fault lies with the environment, which makes them so. Human beings are not basically destructive or violent: they become so only when they're inner nature is twisted.

4.5 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Maslow defines the personality structure in terms of being able to progress up the pyramid of self-actualization. For Maslow, the hierarchy establishes some of the basic needs like shelter and food. Maslow argues that the structure of the personality is reflective of progression of self-actualization.

Abraham Maslow came up with hierarchy of needs he believed that these five needs engage in major role of motivating personality, behavior, security, socialization, physiological and esteem needs are deficiency necessities that arise to deprivation. Satisfying the lower-level desires of the pyramid are important in order to avoid unpleasant consequences and emotions. Maslow created the highest-level of the pyramid as growth needs, that the individual does not lack something, but rather from a desire to develop as a person.

Maslow identified some key characteristics of self-actualization individuals, acceptance and realism, individuals that have realistic perceptions of themselves, and the world around them, self-actualized individuals are deeply concerned with solving problem not concerning themselves, but others and finding solutions to problems in the world, mostly these individuals are motivated by sense of personal ethics and responsibility. Abraham Maslow devoted his attention, not to his own theory, but to humanistic and the human potentials movement.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is the basic nature of human beings according to Abraham Maslow's?
2. Explain the origin of the theory of self actualization.
3. Discuss structure of personality according to Maslow.
4. What does Maslow mean by D-needs and B-needs?
5. State the flaws of imperfection discovered by Maslow.

4.6 DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

According to Abraham Maslow, people developed their personalities by fulfilling each of their needs in a hierarchical fashion. Combining aspects of the behaviorist movement and the pessimism of psychoanalysis, the humanistic theory explains how people are malleable and their personality traits are subject to their current needs. Maslow created the Hierarchy of Needs. This theory shows the evolution of a human's needs, from the most basic (food, shelter, water) to the more complex (safety, self-esteem, love and belonging.) As we satisfy our most basic needs, we are motivated to seek out the more complex needs at the top of the pyramid.

The Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow contextualized his theory of self-actualization within a hierarchy of needs. The hierarchy represents five needs arranged from lowest to highest, as follows:

- **Physiological needs:** These include needs that keep us alive, such as food, water, shelter, warmth, and sleep.
- **Safety needs:** The need to feel secure, stable, and unafraid.
- **Love and belongingness needs:** The need to belong socially by developing relationships with friends and family.
- **Self-actualization needs:** The need to pursue and fulfill one's unique potentials.
- **Esteem needs:** The need to feel both
 - Self-esteem based on one's achievements and abilities and
 - Recognition and respect from others.



When Maslow originally explained the hierarchy in 1943, he stated that higher needs generally won't be pursued until lower needs are met. However, he added, a need does not have to be *completely* satisfied for someone to move onto the next need in the hierarchy. Instead, the needs must be partially satisfied, meaning that an individual can pursue all five needs, at least to some extent, at the same time.

Maslow included caveats in order to explain why certain individuals might pursue higher needs before lower ones. For example, some people who are especially driven by the



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desire to express themselves creatively may pursue self-actualization even if their lower needs are unmet. Similarly, individuals who are particularly dedicated to pursuing higher ideals may achieve self-actualization despite adversity that prevents them from meeting their lower needs.

4.7 BANDURA'S SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) started as the Social Learning Theory (SLT) in the 1960s by Albert Bandura. It developed into the SCT in 1986 and posits that learning occurs in a social context with a dynamic and reciprocal interaction of the person, environment, and behavior. The unique feature of SCT is the emphasis on social influence and its emphasis on external and internal social reinforcement. SCT considers the unique way in which individuals acquire and maintain behavior, while also considering the social environment in which individuals perform the behavior. The theory takes into account a person's past experiences, which factor into whether behavioral action will occur. These past experiences influences reinforcements, expectations, and expectancies, all of which shape whether a person will engage in a specific behavior and the reasons why a person engages in that behavior.

Social cognitive theory is basically a social leaning theory based on the ideas that people learn by watching what others do and that human thought processes are central to understanding personality. While social cognitive theorists agree that there is a fair amount of influence on development generated by learned behavior as a result of interaction with the environment in which one grows up, they believe that the individual person (and therefore cognition) is just as important as environment in determining moral development. Social cognitive theory explains behavior in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental determinants.

It emphasizes that people learn by observing others. People's interaction with the environment, behavior of others, and one's own cognition, etc. act as chief factors in influencing the development of personality of an individual. These three factors are not static or independent; rather, they are all reciprocal. For example, each behavior witnessed can change a person's way of thinking (cognition). Similarly, the environment in which one is raised may influence later behaviors, just as a father's mindset (also cognition) will determine the environment in which his children are raised.

Bandura has presented his theory in a series of books. With Richard Walters as junior author, Bandura (1959) wrote *Adolescent Aggression* in which social learning principles were used to describe the personality development. This was followed by another book *Social Learning and Personality Development* (1963) in which Bandura and Walters presented the social learning principles they had developed. In 1969 Bandura published *Principles of Behavior Modification*, in which he explained application of behavioral techniques based on learning principles to the modification of behavior, and in 1973 he wrote *Aggression*:

A social Learning Analysis, in which he attempted to provide a unified theoretical framework for analyzing human thought and behavior. Bandura's Social Learning Theory of Personality is based on the premise that human behavior is largely acquired and that

the principles of learning are sufficient to account for the development and maintenance of behavior. But the earlier learning theorists were unable to pay sufficient attention about the social context in which behavior is taking place.

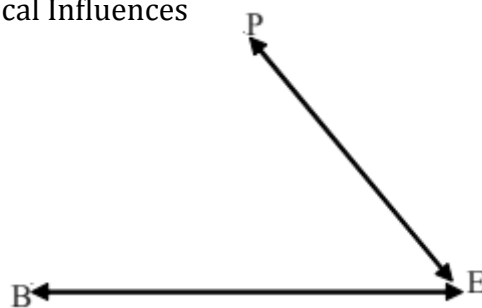
Bandura has done a great deal of work on social learning throughout his career and is famous for his “Social Learning Theory” which he has recently renamed, “Social Cognitive Theory”. Bandura is seen by many as a cognitive psychologist because of his focus on motivational factors and self-regulatory mechanisms that contribute to a person’s behavior, rather than just environmental factors. This focus on cognition is what differentiates social cognitive theory from Skinner’s purely behaviorist viewpoint. Bandura theory of social learning can be explained under the following three headings:

- Reciprocal determinism
- Self-system
- Principles of observational learning

a. Reciprocal Determinism

Human behavior has often been explained in terms of one-sided determinism. In such modes of unidirectional causation, behavior is depicted as being shaped and controlled either by environmental influences or by internal dispositions. Social cognitive theory favours a model of causation involving triadic reciprocal determinism. In this model of reciprocal causation, behavior, cognition and other personal factors, and other environmental influences all operate as interacting determinants that influence each other bi-directionally. Reciprocal causation does not mean that the different sources of influence are of equal strength. Some may be stronger than others. Nor do that the reciprocal influences all occur simultaneously. It takes time for a causal factor to exert its influence and activate reciprocal influences.

Reciprocal Influences



Social Cognitive Theory: B represents behavior, P represents personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective, and biological events, and E represents the external environment.

Let us consider briefly the major interactional links between the different subsystems of influence. The P?B of reciprocal causation reflects the interaction between thought, affect and action. Expectations, beliefs, self- perceptions, goals and intentions give shape and direction to behavior. What people think, believe, and feel, affects how they behave (Bandura, 1986). The E? P segment of reciprocal causation is concerned with the interactive relation between personal characteristics and environmental influences. Human expectations, beliefs, emotional bents and cognitive competencies are developed and modified by





social influences. The B?E segment of reciprocal causation in the triadic system represents the two-way influence between behavior and the environment.

In the transactions of everyday life, behavior alters environmental conditions and is, in turn, altered by the very conditions it creates. Because of the bi-directionality of influence between behavior and environmental circumstances, people are both products and producers of their environment. They affect the nature of their experienced environment through selection and creation of situations. Thus a complete analysis of behavior from reciprocal determinism requires consideration of all three sets of behavior – cognitive, behavioral, and environmental – influence one another. Bandura discusses the personal determinants of behavior in terms of the self-system and the individual's self efficacy. Now we turn to consideration of these concepts.

b. Self-System

It is evident from the reciprocal determinism that all the three segments are mutually interactive. Now the question arise that do they have some starting point? Bandura answered in yes and that point is self system. "In social learning theory, a self-system is not a psychic agent that controls behavior. Rather it refers to cognitive structures that provide reference mechanisms to set of functions for perception, evaluation and regulation of behavior". An understanding of self-generated influences subsumed in the self-system is necessary for the explanation and prediction of human behavior. According to Bandura the three component processes involved in self regulation of behavior through the activation of self-prescribed contingencies. The three components involved in self-system are self-observation, judgmental processes and self –response.

- **Self-observation:** We look at ourselves, our behavior, and keep tabs on it.
- **Judgment:** We compare what we see with a standard. For example, we can compare our performance with traditional standards, such as "rules of etiquette." Or we can create arbitrary ones, like "I'll read a book a week." Or we can compete with others, or with ourselves.
- **Self-response:** If you did well in comparison with your standard, you give yourself rewarding self-responses. If you did poorly, you give yourself punishing self-responses. These self-responses can range from the obvious (treating yourself to a Sunday or working late) to the more covert (feelings of pride or shame).
- **Self efficacy:** A very important concept in psychology that can be understood well with self-regulation is self-efficacy. If, over the years, you find yourself meeting your standards and life loaded with self-praise and self-reward, you will have a strong sense of self-efficacy. If, on the other hand, you find yourself forever failing to meet your standards and punishing yourself, you will have a poor sense of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy plays an important role in the Bandura's theory of self-system.

According to Bandura self-efficacy is "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" (1995). In other words, self-efficacy is a person's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Bandura described these beliefs as determinants of how people think, behave, and feel (1994). Since Bandura published his seminal paper, "Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change," the subject

has become one of the most studied topics in psychology. Why has self-efficacy become such an important topic among psychologists and educators? As Bandura and other researchers have demonstrated, self-efficacy can have an impact on everything from psychological states to behavior to motivation.

The Role of Self-Efficacy

Virtually all people can identify goals they want to accomplish, things they would like to change, and things they would like to achieve. However, most people also realise that putting these plans into action is not quite so simple. Bandura and others have found that an individual's self-efficacy plays a major role in how goals, tasks, and challenges are approached. People with a strong sense of self-efficacy have the following characteristics:

- They view challenging problems as tasks to be mastered.
- They develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate.
- They form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities.
- They recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments.

On the other hand, people with a weak sense of self-efficacy show the following characteristics:

- They avoid challenging tasks.
- They believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities.
- They focus on personal failings and negative outcomes.
- They quickly lose confidence in personal abilities (Bandura, 1994).

Sources of Self-Efficacy

How does self-efficacy develop? These beliefs begin to form in early childhood as children deal with a wide variety of experiences, tasks, and situations. However, the growth of self-efficacy does not end during youth, but continues to evolve throughout life as people acquire new skills, experiences, and understanding (Bandura, 1992). According to Bandura, there are four major sources of self-efficacy.

- **Mastery Experiences:** The most effective way of developing a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences. (Bandura 1994). Performing a task successfully strengthens our sense of self-efficacy. However, failing to adequately deal with a task or challenge can undermine and weaken self-efficacy.
- **Social Modeling:** Witnessing other people successfully completing a task is another important source of self-efficacy. According to Bandura, when a person sees another person or persons similar to oneself succeeding by one's sustained efforts, makes the person raise the belief that they too possess the capabilities that could help them master comparable activities and succeed.
- **Social Persuasion:** Bandura also asserted that people could be persuaded to believe that they have the skills and capabilities to succeed. Consider a time when someone said something positive and encouraging that helped you achieve a goal. Getting verbal encouragement from others helps people overcome self-doubt and instead focus on giving their best effort to the task at hand.

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- **Psychological Responses:** Our own responses and emotional reactions to situations also play an important role in self-efficacy. Moods, emotional states, physical reactions, and stress levels can all impact how a person feels about their personal abilities in a particular situation. A person who becomes extremely nervous before speaking in public may develop a weak sense of self-efficacy in these situations.

c. Principles of Observational Learning

Bandura's social cognitive theory emphasizes the social origins of behavior in addition to the cognitive thought processes that influence human behavior and functioning. Bandura's social-cognitive approach represents a break from traditional theories by proposing that cognitive factors are central to human functioning and that learning can occur in the absence of direct reinforcement. That is, learning can occur simply through observation of models and in the absence of reinforcement. Bandura argued that some of the traditional principles of learning such as the laws of reinforcement and punishment are more relevant to performance than to acquisition.

According to Bandura, learning can occur outside the boundaries of pleasure and pain. Thus, people learn a great deal simply by watching or observing others, by reading about what people do, and by making general observations of the world. This learning may or may not be demonstrated in the form of behavior. To illustrate that people learn from watching others, Albert Bandura constructed an experiment entitled "Bobo Doll Behavior":

A study of aggression, in this experiment Bandura exposed a group of children to a video, featuring violent and aggressive actions. For the experiment Bandura made of film of one of his students, a young woman, essentially beating up a bobo doll. Bobo doll is an inflatable, egg-shape balloon creature with a weight in the bottom that makes it bob back up when you knock him down. The woman punched the clown, shouting "sockeroo!" She kicked it, sat on it, hit with a little hammer, and so on, shouting various aggressive phrases. Bandura showed this film to groups of kindergartners who, as you might predict, liked it a lot. They then were let out to play. In the play room, of course, were several observers with pens and clipboards in hand, a brand new bobo doll, and a few little hammers.

The observers recorded that a lot of little kids beat the daylight out of the bobo doll. They punched it and shouted "sockeroo," kicked it, sat on it, hit it with the little hammers, and so on. In other words, they imitated the young lady in the film, and quite precisely at that. This might seem like a real nothing of an experiment at first, but consider: These children changed their behavior without first being rewarded for approximations to that behavior!

And while that may not seem extraordinary to the average parent, teacher, or casual observer of children, it didn't fit so well with standard behavioristic learning theory. Bandura called this phenomenon as observational learning or modeling, and this theory is usually called social learning theory. Bandura did a large number of variations on the study:

The model was rewarded or punished in a variety of ways, the kids were rewarded for their imitations, and the model was changed to be less attractive or less prestigious, and so on. Responding to criticism that bobo dolls were supposed to be hit, he even did a film of the young woman beating up a live clown. When the

children went into the other room, what should they find there but the live clown! They proceeded to punch him, kick him, hit him with little hammers, and so on.

All these variations allowed Bandura to establish that there were certain steps involved in the modeling process:

- **Attentional Processes:** In order to learn, you need to be paying attention. Anything that detracts your attention is going to have a negative effect on observational learning. If the model is interesting or there is a novel aspect to the situation, you are far more likely to dedicate your full attention to learning. Thus if you are going to learn anything, you have to be paying attention. Likewise, anything that puts a damper on attention is going to decrease learning, including observational learning.

If, for example, you are sleepy, groggy, drugged, sick, nervous, or “hyper,” you will learn less well. Some of the things that influence attention involve characteristics of the model. If the model is colorful and dramatic, for example, we pay more attention. If the model is attractive, or prestigious, or appears to be particularly competent, we will pay more attention. And if the model seems more like ourselves, we will pay more attention. These kinds of variables directed Bandura towards an examination of television and its effects on kids.

- **Retentional Processes:** The ability to store information is also an important part of the learning process. Retention can be affected by a number of factors, but the ability to pull up information later and act on it is vital to observational learning. Thus you must be able to retain and remember what you have paid attention to. This is where imagery and language come in. We store what we have seen the model doing in the form of mental images or verbal descriptions. When so stored, we can later “bring up” the image or description, so that we can reproduce it with our own behavior.
- **Reproduction Processes:** Once you have paid attention to the model and retained the information, it is time to actually perform the behavior you observed. Further practice of the learned behavior leads to improvement and skill advancement. Through the reproduction processes you have to translate the images or descriptions into actual behavior. So you have to have the ability to reproduce the behavior in the first place. Another important tidbit about reproduction is that our ability to imitate improves with practice at the behaviors involved. And also it has been noted that our abilities improve even when we just imagine ourselves performing! Many athletes, for example, imagine their performance in their mind’s eye prior to actually performing.
- **Motivational Processes:** And yet, with all this, you’re still not going to do anything unless you are motivated to imitate that is, until you have some reason for doing it. Hence in order for observational learning to occur and be successful, you have to be motivated to imitate the behavior that has been modeled. Reinforcement and punishment play an important role in motivation. While experiencing these motivators can be highly effective, one can also observe other experiences such as some type of reinforcement or punishment that others are being subjected to. For example, if you see another student rewarded with extra credit for coming to class on time, you might start to show up a few minutes early each day.



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In the theory of observational learning Bandura mentions a number of motives, which are:

- Past reinforcement, ala traditional behaviorism
- Promised reinforcements (incentives) that we can imagine
- Vicarious reinforcement seeing and recalling the model being reinforced

All the above three are, traditionally, considered to be the things that “cause” learning. Bandura states that they do not so much cause learning as they cause us to demonstrate what we have learned. That is, Bandura sees them as motives. Of course, the negative motivations are there as well, giving you reasons not to imitate someone. These are listed below:

- Past punishment
- Promised punishment (threats)
- Vicarious punishment

Like most traditional behaviorists, Bandura says that punishment in whatever form does not work as well as reinforcement and, in fact, has a tendency to “backfire” on us.

VICARIOUS LEARNING

Closely related to observational learning is vicarious learning, another distinctive feature of Bandura’s social cognitive theory. Vicarious learning, or the process of learning from other people’s behavior, is a central idea of Social Cognitive Theory. This idea asserts that individuals can witness observed behaviors of others and then reproduce the same actions. As a result of this, individuals refrain from making mistakes and can perform behaviors better if they see individuals complete them successfully.

Psychological theories have traditionally emphasized learning through the effects of one’s actions. If knowledge and skills could be acquired only by direct experience, the process of cognitive and social development would be greatly retarded. The abbreviation of the acquisition process is vital for survival as well as for human development because natural endowment provides few inborn skills. Humans have evolved an advanced capacity for observational learning that enables them to expand their knowledge and skills on the basis of information conveyed by modeling influences. Indeed, virtually all learning phenomena resulting from direct experience can occur vicariously by observing people’s behavior and its consequences for them (Bandura, 1986; Rosenthal & Zimmerman, 1978).

Much of social learning occurs either deliberately or inadvertently by observing the actual behavior of others and the consequences for them. However, a great deal of information about behavior patterns and the effects they have on the environment is gained from models portrayed symbolically through verbal or pictorial means. A major significance of symbolic modeling lies in its tremendous multiplicative power. Unlike learning by doing, which requires altering the actions of each individual through repeated trial-and-error experiences, in observational learning a single model can transmit new ways of thinking and behaving simultaneously to many people in widely dispersed locales.

There is another aspect of symbolic modeling that magnifies its psychological and social effects. During the course of their daily lives, people have direct contact with only a small sector of the environment. Consequently, their conceptions of social reality are greatly influenced by vicarious experiences by what they see and hear without direct experiential correctives.

EVALUATION OF BANDURA'S THEORY

The theory of Bandura has been demonstrated to make powerful predictions and has generated useful applications in a large number of areas of human behavior. Bandura's theory is well grounded in research. Its terms are very tightly and clearly defined and so they lend themselves well to empirical research. Probably the most significant contribution of social cognitive theory is its applied value.

However in spite of the above merits Bandura's theory has some limitations. These limitations are given below: Behavior has been found to be more consistent than is argued by Bandura's theory which focuses a great deal on the situation. Some researchers have argued that the theory lacks attention to biological or hormonal processes. Probably of most significance is the criticism that the theory is not unified. Concepts and processes such as observational learning and self-efficacy have been highly researched but there has been little explanation about the relationship among the concepts.

4.8 BASIC NATURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

Around the time that Bandura came on the scene, other psychologists were starting to rebel against the confines of strict behaviorism as well. In particular, many were dissatisfied with behaviorism's focus on observable behavior. Instead, they preferred to focus on inner experience, mental processes, and people's concept of self. In the 1960s, this led to the rise of the humanistic movement in psychology.

Humanists rejected the behaviorist view that people's behavior is nothing more than a set of responses to environmental stimuli. They felt that this took the humanity out of human behavior, reducing people to the level of machines. At the same time, humanists also rejected the psychoanalytic view that a selfish desire for pleasure was at the heart of all human behavior. Rather, the humanists emphasized the innate potential of people and their ability to exercise control over their own destinies.

The self is a central concept in humanistic psychology. Carl Rogers, one of the leaders of the movement, believed that behavior problems were the result of people's failure to trust their own experience, which led to a distorted view of the self. The goal of therapy was to reduce this distortion by helping people gain self-understanding and self-acceptance. Abraham Maslow, another key figure in humanistic psychology, wrote about people's innate drive to achieve self-actualization a process of inner growth in which they realized their potential.

While not a humanistic psychologist, Bandura is also very interested in the self. He has written about something he calls the self-system—a set of cognitive processes that people use to perceive, evaluate, and control their own behavior. This self-system allows people



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to adapt their behavior so that it is appropriate for the situation at hand and effective for helping them achieve their goals.

4.9 STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Albert Bandura agreed with Skinner that personality develops through learning. He disagreed, however, with Skinner's strict behaviorist approach to personality development, because he felt that thinking and reasoning are important components of learning. He presented a social-cognitive theory of personality that emphasizes both learning and cognition as sources of individual differences in personality.

Personality theory that views behavior as the product of the interaction of cognitions, learning and past experiences, and the immediate environment. Cognitions: How people think about a situation and their behavior in that situation. Learning includes: reinforcement, punishment and modeling. Your interpretations of the environment determine personality, behavior and your general outlook on life.

Albert Bandura suggested that people evaluate a situation based on certain internal expectancies such as personal preferences. This evaluation has an effect on one's behavior. Example: Two people play a video game for the first time and score similarly low scores. Components of Personality (Expectations) (Environment/Surroundings) (Behavior/Response to situation)

Locus of Control 1950's theory by Julian Rotter and supported by Bandura. It explains an expectancy of whether reinforcement is under internal or external control Internal: convinced they can control their own fate. They believe that through hard work, skill and training, it is possible to find reinforcements and avoid punishments. External: convinced they cannot control their own fate. Instead, they are convinced that chance, luck and the behavior of others determine their destiny and feel threatened that they are helpless to do anything about it.

4.10 DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

Bandura (1977, 1995) has studied a number of cognitive and personal factors that affect learning and personality development. People who have high self-efficacy believe that their goals are within reach, have a positive view of challenges seeing them as tasks to be mastered, develop a deep interest in and strong commitment to the activities in which they are involved, and quickly recover from setbacks. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy avoid challenging tasks because they doubt their ability to be successful, tend to focus on failure and negative outcomes, and lose confidence in their abilities if they experience setbacks. Feelings of self-efficacy can be specific to certain situations. For instance, a student might feel confident in her ability in English class but much less so in math class.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Social cognitive theory of Bandura is based on the idea that people learn by watching what others do and that human thought processes are central to understanding personality. Social cognitive theory approaches the explanation of behavior in terms of

a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental determinants. It identifies human behavior as an interaction of personal factors, behavior, and the environment. These three segments are mutually interactive. Now the question arise that do they have some starting point? Bandura answered in yes and that point is self-system. "In social learning theory, a self-system is not a psychic agent that controls behavior. Rather it refers to cognitive structures that provide reference mechanisms to set of functions for perception, evaluation and regulation of behavior". The three components involved in self-system are self-observation, judgment and self – response. Self-efficacy is another important concept in Bandura's theory. Self efficacy is "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations". There are four major sources of self-efficacy. These sources are mastery experiences, social modeling, social persuasion, and psychological responses. Bandura's social-cognitive approach represents a break from traditional theories by proposing that cognitive factors are central to human functioning and that learning can occur in the absence of direct reinforcement. That is, learning can occur simply through observation of models and in the absence of reinforcement. Through a series of investigations, Bandura and Walters demonstrated that modeling is not merely a process of behavioral mimicry. Rather, through modeling people learn the value of particular behavior with regard to goal achievement or outcomes. Bandura proposed a four step conceptual scheme of the process involved in observational learning:

The first step incorporates the attention processes that are involved including certain model characteristics which may increase the likelihood of the behavior being attended to. It also includes observer characteristics such as; sensory capacities, motivation and arousal levels, perceptual set and past reinforcement. The second step refers to retention processes including the observer's ability to encode, to remember and to make sense of what has been observed. The third step refers to motor reproduction processes including the capabilities that the observer has to perform the behavior being observed. Specific factors include; physical capabilities, and availability of responses. The final step refers to motivational processes including external reinforcement, vicarious reinforcement, and self-reinforcement. If the behavior is to be imitated, an observer must be motivated to perform that behavior. Vicarious learning, or the process of learning from other people's behavior, is a central idea of social cognitive theory. This idea asserts that individuals can witness observed behaviors of others and then reproduce the same actions. As a result of this, individuals refrain from making mistakes and can perform behaviors better if they see individuals complete them successfully. Vicarious learning is a part of social modeling which is one of the four means to increase self-efficacy. Social modeling refers not just observing behavior but also receiving instruction and guidance of how to complete a behavior.

4.12 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Discuss main features of social cognitive theory of personality.
2. Critically evaluate the development of self-system as proposed by Bandura.

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ABRAHAM MASLOW
AND ALBERT
BANDURA



3. What do you understand by Reciprocal determinism?
4. Explain theory of self actualization by Abraham Maslow in detail.
5. Briefly describe the hierarchy needs.

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What do understand by reciprocal determinism? Discuss its importance in the light of Bandura's theory.
2. Write an essay on self-efficacy in detail.
3. What is observational learning? Discuss the main processes involved in observational learning.
4. What do you mean by vicarious learning? What role does it play in Bandura's social learning?
5. Define Observational learning in detail.

4.13 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. 'Bobo Doll experiment' was carried out by _____.
 - a. Albert Bandura
 - b. Abraham Maslow
 - c. Carl Jung
 - d. None of these
2. _____ needs include needs that keep us alive, such as food, water, shelter, warmth, and sleep.
 - a. Physiological
 - b. Safety
 - c. Love
 - d. Self-actualization
3. 'Social Cognitive Theory' was given by _____.
 - a. Charles Darwin
 - b. Albert Bandura
 - c. Abraham Maslow
 - d. Carl Jung
4. 'Social Cognitive Theory' is also known as _____.
 - a. Self Learning Theory
 - b. Systematic Learning Theory
 - c. Social Learning Theory
 - d. None of these
5. _____ emphasizes the social origins of behavior in addition to the cognitive thought processes that influence human behavior and functioning.
 - a. Theory of Personality
 - b. Social Learning Theory
 - c. Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality
 - d. None of these

6. _____ is the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations.
- Self Observation
 - Judgment
 - Self Response
 - Self Efficacy
7. _____ is a central idea of social cognitive theory.
- Vicarious learning
 - Self Observation
 - Self Response
 - Self Efficacy
8. _____ is the need to feel secure, stable, and unafraid.
- Physiological needs
 - Safety needs
 - Love needs
 - Self-actualization needs
9. _____ wrote about people's innate drive to achieve self-actualization a process of inner growth in which they realized their potential.
- Charles Darwin
 - Albert Bandura
 - Abraham Maslow
 - Carl Jung
10. _____ is ability to store information is also an important part of the learning process.
- Motivational Processes
 - Attentional Processes
 - Retentional Processes
 - None of these

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PERSONALITY TESTS

STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Learning Objective
- 5.2 Introduction
- 5.3 Personality Tests
- 5.4 Big Five Personality Test
- 5.5 Myers Briggs Personality Test
- 5.6 Type of Personality Test
- 5.7 Projective Techniques
- 5.8 Rorschach's Personality Test
- 5.9 TAT
- 5.10 CAT
- 5.11 Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement Test
- 5.12 Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Test
- 5.13 Chapter Summary
- 5.14 Review Questions
- 5.15 Multiple Choice Questions



5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

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

- Learn about personality tests.
- Know about the big five personality tests.
- Know about Myers Briggs personality test.
- Understand the projective techniques.
- Learn about TAT and CAT.

5.2 INTRODUCTION

Personality assessment refers to the estimation of one's personality make up that is the person's characteristic behaviour patterns and salient and stable characteristics. As there are different theoretical accounts of personality, and the question is how do people find out what kind of personality they have? The methods of estimating or measuring or assessing personality vary according to the theory of personality used to develop those methods. However, most of the psychological professionals doing personality assessment do not necessarily tie themselves to one theoretical view point only, rather they prefer to take an eclectic view of personality. The eclectic view is a way of choosing the parts of different theories that seem to best fit a particular situation, rather than using only one theory to explain a phenomenon.

In fact, looking at behaviour from different perspectives can often bring insights into a person's behaviour that would not easily come from taking only one perspective (Ciccarelli and Meyer, 2006). Therefore, many of the professional Assessment of Personality doing personality assessment use different perspectives and also take on different techniques for its assessment. It is also important to note here that personality assessment may also differ with respect to the purposes for which it is done. For example, if the purpose is self-understanding, the person may select different tests/inventories, if the purpose is to classify person's as per their personality traits a different set of tests may be useful.

Finally, if the purpose is diagnostic (clinical psychologist, counselors etc.) an entirely different set of tests may be more useful. There are several tests/inventories which are available for the assessment of personality. Broadly, these can be grasped into one of the three categories. These are the subjective, objective and projective methods. The subjective approach incorporates the assessment of one's personality taking his/her work into account e.g. what he or she had done throughout his/her life.

It may also consider his/her autobiographical accounts and biographies etc. But there is a major limitation of it that there are possibilities that the person may exaggerate his/her strengths and may minimise the account of his/her limitations and therefore we may be devoid of the true picture of personality. In personality assessment the effort is to make the assessment free from bias of any sort both from the subject/participant (whose personality is to be assessed) and from that of the assessor. It presents that there are so many such test/inventories whereby we can assess personality of a person objectively and these are the important tools for the purpose.

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While some tests assess the surface characteristics, others uncover the underlying aspects of personality. Among the major procedures that are in use currently, the important ones are those based on content relevance, empirical criterion keying, factor analyses, and personality theory. Personality assessment may differ in the purposes for which they are conducted. Personality assessment is used in the diagnosis of personality disorders by clinical and counseling psychologists, psychiatrists; and other psychological professionals.

5.3 PERSONALITY TESTS

What Is a Personality Test?

A personality test is a tool used to assess human personality. Personality testing and assessment refer to techniques designed to measure the characteristic patterns of traits that people exhibit across various situations. Personality tests can be used to help clarify a clinical diagnosis, guide therapeutic interventions, and help predict how people may respond in different situations. Personality is something that we informally assess and describe every day. When we talk about ourselves and others, we frequently refer to different characteristics of an individual's personality. Psychologists do much the same thing when they assess personality but on a more systematic and scientific level.

The greatest benefit of self-report inventories is that they can be standardized and use established norms. Self-inventories are also relatively easy to administer and have much higher reliability and validity than projective tests. Projective tests, on the other hand, are most often used in psychotherapy settings and allow therapists to quickly gather a great deal of information about a client.

For example, a therapist can look not only at a person's response to a particular test item, but they can also take into account other qualitative information such as tone of voice and body language. All of this can be explored in greater depth as people progress through therapy sessions.

Uses of Personality Tests

Personality tests are administered for a number of different purposes, including:

- Assessing theories
- Evaluating the effectiveness of therapy
- Diagnosing psychological problems
- Looking at changes in personality
- Screening job candidates

Personality tests are also sometimes used in forensic settings to conduct risk assessments, establish competence, and in child custody disputes. Other settings where personality testing may be used are in school psychology, career and occupational counseling, relationship counseling, clinical psychology, and employment testing.

Impact of Personality Tests

Personality tests can be useful for a number of reasons. These tests can help you learn more about yourself and better understand both your strengths and weaknesses. And

while all personality tests are different, learning that you might be high on a specific trait can help you gain greater insight into your own behavioral patterns.

For example, your results on a personality test might indicate that you rate high on the personality trait of introversion. This result suggests that you have to expend energy in social situations, so you need to find time alone to recharge your energy. Knowing that you have this tendency can help you recognize when you are getting drained from socializing and set aside quiet moments to regain your equilibrium.

5.4 BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TEST

Typology of tests is a purely arbitrary determination (Gregory 2004). However, using different criteria, psychological tests can be classified in the following manner:

a. On the Basis of Mode of Administration

Tests have been classified on the basis of administrative conditions into two types: Individual Test and Group Test.

Individual Test: Individual test is that test that are administered to one person at a time. Kohs Block Design test is an example of the individual test. They are often used in clinical evaluations. The problems with individual test are that they are time consuming, higher in cost, and is labour intensive.

Group Tests: These are primarily designed for mass testing that is, they can be administered to more than one individual at time. They are economical and time saving. For example, Army Alpha and Alpha Beta test.

b. On the Basis of the Nature and Contents of the Items

A test may be classified on the basis of the nature of the items or the contents used therein. Important types of the test on this criterion are:

- **Verbal Test:** is one whose items emphasize reading, writing, and oral expression as the primary mode of communication. Herein, instructions are printed or written. These are read by the examinees and accordingly items are answered. Jalota group general intelligence test and Mehta group test of intelligence are some common examples. Verbal test are also called paper pencil test because the examinee has to write on a piece of paper while answering the test items.
- **Non-verbal Test:** These are tests which emphasize but do not altogether eliminate the role of language by using symbolic materials like pictures, figures, and so on. Such test uses the language in instructions but in items they do not use language. Raven's progressive matrices are a good example of non verbal test.
- **Performance Test:** are those that require the examinees to perform a task rather than answer some questions. Such test prohibits the use of language in items. Occasionally oral language is used to give instruction or the instruction may also be given through gesture and pantomime.
- **Objective Test:** There is another classification according to the nature of test items, where test can be classified into objective type test in which the responses are of multiple choice types and essay type tests in which the responses are of long answer type.





c. On the Basis of Mode of Scoring

The test can be classified into self scored versus expert scored or hand scored versus machine scored test. In self-scored test the testee himself/herself can score his responses with the help of a scoring key while in the case of expert scored test, the test responses are scored by an expert person (generally the test administrator). Hand scored tests are test that are scored manually while machine scored tests are the tests that are scored with the help of a machine (computer aided) for example the optical mark recognition (OMR) sheet responses used for various educational and mass assessment.

d. On the Basis of Rate of Performance or Time Limit in Producing a Response

The test can be classified into speed test and power test. Speed test are timed tests that is they examine the subject's speed of responding within the stipulated period of time. Test items in a speed test are of uniform difficulty but time limit is such that no examinee can attempt all the items (Chadha 1996). A pure speed test is a test composed of items so easy that the subject never gives a wrong answer and his score is equal to number of questions attempted by him for example the clinical speed and accuracy test. Power test, on the other hand, offers enough time for the subject to attempt all the questions. A power test is one which has a generous time limit so that most examinees are able to attempt every item. Usually such tests have items which are generally arranged in increasing order of difficulties. In many intelligence tests there are certain items that are too difficult for anyone to solve; for example; Raven's progressive matrices (Raven and court 1998).

e. On the Basis of Criterion of Behavioural Attitude Measured

According to the behavioural attitudes assessed, tests can be classified into personality test, ability (intelligence, aptitude, achievement and creativity) tests and tests of attitudes, values and interest.

- **Personality Tests:** These tests are designed to measure a person's individuality in terms of unique traits and behaviour. Personality test measures the traits qualities or behaviours that determine a person's individuality such test include checklists, inventories for example (16 PF, MMPI, Maudsley personality inventories) and projective techniques like the Rorschach Test, Thematic Apperception Test and so on.
- **Ability Tests:** These are the qualities that enable an individual to do specific task at a specified time and can be classified into intelligence, aptitude, achievement, and creativity.
- **Intelligence Test:** This measures an individual's ability in relativity global areas such as verbal comprehension, perceptual organisation or reasoning and thereby helps determine potential for scholastic work or certain occupations. For example, Wechsler adult intelligence tests (WAIS).
- **Aptitude Test:** This test measures the capability for a relativity specific task or type of skill Aptitude test is in effect a narrow form of ability testing. Example of aptitude test are Seashore measures of musical talents (Seashore 1938), SAT (Scholastic Assessment test previously called as scholastic aptitude test).
- **Creativity Test:** This test assesses the novel original thinking and the capacity to find unusual or unexpected solutions especially the vaguely defined problem.

For example Torrance test of creative thinking, thinking by E.Paul Torrance (1966) and creativity self report by Feldhusen (1965).

- **Achievement Test:** This measures a person's degree of learning, success, or accomplishment in a subject of task. For example test of achievement and proficiency (TAP 1996), Iowa test of basic skill (1992). Apart from these, tests can be also classified on the basis of behavioural dimensions that are attitude test, values test, interest test and neuropsychological test and so on.
- **Attitude Tests:** These tests refer to our evaluations about various aspects of the world and tests of attitude measure a person's tendency to evaluate – favorably or unfavorably – a class of events, objects or persons. Examples of attitude tests are criminal attitude test (CATS), (Taylor 1968); Attitude towards Retarded (Efron and Efron 1967).
- **Values Test:** These tests refer to the normative frameworks related to individual / group behaviour or expectations. Examples of value test are Allport, Vernon and Lindzey test of values.
- **Interest Tests:** These tests measure an individual's preference for certain activities or topics and thereby help determine occupational choice. For example strong interest inventories (1927), vocational preference battery (Holland).
- **Neuropsychological Tests:** These measure cognitive, sensory, perceptual and motor performance to determine the extent, locus, and behavioural consequences of brain damage.

For example Luria Nebraska neuropsychological batteries (1989), Bender visual motor gestalt test (1938).

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the different types of psychological tests?
2. What are the criteria on the basis of which tests are classified?
3. List the big five tests.
4. What is the impact of the personality tests?
5. What are the uses of personality test?

5.5 MYERS BRIGGS PERSONALITY TEST

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 categorizing an individual's behavioural preferences. Each of the four MBTI scales represents two



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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	(D)	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'

(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)?

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.

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 ways 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'.

5.6 TYPE OF PERSONALITY TEST

Types of Personality Tests

There are two basic types of personality tests: self-report inventories and projective tests:

- **Self-report inventories** involve having test-takers read questions and then rate how well the question or statement applies to them. One of the most common self-report inventories is the Minnesota Multiphase Personality Inventory (MMPI).
- **Projective tests** involve presenting the test-taker with a vague scene, object, or scenario and then asking them to give their interpretation of the test item. One well-known example of a projective test is the Rorschach Inkblot Test.

5.7 PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES

These techniques are assumed to reveal those central aspects of personality that lie in the unconscious mind of an individual. Unconscious motivations, hidden desires, inner fears and complexes are presumed to be elicited by their unstructured nature that affects the client's conscious behaviour. The assignment of a relatively unstructured task is a major distinguishing feature of projective techniques. An unstructured task is one that

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permits an endless range of possible responses. The underlying hypothesis of projective techniques is that the way the test material or “structures” are perceived and interpreted by the individual, reflects the fundamental aspects of her or his psychological functioning.

In other words, the test material serves as a sort of screen on which respondents “project” their characteristic thought processes, anxieties, conflicts and needs. Clients are shown ambiguous visual stimuli by the psychologist and are asked to Assessment of Personality tell what they see in that stimuli. It is presumed that the client will project the unconscious concerns and fears onto the visual stimulus and thus the psychologist can interpret the responses and understand the psychodynamic underlying the problem of the client. Tests that utilize this method are called projective tests.

These tests, besides their function of exploring one’s personality, also serve as a diagnostic tool to uncover the hidden personality issues. The history of projective techniques began in the beginning of the 15th century when Leonardo da Vinci selected pupils on the basis of their attempt to find shapes and patterns in ambiguous form (Piotrowski, 1972). In 1879, a Word association test was constructed by Gallon. Similar tests were used in clinical settings by Carl Jung. Later, Frank (1939, 1948) introduced the term projective method to describe a range of tests which could be used to study personality with unstructured stimuli.

This way, the individual has enough opportunity to project his own personality attributes which in the course of normal interview or conversation the person would not reveal. More specifically, projective instruments also represent disguised testing procedures in the sense that the test takers are not aware of the psychological interpretation to be made of their responses. Rather than measuring the traits separately the attention is focused on the composite picture.

Finally, projective techniques are an effective tool to reveal the latent or hidden aspects of personality that remain embedded in the unconscious until uncovered. These techniques are based on the assumption that if the stimulus structure is weak in nature, it allows the individual to project his/ her feelings, desires and needs that are further interpreted by the experts.

CLASSIFICATION OF PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES

Various types of projective techniques have been classified into several categories by psychologists.

- **Constructive:** It includes all those tests and situations where the construction of some specific task is to be done by the examinee. The subject needs to frame a structure upon the situation presented by the examiner, and be asked to draw a human figure allowing the person to freely express the examiner’s inclination.
- **Constitutive:** This category includes those tests which require the examinee to constitute structures upon some given unstructured materials, as for example, The Rorschach Ink Blot technique. In this test the examinee imposes own structure upon the unstructured ink blots (Zubin, Eros and Schumer, 1965) and

the subject's responses are scored and interpreted.

- **Cathartic:** It includes those situations where the examinee can release his wishes, inner demands, conflicts etc. through some manipulative tasks.
- **Interpretative:** It includes those test situations where the examinee has to add a detailed meaning to the given situation. For example, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and the Word Association Test.
- **Refractive:** This category includes all those techniques through which the examinee gets the opportunity to depict his personality in the form of drawing, painting etc. Frank cited that graphology is the best example of this category.

If we evaluate Frank's classification, it is obvious that it consists of several limitations. The biggest one is that according to his classification, same test can be included in two or more categories, causing considerable overlap. This way, Frank's classification is not a popular classification of projective methods.

5.8 RORSCHACH'S PERSONALITY TEST

The Rorschach test is the famous inkblot test. Many people are fascinated by the idea of using inkblots to investigate personality and psychological functioning. Of course, many people (including psychologists) are skeptical of projective techniques such as the Rorschach, questioning its validity as a measure of psychological functioning. The Rorschach consists of 10 inkblots that are symmetrical; that is, the left side of each card is essentially a mirror image of the right side.

The same 10 inkblots have been used (in the same order of presentation) since they were first developed by Herman Rorschach in 1921. Half of the cards are black, white, and gray, and half use color. While there are several different ways to administer the Rorschach and score, the vast majority of psychologists today use the method developed by John Exner. Each card is handed to the patient with the question, "What might this be?" The psychologist writes down everything the patient says verbatim. During this free association portion of the test, the psychologist does not question the patient. After all 10 cards are administered; the psychologist shows the patient each card a second time and asks questions that will help in scoring the test.

For example, the psychologist might say, "Now I'd like to show you the cards once again and ask you several questions about each card so that I can be sure that I see it as you do." With each card, he or she asks a non leading question such as, "What about the card made it look like a to you?" The psychologist looks for answers that will help him or her score the test in several categories such as location (i.e., the area of the blot being used), content (i.e., the nature of the object being described, such as a person, animal, or element of nature), determinants (i.e., the parts of the blot that the patient used in the response, such as form, colour, shading, and movement), and popular (i.e., the responses typically seen by others). This portion of the test is referred to as the inquiry. Once the test is completed, scoring involves a highly complex system and analysis.

Each response is carefully scored based on the content, location, determinants, and quality of the response. Various aspects of the Rorschach responses are associated with



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psychological functioning. For example, the frequent use of shading is generally considered to be reflective of anxiety and depression. The use of human movement and adequate number of popular responses are usually associated with adaptive and well integrated psychological functioning. Numerous responses that attend to minor details of the blots often reflect obsessive compulsive traits. Frequent use of the whitespace around the blot is generally associated with oppositionality and/or avoidance.

5.9 TAT

This test was developed by Henry Murray and his colleagues (Morgan and Murray, 1935). The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) consists of 20 pictures which are all black and white. The people depicted in the picture are deliberately drawn in ambiguous situations. After showing the picture, a story is to be told by the client about the person or people in the picture. They have to say what is happening in the picture, what has caused the event and what could have taken place in the past and what would happen in the future.

The story narrated by the client is interpreted by the psychologist, who tries to look for revealing statements and projection of the client's hidden emotions onto the characters in the pictures. In the original interpretation method of TAT scores, the examiner first determines who is the "hero", the character of either sex with whom the respondent presumably identifies himself or herself. The content of the stories is then analyzed in reference to Murray's list of "needs" and "press". Achievement, affiliation and aggression are the examples of needs whereas "press" refers to environmental forces that may facilitate or interfere with need satisfaction.

However, TAT has been used extensively in the research of personality but the high variations in administration and scoring procedures associated with TAT has made it quite difficult to investigate the psychometric properties of the TAT. Nevertheless, the value of Thematic Apperception Techniques has been confirmed and also the clinical utility of various versions of the TAT both for traditional and specific applications have been established.

5.10 CAT

The Children's Apperception Test (CAT) is a projective personality test used to assess individual variations in children's responses to standardized stimuli presented in the form of pictures of animals (CAT-A) or humans (CAT-H) in common social situations. In a supplement to the CAT—the CAT-S—the stimuli include pictures of children in common family situations such as prolonged illnesses, births, deaths, and separations from parental figures.

Purpose

The CAT is used to assess personality, level of maturity, and, often, psychological health. The theory is that a child's responses to a series of drawings of animals or humans in familiar situations are likely to reveal significant aspects of a child's personality. Some of these dimensions of personality include level of reality testing and judgment, control and regulation of drives, defenses, conflicts, and level of autonomy.

**Description**

The CAT, developed by psychiatrist and psychologist Leopold Bellak and Sonya Sorel Bellak and first published in 1949, is based on the picture-story test called the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). The TAT, created by psychologist Henry A. Murray for children (ten years old and older) as well as adults, uses a standard series of 31 picture cards in assessing perception of interpersonal relationships. The cards, which portray humans in a variety of common situations, are used to stimulate stories or descriptions (orally or in writing) about relationships or social situations and can help identify dominant drives, emotions, sentiments, conflicts and complexes. The examiner summarizes and interprets the stories in light of certain common psychological themes.

In creating the original CAT, animal figures were used instead of the human figures depicted in the TAT because it was assumed that children from three to ten years of age would identify more easily with drawings of animals. The original CAT consisted of ten cards depicting animal (CAT-A) figures in human social settings. The Bellaks later developed the CAT-H, which included human figures, for use in children who, for a variety of reasons, identified more closely with human rather than animal figures. A supplement to the CAT (the CAT-S), which included pictures of children in common family situations, was created to elicit specific rather than universal responses.

Like the TAT and the Rorschach inkblot test, the CAT is a type of personality assessment instrument known as a projective test. The term projective refers to a concept originated by Sigmund Freud. In Freud's theory, unconscious motives control much of human behavior. Projection is a psychological mechanism by which a person unconsciously projects inner feelings onto the external world, then imagines those feelings are being expressed by the external world toward him or herself.

As opposed to cognitive tests, which use intellectual and logical problems to measure what an individual knows about the world, projective assessments such as the CAT are designed to be open-ended and to encourage free expression of thoughts and feelings, thereby revealing how an individual thinks and feels.

Administration

The CAT, which takes 20–45 minutes to administer, is conducted by a trained professional—psychiatrist, psychologist, social worker, teacher or specially trained pediatrician—in a clinical, research, or educational setting. The test may be used directly in therapy or as a play technique in other settings.

After carefully establishing rapport with the child, the examiner shows the child one card after another in a particular sequence (although fewer than ten cards may be used at the examiner's discretion) and encourages the child to tell a story—with a beginning, middle, and end—about the characters. The examiner may ask the child to describe, for example, what led up to the scene depicted, the emotions of the characters, and what might happen in the future.

Scoring

In a projective test such as the CAT, there is no right or wrong answer. Thus there is no

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numerical score or scale for the test. The test administrator records the essence of each of the stories told and indicates the presence or absence of certain thematic elements on the form provided. As in the TAT, each story is carefully analyzed to uncover the child's underlying needs, conflicts, emotions, attitudes, and response patterns. The CAT's creators suggest a series of ten variables to consider when interpreting the results. These variables include the story's major theme, the major character's needs, drives, anxieties, conflicts, fears, and the child's conception of the external world.

Reliability and validity

Although responses in projective tests are believed to reflect personality characteristics, many experts have called into question the reliability, validity, and hence, usefulness of these tests as diagnostic techniques. The CAT, as well as other projective measures, has been criticized for its lack of a standardized method of administration as well as the lack of standard norms for interpretation. Studies of the interactions between examiners and test subjects have found, for example, that the race, gender, and social class of both participants influence the stories that are told as well as the way the stories are interpreted by the examiner.

Suggested uses

The CAT, which is designed for use in clinical, educational, and research settings, provides the examiner with a source of data, based on the child's perceptions and imagination, for use in better understanding the child's current needs, motives, emotions, and conflicts, both conscious and unconscious. Its use in clinical assessment is generally part of a larger battery of tests and interview data.

Parental concerns

Although it can provide useful information about a child's personality, the CAT, as a projective measure, relies heavily on the interpretations of the test administrator and is often referred to as an assessment tool rather than a test. In addition to questioning the general reliability and validity of all projective tests, some experts maintain that cultural and language differences among children tested may affect CAT test performance and may produce inaccurate test results.

Parents need to keep in mind that psychological tests such as the CAT, which should be administered only by well-trained professionals, are only one element of a child's psychological assessment. These tools should never be used as the sole basis for a diagnosis. A detailed review of psychological, medical, educational, or other relevant history are required to lay the foundation for interpreting the results of any psychological measurement.

5.11 TOMKINS-HORN PICTURE ARRANGEMENT TEST

The Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement test was conducted and created by Silvan Tomkins and Daniel Horn at the Harvard Psychology Clinic in 1942 as a subset the Wechsler intelligence scales, wherein the involved party must appropriately order a sequence of sketches which tell a short story in a very similar manner to the PAT developed by Tomkins and Horn. The PAT was inspired by The Thematic Apperception test and was developed

to «maximize the ease of administration and the scoring at the least cost in richness of projective material». It was also developed for group testing and machine scoring.

The test is designed to be given in random order to the subject where the subject is presented with a series of cards in an incorrect order that must be placed in the correct order to tell a story that makes sense. The stories are like short comic strips and placing them in order relies on the individual's ability to recognize the cause and effect relationship of events depicted in the cards. This task gives information about an individual's reasoning abilities, and performance is related to the ability to understand precursors and consequences of events. The pictures on the cards involve human characters and interactions and there are different keys which have been pre-determined. The subjects tell matches a key which then gives information about the subject's intelligence and mental state.

The PAT developed by Silvan Tomkins and Daniel Horn had 25 plates each consisting of line drawings of three situations that were different but related. Each plate, and all 25 plates depicted a common "hero" in all the situations presented. It was the subject's task to specify in what order the three situations should be placed to make the most reasonable story. The Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement Test was changed to The Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement Experiment by the Public Opinion Surveys who believed that samples could be easily obtained when the term «experiment» is used instead of «test». The interpretation of the test was not fixed, Silvan Tomkins and Daniel Horn stated that there are always alternate possible interpretations for any rare response in terms of content and in respect to the psychological level involved. The PAT was not developed to differentiate the different levels of psychological levels with respect to all content areas.

5.12 ROSENZWEIG - PICTURE FRUSTRATION TEST

A projective test which assesses patterns of reaction to typical stress situations. It is an all-too-obvious fact that frustrating experiences are a common feature of everyday life, and it is equally appar A projective test which assesses patterns of reaction to typical stress situations. It is an all-too-obvious fact that frustrating experiences are a common feature of everyday life, and it is equally apparent that they provoke emotional responses. Building on these two facts, S. Rosenzweig (1947—49) has constructed a test which presents the subject with frustrating situations on the theory that the way they are handled will be a significant index of emotional adjustment.

The test consists of a series of cartoon situations which depict frustrating circumstances experienced in everyday life. In one of these cartoons, a car splashes a pedestrian and the driver says, "I am very sorry we splashed you. I tried to avoid the puddle"; in another, a woman had just knocked over a vase, and the hostess says, "How awful! That was my mother's favorite vase." The characters are shown without facial expressions or special posture that might suggest the nature of their reactions, and the subject is asked to indicate what the second person in the situation would reply, writing down the first words that come to his mind. It is assumed that he identifies with the frustrated character and that his replies are a projection of his own typical reactions.

After the twenty-four situations are presented he is asked to read aloud both the printed



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speeches of the frustrating character and his own responses. The examiner takes note of any significant omissions or inflections in his voice during the reading. The responses are basically interpreted in terms of three types of aggression. First, “extra punitive” responses are directed outward, at people or things. In the first situation above, the pedestrian might swear at the driver or demand that he pay his cleaning bill. Second, “intropunitive” responses are directed inward, toward himself; the pedestrian might say, “It was my fault. I should have stood farther away from the curb,” or “I guess I didn’t look where I was going—as usual I did a stupid thing.”

Third, “impunitive” responses make light of the problem and are usually delivered in a conciliatory tone; “It was an accident. It could have happened to anyone,” or “Don’t worry, it was an old suit.” The examiner is also alert to three other kinds of reactions to frustration: “obstacle-dominated” responses, in which the problem created by the experience is emphasized; “ego-defensive” responses, in which a defense mechanism is used; and “need-persistent” responses, which focus on the solution of the problem. In scoring the test these three possible reactions are combined with each of the three aggressive reactions described above, to give a total of nine possible responses.

To illustrate, the following replies in the splash situation are all extra punitive, but the first is obstacle-dominated, the second is ego-defensive, and the third need-persistent: “I am sorry too, the suit is new,” “Why don’t you watch where you’re going?”, and “What about cleaning the suit?” Responses to this test have been thoroughly analyzed, and norms are available. Two of the most important considerations are the consistency of the responses and the general trend throughout the entire series of situations. A subject who says, “I’m sorry,” in all situations is bound to be responding in an inadequate and inappropriate way on some of them for example, this remark is more appropriate in the broken vase situation than in the splash situation. Inadequate responses of this kind often indicate low frustration tolerance, a sign of immaturity.

The test itself presents so many situations that it is important to note changes in the mode of response while it is being given. This would be an important indicator of the way the subject would handle a long series of frustrating situations. There is also a children’s form of the P-F test designed for ages four to fourteen, presenting situations that might occur in any child’s life. This test is handled in the same way as the adult form except that the examiner makes an additional analysis of responses, noting what special needs are being thwarted and whether the frustrating person is another child, a parent figure, or other individual. Both forms are usually administered in conjunction with a battery of projective tests.

Although the P-F test is primarily used in assessing personality and adjustment, it has also been employed in studying the way different racial and nationality groups react to frustration. In addition, a similar technique has been applied in studying attitudes toward minority groups and opinions on social issues such as the prevention of war. And that they provoke emotional responses. Building on these two facts, S. Rosenzweig (1947—49) has constructed a test which presents the subject with frustrating situations on the theory that the way they are handled will be a significant index of emotional adjustment.

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5.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In the present unit we discussed about the definition and nature of psychological testing. Psychological testing constitutes administration of psychological test. Psychological tests can be described as tools that can be used to measure psychological entities like intelligence, personality, attitude, interest, achievement motivation and so on. They can be described as measurement of sample of behaviour that is standardized and objective (Anastasi, 1969). Psychological tests are mainly objective in nature. They also have predictive and diagnostic value. A psychological test is also a standardized, meaning that the procedure followed while administering and scoring the test is uniform. There are various assumptions with regard to psychological tests. A psychological test needs to be valid or should measure what it is supposed to measure. It should also be reliable or consistent. It should be objective and it is assumed that the individuals taking the test, understand the test items in a similar manner. It is also assumed that the individuals taking the test will be able to accurately express their feeling in that regard. Further, it is assumed that individuals will answer the items honestly.

Though there is always a possibility of social desirability creeping in. Error variance is assumed to occur due to administrator (bias, expectations), test taker (anxiety, fatigue) as well as testing conditions (temperature, distractions). Psychological tests have a vast scope and application as it is used in varied set ups from clinical, counseling, industrial and organizational to forensic set up. The characteristics of a good psychological test were also discussed in this unit that includes objectivity, validity, reliability, discriminant and comprehensive feature. We further discussed in detail about the terms validity and reliability. Validity can be described as the characteristics of a psychological test that states whether the test measures what it is supposed to or purports to measure. Psychological tests denote how individuals are different from each other with reference to various psychological entities. And in order to adequately measure presence and level of such entities in an individual, uniformity in procedure, administration and scoring of the test is required. This is termed as standardization. It is also important to have a norm that can be referred to suitably interpret the scores obtained by the individuals. Often after a test is administered and scored, a raw score is obtained which is meaningless, unless it is compared against a standard or norms. Lastly, various types of psychological tests were discussed in the unit.

5.14 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Give example of the following:
 - a. Group Test

- b. Nonverbal test
 - c. Intelligence Test
 - d. Personality Inventory
 - e. Aptitude Test
2. Classify the various projective techniques.
 3. What do you understand by TAT?
 4. Discuss the types of personality tests.
 5. What Is a Personality Test?

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LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Describe Rosenzweig - picture frustration test in detail.
2. Elaborately explain Tomkins-Horn Picture Arrangement test.
3. What do psychological tests denote?
4. Describe Myers Briggs Personality Test in detail.
5. Discuss Children's Apperception Test (CAT) in detail.

5.15 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. **What is the full form of CAT?**
 - a. Children's Apperception Test
 - b. Children's Aptitude Test
 - c. Children's Assessment Test
 - d. None of these
2. **What is the full form of SAT?**
 - a. Scholastic Aptitude test
 - b. Scholastic Assessment test
 - c. Scholastic Apperception test
 - d. None of these
3. **What is the full form of TAT?**
 - a. Thematic Aptitude Test
 - b. Thematic Assessment Test
 - c. Thematic Apperception Test
 - d. None of these
4. **What is the full form of WAIS?**
 - a. Wechsler apperception intelligence tests
 - b. Wechsler adult intelligence tests
 - c. Wechsler adult inventory tests
 - d. None of these
5. **The _____ is the famous inkblot test.**
 - a. Rorschach test
 - b. Children's Apperception Test
 - c. Wechsler adult intelligence tests
 - d. Thematic Apperception Test



6. **The _____ provides the examiner with a source of data, based on the child's perceptions and imagination.**
 - a. SAT
 - b. TAT
 - c. WAIS
 - d. CAT
7. **The TAT was created by psychologist _____.**
 - a. Myers Briggs
 - b. Henry A. Murray
 - c. Rosenzweig
 - d. Carl Jung
8. **The _____ uses a standard series of 31 picture cards in assessing perception of interpersonal relationships.**
 - a. TAT
 - b. SAT
 - c. WAIS
 - d. CAT
9. **The purpose of _____ is to "make the theory of psychological types described by Jung understandable and useful in people's lives.**
 - a. WAIS
 - b. CAT
 - c. MBTI
 - d. SAT
10. **_____ refers to the estimation of one's personality make up that is the person's characteristic behaviour patterns and salient and stable characteristics.**
 - a. Personality assessment
 - b. Personality Inventory
 - c. projective techniques
 - d. Psychological Tests

◆◆◆◆

ANSWER KEY

UNIT I

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	d.
2	b.	7	d.
3	c.	8	a.
4	a.	9	b.
5	c.	10	d.

UNIT II

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	a.
2	c.	7	c.
3	b.	8	b.
4	d.	9	d.
5	a.	10	a.

UNIT III

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	b.
2	c.	7	d.
3	a.	8	a.
4	b.	9	a.
5	a.	10	b.

UNIT IV

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	d.
2	a.	7	b.
3	b.	8	b.
4	c.	9	c.
5	b.	10	c.

UNIT V

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	d.
2	b.	7	b.
3	c.	8	a.
4	b.	9	c.
5	a.	10	a.

NOTE

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