M.Sc. [Psychology]
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THEORIES OF PERSONALITY
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THEORIES OF PERSONALITY
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According to the American psychologist Gordon Allport, personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristics behavior and thought. The factors that influence personality has been a topic discussed since the ancient times. Early theories attributed differences in personality to the abundance or absence of four types of bodily fluid known as humours. In recent times, psychologists have proposed a number of further theories explaining personality. Some, such focus on an individual’s observable behaviour. Other theories, such as the Five Factor Model, take a trait theory approach, seeking to understand personality in terms of specific attitudes and types of behaviour. Freud’s psychodynamic approach stressed on the influence of key drives on behaviour that an individual would be otherwise unaware of. This book, *Theories of Personality*, examines the various theories of personality in detail.

This book is divided into 14 units. It has been designed keeping in mind the self-instruction mode (SIM) format and follows a simple pattern, wherein each unit of the book begins with the Introduction followed by the Objectives for the topic. The content is then presented in a simple and easy-to-understand manner, and is interspersed with Check Your Progress questions to reinforce the student’s understanding of the topic. A list of Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit. The Summary and Key Words further act as useful tools for students and are meant for effective recapitulation of the text.
UNIT 1  INTRODUCTION TO PERSONALITY AND PERSONALITY THEORY

Structure
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The personality of a person is a combination of trait and patterns which have an effect over the behaviour and emotions and their reactions to the things around them. Since humans are a social animal, personality and its analysis has been a major preoccupation. Research and theorization of personality has been taking place since time immemorial, and while the concerns may be affected by the dominant issues of the time, some of the analysis has been universal and applies to the personality of humans regardless of the time period they are a part of. In this unit, you will be introduced to the concept of personality and personality theory including the varied definitions, the factors contributing personality change, the process of personality development and the nature of theories and its functions.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss the meaning of personality and related concepts
- Explain the factors that contribute to personality change and personality stability
- Describe the process of personality development
- State the nature of theories and its functions
1.2 PERSONALITY: MEANING AND RELATED CONCEPTS

There appears to be little unanimity among psychologists on the exact meaning of personality. It is interesting to note that in 1937, G W Allport in his book, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation*, mentioned fifty-three definitions of personality. Many more definitions were incorporated later. This divergence of views clearly demonstrates the importance of the subject.

At the outset, it must be pointed out that personality should not be equated with character. While, character denotes something ethical and moral and refers to the standards of right and wrong, personality is not just the outward appearance and behaviour of a person. It is the totality of everything about a person—his emotional, mental, social and spiritual make-up. In fact, it also includes ethical and physical make-up of an individual. Thus, character is just one aspect of personality.

The term ‘personality’ is derived from the Latin word *Persona*, which means the mask worn by the Roman actors. In this sense, personality means the individual as seen by others. The term personality is used in so many different ways, that a detailed discussion is neither possible nor desirable in the present context. However, some of the important definitions given below may throw light on the meaning of the term ‘personality’.

- According to G W Allport (1937), “Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to the environment.”
- Holly E Brisbane and Andrey Palm Riker (1965) observed, “Personality is the sum total of specific traits (such as shyness or cheerfulness) that are noticeably consistent in an individual’s behaviour.”
- W Brown (1946) was of the view, “Personality is the total differentiation which the individual makes by incorporating the inherited and acquired powers to stimulate and to activate the imagination of others in art, science and public affairs and also to live in and partake of a super-individual and super temporal world of values.”
- In the words of R B Cattel (1967), “Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.”
- According to L J Cronbach (1963), “Character is not really a cumulation of separate habits and ideas. Character is embedded in the total structure of personality.”
- J F Dashiell (1929) described an individual’s personality, “As his system of reactions and reaction-possibilities in total as viewed by fellow members of society. It is the sum total of behaviour trends manifested in his social adjustments.”
H J Eysenck viewed personality “As a stable and enduring combination of a person’s various physical and mental aspects.”

Fredenburgh stated, “Personality is a stable system of complex characteristics by which the life pattern of the individual may be identified.”

R G Gordon considered “Personality as a comprehensive term which includes character also.”

According to J P Guilford (1967), “An individual’s personality then, is his unique pattern of traits—a trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another.”

G W Hartman defined the term as, “Personality is integrated organization of all the pervasive characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in local distinctions from others.”

William Healy (1930) described personality as “An integrated system of habitual adjustment to the environment particularly of the social environment.”

According to A J Jones (1930), in simple terms, personality consists of the following:
- The way one comes across or his appearance,
- The way one dresses up,
- The way one talks,
- The way one walks,
- The way one acts or behaves,
- The skill with which one does his work,
- One’s health.

Kempf stated, “Personality is the habitual mode of adjustment which the organism effects between its own egocentric drives and the exigencies of environment.”

H J Klausmeier (1961) said, “Though personality integration includes internalization of ethical values, in practice a distinction is frequently made between personality integration and character, with character used to denote ethical attitudes, values and motives.”

Kurt Lewin considered personality as “A dynamic totality of systems.”

J W McDougall (1932) defined personality as “A synthetic unity of all mental features and functions in their interplay.”

Prince Morton (1914) was of the view that personality can be seen as, “The sum total of biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, aptitudes and instincts of the individual and the dispositions and tendencies acquired by experience.”

To Muir, “Personality is the individual considered as a whole. It may be defined as the most characteristic integration of an individual’s structure, modes of interests, attitudes, behaviour, capacities, abilities and attitudes.”

G Murphy (1933) explained personality as, “A unitary mode of adjustment in relation to which each specific activity must be taken into consideration.”

According to H A Murray (1933), “Personality is a temporal configuration.”
In the view of R M Ogden (1926), “Personality is the expression of man’s inner life, character is the expression of what he does or achieves.”

Rexroad explained, “Personality is the balance between socially approved traits.”

Stout observed personality as the embodied mind.

Mark Sherman (1979) stated, “Personality is the characteristic patterns of behaviours, cognitions and emotions which may be expressed by the individual and or manifest to others.”

According to G G Thompson (1979), “Personality is the theoretical construct employed to focus attention on the individual as an integrated striving organism. It involves:

- the overall organization and the relative potencies of his psychological needs,
- the manner in which he customarily tries to satisfy these needs, the various psychological—adjustment functions, and
- the ways, in which his individual style of living affects other personnel.”

H C Warren (1935) defined personality as, “The entire mental organization of a human-being at any stage of development.”

J B Watson (1924) regarded personality as, “The sum of activities that can be discovered by actual observation over a long enough period of time to give reliable information.”

1.2.1 Factors that Contribute to Personality Change and Personality Stability

From the aforementioned definitions, the following characteristics of personality emerge very clearly:

- Personality is what one is.
- Personality of each individual is unique.
- Personality is dynamic, and not static.
- Personality functions as a unified whole.
- Personality is the product of both heredity and environment.
- Personality is completely social in its outlook.
- Personality is continually adjusting itself to environment.
- In rare cases, personality influences the environment.
- Personality is always striving for certain ends.
- Personality is self-consciousness. We do not attribute personality to animals.
• Personality is influenced by the environment in the school.
• By studying the personality of individual students, the relative differences among them can be known and their personality can be developed to the optimum level.

**Important Elements of Personality**
- Physical appearance,
- Emotionality,
- Intelligent behaviour,
- Sociability,
- Character.

**Marks of Balanced Personality**
- Good physical appearance,
- Emotional stability,
- High intellectual ability,
- High degree of social adjustment,
- High moral character,
- Cool temperament,
- Good directedness,
- High adjustability,
- Commonsense, drive and pragmatic thinking.

**Behavioural Patterns of Personality**
The totality of a man’s personality may be listed as under:
- The attitude of an individual with which he does some work.
- The skill with which he does his job.
- The way he acts.
- The way he behaves.
- The way he dresses.
- The way he drinks and eats.
- The way he sits and stands.
- The way he speaks.
- The way he walks and so on.
Classification of Types of Personality

There are sixteen different approaches followed in the classification of personality:

I. Body-built Classification: Kretschmer classified personality on the basis of body structure:
   (i) Aesthetic type is a tall but a lean narrowly built man. He is withdrawn from the outside world.
   (ii) Athletic type has a marked muscular development. He has a balanced body as well as personality.
   (iii) Pyknic type is a short and fat person with abnormal swings in mood.

II. Stable and Unstable: Trottor classified personalities into ‘stable-minded’ and ‘unstable-minded’. According to him, “The stable-minded person has fixed opinions, generally consistent with those of the ‘herd’ to which he belongs. He does not readily change them, or conceive them as open to question. The unstable-minded is more changeable, being sensitive to experience.”

III. Romantic or Classical: According to Ostwald, the personalities belong to either ‘romantic type’ or the ‘classical type’. “The man of romantic type is especially differentiated by the extraordinary rapid character of his thought. He and his occupations are varied. The classical type, on the other hand, is distinguished by a slower form of thought.”

IV. Active and Reflective: According to Jordan, personality can be classified into active and reflective.

V. Subjective or Objective: In Binet’s view, personalities can either fall in the subjective or objective categories.

VI. Masculine and Feminine: Apfelback distinguished between masculine and feminine type of personalities.

VII. Active and Inactive: Heymans was of the view that personalities may be divided into active and inactive category.

VIII. Emotional and Unemotional: Wiersma categorized personality into emotional and unemotional types.

IX. Temperamental: Galen classified personality based on temperament.
   (a) Choleric (yellow bile) — These people are energetic but disposed to anger.
   (b) Melancholy (black bile) — They are pessimistic and depressed.
   (c) Phlegmatic — People belonging to this category are cool but lazy.
   (d) Sanguine — They are optimistic and full of energy.

X. Tender Minded and Tough Minded: William James classified persons into two categories, i.e., tender minded and tough-minded. The outlook of
the former is idealistic. They follow principles and are given to thinking. Besides, they are religious-minded persons. The tough-minded are materialistic in their outlook, go by facts and have little interest in religion.

XI. Extrovert and Introvert: C G Jung was the originator of this classification.

XII. Physique and Temperament: Sheldon classified personality on the basis of very relationship between physique and temperament.

(i) Endomorphic: People belonging to this category usually have a fragile body and are spherical in appearance. They are fat but have weak muscles and bones, are fond of comfort and are have an active social life.

(ii) Mesomorphic: These people usually have a muscular and hard body and have strong resemblance with athletes. They are assertive and energetic and have love for adventure and physical activity.

(iii) Ectomorphic: People of this kind are usually physically weak. Their temperament is marked by inhibition and restraint. They are withdrawn but have a liking for mental activity.

XIII. Eysenck's classification (1947) was two-fold. The first was emotional stability versus neuroticism and the second was labelled as extroversion and introversion.

XIV. Hallworth's classification (1964) included two types: The first is reliability and consciousness or emotional stability, and the other one is sociability or social extroversion.

XV. Spranger's six types of personality were:

(i) Aesthetic: Lovers of beauty

(ii) Economic: Inclined to hoard money

(iii) Political: Interested in social affairs

(iv) Religious: Believer in mysticism and engaged in religious activities

(v) Social: Interested in social affairs

(vi) Theoretical: Theoretical in nature

XVI. Freud classified personality based on his theory of psycho-sexual development.

Type Main Characteristics

(i) Oral-erotic type: Sex in infancy is located in mouth. Sexual gratification through sucking, biting or putting anything in the mouth gratifies sex.

(ii) The anal type: Gratification through expulsion of fecal material through the anus. Traits include obstinacy, miserliness, etc., in later life.

(iii) The phallic type: The third stage of psycho-sexual development is phallic. A person shows self-love and tries to draw the attention of others.
Evaluation of Types of Personality

Kretschmer’s (1925) classification of personality was based on the relationship between body and temperament. However, the relationship between the two has not been established so far. Moreover, both aesthetic or athletic kinds of personalities can grow into the pyknic type with age.

As Sheldon ignored the influence of environment and nutrition on the development of personality, his classification of personality was not of much relevance.

No one in this world is either completely an introvert or an extrovert, but a mixture of the two. While some are predominantly extroverts in some respects, others are predominantly introverts. An individual may appear to be an extrovert from one point of view and an introvert from another. Thus, very few fall in these categories. A vast majority falls in the third category of ambiverts where introversion and extroversion are nearly balanced.

As seen from above, there has been a common tendency of psychologists to categorize people having one type of personality or the other type, thereby taking extreme positions. It is, however, very difficult to categorize individuals under one of the 16 approaches as mentioned above. A variety of behaviour cannot be categorized into a few limited categories. Personality of an individual is an admixture of so many qualities that it is wrong to describe them as one type or the other.

Character and Personality

As mentioned earlier, character is a part of personality, which is a broader concept. In the words of Ogden, “While personality is the expression of a man’s inner life, character is the expression of what he does or believes.” According to Gordon too, “Personality is a more comprehensive term and includes character.” He regarded character as a mere special aspect of a developed personality. McDougall believed, “Personality to be something bigger—a synthetic unit of all mental features and functions in their intimate interplay.” According to him, “Character consists of sentiments formed by the combination of native propensities or instincts with ideas in various ways.” Watson was of the view, “Character is only a term used when considering the individual from the standpoint of his responses to the more conventionalized and standardized situations.” According to Shand, “Every sentiment or emotional reaction towards ideas or objects forms a type of character.”

Walter B Kolesnik defined character as, “It is an acquired component of personality which inhibits impulses of an immoral or unsocial nature and disposes an individual to act in accordance with relative principles.”

Lee J Cronbach stated the concept of character as “the way an individual makes choices in relationship to others or which affects the welfare of others.”
Ross considered character as “just the organized self.”

According to Cronbach, “Character is not really a cumulation of separate habits and ideas. Character is embedded in the total structure of personality.”

Klausmeier stated, “Though personality integration includes internalization of ethical values, in practice a distinction is frequently made between personality integration and character, with character used to denote ethical attitudes, values and motives.”

Thus, character refers to the conformity to ethical and moral values set up by the society.

It is, however, not desirable to differentiate too much between the character of a person and his personality in so far as their educational implications are concerned.

Check Your Progress
1. Mention the origin of the word ‘personality.’
2. List the important elements of personality.
3. What are the stable and unstable personalities as per Trottor?
4. Who was the originator of the classification extrovert and introvert personalities?

1.3 THE PROCESS OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

The development of personality of an individual depends on his view about himself. The emergence of a positive self-concept is likely to lead to a well-developed, harmoniously developed personality. It is, therefore, important that children are made to learn and develop from the very beginning a positive self-concept, which is socially desirable. The child’s perception or view of himself is called self-concept.

The part of the environment in which he lives is known as his phenomenal self and the rest of the environment of which he is aware or to which he responds is called phenomenal environment or perceived environment and not self. Figure 1.1 adapted from A Ward Combs and D Snygg’s book, Individual Behaviour: A Perceptual Approach to Behaviour, explains these concepts.

Self-concept is what the individual thinks of his actual self. It is ‘me’. Some psychologists refer to as personal field, behavioural field, life-space, or psychological field.
A newborn infant finds the world a confused mass. As he grows up, he begins to differentiate. He slowly begins to distinguish between what belongs to him and what is not his. He reacts to the world which he perceives as his.

The perception of one’s self changes with maturity. With the change in perception, behaviour also changes. Praise and blame, rewards and punishments and the personality of the teacher also have an influence on the self-concept of children. Lives of great men provide motivation for developing positive self-concept and therefore, students should be encouraged to read about the lives of great personalities. Thus, teachers should guide them to set realistic goals in accordance with their personalities and help them to attain the same. Setting unrealistic goals is likely to develop frustration and despair.

**Personality Development**

Personality development implies the development of the traits of an individual. Here, trait theory of personality comes to our help to have an adequate understanding of the problem. An attempt is made to describe the traits that help to constitute a personality. At the same time, it should be pointed out that the personality is the individual as a whole and it is ‘what one is, what one was and what one will be.’ In other words, it includes an individual’s past, present and future. An individual’s personality is determined and built in the present, based on the past, and for the future. The list of traits is so exhaustive, that it defies all attempts to complete it. Thus, only salient traits of personality development are mentioned here.

**Salient Traits of Personality**

| 1. Abstinence | 2. Anti-untouchability attitude | 3. Appreciation of other people’s values |
Introduction to Personality and Personality Theory

Determinants of Personality

The factors which determine a personality can be personal, family or environmental.

1. **Personal Factors:** These include: (i) Physical structure of the individual, (ii) Emotional reactions, (iii) Aspirations, (iv) Aptitudes, (v) Attitudes, (vi) Interests, (viii) Motivation and intellectual level—thinking, contemplation, reasoning, etc.

2. **Family Factors:** These are: (i) Discipline of self and others, (ii) Number of children, (iii) Value placed on the gender of the child, (iv) Nuclear or joint family, (v) Accommodation in the house, (vii) Parents’ ambitions and interests, (viii) Economic, political, religious and social status of the family.

3. **Environmental Factors:** Environment of an individual include his neighbourhood, community, peer groups, etc., among others. These can be cultural environment, political environment, religious environment, social environment, environment created by the media and school environment. The school environment further includes: (i) Curriculum, (ii) Technology of teaching, (iii) Co-curricular activities, (iv) Discipline—constructive, creative, social discipline, (v) Teachers’ personality, (vi) General approach of the school, and (vii) Physical environment.
Role of the Teacher in the Personality Development of Students

(i) Teacher is the ‘spiritual preceptor’ as in the Vedic period.
(ii) Teacher is the ‘communicator and provider of knowledge’ and is the ‘Learning Facilitator’.
(iii) Teacher is the ‘gardener’ of learning in the Naturalist Movement in education and is the ‘Manager’ of learning activity in the pragmatic philosophy of education.
(iv) Teacher is the ‘ideal person’ in the philosophy of idealism and is regarded as a ‘soldier’ in Nazism and Communism.
(v) Teacher acts as an ‘agent of social change’ in the democratic philosophy as he spearheads changes in the society. He is the ‘mediator’ between the learner and the subject matter and is the ‘Transmitter’ of cultural heritage.

Character and Personality of the Teacher

Character and personality of the pupils cannot be developed if the teacher, who is the role model to be followed, lacks character and personality himself. ‘Example is better than precept’ is an old saying and is holds truth in the teaching profession. No amount of sermons from the teacher can make much headway. A teacher teaches not only by ‘what he says and does’ but very largely by ‘what he is’.

Children are imitative and suggestive by nature. They imitate the dressing style, speaking skills, habits and manners of their teachers. As children in early childhood are easily influenced by their teachers, the likes and dislikes of their teachers become their likes and dislikes. Thus, teachers should teach what they practise.

Gandhiji rightly observed, “Woe to the teacher who teaches one thing with the lips and carries another in the heart.” The Greek philosopher, Socrates’ advice in the Greek polis states, ‘Man know thyself’ holds good even today. Thus, the teachers must undergo an inner training themselves to find out their own shortcomings and try to remove them. As Ryburn put it, “Self analysis on the part of a teacher is a necessary equipment.” Montessori stressed that every teacher worth his salt must destroy these sins: pride, anger, sloth, sensuality, gluttony and envy. The teacher should be partly a scientist, partly a doctor and completely religious. He must acquire a moral alertness; mingling of patience, love and humility. He should always be frank, sincere and honest. Prof. Raymount urged that the teacher must avoid everything that is petty and mean.

Love for the Profession: A teacher should feel the importance of his profession, i.e., teaching. He would not be doing justice to his profession if after joining it, he is engaged in other pursuits. Without an exclusive and undivided attention to his job, he would fail in bringing forth a fine harvest of young men and women who are able to contribute their best for the welfare of mankind. If a teacher takes to his
work just to make his living because nothing else is available, he will lack the essential zeal required for teaching. He must be a teacher first and the teacher last. A person who wants to join this profession must feel the passion for it. “If a teacher has not an ideal aim, he had better to take to shop keeping at once, he will there doubtless find an ideal within his capacity,” said Laurie. In the words of the Secondary Education Commission, “They will not look upon their work as an unpalatable means of earning a scanty living but as an avenue through which they are rendering significant social service as well as finding some measure of self-fulfilment and self-expression.”

**Love for Children:** A teacher must enjoy the company of children and should feel energized by the presence of young children. “Love the child and the child will love you; hate the child and the child will hate you,” is a famous maxim. Thus, one who does not like children, should not stay in teaching.

**Respect for the Individuality of each Child:** A child or a student should not be treated just like a dumb-driven cattle. He has his own individuality. He thinks and feels and his self-respect should not be hurt. Emerson rightly stated, “The secret of education lies in respecting the pupil.” A child wants to be listened to and his opinion should not be brushed aside merely because he is a child.

**Teacher as a Guide:** A child being the ‘Hero in the drama of education’ must be allowed to play an active role in the process of education. “The teacher is a guide, a director, he steers the boat but the energy that propels it must come from those who are learning,” remarked Dewey. Similarly, Sri Aurobindo wrote, “The first principle of true teaching is that nothing can be taught. The teacher is not an instructor or a task master, he is a helper and a guide. His business is to suggest and not to impose. He does not actually train the pupil’s mind, he shows him how to perfect his instruments of knowledge and helps and encourages him in the process. He does not impart knowledge to him; he shows him how to acquire knowledge for himself. He does not call forth the knowledge that is within; he only shows him where it lies and how it can be habituated to rise to the surface.”

Some of the important guidelines for teachers are as under:

**Attention:**
1. One of the best methods of developing personality is to pay due attention to children.
2. The quality of attention counts.
3. If children ask a question, the teacher should try to answer it immediately. They are important and they need to be paid attention. If the teacher brushes them aside, they are under the impression that they have been ignored and lose confidence.

**Discipline:**
1. The teacher should be fair, frank, honest, and loving, but firm and consistent.
2. Rules should neither be too gentle as they are seldom obeyed, nor too severe, as they are seldom executed.

3. Discipline should be modified according to children’s needs.

Example:
1. Children should be impressed by means of actions, which speak much louder than words.
2. The teacher should be careful how he lives and behaves.

Fun:
The teacher must have fun with children once a while. Teaching through playful and funfilled activities is also educational in its own way.

Inspiration:
The secret of providing inspiration as a teacher is to
— know what he is doing.
— love what he is doing.
— believe in what he is doing.

Love:
A popular saying is: “Love the child and the child will love you. Hate him and he hates you.”

Patience:
A lot of patience is required to train and teach children.

Praise:
1. One of the most important tenet of teaching is to recognize that children thrive on praise.
2. If a child lives with criticism, he learns to condemn. If he lives with praise, he works hard to his maximum capacity to attain his goal.
3. It is more important to praise a child for his good behaviour, than it is to scold him for his bad behaviour.

Understanding:
To understand children, a teacher must first understand himself.

It may be emphasized that the teacher is not just concerned with one or the other aspect of development of personality of a child. He is expected to be ‘all things’ to all pupils at the same time—a physician concerned about their physical health; a mental hygienist leading them carefully to sound mental health; a philosopher guiding them in their search for truth; a moralist assisting and encouraging them to acquire goodness; and an artist helping them to find beauty. In fine, he must be a minister ministering to their every need. Such a ministry calls for dedicated service.
Role of the head of school in the development of total personality of children

General Grant is said to have remarked that there are no poor regiments but poor colonels. Sultan Mohi-ud-din rightly stated that no school could succeed if the teachers in it work only as individuals and not as a group. Just as every group needs a leader, a school must also have a leader who would stimulate and direct its work. Such a leader is the headmaster or the principal of the school. He is the hub of the education process. The success of the school system depends on his ability and skill as a sound and effective educational leader. The success or the failure of the school depends upon its headmasters or principals. A popular saying goes thus, “As is the headmaster, so is the school.” Great headmasters make schools great. “The reputation of the school and the position it holds in the society, depends in a large measure, on the influence that he exercises over his colleagues, the pupils and their parents and the general public,” observed the Secondary Education Commission.

W M Ryburn compared the position of the headmaster of a school with the Captain of a ship. P C Wren summed up the importance of the job of the headmaster, “What the main spring is to the watch, the flywheel to the machine or engine to the steamship, the headmaster is to the school.” It is stated, “He is an organizer, leader, governor, business director, coordinator, superintendent, teacher, guide, philosopher and friend.”

As a leader of the instructional staff and the community, the headmaster or the principal should possess all the qualities that are usually sought for in teachers. He should be respected for his general scholarship and for his special competence, in at least one area of learning. He should have had successful experience as a teacher. He should be mentally and physically active and should be energetic. Society has no right to expect the principal to be a paragon of all virtues, but qualities such as fairness, patience, buoyancy, flexibility, sympathy and persistence must be in some degree be possessed by him. In order to be effective, the principal cannot be inferior in these personal characteristics. In addition to the general qualities needed by all teachers, the high school principal should acquire the basic philosophy of education, professional knowledge and understanding. He should have an interest in ideas and professional literature and interest in children and adolescents and devotion to the highest ideals that will enable him to lead a faculty and community to the highest levels of cooperative work with youth.

The objective of total personality development can be achieved only when four categories of relationships within the school community, i.e., relations between organizers and teachers, relations between teachers and teachers, relations between pupils and pupils and relations between pupils and teachers—are pleasant and constructive based on mutual goodwill and cooperation.
1.4 THE NATURE OF THEORIES AND ITS FUNCTIONS

The goal of every personality theory is the understanding of the diversity and complexity of the whole person functioning in the real world. Theories of personality represent elaborate speculation or hypotheses about why people behave as they do and they serve the following functions:

1. A personality theory is descriptive. In other words, a theory provides a meaningful framework for simplifying and integrating all that is known about a related set of events. A good personality theory provides a meaningful context within which human behaviour can be consistently described and interpreted.

2. The second function of a personality theory is to provide a basis for the prediction of events and outcomes that have not yet occurred.

3. This purpose clearly implies that a theory's concepts must be testable and capable of being confirmed or disconfirmed.

4. Personality theorists are people, and, like the rest of us, they hold divergent views about human nature.

We will discuss the nature of personality theories and its functions in detail later on in the book.

Check Your Progress

5. What is phenomenal self and phenomenal environment?
6. List the personal factors of personality.
7. How can the objective of total personality development be achieved?

1.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The term 'personality' is derived from the Latin word *Persona*, which means the mask worn by the Roman actors.

2. Important elements of personality include:
   - Physical appearance,
   - Emotionality,
   - Intelligent behaviour,
   - Sociability,
   - Character.
3. Trotter classified personalities into ‘stable-minded’ and ‘unstable-minded’. According to him, “The stable-minded person has fixed opinions, generally consistent with those of the ‘herd’ to which he belongs. He does not readily change them, or conceive them as open to question. The unstable-minded is more changeable, being sensitive to experience.”

4. C G Jung was the originator of the extrovert and introvert classification.

5. The part of the environment in which he lives is known as his phenomenal self and the rest of the environment of which he is aware or to which he responds is called phenomenal environment or perceived environment and not self.


7. The objective of total personality development can be achieved only when four categories of relationships within the school community, i.e., relations between organizers and teachers, relations between teachers and teachers, relations between pupils and pupils and relations between pupils and teachers—are pleasant and constructive based on mutual goodwill and cooperation.

1.6 SUMMARY

- There appears to be little unanimity among psychologists on the exact meaning of personality. It is interesting to note that in 1937, G W Allport in his book, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation*, mentioned fifty-three definitions of personality. Many more definitions were incorporated later. This divergence of views clearly demonstrates the importance of the subject.

- At the outset, it must be pointed out that personality should not be equated with character. While, character denotes something ethical and moral and refers to the standards of right and wrong, personality is not just the outward appearance and behaviour of a person. It is the totality of everything about a person—his emotional, mental, social and spiritual make-up. In fact, it also includes ethical and physical make-up of an individual. Thus, character is just one aspect of personality.

- The term ‘personality’ is derived from the Latin word *Persona*, which means the mask worn by the Roman actors. In this sense, personality means the individual as seen by others. The term personality is used in so many different
ways, that a detailed discussion is neither possible nor desirable in the present context.

1. Important Elements of Personality
2. Physical appearance,
3. Emotionality,
4. Intelligent behaviour,
5. Sociability,
6. Character.

• There are sixteen different approaches followed in the classification of personality.
• There has been a common tendency of psychologists to categorize people having one type of personality or the other type, thereby taking extreme positions. It is, however, very difficult to categorize individuals under one of the 16 approaches as mentioned above. A variety of behaviour cannot be categorized into a few limited categories. Personality of an individual is an admixture of so many qualities that it is wrong to describe them as one type or the other.
• Character is a part of personality, which is a broader concept. In the words of Ogden, “While personality is the expression of a man’s inner life, character is the expression of what he does or believes.” According to Gordon too, “Personality is a more comprehensive term and includes character.”
• The development of personality of an individual depends on his view about himself. The emergence of a positive self-concept is likely to lead to a well-developed, harmoniously developed personality. It is, therefore, important that children are made to learn and develop from the very beginning a positive self-concept, which is socially desirable.
• Personality development implies the development of the traits of an the individual. Here, trait theory of personality comes to our help to have an adequate understanding of the problem. An attempt is made to describe the traits that help to constitute a personality. At the same time, it should be pointed out that the personality is the individual as a whole and it is ‘what one is, what one was and what one will be.’
• The factors which determine a personality can be personal, family or environmental.
• Just as every group needs a leader, a school must also have a leader who would stimulate and direct its work. Such a leader is the headmaster or the principal of the school. He is the hub of the education process. The success of the school system depends on his ability and skill as a sound and effective educational leader. The success or the failure of the school depends upon its headmasters or principals.
1.7  KEY WORDS

- **Personality**: According to G. W. Allport (1937), “Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to the environment.”
- **Ambiverts**: It refers to the personality type where introversion and extroversion are nearly balanced.
- **Character**: It consists of sentiments formed by the combination of native propensities or instincts with ideas in various ways.
- **Self-concept**: It is what the individual thinks of his actual self.

1.8  SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

**Short Answer Questions**

1. List the characteristics of personality.
2. What are the marks of balanced personality and its behavioral patterns?
3. Briefly explain the concept of character and personality.
4. List the determinants of personality.

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Discuss some of the important definitions given below may throw light on the meaning of the term ‘personality’.
2. Describe the classification of types of personality.
3. Explain the salient traits of personality.
4. Examine the role of teachers in the personality development of students.

1.9  FURTHER READINGS


UNIT 2  NATURE OF PERSONALITY THEORY

Structure
2.0 Introduction
2.1 Objectives
2.2 Personality Theory and other Psychological Theories and Overview
   2.2.1 Type Theories
   2.2.2 Trait Theory
   2.2.3 Psychoanalytic Theories of Personality
2.3 Phenomenological, Learning, Social Behaviour and Expectancy-Reinforcement Models
2.4 Current Research Focus in Personality Psychology
2.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
2.6 Summary
2.7 Key Words
2.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
2.9 Further Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you were introduced to the varied definitions of personality and the major factors which affect it and the basic classifications. In this unit, you will learn about the nature of different personality theories. As mentioned in Unit 1, there have been many different research in the area and several thinkers have propounded different factors which has an effect over how personality develops and differs from another. In this unit, you will get an overview of personality and psychological theories, along with an overview of current area of personality theory research.

2.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Discuss an overview of the personality theory and other psychological theories
- Describe the current research focus in personality psychology
2.2 PERSONALITY THEORY AND OTHER PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES AND OVERVIEW

Psychologists have developed several theories of personality to study the structure and growth of it. Space does not permit to describe all theories of personality so we shall follow a sample approach in the description of theories.

1. Type theory,
2. Trait theory,
3. Psychoanalytic theory,
4. Phenomenological theories,
5. Learning theory of personality,
6. Social behaviour theory,
7. Rotter’s Expectancy—reinforcement model.

In this unit, you will only learn about the basics of these theories.

2.2.1 Type Theories

It has been the nature of man, from ancient times, to name and classify objects of his environment and human beings into different categories called ‘Types’. The old system of typology still continues and even in modern times, psychologists have developed various typologies which will be described. Greek physicians were the first in the 5th century B.C. who classified people into four broad categories on the basis of emotional and temperamental characteristics. One of Aristotle’s pupils theorized that human body consists four fluids. The personality of an individual is typed by the dominance of one of them in the body. The four types are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Humour</th>
<th>Temperament</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>Sanguine</td>
<td>Active, hopeful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Yellow bile</td>
<td>Choleric</td>
<td>Irritability, quick to anger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Phlegam</td>
<td>Phlegmatic</td>
<td>Calm, temperamentally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mucus)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sluggish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Black bile</td>
<td>Melancholic</td>
<td>Depressed, slow and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pessimistic</td>
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</table>

It we study our own scriptures we find in ancient India we had an advanced system of Ayurveda in which our ancient physicians broadly categorized all human beings on the basis of three elements in the body. The predominance of one of the three decided the category of the person. It appears that systems of Hippocrates and Indian physicians were, more or less, similar. The three elements which the Indian physicians theorized are pitt (bile), bat (wind), and kuf (mucus).
A number of typologies have been attempted for constitutional, temperamental and behavioural types of persons by philosophers and psychologists in the ancient and current literature. It is not possible to describe all types of typologies in this unit so we will follow the sample approach.

**Constitutional Type**
Ernest Kretschmer, a German psychiatrist, classified human beings on the basis of physical constitution. He attempted to establish relationship between personality characteristics and body build.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Pyknic</td>
<td>Stocky, full-chested, popular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Asthenic</td>
<td>Weak, tall, sensitive and thin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Leptosomic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Athletic</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Dysplastic</td>
<td>Mixed type</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Somato Type**
Dr. William H. Sheldon, an American surgeon, divided all human beings into three broad categories of physical dimensions and their corresponding temperamental characteristics. He believes that physical structure of the body is the determinant of personality characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Physical characteristics</th>
<th>Temperament</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Endomorphic (soft, round)</td>
<td>Viscerotonic (sociable, extrovert affectionable), love of physical comfort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Mesomorphic (muscular and strong)</td>
<td>Somatotonic (energetic and muscular, love of risk and chance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Ectomorphic (thin and tall)</td>
<td>Cerebrotonic (fearful, artistic introvert and restrained)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Spranger’s Type**
E. Spranger, a German philosopher, divided human beings, on the basis of interests, in the following categories:

- **Theoretical**: Persons who are theoretical in nature, neglect social and political participation.
- **Economic**: Those persons who are interested in money-hoarding.
- **Aesthetic**: Those persons who are lover of beauty and are busy in sensuous gratification.
- **Social**: Persons who are interested in social activities.
- **Political**: Dominating and desirous of power.
- **Religious**: Persons who devote themselves to religious activities and mysticism.
Jung’s Typology

Jung, a Swiss psychiatrist, attempted to classify human beings on two behavioural dimensions: extrovert and introvert. His typology is widely known and is most influential among professional workers. The major characteristics of two types are as follows:

1. **Introvert**: A person who tends to withdraw into himself, especially when faced with emotional conflicts and stress in his environment. An introvert is shy, avoids people and enjoys being alone. Scientists and philosophers may be termed as introverts.

2. **Extrovert**: In contrast to the introvert type, an extrovert’s orientation is towards the external world. He deals with people intelligently in social situations. He is conventional, outgoing, social, friendly and free from worries. Social workers, politicians, and business executives may be typed as extroverts. These two broad categories have been further classified on the basis of rational and irrational processes.

Jung’s system of classification of human beings is eight-fold and not two-fold as is popularly known. A person, according to Jung, may be extrovert for one function, for example, feeling and the same person may be introvert in intuition. All persons can be divided into eight types, based on the dominance of one of the above factors.

Modern writers have introduced ambivert, another type in between two extreme poles of extroversion and introversion. Ambivert refers to those persons who could be classified as neither extroverts nor introverts.

Freud’s Typology

Freud, on the basis of his theory of psycho-sexual development, identified three types of personality. The type depends on the fixation of sexual energy at a particular stage of sex development. The three types are as follows:

1. **Oral-erotic type**: According to Freud, sex in infancy is located in mouth. There is a membrane in the mouth which, when irritated, gives pleasure to the infant. Sexual gratification at this stage involves activities related to the mouth. Oral-erotic type of personality shows excessive degree of pleasures associated with oral activity. Sucking, biting or putting anything in the mouth gratifies the sex in infancy. Fixation at the oral stage results in two types of personality in later life:

   (a) **Oral passive type**: This type of person is dependent, optimistic and immature in his thinking and other activities like a child. He expects help from other persons.

   (b) **Oral sadistic type**: This type of person is pessimistic. He is suspicious and aggressive. He is often bitter in his dealings with others.
2. **The anal type:** The second stage of sex development is anal when the child obtains gratifications through anal activities. These activities generally relate to the expulsion of faecal material through the anus or the retention of these materials in response to the social demands of toilet-training. Some traits of personality develop due to fixation of sex energy at this stage. These traits include obstinacy, miserliness, orderliness, etc. in later life.

3. **The phallic type:** The third stage of psycho-sexual development is phallic. This type of person shows self-love, exhibitionism. He tries to draw the attention of others. These characteristics are found in early adolescents.

### Evaluation of the Type Approach

Classification of human beings into types has been generally criticized by psychologists on the basis that typologies tend to place emphasis upon one or another phase of development. They deal with extremes rather than mediocrity of human nature. It is very difficult to categorise individuals under one of the types as proposed by some typologists. Two or three types are wholly inadequate to describe human beings. It is oversimplification of personality by forcing a great variety of behaviour into a few limited categories. The second criticism of typology is that types are discontinuous and non-scaleable. There is multiplicity of type theories which are very difficult to apply in practice.

Criticism does not mean that typology is useless. Typology has its historical value in the sense that it was the first attempt to typify people which generated a great deal of research.

The second important contribution of typology is that it attempts to assess the personality of an individual as a whole. It does not study personality in fragments of traits. The type approach is very useful for psychologists who attempt to comprehend the personality of an individual as a whole.

The third advantage of typology is that types are useful and valuable from the point of view of experiments in physical sciences where attention to certain process is called in relatively pure form, uncontaminated by accidental and confusing factors.

Lastly, we can say that they serve one very important function as reference points or guides for the examination of dimensions of personality by different psychologists.

### 2.2.2 Trait Theory

Typology and trait approaches are interrelated to each other in the sense that typology includes a wide variety of traits in classifying human beings in broad types while in trait approach we label or call a person by a specific mode of behaviour which he shows in a wide variety of circumstances.
In modern psychology, type approach is not so widely used as trait approach to understand the development of personality. In our daily life, we label traits to our friends or other persons as honest, aggressive, fearful, dependent, lazy and dull, etc. In the simplest sense by trait we mean a mode of behaviour which is manifested in a number of life situations consistently. It is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual varies from other. Trait may be defined as, “a property within the individual that accounts for his unique but relatively stable reactions to environment.”

Walter Michel in his book, Introduction to Personality defined, “trait is a continuous dimension on which individual differences may be arranged quantitatively in terms of the amount of the characteristics the individual has.”

Let us explain the process of development of trait.

Trait in daily life, first, is used simply as an adjective as Ram behaves in a lazy way in several situations. When this description is generalized from his behaviour to the person (Ram), we say that he (Ram) is lazy. Laziness becomes a trait of his personality, a characteristic mode of his behaviour.

### Development of Friendliness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stimuli</th>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Responses</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Meeting friends</td>
<td>1. Helpful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Meeting with strangers</td>
<td>2. Pleasant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dealing with poor,</td>
<td>3. Warm and interested</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disabled children</td>
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</table>

Some Properties of Traits

- **Scaleability**: Traits are scaleable. They can be measured and scaled quantitatively.
- **Inference from behaviour**: Personality traits are not directly observable but they are manifested in a number of activities and verbal expression. We infer a trait from the behaviour of the individual.
- **Flexibility**: Traits are not static in nature. They are flexible in childhood and become stable with the maturity of the person in age but some variability is always there.
- **Universality**: There are certain traits which are universal in nature as height and weight.
- **Functional unity**: The trait must have functional utility. It means that there must be different indications which may vary or are manifested consistently in the behaviour of the individual.
- **Traits are higher order habits**: Guthrie conceived that a trait is a higher order habit which recurs in the behaviour frequently.
• **Traits are mental sets**: Some psychologists define trait as a mental set. It is a readiness to respond to any variety of situations in a consistent way. Cason referred that there is generalized tendency in some people to be annoyed easily.

• **Traits are frame of reference**: The personality of an individual is an organized whole of beliefs, emotions, etc. about the environment. In this reference, traits are organized frames of references.

• **Traits are learned**: Traits are learned in the interaction with the environmental stimuli. They are biologically determined as neuroticism and other traits which depend on the disposition and intellectual potentialities of the individual.

**G.W. Allport’s Classification**

G.W. Allport is one of the most outstanding trait psychologists. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists. He has conceived that traits have a real and vital existence. He defined a trait as, “a generalized and focalized neuropsychic system with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to imitate and guide consistent forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour.”

The definition given by Allport is a comprehensive one. It emphasizes that traits are not linked with a small number of stimuli but they are general and enduring in nature. Allport is also famous for his emphasis on functional autonomy and the Concept of Proprium. Functional autonomy means that motives of an adult may have their roots in the tension-reducing motives of the child. The adult grows out of them and becomes independent of these earlier tension-reducing efforts. The proprium includes the different aspects of the self (bodily self, self-identity, self-esteem) which the person seeks to organise into an integrated, unified whole. He classified all human traits into three broad categories as given below:

• **Cardinal trait**: Traits which appear in most of the behaviour of the organism are called cardinal. It may be illustrated with the example of achievement in life. Some people are so devoted to achievement that this trait pervades the whole life.

• **Central trait**: Central traits are less pervasive than cardinal traits but are quite generalized dispositions.

• **Secondary dispositions**: Secondary dispositions are specific narrow traits. They are called attitudes.

**Development of Personality**

According to Allport, personality development is related to the concept of self or proprium. It includes all the aspects of personality that make for internal unity. The proprium develops through conditioning, reinforcement, habits and other aspects.
Nature of Personality

Theory

NOTES

Self-Instructional Material

of learning. Allport outlines the following stages of the development of propium or self or personality:

- **Bodily self (Birth to first year):** During infancy sensations provide the anchor. It is the feelings or awareness of body. It is confined to one’s own body.

- **Self-identity:** After about 18 months the child is capable of recognising himself/herself as a distinct ‘person’ and not merely a ‘body’. He is aware of his likes and dislikes and his relationship with others in the immediate surroundings. The continuity of experience is made possible through the development of language.

- **Self-esteem (2–3 years):** From second through third year of life emerges a sense of autonomy. The child is no more dependent on parents and experiences pleasure (pride) over his accomplishments and humiliation over his failure. He also develops negativism, i.e., refusal to obey or receive orders from others. This results in the development of self-esteem.

- **Self-extension (4–6 years):** The child meets people and develops new interests and habits and develops self-image. He develops conscience. He learns to confirm to the expectations of others. The child develops good and naughty selves. He is sensitive to praise and blame.

- **Self as rational coper (6–12 years):** The individual develops reasoning power and uses problem-solving approach. Allport calls this rational coper.

- **Propriate strivings (12 years–Adolescence):** As the child reaches adolescence, he is able to distinguish between peripheral and propriate motives. Peripheral motives include impulses, drives and striving for immediate gratification of needs. Fulfilment of peripheral motives reduces tension. Propriate motives are our efforts to increase tension rather than to reduce it. The individual strives for important goals in life. The conversion of peripheral motives to propriate motives is called ‘Functional Autonomy’.

- **Self as knower:** It includes all the previous aspects of the propium.

According to Allport, traits differ in intensity and magnitude in general population from individual to individual. No two individuals are alike in their behaviour. They operate in their unique way in the environment. Each individual is unique in his adjustment.

**R.B. Cattell’s Classification**

Raymond B. Cattell is another ardent propounder of the trait theory of personality. The basic structural element for him is the trait. He defined that a trait is structure of the personality inferred from behaviour in different situations. He classified traits into four categories:

- **Common traits:** There are certain traits which are found widely distributed in general population or among all groups. They are called common traits. Honesty, aggression and cooperation can be called common traits.
• **Unique traits:** These traits are possessed by particular persons as temperamental traits, emotional reactions, and energy, etc.

• **Surface traits:** Traits which can be easily recognized by overt manifestation of behaviour, are called surface traits as curiosity, integrity, honesty, tactfulness and dependability.

• **Source traits:** Source traits are the underlying structures or sources that determine the behaviour of an individual. They are inferred from behaviour. Dominance and emotionality are source traits. Cattell, through factor analytic approach, determined the contribution of hereditary and learning factors in the development of traits in the individual. He emphasized the importance of interaction between hereditary and environment influences in personality development.

**H.J. Eysenck’s Classification**

H.J. Eysenck, a British psychologist, devoted much of his research studies to explore the trait dimensions. He conducted extensive research on trait dimensions by applying quantitative technique of factor analysis.

He conducted research on ten thousand soldiers and by statistical analysis isolated two dimensions in personality: (a) Introversion-extroversion, and (b) Neuroticism.

Later on, he isolated another personality dimension as psychoticism. According to Eysenck, psychoticism is an independent dimension of personality. It is quite different from introversion-extroversion dimension.

Eysenck has found three fundamental dimensions of personality:

1. Introversion vs extroversion,
2. Normality vs neuroticism,
3. Psychoticism.

People high on this dimension tend to be solitary, insensitive, uncaring about others, and opposed to accepted social custom.

According to Eysenck, the typical extrovert is sociable, likes parties, has many friends, is caring and impulsive. Extroverts are chronically understimulated and seek external stimulation as a mean of raising their arousal level. An introverted person tends to be quiet, introspective, reserved, reflective, distrustful of impulsive decisions and prefers a well ordered life because he has high level of arousal in the brain and the central nervous system than extroverts. So introverts do not require any external stimulation.

A person who is an extrovert and stable is active and hopeful. Whereas a person who is introvert and stable is calm and temperamentally sluggish. An introvert and unstable person is depressed, slow and pessimistic whereas an extrovert and unstable person is irritable and quick to anger.
The first two dimensions may be taken as the part of normal personality. Their relationship may be shown as below:

Normality
Introversion — | — Extroversion
Neuroticism

Eysenck developed personality inventory to test the traits of personality. His findings have generated research activities by several psychologists. His most important contribution is that he tried to prove that personality is genetically caused. He traced neuroticism to the autonomic nervous system and introversion-extroversion to the central nervous system. He emphasized the importance of heredity in the development of traits of personality as against the concept of American psychologists who are biased in favour of environment.

Common Features of Trait Theories

Though trait theorists disagree as regards the specific content and structures of the traits needed to describe personality but even then there is agreement on general concept of traits:

- **Consistency of traits:** All theorists agree that traits are consistent in an individual’s behaviour. They are not temporary dispositions but enduring characteristics of the individual.

- **Trait dimensions:** There is agreement as regards the various dimensions of traits as source traits and surface traits, common and unique, broad and narrow. Traits vary in breadth and generality.

- **Traits are dispositions:** Traits fluctuate or change in a person’s position with respect to a disposition. Each psychologist is committed to a search for broad and stable trait.

Criticism of Trait Theory

Trait theory of personality has been criticized by psychologists in recent years. The main points of criticism are as follows:

- There is no agreement among the psychologists as regards the use of the terms.

- There is a view that a trait is a behavioural disposition which is consistent and does not vary from situation to situation. In daily observation we find that if a man has friendliness as a trait, he does not behave in friendly manner in all the situations of his life. Trait is not a permanent or static characteristic of the individual because personality is undergoing perpetual change.

- Another difficulty is the quantification of human traits because there is no zero reference and equality of units in trait measurement. There is no suitable measuring tool of trait dimensions. Generally traits are measured with the
help of paper-pencil tests which can be manipulated by the subject by giving fake information.

- ‘Halo effect’ operates when a person rates an individual very high on a specific trait. He may rate the same person on other traits equally high.
- Behaviour of an individual cannot be predicted on the basis of scores on trait inventory. Traits are only point of references. Examination of personal traits of an individual enables us to make only probability statements about what an individual may do.
- The last criticism against trait theory is whether a trait is viewed as an inner process which causes differences among the individuals or it is the situation which brings into play certain organizational tendencies which create the behaviour.

2.2.3 Psychoanalytic Theories of Personality

Now we will discuss the theories of personality which place importance on dynamics of human behaviour. First, we will describe the views of classical psychoanalysis and then the views of neo-Freudians who deviate from Freud but claim to be psychoanalysts. Here we will describe the theory of personality.

(a) Freud’s Theory

Basic Concepts

Instincts: Freud was the first psychologist who placed great importance on instincts as the determinant of human behaviour. He proposed two instincts: (a) *Eros*, the love and self-preservation, and (b) *Thanatos*, the death instinct, as the ultimate cause of all human activities.

Psychic Structure

Psychic energy, according to Freud, comes from libido. It denotes sexual energy. When he revised his theory which includes two groups of instincts, the libido was defined as the energy of all the life instincts. The sexual libido was regarded as the source of primary driving force of the personality. The dynamics of personality is seen as largely governed by the need to gratify the libido.

The id: It is inborn. Its main function is the discharge of psychic energy which when pent up produces tension through the personality system. The id operates on animal level. It cannot differentiate between good and bad, and operates on pleasure principle.

The primary process thinking explains id behaviour as resulting from pent-up tensions which Freud described as frustration. The primary process attempts to discharge tensions by bringing into consciousness memories associated with the source of frustration.

The ego: The id knows only the subjective reality of the mind. The second concept of Freud is the ego which distinguishes between subjective reality and things in the
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external environment. It operates on the principle of reality. The ego is called the executive of personality. It obeys the reality principle and operates by means of secondary process. The pleasure principle is only concerned with whether an experience is painful or pleasant; the principle of reality is concerned with whether it is true or false. The ego formulates a plan for the satisfaction of the need and executes it, keeping into consideration the reality principle. It often integrates the conflicting demands of id, the superego and the external world.

The ego is an organised portion of the id which has been modified by the contact of external reality and experience. It comes into existence to forward the aims of the id. It brings a compromise between the instinctual urges of the id and demands and forces of the external environment. Freud remarked about the function of ego. “The poor ego ... has to serve three harsh masters, and has to do its best to reconcile the demands of all three.”

Explaining the relationship between ego and the id, Freud once said, “Imagine that the relationship between the ego and the id is similar to the relationship between a horse (id) and its rider (ego). While the rider usually determines the direction of the horse, there are those times when it is the horse who leads the rider.”

The superego:
The third concept is the superego. It is the agency which internalizes the parental influences and ideals of society through early childhood experiences. It represents the ideal rather than the real and strives for perfection. It works in accordance with the moral standards authorised by the agents of society.

Let us explain it with the help of an example: suppose there is a beautiful toy in the room; the child sees it and runs towards it. This is the id level. The second stage is that the parents instruct the child not to touch the toy. The child sees the toy but does not touch it out of fear of punishment in the presence of his parents. The third stage of development is when the toy is in the room. Parents are not there but the child does not touch the toy. It is the superego. The superego involves the internalization of parental control in the form of self-control.

We can say that id is biological and seeks pleasure, ego is psychological, test reality. The superego is social-self and seeks perfection.

The superego develops gradually by the process of reward and punishment meted out by the parents to the child in early childhood training. The parental reward and punishment is substituted by self-control. The individual with a well-developed superego refrains from bad or evil temptations such as stealing or telling a lie, etc. even in the absence of punishing agent. The process of adoption of the moral and ethical standards of family and society is called the process of introjection.

Dynamics of Personality

According to Freud, the human organism is a complex energy system which derives its energy from the food it consumes. The energy created by biological factors may be transformed to psychic energy. Three parts of psychic structure—id, ego
and superego—are in constant conflict. The dynamics of personality involve a continuous interaction and clash between id impulses seeking release and inhibition imposed by the superego. The individual is in quest for immediate gratification of impulses, seeks pleasure and avoids pain in order to reduce tension. The drive for immediate satisfaction of instinctual demands leads to early clash between the individual and his environment. Conflicts develop when the parents or other members impose restriction or control on expression. There is a perpetual warfare between the pressure of the environment and the demands of the id and superego. The ego, in order to adjust in the social environment, utilizes a number of mental mechanisms to it and the demands of the id and the superego which reduce tensions of the individual. Detailed account of ego mechanisms are given in a subsequent chapter.

The Development of Personality

Freud organized his personality theory around psycho-sexual stages of development. Body pleasure or erogenous zones shift from one part of the body to the other as the child advances in age such as mouth, anus and genitals. There are four distinctive stages of psycho-sexual development: oral, anal, phallic and genital through which the child moves. According to Freud, the person’s experiences at each stage leave some characteristic impressions and imprints that influence his future personality development. The specific sex experiences at any of the stage either in the form of over-indulgence or deprivation may produce fixation which means an arrest of sexual impulses at any early stage of psycho-sexual development.

Evaluation of Freud’s Theory

Freud’s theory of personality has revolutionized theory and practice of psychology and made major contribution to understand personality mechanisms. It has greatly influenced all social sciences as regards their approach to human behaviour. Many researches have been conducted to test the theory of psycho-analysis. We will describe the advantages and weaknesses of the theory.

Advantages

- It is a comprehensive theory of human behaviour which includes all aspects of personality and its complexities.
- It is a holistic approach to understand human personality. It does not divide the personality into specific traits. It gives more emphasis to functioning of the individual as a whole.
- It gives more freedom to the individual to respond in the form of free association.
- The theory recognizes the importance of unconscious motivation in the development of behaviour patterns. It has investigated and discovered underlying phenomena of personality by means of extensive observation of patients.
Commenting on the contribution of psycho-analytic theory of personality, Inkeles remarked, "Many, perhaps most, of our theories of personality deal not with personality as a whole, but rather with some selected aspect or process. Freudian theory kept the whole personality in view .... Freud produced this general theory not out of a combination of existing elements, but largely by new creative insights. His theory, therefore, has a scope, a unity and a coherence which is unmatched in psychology."

His theory of causal determination and emphasis on early childhood experiences as the important factors have been accepted by behaviourists as an important contribution to psychology.

Weaknesses

There are psychologists who do not agree on the basic concepts and methodology used by Freud. Many research scholars have conducted studies on psychoanalytic approach to personality and pointed out the weaknesses of the theory in their studies. Some of the common weaknesses are summarized as follows:

- Some psychologists have criticized the theory on the basis of methodological procedure. The data of psychoanalysis consisted the reports of the patients without any verification from other sources. No systematic procedure was followed by him in data collection and its recording. He never validated his hypotheses against any criterion.
- The method of analysis by reconstructing the patient’s history on the basis of what the patient says is a source of information that cannot be relied upon for scientific study of behaviour. Psychoanalysis is an interpretation of behaviour. It is not an explanation of behaviour.
- He has laid more emphasis on sex as an explanation of human behaviour which has been discarded by psychologists.
- Freud used a number of concepts in his theory which have not been defined clearly. They are ambiguous in their meanings. The language of the theory is so vague that researchers seldom agree on the meanings of a term. For example, repression and libido have been used for different concepts at different times by Freud.
- There is lack of quantification and statistical analysis of the data. He never quantified his findings. It is purely a descriptive theory. Quantitative estimates of relationships among various concepts are never made. The theory is confusing and difficult to test.
- One important and major weakness of the theory is the lack of predictability. The theory does not provide any systematic procedure to predict the behaviour of the individual under different circumstances. The theory has not been substantiated by scientifically respectable procedure for investigating human behaviour. Objective verification of the data is practically
impossible. The claim of Freud to study subjective phenomena by objective methods seems to be baseless.

- The theory gives importance to internal organization of behaviour and past experiences in the development of personality. It decreases the importance of the present experiences and social environment to which the individual must adjust. Freud’s theory is based on the concept of instincts which has been discarded now.

- McDougall writes, “the theory of strict determinism developed by Freud leaves no scope for creativity and volition on the part of human beings. The theory was taught a generation ago by men of science and philosophers with dogmatic confidence. In modern days the theory has been discredited on the basis of recent scientific investigations.”

- Freud’s conception that psychoneurosis involves sex instincts and is the result of fixation and regression in the action of libido has been proved wrong by the cases of neurosis in soldiers in First World War.

(b) Jung’s Analytic Psychology

C.G. Jung (1875–1961) was a close associate of Freud and worked with him up to 1912. He was so important a member that he was made the President of International Psychoanalytic Association in 1910. After 1912 the personal relation between Freud and Jung began to cool down and finally they separated from each other. Though it is difficult to assess the causes of break-up in the relationship between them but one of the reasons, most probably, includes Freud’s tremendous emphasis on sex as the principal motivating force in life.

Jung rejected ‘Libido’ as the only driving force in life. He developed his own system of psychology called ‘Analytical Psychology’. He viewed the libido as a generalised energy. Besides sexuality, libido also includes other strivings for pleasure and creativity. The basic principles of his theory are as follows:

The Structure of Personality

According to Jung, there are three elements of personality: the conscious ego, the personal unconscious, and the collective unconscious. A brief description is given below:

(a) The conscious ego: The conscious ego is just like the concept of ego given by Freud. It is, in fact, the sense of “being” which includes conscious aspects of thinking, feeling and remembering.

(b) The personal unconscious: It consists repressed and suppressed experiences of the individual which are accessible to the conscious. The personal unconscious is highly individualistic in nature. The variety of experiences individuals have in their social environment, constitute the personal unconscious.
(c) **The collective unconscious**: The most significant and controversial concept of Jung’s Analytical Psychology is the concept of the collective unconscious. It is primitive in nature and is composed of the material which has never been conscious. Every individual is endowed with the collective unconscious which acts as a storehouse containing man’s racial history, his prehuman and animal ancestry in the form of inherited neural patterns. He believed that all people have the same collective unconscious because of the similarity of born structure and racial experiences. It is impersonal, universal and archaic. It contains all good and bad, the low and lofty. According to Jung, the collective unconscious is the reservoir from which all other systems emerge.

**Significant Concepts**

- **Archetypes**: The collective unconscious is made of universal ideas (thought forms) which are called ‘Archetypes’. For example, the archetype of mother is a universal idea which is inherited from generation to generation. The baby, at the time of birth, inherits a performed conception of mother. This conception of mother is modified by the experiences the child has with his mother.

- **The Persona**: Persona is a mask which we wear to meet the social roles and conventions in the society irrespective of our real personality. The mask or persona represents the roles that society assigns to a person. If people emphasise the persona too much, there may be loss of sense of self and a doubting about who they are.

- **The Anima and Animus**: The concept of anima and animus recognizes the biosexuality of human species. A man has an anima which constitutes the feminine attributes and woman has an animus which represents her masculine side. It indicates that both feminine and masculine characteristics are found in man and woman. According to Jung, the development of the archetypes of anima and animus are attributed to the racial experiences of the sexes with each other. The man living with woman from time immemorial has become somewhat feminine and woman living with man has become somewhat masculine. In modern society, the archetypes of anima and animus are in action. Boys wear feminine dress and girls wear masculine dress. Boys and girls are identifying with the members of opposite sexes in dress and other activities of life. Sometimes it is very difficult to differentiate between a boy and a girl with a similar kind of dress and hair style.

- **Shadow**: The archetype of shadow includes animal instincts that man has inherited from lower forms of life. It is the animal side of a person. It is just like ‘Id’ of Freud.

- **The Self**: Jung gives importance to the concept of self as an organizing agency of the personality. He conceived that self plays an important role in
the development of personality. The self gives unity and stability to personality characteristics. He stressed that the only real adventure remaining for each individual is the exploration of his inner unconscious. The ultimate goal of such a search is the forming of a harmonious and balanced relationship with the self.

- **Psychological Types or Typology**: Jung is well known for two psychological types—the extrovert and introvert. The extroverted attitude represents an orientation toward the external world. This type is socially engaging, active, and venturesome. The introverted attitude involves an orientation toward the inner, subjective world. The introverted type is hesitant, reflective and cautious. Both are ordinarily present in the personality of an individual but one of them is dominant and conscious which becomes the basis of classification of personality.

  From these two main types, Jung further classified four types of each on the basis of psychic function that predominates thinking, feeling, intuition and sensation. Every individual possesses these four functions.

  Jung described personality in terms of polar tendencies that are likely to be in conflict with one another. Opposition exists everywhere in the personality, for example, of the four psychological functions, one is more dominant than the other and plays a predominant role in the consciousness.

- **Psychic Energy**: The concept of psychic energy of Freud and Jung is the same. Psychic energy originates from the metabolic process of the body. Jung used the term libido interchangeably with psychic energy but his concept of libido is broader than Freud’s. It is all inclusive and corresponds closely to Bergson’s ‘elan Vital’. It is innate but set in the cycle of growth. It is sex infused but more than sex. Sex expression is a form of genetic process. He accepts the concept of fixation of sex as a source of disharmony in development. Psychic energy flows from weaker value to stronger value and maintains the balance of personality.

**Development of Personality**

Man is more than a creature desiring power and gratification of his sex urges. He is a member of a complex society. He tries to achieve self-actualization which is the ultimate goal. All behaviour is directed towards the goal one sets for himself. The present is determined not only by the past but by future expectations. Man is continually striving toward higher goal and development. The individual is engaged in the solution of universal problems in his own way.

  In late thirties or early forties, spiritual and cultural values made their way into the life of individuals. Jung developed a full-fledged system of psychotherapy to treat mental patients. No doubt, Jung has explored the new dimensions of personality and his theory is famous for its new concepts of extroversion-
introversion, self and purposeful goal-directed behaviour of the individual which have been accepted by modern psychologists but he is criticized for his concepts of archetypes, racial unconscious and mysticism. His concepts are not verifiable by means of scientific methods. His theory emphasizes the importance of religion, culture of the race and metaphysical concepts. His theory could not generate research studies after him but now efforts are being made to revive interest in his theory by publishing his original papers in a book form.

(c) Individual Psychology of Adler

Adler was also a member of Freudian group. He made valuable contribution to psychoanalysis in its infancy. He disagreed with Freud on some issues and afterward finally separated himself from him. He formed his own group of associates. Adler developed a system of thought called ‘Individual Psychology’.

Basic Concepts

Adler was the first psychoanalyst who de-emphasized the concept of inborn instincts and gave full stress to social factors in the development of personality. He also developed the concept that personality of an individual is unique and the individual is aware of the reasons of his actions. He conceived of man as capable of consciously planning and guiding his actions toward self-actualization. He conceives ‘Will to power’ as the central force in the behaviour of the individual. He refers three types of adjustment which the individual makes in his life—to society, to vocation and to love. In making adjustment to these situations, an individual is helped or handicapped according to the experiences of childhood. Adler emphasizes the helplessness with which every child is born. There is an inherent urge in the child to grow, to dominate and to be superior.

(d) Otto Rank’s Theory

Otto Rank (1884–1949) was also, in the beginning, a close associate of Freud. He separated himself from him in the year 1924 with the publication of his book, The Birth Trauma. His basic principles are:

- Separation Anxiety

He believed that every baby experiences a primal anxiety at the time of his birth when he is separated from the womb of the mother. This he called birth trauma that is experienced by all babies and plays an important role in future development of the child. It is not only physical but also psychological in nature. It creates emotional shock leading to an anxiety pattern which is susceptible to arousal of anxiety by any latter separation experiences in the life of the individual. Anxiety may be aroused when the mother leaves the child alone at home, when the child leaves for school, or when the young adult leaves home to marry, and finally when death approaches.
• **Philosophical Assumption**

He developed his own theory of personality development in which he emphasized the importance of present experiences. His theory of psychoanalysis is based on philosophical assumptions.

• **Personality Types**

He markedly differs in his personality types. He explains personality in the context of social phenomena departing markedly from biological determinism of Freud.

According to him, personality development depends on three factors: (a) Magical, (b) Intellectual, and (c) Biological. These three stages correspond to three types of civilization: Primitive, Greek, and Roman.

• **Self-Theory and the Love Principle**

Rank, in his theory of personality, recognizes the crucial role culture and social change. The other factor, underlying personality structure which develops independently of social influence, is self-development which develops through the love principles.

Rank’s theory was criticized by his associates for failing to provide clinical material to support his views. His theory found no support from other psychologists. His concept of birth trauma has had a considerable impact on psychological theories.

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**Check Your Progress**

1. How does Ayurveda categorize human beings?
2. What is the personality of oral sadistic type as per Freud?
3. What are Eysenck’s personality types?
4. What is eros and thanatos?
5. Why did Jung reject libido as the only driving force in life?
6. What are anima and animus?
7. What did Adler de-emphasize?

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2.3 **PHENOMENOLOGICAL, LEARNING, SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR AND EXPECTANCY-REINFORCEMENT MODELS**

In the previous section, you learnt about the concepts of type, trait and psychoanalysis theories. In this section, you will be introduced to other major personality theories including phenomenological approach, Learning Theory of Personality, Bandura and Walters’ Social-Behaviouristic Theory and Rotter’s Expectancy-Reinforcement Model.
1. Phenomenological Approach

Personality has been explained on the basis of several models of human behaviour developed by philosophers. With the development of scientific psychology in the beginning of the present century some new models have been evolved by psychologists as behaviouristic, humanistic, existential model and phenomenological model of man. The last three models are closely related to each other. In this section, we will study the representative theories under the broad heading of phenomenological model of human behaviour, though there are differences of opinion in the approach and concepts of personality. The major theories in this approach belong to Carl Rogers, G. Kelly and Kurt Lewin. These will be dealt in detail in Units 7 and 11.

Common Characteristics of Phenomenological Theories

- Phenomenological theory, as against the objective approach of learning theory of personality, emphasizes the importance of subjective experiences of persons.
- They emphasize the importance of perception, organization and structuring of experiences. Perceptual process is the essential determinant of human behaviour.
- They lay more emphasis on the self-concept in the development of personality.
- They emphasize the importance of present experiences. The way in which a person perceives events in his environment, determines his mode of action.

2. Learning Theory of Personality

It is a truism that tremendous research literature has been produced in the last forty years on psychology of learning on the basis of experimental studies conducted in laboratories on animals and small children. Several learning theories have been developed by psychologist which explain personality from different angles and tend to stress one aspect over the others. We can learn some things of value from each approach to understand behaviour.

Psychologists, notably Pavlov, Watson, Guthrie, Thorndike, Skinner, Dollard and Miller, Bandura and Walters, consider the study of personality as a branch of general field of learning. They worked on the problems of behaviour changes through experiences and attempted to integrate those experiences in the development of personality.

Almost all learning theorists agree on two basic assumptions in explaining personality. The first is that all behaviour is learned by the organism in the process of constant interaction with external stimuli. This assumption implies that psychologists should study the process of learning through which behaviour is acquired in the environment. The second assumption is that psychologists should emphasize the objectivity in the study of behaviour.
Learning theory of personality is quite a different approach from psychoanalytic and phenomenological theories of personality in the sense that it stresses on the importance of learning and objectivity to understand personality. Experimental psychologists are convinced that learning theory is the most reliable and objective approach to understand personality. Lundin (1963), emphasizing the importance of learning in the development of personality, said, “There is no reason to assume that the study of personality offers any new or unique problem for psychology. We can consider the study of personality to be a branch of the general field of learning, which investigates in particular those processes significant to human adjustment.”

3. Bandura and Walters’ Social-Behaviouristic Theory

Bandura and Walters developed an observational learning theory (Social Learning Theory) of personality which is quite different from the learning theories. Their theory, no doubt, like other theories is based on the premise that behaviour is learned and personality can be explained in terms of the cumulative effects of a series of learning experiences. The principles of learning are sufficient to explain development of personality.

According to Bandura and Walters, the most fundamental and significant principle of social learning is the principle of reinforcement. Most of our behaviour in social situations is acquired through the principle of reinforcement. The scope of responses acquired through reinforcement is unlimited.

4. Rotter’s Expectancy-Reinforcement Model

J.B. Rotter was born in 1916. He is a leading psychologist and comes under social learning theorists who emphasize the importance of the interaction of the individual with his meaningful environment. Rotter emphasized that environment only is important which is significant to the person under study. According to him, personality is stable and independent. He also assumes that personality can change with new experience. Behaviour is goal-directed and movement towards the goal is governed by two variables: reinforcement as well as the individual’s expectancy that the goal can be achieved. He developed the expectancy-reinforcement model of personality.

Basic Concepts

Rotter’s Expectancy-Reinforcement model is based on four basic concepts which enable to predict behaviour. The concepts are briefly described as follows:

- **Behavioural potential (B.P.):** It refers to the potential for a behaviour to occur in a specific situation as a function of its relationship to a specific set of reinforcements. For example, Ram wants to know his behaviour potential for studying. He would ask in which class (specific situation) and then ask how important is it to get an ‘A’ grade (specific reinforcement). Since human behaviour is a complex phenomenon, so to increase the predictability, he introduced other concepts.
• **Expectancy (E):** Another important concept introduced by Rotter is expectancy which means the probability held by the individual that a particular reinforcement (‘A’ grade) will follow a specific behaviour (studying) in a specific situation (Psychology class). This expectancy is to be independent of the value of the reinforcement. That is, there may be no relationship between how valuable a reinforcement is and how confident we are in obtaining it.

• **Reinforcement value (RV):** This refers to one’s personal preference for one reinforcement over the other reinforcements if the possibility of occurrence for each reinforcement is equal.

• **Psychological situation (S):** It refers to any part of the situation to which the individual is responding in terms of his subjective reaction to that situation. The essential component of this concept is the meaning that the individual gives to the situation. According to Rotter, behaviour of the organism occurs in a situation and is influenced by his perception of that situation.

**Predictive Formulae**

The four basic concepts described above are related in the following manner:

\[ BP, SI, ra = f(Ex, va, SI × RVa, SI) \]

The formula may be explained as follows:

- **BP** = Behaviour potential
- **x** = Behaviour
- **SI** = Situation
- **ra** = Reinforcement

is a function of the expectancy (E) of the occurrence of reinforcement (ra) following behaviour x in situation (SI) and the value of the reinforcement (ra) in situation (SI). According to Rotter, this formula will allow one to predict whether or not a specific behaviour is likely to occur in a particular situation.

To predict less specific behaviour, the following formula has been used:

\[ NP = f(FM and NV) \]

The explanation of the formula is as follows:

The potential for the occurrence of a set of behaviours that lead to the satisfaction of some need (need potential, NP) is a function of the average levels of expectancies that these behaviours may lead to these reinforcements (Freedom of movement, FM) and the value of these reinforcements (NV).

Rotter proposes six general sets of behaviours which he refers to as needs:

1. recognition—status (need to excel); 2. dominance (need to control); 3. independence (need to make one’s own decisions); 4. protection—dependency (need to provide protection and security); 5. love and affection (need for
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Minimal Goal Level and Generalized Expectancies

There are two other concepts which are important to understand Rotter’s Expectancy-Reinforcement theory. They are: minimal goal level and generalized expectancies. According to him, minimal goal level is the lowest goal in a continuum of potential reinforcements for some life situation which will be perceived by the person as satisfactory to him. This minimum goal level is the point at which positive reinforcements change to a negative level. Minimal goal level differs from individual to individual as for example for some students ‘A’ may be a minimal goal while for others ‘C’ may be minimal goal. Generalized expectancies are one of the most important concepts in Rotter’s theory. It refers to the tendency for people to categorize other people, behaviour, stimuli, and so on and then develop expectations about these categories rather than about each person, behaviour or stimulus. For instance, if you create a category of ‘all slender people’, you may develop a generalized expectancy that they all are ‘agile’. In this case, you have generalized your expectancy from one slender person to all slender people.

There are two types of generalized expectancies in his theory: Internal versus External (I-E) control for reinforcements and interpersonal trust. I-E refers to differences in the belief that what happens to you is the result of your own behaviour attitudes (internal control) versus the result of luck, fate, chance or powerful others (external control). Obviously, if you expect that your destiny is controlled by luck and chance, you are going to behave very differently than a person who believes that his destiny is controlled by his behaviour. I-E is also referred to as locus of control.

Interpersonal trust refers to differences in the degree which people believe in other people and expect others to be honest and forthright. Interpersonal trust influences our behaviour in social interaction.

2.4 CURRENT RESEARCH FOCUS IN PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

Personality is “the set of psychological traits and mechanisms within the individual that are organized and relatively enduring and that influence his or her interactions with, and adaptations to, the intrapsychic, physical, and social environments” (Larsen & Buss, 2010, p. 4). Personality psychology has been quite broadly defined “as the study of factors (e.g., traits, motives, goals, emotional styles) that differentiate individuals from one another, as well as of ways in which intrapersonal characteristics are organized and structured” (Stewart, 1998). In order to elaborate a metatheoretical definition of personality, the paradigm’s frameworks were used and the ideas contained in previous definitions were also embraced. It shows that
the individual specificity is the central idea of personality concepts. For this purpose the clear criteria are explained and that is studied in the different kinds of phenomena investigated in individuals.

For measuring personality the big five personality model was used by Hsieh, et al. (2011). Three traits extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness are significantly positively related with technological innovation has been concluded by them while extraversion, emotional stability, conscientiousness, openness to experience are positively related with the innovative performance of employees. Another study (Chen et al., 2010) found three personality traits; openness to experience, agreeableness and extraversion are positively correlated with idea promotion and idea generation stages of innovative behavior. On the Big Five personality dimensions monozygotic twins are much more similar than dizygotic twins has been confirmed in many different countries in a more extensive study (Loehlin, 1992) of 24,000 twin pairs.

To become an interdisciplinary leader is the current position of the field. The interest was shown by the scholars in making levels of analysis beyond the individual (e.g., economists, sociologists, political scientists, epidemiologists). How they might influence the behavior of collective systems (e.g., Almlund, Duckworth, Heckman, & Kautz, 2011) are taking initiative to think seriously about individual differences. In the next few decades, I believe that one of the growing points of the field will be its integration with ideas from other social science disciplines.

Why personality change occurs there are different theoretical perspective, such as biological (e.g., hormonal processes) and environmental (e.g., toxics and stresser), the factors which can be can possibly explain why personality changes are still investigated by researchers.

The personality includes recurring interpersonal situations suggested by (Gallo and Smith 2006; Smith and Mackenzie 2006) in the transactional developmental model. Throughout their expressive behaviour and covert experience, people want to affect the expressive responses and covert experience of others in their social environments in ways that are in agreement with their personality. The style of an individual tends to influence limited classes of responses from others in a dynamic transactional process. Across the contexts and over time if repeated, In contributing to continuities of personality, relationships, social experiences and other experiences in a reciprocal process were assumed to play role for developmentally based transactional cycles, at the same time for foster a health-relevant trajectory and a recurring pattern of transactional cycle would be expected.

As to the optimal measurement framework much controversy has been stimulated in personality trait research, on behavior the causal effects of traits, as well as on traits the impact of sociocultural factors (Boyle et al., 2008).

Thus we can conclude that the personality is the combination of genetic inheritance and the environment. Personality keeps on changing from time to time. As much as we work on it and as much as we get different experiences so as our
personality is. Before some decade researchers extensively worked on one aspect and now in twenty first century some other aspect come into fore.

Check Your Progress

8. How does phenomenological theory differ from objective learning theory of personality?
9. List the two basic assumptions which almost all learning theorists agree on.
10. What is the nature of personality and behaviour as per Rotter?

2.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Ayurveda in which our ancient physicians broadly categorized all human beings on the basis of three elements in the body. The predominance of one of the three decided the category of the person. It appears that systems of Hippocrates and Indian physicians were, more or less, similar. The three elements which the Indian physicians theorized are pitt (bile), bat (wind), and kuf (mucus).

2. According to Freud, The oral sadistic type of person is pessimistic. He is suspicious and aggressive. He is often bitter in his dealings with others.

3. H.J. Eysenck, a British psychologist, devoted much of his research studies to explore the trait dimensions. He conducted extensive research on trait dimensions by applying quantitative technique of factor analysis. He conducted research on ten thousand soldiers and by statistical analysis isolated two dimensions in personality: (a) Introversion-extroversion, and (b) Neuroticism.

4. Freud was the first psychologist who placed great importance on instincts as the determinant of human behaviour. He proposed two instincts: (a) Eros, the love and self-preservation, and (b) Thanatos, the death instinct, as the ultimate cause of all human activities.

5. Jung rejected ‘libido’ as the only driving force in life. He developed his own system of psychology called ‘Analytical Psychology’. He viewed the libido as a generalised energy. Besides sexuality, libido also includes other strivings for pleasure and creativity.

6. The concept of anima and animus recognizes the biosexuality of human species. A man has an anima which constitutes the feminine attributes and woman has an animus which represents her masculine side. It indicates that both feminine and masculine characteristics are found in man and woman.

7. Adler was the first psychoanalyst who de-emphasized the concept of inborn instincts and gave full stress to social factors in the development of personality.
8. Phenomenological theory, as against the objective approach of learning theory of personality, emphasizes the importance of subjective experiences of persons.

9. Almost all learning theorists agree on two basic assumptions in explaining personality. The first is that all behaviour is learned by the organism in the process of constant interaction with external stimuli. This assumption implies that psychologists should study the process of learning through which behaviour is acquired in the environment. The second assumption is that psychologists should emphasize the objectivity in the study of behaviour.

10. According to Rotter, personality is stable and independent. He also assumes that personality can change with new experience. Behaviour is goal-directed and movement towards the goal is governed by two variables: reinforcement as well as the individual’s expectancy that the goal can be achieved.

2.6 SUMMARY

- Psychologists have developed several theories of personality to study the structure and growth of it.
- It has been the nature of man, from ancient times, to name and classify objects of his environment and human beings into different categories called ‘Types’. The old system of typology still continues and even in modern times, psychologists have developed various typologies which will be described.
- Ernest Kretschmer, a German psychiatrist, classified human beings on the basis of physical constitution. He attempted to establish relationship between personality characteristics and body build.
- Dr. William H. Sheldon, an American surgeon, divided all human beings into three broad categories of physical dimensions and their corresponding temperamental characteristics. He believes that physical structure of the body is the determinant of personality characteristics.
- Jung’s system of classification of human beings is eight-fold and not two-fold as is popularly known. A person, according to Jung, may be extrovert for one function, for example, feeling and the same person may be introvert in intuition. All persons can be divided into eight types, based on the dominance of one of the above factors.
- Freud, on the basis of his theory of psycho-sexual development, identified three types of personality. The type depends on the fixation of sexual energy at a particular stage of sex development.
- Classification of human beings into types has been generally criticized by psychologists on the basis that typologies tend to place emphasis upon one
or another phase of development. They deal with extremes rather than mediocrity of human nature.

- Typology and trait approaches are interrelated to each other in the sense that typology includes a wide variety of traits in classifying human beings in broad types while in trait approach we label or call a person by a specific mode of behaviour which he shows in a wide variety of circumstances.
- G.W. Allport is one of the most outstanding trait psychologists. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists. He has conceived that traits have a real and vital existence.
- H.J. Eysenck, a British psychologist, devoted much of his research studies to explore the trait dimensions. He conducted extensive research on trait dimensions by applying quantitative technique of factor analysis. He conducted research on ten thousand soldiers and by statistical analysis isolated two dimensions in personality: (a) Introversion-extroversion, and (b) Neuroticism.
- According to Freud, the human organism is a complex energy system which derives its energy from the food it consumes. The energy created by biological factors may be transformed to psychic energy. Three parts of psychic structure—id, ego and superego—are in constant conflict. The dynamics of personality involve a continuous interaction and clash between id impulses seeking release and inhibition imposed by the superego.
- C.G. Jung (1875–1961) was a close associate of Freud and worked with him up to 1912. He was so important a member that he was made the President of International Psychoanalytic Association in 1910.
- Adler was also a member of Freudian group. He made valuable contribution to psychoanalysis in its infancy. He disagreed with Freud on some issues and afterward finally separated himself from him. He formed his own group of associates. Adler developed a system of thought called ‘Individual Psychology’.
- Personality psychology has been quite broadly defined “as the study of factors (e.g., traits, motives, goals, emotional styles) that differentiate individuals from one another, as well as of ways in which intrapersonal characteristics are organized and structured” (Stewart, 1998).

2.7 KEY WORDS

- **Trait**: It means a mode of behaviour which is manifested in a number of life situations consistently.
- **Psychic energy**: According to Freud, comes from libido. It denotes sexual energy. When he revised his theory which includes two groups of instincts, the libido was defined as the energy of all the life instincts. The sexual libido was regarded as the source of primary driving force of the personality.
Nature of Personality Theory

- **Personality psychology**: It has been quite broadly defined as the study of factors (e.g., traits, motives, goals, emotional styles) that differentiate individuals from one another, as well as of ways in which intrapersonal characteristics are organized and structured.

### 2.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

#### Short Answer Questions

1. How did Aristotle theorize human body?
2. What is Jung’s typology?
5. Write a short note on current research on personality and its development.
6. What are the basic characteristics of phenomenological and socio-behaviourist model?

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Explain the important type theories and mention its main criticism.
2. Discuss the major trait theories, important characteristics of traits and provide its critical evaluation.
3. Describe Freud’s psychoanalytical theory.
4. Examine the non-Freudian psychoanalytical theories.
5. Explain the expectancy-reinforcement model.

### 2.9 FURTHER READINGS


UNIT 3 MAJOR THEORETICAL APPROACHES: PSYCHOANALYTIC AND PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORIES/NEO-FREUDIANS

Structure
3.0 Introduction
3.1 Objectives
3.2 Sigmund Freud’s Classical Psychoanalytic Theory: The Structure of Personality (Id, Ego and Super Ego)
   3.2.1 The Distribution and Utilization of Psychic Energy and Anxiety
3.3 Neo-Freudians and the Development of Personality
3.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
3.5 Summary
3.6 Key Words
3.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
3.8 Further Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

You have already been introduced to the psychoanalytical theories of personality in the Unit 2, in this unit, the focus will entirely be on the understanding these psychoanalytical theories. This will begin with the workings of the Freudian theory followed by its critical evaluation. In the second part of the unit, you will learn about the neo-Freudian theories and their deviation from Freudian analysis.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss Freud’s Psychoanalytic theory
- Describe the concepts of Id, ego and super ego
- Examine the dynamics of personality
3.2 SIGMUND FREUD'S CLASSICAL PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY: THE STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY (ID, EGO AND SUPER EGO)

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) was the founder of psychoanalysis. His theory of psychoanalysis was dynamic and based on the assumption that personality and personality development are determined by conflicts and events that are largely unconscious in nature and which can be understood only by its in-depth study.

Freud’s anatomy of personality was built around the concept of ‘Id, Ego and Super ego.’ Each of these aspects of personality is related to the other two. Personality is a three-tier system of Id, Ego and Super ego. The Id is totally unconscious, Ego is partly conscious and Super Ego is totally conscious. The Id is the primary aspect of personality. Freud believed that Id is a mass of blind instincts. It has no logical organization and contradictory impulses may exist in it side by side. Id is amoral. It possesses no sense of values. It cannot distinguish between good and evil. It is dominated by the pleasure principle. The Id processes are unconscious. Id is best characterized as the conative, unconscious aspect of personality.

Freud’s assumption was that since so much of a person’s personality operates at the unconscious level, an individual can come up to the surface of consciousness only when engaged to adopt the method of ‘Free Association’. He also considered dream analysis as an important technique to explore the contents of the unconscious.

According to Freud, the Id consists of everything that is inherited psychologically. It is instinctive in nature. It is also the reservoir of psychic energy. It provides all the power for the operation of Ego and Super Ego. Id operates through the pleasure principle. It commands two processes known as reflex action and primary process. Reflex actions are inborn and automatic processes like blinking and sneezing. They reduce the tension caused on account of the non-gratification of the needs. It is a matter of common knowledge that the newborn baby demands gratification or satisfaction of his needs (hunger, warmth and elimination, etc.). For the satisfaction of the needs, the primary process attempts to discharge the tension. It is wish-fulfilment. The example of it is a dream. It is clear that the primary process is not able to fulfil the need. A hungry person cannot eat the image of the food or the food in the dream. Hence, a secondary process starts developing. When this occurs, the Ego, second tier of personality, starts taking place. The Ego fulfils the need. Ego also operates with the energy derived from the Id but it is partly conscious. Its main work is to find ways and means for satisfaction of the needs of Ego. Since the Ego takes into consideration the pressures of reality, its actions are guided by what is called the Principle of Reality.
The third tier of personality development is what is called Super Ego. It is the moral arm of the personality. It represents the sense of right and wrong, good and bad for the society. It represents the ideal as compared with the real of the Ego. In a general way, the Super Ego is thought to be the social development of the personality. The Ego is regarded as the psychological component of the personality while Id is regarded as the biological component.

However, conflicts can occur between the components or the three tiers of the personality. This results in anxiety. For preventing the painful feeling of anxiety, the Ego adopts a number of unconscious psychological strategies which are called the defence mechanisms. Among the important defence mechanisms are: (i) Repression, (ii) Suppression, (iii) Reaction, (iv) Rationalization, and (v) Identification.

Explaining the relationship between Ego and the Id, Freud once said, “Imagine that the relationship between the Ego and the Id is similar to the relationship between a horse (Id) and its rider (Ego). While the rider usually determines the direction of the horse, there are those times when it is the horse who leads the rider.”

According to Freud, consciousness gives expression to a very limited portion of human activity. It can be compared to an iceberg in which 1/10th part is visible and 9/10th part is submerged in the water. The nature of the iceberg is to be judged more in terms of its portion under the water rather than above it. The unconscious mind is more powerful than the conscious mind. The unconscious mind consists of all repressed wishes and forbidden experiences. The repressed material, sometimes, appears at conscious level in disguised forms as in dreams and slips of the tongue.

**Libido and Infantile Sexuality**

Libido is that part of the Id structure that seeks its gratification from purely sexual activity. Sexual gratification is like other gratifications and should be considered a normal need of an individual. Freud considered it as the total striving of an organism. Freud stressed that libido was always present in the organism, even in the infant.
Every child is born with an organically determined sexual excitability. Libido can be stimulated through the following zones.

(i) **Oral Zone**: From birth to two years of age. At this stage, the infant gets pleasure from sucking the lips.

(ii) **Anal Zone**: From two to three years of age. The child derives much pleasure through anal expulsion or anal manipulation.

(iii) **Genital Zone or Phallic Stage**: From three to five years, the child derives gratification by touching his genitals.

(iv) **Latency Stage**: From the age of six till about thirteen, there is the latency stage where there is avoidance of sexuality on account of societal pressures.

(v) **Fixation Stage**: During this period of adolescence, homosexual and heterosexual interests develop.

Freud found that most of his patients suffered on account of sex repression, i.e., non-gratification of sex. Sublimation of sexual desires helps in the development of an integrated personality.

**Evaluation of Freud’s Theory**

Freud’s theory of personality was very helpful for understanding personality and its development. According to Jacobs (1961), “To Freud goes the distinction and merit of having opened to observation dark abysses of human mind hardly suspected before him.” Another psychologist, Inkeles, observed, “His theory, has a scope, a unity and a coherence which is unmatched in psychology.” Freud’s theory of personality was a comprehensive theory and included almost all aspects of personality and its complexities. It was a holistic approach to understand personality. It laid more stress on the functioning of the individual as a whole and gave him more freedom to respond in the form of free association. It recognized the importance of unconscious motivation in the development of behaviour patterns. This theory emphasized the importance of early childhood experiences.

Freud’s theory, however, was not without critics. According to G Gorer (1969), Freud’s theory gave inadequate attention to the role of environment in the development of personality. Freud’s experiences were based on the data collected from patients without any verification from other sources. According to critics, Freud never quantified his findings and his theory was based on the concept of instincts which has been discarded now. Freud’s concepts of repression and libido were used differently in different situations and thus there was a confusion regarding the precise meaning of these terms. Freud laid undue emphasis on sex in the personality development, critics pointed out.

Freud’s theory received mixed reactions. While A Inkeles (1963) observed that Freud’s “theory is a tremendous factor in the growth of psychology of personality”, McDougall, on the other hand wrote, “The theory of strict determination developed by Freud leaves no scope for creativity and volition on
the part of human beings. The theory was taught a generation ago by men of science and philosophers with dogmatic confidence. In modern days, the theory has been discredited on the basis of recent scientific investigations.”

3.2.1 The Distribution and Utilization of Psychic Energy and Anxiety

As mentioned in Unit 2, the concept of psychic energy of Freud and Jung is the same. Psychic energy originates from the metabolic process of the body. Jung used the term libido interchangeably with psychic energy but his concept of libido is broader than Freud’s. It is all inclusive and corresponds closely to Bergson’s ‘elan Vital’. It is innate but set in the cycle of growth. It is sex infused but more than sex. Sex expression is a form of genetic process. He accepts the concept of fixation of sex as a source of disharmony in development. Psychic energy flows from weaker value to stronger value and maintains the balance of personality.

Check Your Progress
1. State the assumption of Freudian theory of psychoanalysis.
2. What are Ego’s actions guided by?

3.3 NEO-FREUDIANS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

We have discussed in brief the theory of personality of Freud, Jung, Adler and Rank in Unit 2. Now we will describe the personality theory of neo-Freudians who deviate from Freud but explain their theories from psychoanalytic approach. All neo-Freudians have rejected the ‘libido’ theory and pansexuality of Freud. They emphasize the importance of culture and social experiences in the development of personality. We will in brief mention the approaches of Erich Fromm, Horney, Sullivan and Erikson to understand personality.

Erich Fromm’s View

Erich Fromm (b. 1900) is the first psychologist who advocated sociological approach to personality. His central theme is man’s feelings of loneliness and isolation. These two feelings have created few needs in the organism.

Basic Nature of Human Being

- **The need for relatedness**: According to Fromm, man is not in harmony with nature. He has separated himself from the nature and violated laws of nature to gain freedom, but it has led him into trouble. There is a great need to create new relationship between man and nature.
- **The need for transcendence**: It means that man has a need to rise above his animal nature. This can be achieved by love and hate.
• **The need for rootedness**: Man has a desire for roots in society.

• **The need for identity**: Every man has a need for identity. He should be recognized as a unique personality.

• **The need for a frame of reference**: All men seek stable relations.

**Development of Personality**

Fromm has not mentioned any specific developmental stages. He departs from the classical psychoanalysis by arguing that personality can continue to develop during adulthood provided the external influences are quite intense to effect changes in adults. He believed that early childhood experiences are very important in the development of personality, because long period of human dependency serves as a powerful lesson about the need to relate to others. The child gradually learns to distinguish between 'I' and ‘not—I’ through his contacts with the environment. The child develops individuation. Separation from parents gives birth to feelings of isolation and doubts in the mind of the child.

**Karen Horney’s View**

Karen Horney (1885–1952) like other neo-Freudians emphasized the importance of cultural factors in the development of personality. She markedly differs from the classical theory of personality by viewing man as essentially constructive rather than destructive agent and denying pansexualism of Freud. She developed five principles of personality development:

(i) **Optimism-positivism**: Horney was a psychoanalyst. She treated a number of patients. She found that man has many positive qualities.

(ii) **Socio-cultural interaction**: Socio-cultural influences have a great impact on the development of personality.

(iii) **Character structure**: Horney, in contradiction to classical Freudians, gives importance to genetic factors and socio-cultural influences in the development of character.

(iv) **Self-concept**: She believes that self-concept is the directing force in life.

(v) **Conflict**: Conflicts form an important part of her theory of personality. She describes three major techniques of adjustment with others:

• Moving toward people.
• Moving away.
• Moving against.

She was dissatisfied with the theory of Freud as an explanation of neurosis. She emphasized the importance of cultural processes.
Sullivan’s View

Harry Stack Sullivan (1892–1949) was another neo-Freudian who had worked out an extensive system of personality. He emphasized the importance of social and interpersonal forces in the development of personality.

Sullivan, like Freud, was stressing the importance of energy in personality development. To Sullivan, however, this energy appears more often as tension which a person develops; an excess of energy he feels when faced with a choice between two alternatives neither of which is very agreeable.

The child directs his energy towards social relationship with his mother. The early social interaction with the mother forms the basic pattern of personality. Personality, according to him, is interaction of the individual with the society. Personality is a matter of how we see ourselves and how others see us. Early childhood social interaction with the mother is important.

When the child is able to move out of his home, he begins to form social relationship with other children and throughout the developmental stages, his personality development depends on social interaction with others and its influence on the kind of human beings the person is becoming. Future development to a great extent depends on early experiences of the child and how he relates with others along the way depends on the anxiety such interaction brings. If a person feels himself to be a ‘bad-me’ relationship with others it will create a lot of anxiety because people are likely to reject him.

His system allows that ‘bad-me’ concept can be created along the path of life.

During juvenile stage, the child’s experiences with friends and teachers begin to come in conflict with parental influences. Social acceptance becomes important and the child’s reputation becomes an important source of self-esteem or anxiety. During pre-adolescence, a relationship with a friend of the same sex becomes particularly important which forms the basis for the development of love relationship with a person of the opposite sex during adolescence.

He further felt that rules and norms of society are extremely restrictive and these rules forced by society and parents, often lead to personality problems. If an adolescent does not find sufficient self-growth during this period and is not permitted reasonable freedom, then he is likely to become a homosexual, because to him that seems to be a safer relationship than one with the opposite sex.

Erikson’s View

Erikson like other neo-Freudians also emphasizes the importance of social factors in personality development. He developed the concept of ‘developmental milestones’ which means those functions which vary in stability and persistence throughout life, but which provide regulatory constants at different age levels. He conceived of the constant elements in personality as coming about developmentally.
Erikson is committed to the biological and sexual foundations of personality like Freud, yet he expanded or ‘socialized’ Freud’s schedule of development. He introduced eight stages of development in which he emphasized the importance of interaction between biological and social factors in the development of personality.

Table 3.1 Stages of Psycho-Sexual Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Conflict</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Oral infancy</td>
<td>Trust vs mistrust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Anal 2 years</td>
<td>Autonomy vs shame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Genital 3 years to 5 years</td>
<td>Initiative vs guilt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Latency 6 years to 12 years</td>
<td>Industry vs inferiority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Adolescence 13 years to 18 years</td>
<td>Intimacy vs isolation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Young 19 to 21</td>
<td>Creativity vs stagnation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Adulthood 22 to 50</td>
<td>Integrity vs despair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Maturity after 50</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table, it is clear that in the process of development of each stage, an individual faces conflicts (crises) that are resolved by accepting and adapting to the changes.

Erikson attempted in his theory to bridge the gap between Freudian theory of psycho-sexual development and present-day knowledge of children’s physical and social development. He recognizes three factors representing the personality as somatic or body, ego or self and social or the influence of culture. According to Erikson, personality develops by the relative influences of these three factors. His theory integrates social, anthropological and biological factors into personality. His theory is systematic and comprehensive in its treatment.

Check Your Progress

3. Eric Fromm was the first psychologist to do what?
4. What is personality as per Harry Stack Sullivan?

3.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Freud’s theory of psychoanalysis was dynamic and based on the assumption that personality and personality development are determined by conflicts
2. Since the Ego takes into consideration the pressures of reality, its actions are guided by what is called the principle of reality.

3. Erich Fromm is the first psychologist who advocated sociological approach to personality. His central theme is man’s feelings of loneliness and isolation. These two feelings have created few needs in the organism.

4. Personality, according to Harry Stack Sullivan, is interaction of the individual with the society. Personality is a matter of how we see ourselves and how others see us. Early childhood social interaction with the mother is important.

3.5 SUMMARY

- Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) was the founder of psychoanalysis. His theory of psychoanalysis was dynamic and based on the assumption that personality and personality development are determined by conflicts and events that are largely unconscious in nature and which can be understood only by its in-depth study.
- Freud’s anatomy of personality was built around the concept of ‘Id, Ego and Super ego.’ Each of these aspects of personality is related to the other two. Personality is a three-tier system of Id, Ego and Super Ego. The Id is totally unconscious, Ego is partly conscious and Super Ego is totally conscious.
- Freud’s assumption was that since so much of a person’s personality operates at the unconscious level, an individual can come up to the surface of consciousness only when engaged to adopt the method of ‘Free Association’. He also considered dream analysis as an important technique to explore the contents of the unconscious.
- Libido is that part of the Id structure that seeks its gratification from purely sexual activity. Sexual gratification is like other gratifications and should be considered a normal need of an individual. Freud considered it as the total striving of an organism. Freud stressed that libido was always present in the organism, even in the infant. Every child is born with an organically determined sexual excitability.
- Freud’s theory of personality was a comprehensive theory and included almost all aspects of personality and its complexities. It was a holistic approach to understand personality. It laid more stress on the functioning of the individual as a whole and gave him more freedom to respond in the form of free association. It recognized the importance of unconscious motivation in the development of behaviour patterns. This theory emphasized the importance of early childhood experiences.
• Freud’s theory, however, was not without critics. According to G Gorer (1968), Freud’s theory gave inadequate attention to the role of environment in the development of personality. Freud’s experiences were based on the data collected from patients without any verification from other sources. According to critics, Freud never quantified his findings and his theory was based on the concept of instincts which has been discarded now.

• Freud’s theory received mixed reactions.

• All neo-Freudians have rejected the ‘libido’ theory and pansexuality of Freud. They emphasize the importance of culture and social experiences in the development of personality.

• Erich Fromm (b. 1900) is the first psychologist who advocated sociological approach to personality. His central theme is man’s feelings of loneliness and isolation. These two feelings have created few needs in the organism.

• Fromm has not mentioned any specific developmental stages. He departs from the classical psychoanalysis by arguing that personality can continue to develop during adulthood provided the external influences are quite intense to effect changes in adults. He believed that early childhood experiences are very important in the development of personality, because long period of human dependency serves as a powerful lesson about the need to relate to others.

• Karen Horney (1885–1952) like other neo-Freudians emphasized the importance of cultural factors in the development of personality. She markedly differs from the classical theory of personality by viewing man as essentially constructive rather than destructive agent and denying pansexualism of Freud. She developed five principles of personality development.

• Harry Stack Sullivan (1892–1949) was another neo-Freudian who had worked out an extensive system of personality. He emphasized the importance of social and interpersonal forces in the development of personality.

• Erikson like other neo-Freudians also emphasizes the importance of social factors in personality development. He developed the concept of ‘developmental milestones’ which means those functions which vary in stability and persistence throughout life, but which provide regulatory constants at different age levels. He conceived of the constant elements in personality as coming about developmentally in terms of the automatic changes in the child that take place as a result of his growing up.
Major Theoretical Approaches: Psychoanalytic and Psychodynamic Theories/Neo-Freudians

3.6 KEY WORDS

- **Id**: It is the primary aspect of personality. Freud believed that Id is a mass of blind instincts. It has no logical organization and contradictory impulses may exist in it side by side. Id is amoral.
- **Ego**: It is the second tier of personality. The Ego fulfills the need. Ego also operates with the energy derived from the Id but it is partly conscious. Its main work is to find ways and means for satisfaction of the needs of Ego.
- **Super Ego**: It refers to the third tier of personality development. It is the moral arm of the personality. It represents the sense of right and wrong, good and bad for the society.
- **Libido**: It is that part of the Id structure that seeks its gratification from purely sexual activity
- **Developmental milestones**: It means those functions which vary in stability and persistence throughout life, but which provide regulatory constants at different age levels.

3.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

**Short Answer Questions**

1. What are the defence mechanisms used by Ego?
2. Write a short note on libido and infantile sexuality.
3. How does Fromm deviate from classical psychoanalysis?
4. Briefly explain how Sullivan’s system allows that ‘bad me’ concept can be created along the path of life.
5. List Erikson’s stages of psycho-sexual development.

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Explain Freud’s anatomy of personality and provide its critical evaluation.
2. Discuss the major theories of Neo-Freudians.

3.8 FURTHER READINGS

Major Theoretical Approaches: Psychoanalytic and Psychodynamic Theories/Neo-Freudians


UNIT 4  CARL JUNG’S ANALYTIC THEORY

Structure
4.0 Introduction
4.1 Objectives
4.2 The Structure of Personality
   4.2.1 Educational Implications of Jung’s Theory of Personality
   4.2.2 Freud and Jung Compared
4.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
4.4 Summary
4.5 Key Words
4.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
4.7 Further Readings

4.0 INTRODUCTION

You have already been introduced to the dominant theories of personality in Unit 2. There you were briefly introduced to Carl Jung’s analytic theory. This theory is the major focus of the present unit and will include the explanation of the theory, along with its critical evaluation. The theory of extraversion and introversion is perhaps the most commonly recognized personality analysis which is frequently used to describe different personalities even in common parlance. In unit 3, you learnt about Freud’s theory and so the same will be compared to Jung’s theory. You will also learn how personality theories have a major bearing on the manner education and learning is carried out.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss Jung’s analytic theory
- Explain the educational implications of Jung’s theory
- Compare Jung’s theory with that of Freud’s

4.2 THE STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY

Carl Jung was a close associate of Freud during the early period of psychoanalysis. However, he like Adler, disagreed with his master and founded his own school of analytical psychology. You will learn about Adler’s theory in Unit 5.
Jung held that Freud’s conception of infantile sexuality was incorrect. He did not agree with Freud on his concept of libido too.

Like Adler, Jung believed that the sexual instinct is not of primary importance. He considered personality in terms of introversion and extroversion concepts, which have become part of our everyday speech.

Jung tended to think in terms of opposites or polarities. According to him, mental activity takes four dominant forms: sensation, thinking, intuition and feeling. Thinking and feeling are polar opposites and both tendencies are always present in an individual at the same time. If his or her dominant mental activity is thinking, the individual’s unconsciously tends towards feeling. Similarly, sensing and intuition are also opposite to one another and are operative in the individual at the same time, as depicted in Fig. 4.1.

![Fig. 4.1 Dominant Forms of Mental Activities](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrovert</th>
<th>Introvert</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Fluent in speech.</td>
<td>1. Better in writing than at speech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Free from worries.</td>
<td>2. Inclined to worry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Likes to work with others.</td>
<td>3. Likes to work alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Friendly.</td>
<td>4. Rather reserved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Not easily embarrassed.</td>
<td>5. Easily embarrassed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Interested in athletics.</td>
<td>6. Fond of books and magazines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Governed by objective data.</td>
<td>7. More influenced by subjective feeling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Neglectful of ailments and personal belongings.</td>
<td>9. Careful of these.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Aggressive.</td>
<td>10. Submissive.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

People cannot be categorized or grouped as either absolute extroverts or introverts. People in general are a mixture of both. The majority of individuals demonstrate characteristics of both introvert and extrovert and are accordingly classified as ambiverts.
Obviously, when so many conflicting and diverse tendencies operate, there is a great danger of one-sided development. One aspect of the personality of an individual tends to become dominant and totally overshadows the other.

Interactions among the systems of personality

As you have learnt earlier, Jung believed that the total personality consists of three elements — conscious ego, personal unconscious and collective unconscious. Jung believed that the psyche is made up of these separate systems interacting with each other.

(i) The Conscious Ego: It is in fact, the sense of ‘being’ which includes conscious aspects of thinking, feeling and remembering.

(ii) The Personal Unconscious: It includes repressed and suppressed experiences of the individual which are accessible to the conscious. It also includes the experiences of the individual which he has in his social environment.

(iii) The Collective Unconscious: It is primitive in nature. It is the reservoir from which all other systems emerge.

Evaluation of Jung’s Theory

Jung explored new dimensions of personality. Whether psychologists accept the concept of introversion or extroversion, these terms have become very popular. His theory of self-actualization has a great significance. His theory emphasized the importance of the culture and religion of the race. Jung combined the material and the spiritual approach. Jung’s idea of collective unconscious seemed to be very near to the cosmic mind as expounded by Sri Aurobindo.

4.2.1 Educational Implications of Jung’s Theory of Personality

(i) Appropriate Education at Every Stage: Jung observed, “To remain a child too long is childish, it is just as childish to move away and then assume that childhood no longer exists because we do not see it.” Hence, appropriate education at every stage of life is very necessary.

(ii) Importance of Individual Differences: Jung considered individual differences as very important. This necessitates the provision for diversified courses.

(iii) Full Expression: According to Jung, a child should get opportunities for expression. Due freedom should be given to each child and no rigid discipline should be imposed.

(iv) Healthy Pictures: Healthy pictures of different objects should be put before children and negative pictures such as those of conflicts should not be painted before their mind. Teachers, as well as parents, should be mentally healthy and should not be torn between the conflicts themselves.

(v) Creativity: Jung gave importance to creativity. Appropriate opportunities for creative expression should be provided in the school so that the child
Carl Jung’s Analytic Theory

may express the message of unconscious through creative work which may help him in attaining integration of personality.

(vi) Due Recognition to the Child: Due recognition should be given to the child and he should be treated as an individual and not considered as a ‘cog in a machine’.

(vii) Home and the School to Provide a Pleasant Environment: Home and school environment should be pleasant and enjoyable for proper emotional training of the child. Children do not get proper direction if the environment around is unfriendly and restless. Lack of proper freedom and silence, both are injurious for the development of the child’s personality as he does not get proper opportunity for communication with his unconscious mind.

(viii) A Sense of Security: The school should also have the responsibility of assisting the child to develop a sense of security and protection.

(ix) Importance of Religion: Jung believed that religion is important in a person’s life and cannot be left out of any school programme.

4.2.2 Freud and Jung Compared

- **Unconscious:** According to Freud, the unconscious mind is evolved out of conscious mind by repression, etc. He compares the human mind with an iceberg whose little visibility is ‘consciousness’ and the nine-tenth, which is submerged in water and lies hidden, is sub-consciousness or unconsciousness. He attached importance to ego and talked about super ego, ego and Id. Freud was of the opinion that an individual wants fulfilment of his desires and the repression of these desires leads to further troubles. Jung’s approach, on the other hand, was entirely different. He stated that consciousness is evolved out of unconsciousness which contains experience of the whole human race. The persona and ego in the conscious mind were referred to by Jung. He attached great importance to the unconscious mind. His views on unconscious mind were wider in scope and included racial and collective unconsciousness too.

- **Dreams:** According to both Freud and Jung, dreams provide clue to the unconscious. Freud considered dreams as wish fulfilments. According to him, one’s repressed desires seek satisfaction in dreams and dreams preserve sleep. Jung talked of their prospective and compensatory functions. He was of the view that dreams provide solution to problems and our psyche expresses experiences of our races through symbols in the dreams. Dreams are important for therapeutic purposes, he added.

- **Sex:** Freud regarded libido as sex and emphasized sex-gratification. Even early childhood activities, like thumb-sucking, are termed as sex-satisfying pleasures. Jung, on the other hand, did not agree with Freudian concept of sexuality. He retained the term ‘libido’ and called it a life force which expresses itself in a number of ways.
Carl Jung’s Analytic Theory

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Childhood Experiences: Freud was a determinist and believed that childhood experiences determine one’s personality. Jung also gave great importance to early childhood experiences but he was of the view that one’s philosophy of life can change one’s attitude completely. He believed in idealism and morality and talked of self-realization as the aim of life. Freud stated that there are only two goals of life—satisfaction of sex and back to the inorganic state. Jung, on the other hand, stressed that self-realization and self-propagation are the greatest goals of life.

Individual Differences: While Jung stressed more on individual differences, Freud was more interested in universal dynamics.

Free Association: Freud believed in free association. He tried to discover and depend upon the past life. As an analyst, he tried to play the role of a father or mother. Jung, however, believed in controlled association. He tried to discover and depend upon the present adaptation in life. As an analyst, he tried to play the role of a god or a mythical hero besides the roles of father and mother. Jung recognized ‘repression’ and made use of the concept of ‘regression’, but in a different way.

Creativity: Freud did not attach much importance to creativity, while Jung stressed that unconscious expresses itself through creative work.

Religion: Freud referred to religion as a universal neurosis whereas Jung regarded it as a great treasure which provides source of life. Unlike Freud, Jung regarded morality to be a function of life, and something that is inborn.

Summing Up: Freud’s approach is best suited for a ‘neurotic child’ through free association and cathartic outpour of pent up emotions. Jung’s approach is best suited for a ‘creative child’ through a provision of harmonious atmosphere where the racial unconscious may give expression to its archetypes through him. Adler’s approach is best suited for a ‘normal child’ through a probe into his life style, family life and other environment, providing him with an opportunity to express his best talent.

Educational Implications of the Theories of Personality

Theories of personality have important educational implications. Trait theory of personality acquaints the teacher with the various characteristics that need to be adequately developed in the students.

Conscious mind of an individual is just one-tenth of the mind and the unconscious mind is nine-tenth of it. Knowledge of the unconscious mind of the students is a must for the teacher. A teacher cannot take effective measures for personality development of students unless he has adequate knowledge in this regard. He must understand that students have repressed desires and it is his duty to make use of various defence mechanisms. The teacher should also understand the three tiers of mind—Id, Ego and Super Ego. The teacher is expected to redirect the pent up feelings of his students to healthy or normal channels. Psychoanalysis
Carl Jung’s Analytic Theory

brings out the importance of proper environment for the education of students. It has given impetus to such movements as Child Guidance, Mental Hygiene and Freedom of the Child.

Adler laid more emphasis on individual differences, which is a useful point for teachers.

The concept of inferiority complex is valuable for teachers.

Dream analysis of Jung indicates that disturbing complexes relate not only to the past, but also have implications for the present and future.

The concept of introversion and extroversion is helpful for understanding the personalities of his students.

Check Your Progress
1. In what terms did Jung think of personalities?
2. What is personal unconscious?
3. How did Freud and Jung view dreams?

4.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Jung tended to think in terms of opposites or polarities.
2. Personal unconscious is an element of personality as per Jung which includes repressed and suppressed experiences of the individual which are accessible to the conscious. It also includes the experiences of the individual which he has in his social environment.
3. According to both Freud and Jung, dreams provide clue to the unconscious. Freud considered dreams as wish fulfilments. According to him, one’s repressed desires seek satisfaction in dreams and dreams preserve sleep. Jung talked of their prospective and compensatory functions. He was of the view that dreams provide solution to problems and our psyche expresses experiences of our races through symbols in the dreams. Dreams are important for therapeutic purposes, he added.

4.4 SUMMARY

- Carl Jung was a close associate of Freud during the early period of psychoanalysis. However, he like Adler, disagreed with his master and founded his own school of analytical psychology.
- Jung held that Freud’s conception of infantile sexuality was incorrect. He did not agree with Freud on his concept of libido too.
Carl Jung’s Analytic Theory

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Jung believed that the sexual instinct is not of primary importance. He considered personality in terms of introversion and extroversion concepts, which have become part of our everyday speech.

Jung tended to think in terms of opposites or polarities. According to him, mental activity takes four dominant forms: sensation, thinking, intuition and feeling. Thinking and feeling are polar opposites and both tendencies are always present in an individual at the same time. If his or her dominant mental activity is thinking, the individual’s unconsciously tends towards feeling.

People cannot be categorized or grouped as either absolute extroverts or introverts. People in general are a mixture of both. The majority of individuals demonstrate characteristics of both introvert and extrovert and are accordingly classified as ambiverts.

Jung believed that the total personality consists of three elements — conscious ego, personal unconscious and collective unconscious.

Jung explored new dimensions of personality. Whether psychologists accept the concept of introversion or extroversion, these terms have become very popular. His theory of self-actualization has a great significance. His theory emphasized the importance of the culture and religion of the race. Jung combined the material and the spiritual approach. Jung’s idea of collective unconscious seemed to be very near to the cosmic mind as expounded by Sri Aurobindo.

Freud’s approach is best suited for a ‘neurotic child’ through free association and cathartic outpour of pent up emotions. Jung’s approach is best suited for a ‘creative child’ through a provision of harmonious atmosphere where the racial unconscious may give expression to its archetypes through him. Adler’s approach is best suited for a ‘normal child’ through a probe into his life style, family life and other environment, providing him with an opportunity to express his best talent.

Theories of personality have important educational implications. Trait theory of personality acquaints the teacher with the various characteristics that need to be adequately developed in the students.

4.5 KEY WORDS

- **Introversion**: It refers to the tendency to be concerned with one’s own thoughts and feelings rather than with external things.
- **Extroversion**: It refers to the quality of being outgoing and directing attention to things other than yourself.
- **The Collective Unconscious**: It is primitive in nature. It is the reservoir from which all other systems emerge.
- **The Conscious Ego**: It is in fact, the sense of ‘being’ which includes conscious aspects of thinking, feeling and remembering.
4.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Which Freudian conceptions were wrong as per Jung?
2. Write a short note on the four dominant forms of mental activity as per Jung.
3. List the general characteristics of extrovert and introvert personalities.
4. Compare and contrast Jung’s theory with Freud’s theory of personality.
5. In the educational sphere, for which type of children are the Freudian and Jungian analysis best suited?

Long Answer Questions

1. Explain Carl Jung’s theory of personality and mention its evaluation.
2. Describe the educational implications of Jung’s theory.

4.7 FURTHER READINGS

UNIT 5  ALFRED ALDER

Structure
5.0  Introduction
5.1  Objectives
5.2  Adler’s Individual Psychology: Inferiority Feeling and Source of Human Striving
   5.2.1  Educational Implications of Adler’s Theory of Personality
   5.2.2  Striving for Superiority or Perfection
   5.2.3  The Style of Life and Birth Order
   5.2.4  Evaluation
5.3  Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
5.4  Summary
5.5  Key Words
5.6  Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
5.7  Further Readings

5.0  INTRODUCTION

Uptill now, you have learnt about some of the major psychoanalytical theories of personalities. Under this, you have learnt Freud’s and Jung’s theories. In this unit, you will be introduced to another psychoanalytical theorist whose conceptions on personality is called individual psychology. The theorist’s name is Alfred Alder. You will learn the most important factors which Adler considers has a bearing on the personality and its development. These are inferiority feelings, striving for superiority, style or life and birth order. Erick Fromm’s theory on personality will be discussed in Unit 6.

5.1  UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
• Discuss the concept of inferiority feelings
• Explain the source of human striving and striving for superiority or perfection
• Describe the style of life and birth order
5.2 ALDER’S INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY: INFERIORITY FEELING AND SOURCE OF HUMAN STRIVING

Alfred Adler was Freud’s earliest disciple, but he soon differed with his master and formulated his own theory of personality. In his theory, Adler gave much importance to life-span—the goal, end in view or purpose. Adler in this context observed, ‘The final goal alone can explain man’s behaviour. Experiences, traumata, sexual development, mechanisms cannot yield an explanation but perspective in which these are regarded, the individual way of seeing them, which subordinates all life to the final goal.’

Adler’s psychology is known as Individual psychology as he emphasized on individual differences.

According to Adler, self-assertion rather than sex impulse, is the major drive. Alfred’s theory minimized the role of sex on which Freud stressed so much. Adler thought that an individual’s motivation has social origins and are not merely his psychological interests.

According to him, every individual strives to develop a unique style of life in which sexual drive plays a minor role.

Adler considered consciousness as the centre of personality. According to him, an individual is a self-conscious human being, who knows his weaknesses and inferiorities and is conscious of the goals for which he strives.

Adler thought that inadequacy of childhood is primarily responsible for the development of the feeling of inferiority in the beginning. This feeling arises from a sense of incompleteness or imperfection in life. But it helps to strive for a higher level of development. The example of Demosthenes, who stuttered as a child but became one of the greatest orators of the world, prove this fact. Similarly, President Roosevelt of America was a weakling in his youth, but by systematic exercise, later on became a physically strong man. He thought that will to power was necessary for superiority. By superiority, he meant superiority over self.

According to him, a person’s behaviour to overcome his feeling of inferiority in order to achieve a feeling of superiority is revealed through his style of life. There are different ways in which a person can strive to be superior. The style of life is the principle by which the personality of an individual functions. The style of life is shaped by two factors—inner-self and the forces within the environment.

Adler was of the view that experiences of early life have great influence on the style of life of an individual. He believed that each individual creates a self-structure out of his heredity endowment and the impressions he receives from his environment. Adler stated that while style of life is mechanical, the creative self is inventive and makes something that never existed before. It is this creative self which gives meaning to life and is influenced by nurture.
Alfred Adler stressed the impact of social interaction. According to him, working for the welfare of others compensates one’s weakness and inferiority complex and helps him to express his superior feelings.

Adler laid more emphasis on individual differences and differences in the environment. This is a useful point for the teachers.

The concept of inferiority complex is a useful concept for teachers to know the drawbacks of their students and work towards the development of a confident personality of students.

Adler gave due emphasis to creativity and consciousness. He also attached importance to social factors in the development of personality.

Adler was criticized for giving undue emphasis to organic factors. According to critics, personality distortion is not necessarily an inevitable accompaniment of physical handicaps.

5.2.1 Educational Implications of Adler’s Theory of Personality

According to the Adler’s theory, the primary objective of education is to lead the child to discover and follow his life style to help him find out and reach towards his goal. The life style of an individual is formed during the first four or five years. Therefore, the upbringing and training at this stage is of utmost importance in a person’s life. The mother’s influence during this period is relatively more important.

Secondly, Adler stressed that all those related with the education of the child must understand the significance of self education—a pre-requisite for correct education of others.

In the first place, the educator must renounce his striving for power so that the child is not subjected to the pressures of his own inferiority and the superiority of the teacher. The child is not a mere wax in the hands of the educators but takes an active part in the development process. It is, therefore, very essential that the adult, who is bringing up the child, must observe carefully how the child comprehends. In order to avoid failure, efforts should be made to remove inferiority complex in its initial stage.

5.2.2 Striving for Superiority or Perfection

Let’s recapitulate some of the concepts mentioned in Unit 2, Adler conceived of man as capable of consciously planning and guiding his actions toward self-actualization. He conceives ‘Will to power’ as the central force in the behaviour of the individual. He refers three types of adjustment which the individual makes in his life—to society, to vocation and to love. In making adjustment to these situations, an individual is helped or handicapped according to the experiences of childhood. Adler emphasizes the helplessness with which every child is born. There is an inherent urge in the child to grow, to dominate and to be superior.
By superiority Adler means striving for perfection or self-actualization. In earlier writings he emphasized the ‘will to power’ as a motive but in later writings he replaced ‘will to power’ to striving for superiority. Every man is pushed by the urge to reach the higher levels of life. This striving for superiority is innate but it can manifest in various ways in the life of the person. The striving for superiority is innate in the child. Sometimes the feeling of inferiority compels the child to compensate his inferiority in that area or in any other area. In his early writings, he introduced the concept of compensation for bodily inferiorities. Adler quotes the examples of Beethoven who despite being slightly deaf from childhood, went on to become a great musician and Demosthenes who did not rest till he had overcome his stammering to become one of the greatest orator in history. He regarded feelings of inferiority as universal and the individual makes attempts to compensate for feelings of inferiority and inadequacy with which he is born. The feelings of inferiority help the individual to improve his circumstances.

**Fictional Finalism**

Adler believed that man is motivated by his expectations of the future goal. Fictional finalism means that man’s actions are grounded in fictional ideas that necessarily do not conform to reality. Some examples of these fictions are belief in life after death or that evil actions are always punished. When such fictions are believed, they seem to help man to cope more successfully with life. He believed that expectations for future orient man more than events of the past. The future goals of man affect his present behaviour as for example, in India fiction of heaven, exercises enormous influence on our total behaviour.

**5.2.3 The Style of Life and Birth Order**

The style of life is an abstraction that includes everything of living within some characteristics, plan or means of attaining the life goal. It is a unique quality of personality which differentiates one person from the other. According to Adler, human aims are the same fundamentally and are embedded in the tendency to strive for superiority. There are many ways to reach the life goal. One person seeks them through social relation, another through education and science and many by other ways. These different ways, attempting to obtain the goal of life, represent a person’s unique style of life, the route by which goal is sought. All aspects of an individual’s life and details of his behaviour organize around this style of life.

The formation of lifestyle starts from the age of four or five years and later experiences are assimilated into this style of life. It is, therefore, difficult to change the lifestyle of an individual in later life. The lifestyle is formed on the basis of childhood experiences. Every child tackles his problems in a different way and the ways and means he uses form his style of life. Adler introduced the concept of creative self, which held that the efforts made by an individual to solve his basic problems grow out of the creative efforts of a person. The creative self moulds the
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personality into a unique structure on the basis of hereditary capabilities and life experiences. He emphasizes the importance of nurture in the development of lifestyle.

Social Interest

Adler lays emphasis on social interests and relations of an individual. His conception of social relations includes cooperation, interpersonal, identification with a group and empathy. Social participation of man means to help the society to attain perfection. Social interest, according to Adler, is latent and inborn characteristic of man. The innate predisposition will not appear and develop spontaneously without the guidance and experiences in social contexts. In neurotics selfish power goals subordinate healthy social interest.

He emphasizes the role of cultural factors which influence the development of personality in a unique pattern.

Birth Order

Birth order simply refers to the order or the number at which a child is born in the family. It reflects the child’s birth timeline in relation to their sibling. This means that the first child born in a family is the first born, the child born second is the middle child, the third is the youngest. As per Adler, the birth order and the child’s environment has a significant bearing on their personality. Adler theorized that the first born is given maximum attention until the arrival of the second child. This may initiate in him responses like protect his position, become insecure or help the parents out in the new born addition to the family. The first born is generally expected to be a role model. The second child or middle child specifically are more well adjusted, as they are born into the atmosphere of sharing. They learn cooperation more easily and have a good and stable personality in comparison to the first and last born. With their arrival, the maximum attention usually shifts to them, but they are also seen to be antagonistic towards the older siblings.

5.2.4 Evaluation

Adler’s theory gives man more prospects to master his life. He emphasized creativity and natural altruism. He emphasized the importance of consciousness and that is why his theory is more understandable and acceptable to the lay person. He introduced the importance of birth order to understand the development of personality.

He had relatively little direct impact on psychoanalytic practice but considerable influence on psychological thought, especially with respect to teachers, doctors and lay persons. He emphasized the importance of social factors in the development of personality and gave a phenomenological view and molar approach to personality. His theory is teleological in nature but other psychologists did not accept his ideas of teleology in the absence of scientific support. His system is
highly personalized and subjective. He denied the separation of conscious and unconscious form of mind. His theory leads us to the conclusion that personality is determined neither by the environment in a mechanical way nor by heredity. His important contribution is concept of life-style. His theory has been criticized as being very simple. Adler’s point of view does not represent an active system of thought with many proponents or disciples. His theoretical formulations do not represent a clear-cut school of thought.

Check Your Progress
1. State the major drive of personality as per Adler.
2. What did Adler consider as the center of personality?
3. Define style of life.

5.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS
1. According to Adler, self-assertion rather than sex impulse, is the major drive of personality.
2. Adler considered consciousness as the center of personality.
3. The style of life is an abstraction that includes everything of living within some characteristics, plan or means of attaining the life goal. It is a unique quality of personality which differentiates one person from the other.

5.4 SUMMARY
- Alfred Adler was Freud’s earliest disciple, but he soon differed with his master and formulated his own theory of personality. In his theory, Adler gave much importance to life-span— the goal, end in view or purpose. Adler in this context observed, ‘The final goal alone can explain man’s behaviour. Experiences, traumata, sexual development, mechanisms cannot yield an explanation but perspective in which these are regarded, the individual way of seeing them, which subordinates all life to the final goal.’
- Adler’s psychology is known as Individual psychology as he emphasized on individual differences. According to Adler, self-assertion rather than sex impulse, is the major drive. Alfred’s theory minimized the role of sex on which Freud stressed so much.
- Adler considered consciousness as the centre of personality. According to him, an individual is a self-conscious human being, who knows his weaknesses and inferiorities and is conscious of the goals for which he strives.
• According to Adler, a person’s behaviour to overcome his feeling of inferiority in order to achieve a feeling of superiority is revealed through his style of life. There are different ways in which a person can strive to be superior.

• The style of life is shaped by two factors—inner-self and the forces within the environment. Adler stated that while style of life is mechanical, the creative self is inventive and makes something that never existed before. It is this creative self which gives meaning to life and is influenced by nurture.

• Adler gave due emphasis to creativity and consciousness. He also attached importance to social factors in the development of personality. Adler was criticized for giving undue emphasis to organic factors. According to critics, personality distortion is not necessarily an inevitable accompaniment of physical handicaps.

• According to the Adler’s theory, the primary objective of education is to lead the child to discover and follow his life style to help him find out and reach towards his goal. The life style of an individual is formed during the first four or five years. Therefore, the upbringing and training at this stage is of utmost importance in a person’s life. The mother’s influence during this period is relatively more important.

• By superiority Adler means striving for perfection or self-actualization. In earlier writings he emphasized the ‘will to power’ as a motive but in later writings he replaced ‘will to power’ to striving for superiority. Every man is pushed by the urge to reach the higher levels of life. This striving for superiority is innate but it can manifest in various ways in the life of the person. The striving for superiority is innate in the child.

• Adler believed that man is motivated by his expectations of the future goal. Fictional finalism means that man’s actions are grounded in fictional ideas that necessarily do not conform to reality. Some examples of these fictions are belief in life after death or that evil actions are always punished. When such fictions are believed, they seem to help man to cope more successfully with life.

• The style of life is an abstraction that includes everything of living within some characteristics, plan or means of attaining the life goal. It is a unique quality of personality which differentiates one person from the other. According to Adler, human aims are the same fundamentally and are embedded in the tendency to strive for superiority. There are many ways to reach the life goal. One person seeks them through social relation, another through education and science and many by other ways.

• The formation of lifestyle starts from the age of four or five years and later experiences are assimilated into this style of life. It is, therefore, difficult to change the lifestyle of an individual in later life.
• Social interest, according to Adler, is latent and inborn characteristic of man. The innate predisposition will not appear and develop spontaneously without the guidance and experiences in social contexts. In neurotics selfish power goals subordinate healthy social interest.

• Birth order simply refers to the order or the number at which a child is born in the family. It reflects the child’s birth timeline in relation to their sibling. This means that the first child born in a family is the first born, the child born second is the middle child, the third is the youngest. As per Adler, the birth order and the child’s environment has a significant bearing on their personality.

• Adler’s theory gives man more prospects to master his life. He emphasized creativity and natural altruism. He emphasized the importance of consciousness and that is why his theory is more understandable and acceptable to the lay person. He introduced the importance of birth order to understand the development of personality.

5.5 KEY WORDS

• Superiority: As per Adler means striving for perfection or self-actualization.

• Fictional finalism: It means that man’s actions are grounded in fictional ideas that necessarily do not conform to reality.

• Social relations: As per Adler, it includes co-operation, interpersonal, identification with a group and empathy. Social participation of man means to help the society to attain perfection.

• Birth order: It simply refers to the order or the number at which a child is born in the family.

5.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What does Adler say about inferiority feelings?
2. What are the educational implications of Adler’s theory of personality?
3. Briefly explain how Adler conceptualizes style of life and its effects on personality.
4. Write a short note on Adler’s theory of birth order.
5. Give a brief evaluation of Adler’s personality theories.
Long Answer Questions

1. Explain Alfred Adler’s concept of individual psychology.
2. Describe Adler’s theory of striving for superiority or perfection.

5.7 FURTHER READINGS

UNIT 6  FREEDOM OR SECURITY

Structure
6.0 Introduction
6.1 Objectives
6.2 The Basic Human Dilemma
6.2.1 Personality Development in Childhood
6.2.2 The Basic Psychological Needs
6.3 The Productive and Non-Productive character Types
6.4 Horney’s Model of Personality and Basic Anxiety
6.4.1 The Foundation of Neurosis
6.4.2 The Idealized Self-Image
6.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
6.6 Summary
6.7 Key Words
6.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
6.9 Further Readings

6.0 INTRODUCTION
Humans have evolved over centuries and its central concerns over life have also changed. This has an impact on the behaviour of humans. But certain primitive qualities remain the same, no matter the day and age. One of these qualities is that of personality. In this unit, you will learn about the basic human dilemma which plagues humans. You will also learn about personality development as it happens in childhood as well as the basic psychological needs of humans. Further, in the unit, you will learn two very important personality theories. These are Fromm’s model and Horney’s Model. You were introduced to these theories in Unit 3. In this unit, you will study how these model differ from the Freudian conception.

6.1 OBJECTIVES
After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Explain the personality development of childhood
- Describe the basic psychological needs according to Murray’s model
- Examine the Productive and Non-productive Character Types
- Explain Karen Horney’s model
NOTES

6.2 THE BASIC HUMAN DILEMMA

Suffering is an ineradicable part of life, even as fate and death. Without suffering and death, human life cannot be completed.

Viktor E. Frankl

Modern human life has gone away from its very nature and its pre historic union with it. Yet, current human beings are rational, logical, have foresight and imagination. The combination of lack of animal instincts and presence of rational thought makes humans the unusual beings of the universe. Self-awareness contributes to feelings of loneliness, isolation, and homelessness. To escape from these feelings, people strive to become re-united with nature and with their fellow human beings.

The isolation and separation of humankind from the natural world has produced the feelings of isolation and loneliness. These changes in the human condition often lead to feelings of anxiety, isolation, and powerlessness. The cost is loss of human freedom. Humans have two alternatives: to escape from freedom into interpersonal dependencies to move to self-realization through productive love and work. The following are the basic assumptions on which human evolutionally behaviour is based:

- Must understand individual personality in terms of human history. We have minimized our adaptive instincts. We no have no powerful instincts to adapt to the changing world.
- Instead, we have acquired the facility to reason, called the human dilemma. Humans face fundamental dichotomies
  - The first is life and death
  - The second is that humans are capable of conceptualizing the goal of complete self-realization but are also aware that life is too short to reach that goal
  - The third is that people are ultimately alone, yet we cannot tolerate isolation. This is a paradox of human condition.

Human beings are caught between illusion and reality, as the mind dwells in the subjective world of ideas and concepts, but physically one exists in the world of objective reality that cannot be directly experienced or fully understood. This is further complicated by the use of reason and logic to guide the mind to truth. One can distinguish between apparent reality and ultimate reality, as well as between physical or human-independent reality and mental or human-constructed reality.

Physical reality is defined as extended in space, having physical properties such as mass, and existing independently of the observer. Mental reality has no extension in space and exists only in the minds of individuals, with its existence depending on the observer.
Individual human beings emerge in the world in a specific era and place, and they have relatively short lives in the constant presence of uncertainty and death. During this limited existence, the individual has to adapt to the outside world in an endless struggle against the unknown. The limits of existence, cognitive biases, and the boundaries of understanding can result in illusions, which can be perceived as reality. These are the illusions of knowledge and understanding, of faith and certainty, of time and eternity, of freedom and free will, and of the meaning of life. Illusions can also evolve from imagination unsupported by facts. Illusions offer existential comfort, but they may also result in a reluctance to see things as they are and to be seen without illusions.

The first basic principle is that life has meaning in all circumstances, even despondent ones. The second principle is that the main motivational force is the desire to find meaning in life. Lastly, the third basic principle states that humanity has the freedom of attitudinal choice, even in situations of unchangeable affliction. Frankl (1959) purports that people can discover meaning through creative, experiential, and attitudinal values. Creative values consist of achievement of tasks such as painting a picture or tending a flowerbed. Experiential values consist of encountering another human, such as a loved one, or by experiencing the world through a state of receptivity such as appreciating natural beauty. Attitudinal values speak of the potential to make meaningful choices in situations of suffering and adversity. Frankl contends that everything can be taken away from a person but the freedom to choose one’s attitude. He stressed that people should not suffer unnecessarily in order find meaning but that meaning was possible when suffering is inevitable. For example, a person subjected to an incurable disease can still discover meaning even though their situation seems dire.

Moreover, tragic optimism means that people are capable of optimism in spite of the tragic triad. Frankl believes that all humans will be subjected to the tragic triad, which consists of guilt, death, and unavoidable suffering. Too much change in too short a period time is often a cause of human dilemma and suffering.

6.2.1 Personality Development in Childhood

The development of an individual starts just after fertilization. The fertilized egg comprises of sperm and ovum and genetic material lies in that. The DNA sets the path of the future development of an individual. Environment within the mother’s uterus also plays a role in the development of the child. Antenatal also known as prenatal factors play an role in child’s development. Peri-natal period commences at 22 completed weeks and ends seven days subsequent to birth. Fetal psychology has emerged as a new branch which attempts to examine the role of all pre-natal factors which effects child’s emotional, cognitive and behavioral development (Reissland & Hopkins, 2010). In India, Psychiatry department at National Institute of Mental Health and Neurosciences (NIMHANS), Bangalore started perinatal psychiatry clinic focusing on counseling and psychotherapy with expected mothers with emotional disorders.
All factors operating following fertilization and till the birth of the child are known as antenatal factors. Mothers’ with alcohol use during gestation increases the chances of fetal alcohol syndrome in the child. Malnourishment during pregnancy also has serious implications on child’s overall health and its personality. Emotional states of the expecting mothers has implications for child’s emotional development later in its life. Developing embryo starts learning during gestation period in its mother's uterus (Hepper, 1996; Stern, 1993). Growing fetus is an active participant in its own development and seeks information for life after birth from its mother.

Contemporary research has shown that both psychological stressors, such as traumatic life events, or biological stressors, such as tobacco exposure, can affect the physical and intellectual growth of the developing child. For example, infants whose mothers experienced the dramatic 1998 ice storm in Canada had smaller birth weight and lower mental ability scores as toddlers (Laplante et al., 2004). Stress during pregnancy affects general intellectual and language functioning in human toddlers. Negative life events like divorce or the death of someone close, during pregnancy were shown to be associated with an increase in the incidence of developmental disorders, including ADHD or autism (Ronald, Pennell, & Whitehouse, 2011). Prenatal maternal stress associated with ADHD and autistic traits in early childhood.

The development of child’s personality start developing proactively once it comes into this world. Growth and development interacts with experiential background, physical and emotional status and personal motivation besides other environmental factors which effects children’s personality and behaviour. Freud gave significant importance to early childhood experiences and its effect on personality development. The unfolding of child’s development is a function of its social environment like interaction pattern of the immediate caregivers and parenting styles of the parents. Neighbourhood and school takes the an important position after the family and has significant effects on child’s latter behavioural pattern. The different stages of childhood according to developmental theorists and educational psychologists define as specific patterns of behaviour seen in particular phases of growth and development. The developmental trajectories are seen in the domains of physical, cognitive, affective and behavioral. The four stages of childhood are as follows:

1. **Infancy**: It starts from birth and continues till first birthday of the child
2. **Toddlerhood**: It starts from 1 year and lasts till 2 years
3. **Early childhood**: From 3 to 5 years
4. **Middle and late childhood**: From 6 to 12 years

Affection, attention and constant talk with children creates in them a need that is socially mediated: the need for new impressions (Bozhovich, 1981), that is, the need to see more, to hear more, to touch more and to be touched more. In babies, visual and hearing structures have not developed completely yet. The
enrichment of visual and hearing impressions contributes to the organic evolution of the senses in a satisfactory manner. For this reason, the richer the experiences of a child with an adult who becomes the mediator of the first sensorial contacts of the baby with the world around him or her the more positive this child’s physical and emotional development will be in the first period of life. The classic work of Rosenzweig (1966) classic work on rats demonstrated the role of enriched environment and cerebral growth.

Early life experiences, neighbourhood, schooling type and subsequent environment plays an important role in shaping people’s personality. Freud posited that personality is fixed during adolescent age. Later work and researchers like Mischel (1968) presented a broader view that personality is not fixed and rigid rather a dynamic system determined by later experiences and traits. He asserts that rather than traits, situation determines behaviour.

6.2.2 The Basic Psychological Needs

Murray (1938) gave need theory of personality. He defines needs as “Deficiency arises in an individual” like low blood sugar etc. He argues that needs give motivation and direction to human behaviour. A need involves a physicochemical force in the brain that organizes and directs intellectual and perceptual abilities. Needs may arise either from internal processes such as hunger or thirst, or from events in the environment. Needs arouse a level of tension; the organism tries to reduce this tension by acting to satisfy the needs.

His theory of personality is often known as personology. Though he was inspired by the Freudian model, yet he asserted that personality is rooted in the brain. The five principles of Murray’s model are:

- Everything on which personality depends exists in the brain, including feeling states, conscious and unconscious memories, beliefs, attitudes, fears, and values.
- His model asserts that human personality is based on the idea of tension reduction.
- An individual’s personality continues to develop over time and is constructed of all the events that occur during the course of that person’s life.
- Personality is not fixed rather dynamic. It implies behavioral flexibility and significant practical implications. In this point, he differs from the Freudian model and
- His theory emphasized the uniqueness of each person while recognizing similarities among all people. As he saw it, an individual human being is like no other person, like some other people, and like every other person.

Based on his research, he formulated 20 psychological needs in human beings. Not every person has all of these needs. Over the course of their lifetime people may experience all these needs, or there may be some needs people never
Freedom or Security

NOTES

experience. Some needs support other needs, and some oppose other needs.
The following is the list of 20 needs.

1. **Abasement**: It refers to tendency to submit passively to external force.
   People with such need will accept criticism, blame, punishment and injury easily.

2. **Achievement**: It refers to tendency to accomplish difficult goals and to master the situation.

3. **Affiliation**: It refers to relate and enjoy the company of others.

4. **Aggression**: It refers the tendency to injure and attack others.

5. **Autonomy**: Tendency to break out of confinement and be independent and free to act according to impulse.

6. **Counteraction**: Tendency to master or make up for a failure by striving.

7. **Defendance**: To defend the self against assault, criticism, and blame. To conceal or justify a misdeed, failure, or humiliation.

8. **Defence**: To admire and support a superior other and to yield eagerly to the influence of an allied other. To conform to custom.

9. **Dominance**: To control one’s environment. To influence or direct the behavior of others by suggestion, seduction, persuasion, or command.

10. **Exhibition**: To make an impression and to be seen and heard.

11. **Harmavoidance**: To avoid pain, physical injury, illness, and death and to escape from a dangerous situation.

12. **Infavoidance**: To avoid humiliation and to quit embarrassing situations or to avoid conditions that may lead to the scorn, derision, or indifference of others.

13. **Nurturance**: To give sympathy to and gratify the needs of a helpless other, an infant or one who is weak, disabled, tired, inexperienced, infirm, humiliated, lonely, dejected, or mentally confused.

14. **Play**: To act for fun, without further purpose.

15. **Rejection**: To exclude, abandon, expel, or remain indifferent to an inferior other.

16. **Sentence**: To seek and enjoy sensuous impressions.

17. **Sex**: To form and further an erotic relationship and to have sexual intercourse.

18. **Succorance**: To be nursed, supported, sustained, surrounded, protected, loved, advised, guided, indulged, forgiven, or consoled and to remain close to a devoted protector.

19. **Understanding**: To be inclined to analyze events and to generalize. To discuss and argue and to emphasize reason and logic.
20. **Order**: To put things in order and to achieve cleanliness, arrangement, organization, balance, neatness, and precision.

These needs can be measured through Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) developed by Morgan and Murray in the 1930s. Indian version of TAT was developed by Uma Chowdhary in 1960. This test is based on the theory of projective hypothesis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Check Your Progress</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What makes humans the most unusual beings of the universe?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Define antenatal factors.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Mention the four stages of childhood.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. What is Murray’s theory of personality often known as?</td>
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### 6.3 THE PRODUCTIVE AND NON-PRODUCTIVE CHARACTER TYPES

The most beautiful as well as the most ugly inclinations of humans are not part of a fixed and biologically given human nature, but result from the social processes which create us.

Erich Fromm

You have learnt about Erich Fromm in Unit 3 under the theories of neo-Freudians. Let’s recapitulate the main ideas and develop on his basic theory. Fromm’s theory of personality theory is deeply socially embedded. He asserts that human behaviour is not shaped by biologically driven force like sex. He posits that human personality is strongly determined by social and cultural forces both those forces which operate within a specific culture and also universal forces which effect humanity throughout history. His stress on social forces determining one’s personality is broader than that of Homey or Adlerian model. He says people are proactive and create their own nature. He explained his theory in his book *Escape from Freedom*.

**Basic Nature of Human Being**

As mentioned earlier, according to Fromm, the basic human nature lies in the following five points:

(a) Human beings have the need for relatedness
(b) All of us have the need for transcendence
(c) All humans have the need for rootedness
(d) All of us have the need for identity and
(e) Humans have the need for frame of reference
Character orientations

- The person’s relatively permanent way of relating to people and things
- "The totality of inherited and acquired psychic qualities which are characteristic of one individual and which make the individual unique."
- People relate to the world in two ways
  (a) By acquiring and using things (assimilation)
  (b) By relating to self and others (socialization)
  (c) These things happen productively or nonproductively

Fromm’s theory posits that character traits underlie all behaviour and are strong determinants by which a person relates or orient himself or herself to the world. His model asserts that personality is a blend of some or few traits. These traits are divided into:

(i) Productive types and
(ii) Non-productive types

Productive types

People with productive type character orientation are those who are capable of using their capacities to the fullest and realize their fullest potential. The single productive orientation has three dimensions

- Work
- Love
- Reasoning

The individual works toward positive freedom and the realization of their potential. Only through productive activity can people solve the basic human dilemma. That is, to unite with the world and others while retaining uniqueness and individuality. Healthy people work not as an end in itself but as a means of creative self-expression.

Non-Productive types

The following section describes the non-productive character types.

(i) Receptive orientation: These type of people expect to get whatever they want—be it love, knowledge, or pleasure from some outside source another person, an authority, or a system. They are receivers in their relations with others, needing to be loved rather than loving and taking rather than creating ideas or knowledge. Obviously, such people are highly dependent on others and indeed feel quite paralyzed when left on their own; they feel incapable of doing anything without outside help. There is a similarity between this orientation and Freud’s oral incorporative type, the receptive orientation also finding relief in eating and drinking. The kind of society that fosters this
trait is one in which exploitation of one group by another (for example, slave by master) is practiced. George(2011) asserts that such people receive satisfaction from outside factors, and thus they passively wait for others to provide them with things that they need. For example, they want someone to provide them with love and attention.

(ii) **Exploitative orientation:** People with this orientation is directed toward others for what he or she wants. However, instead of expecting to receive from others, these people take from them, either by force or by cunning. In deed, if something is given to them, they see it as worthless. They want only what belongs to and is valued by others: wives or husbands, ideas, possessions, and so on. What has to be stolen or taken by force has much greater value than what is given freely. This trait is similar to Freud’s oral aggressive type and can be seen in robber barons, fascist leaders, or domineering people in any setting. Exploitive characters believe that the source of all good is outside them yet they act aggressively to take what they desire rather than passively receiving it.

(iii) **Hoarding orientation:** These people derive their security from the amount they can hoard and save. This miserly behaviour applies not only to money and material possessions but also to emotions and thoughts. In a sense, such people build walls around themselves and sit there, surrounded by all that they have hoarded protecting it from outside intrusion and letting as little of it out as possible. There is an obvious parallel here with the Freudian anal retentive type. Hoarding characters seek to save that which they have already obtained. They hold everything inside and do not let go of anything.

- Negative qualities include rigidity, sterility, obstinacy, compulsivity, and lack of creativity
- Positive qualities include orderliness, cleanliness, and punctuality.

(iv) **Marketing orientation:** In a commodity based marketplace culture, Fromm argued, people’s success or failure depends on how well they sell themselves. The set of values is the same for personalities as for commodities; indeed, one’s personality becomes a commodity to be sold. Thus, it is not so much one’s personal qualities, skills, knowledge, or integrity that counts but rather how nice a “package”. Such an orientation cannot produce any feeling of security, because the person is left without genuine relatedness to others. Indeed, if the game is played long enough, there is no longer even a relatedness to or real awareness of one’s self. The packaged role the individual is forced to play completely obscures his or her own genuine qualities and characteristics, not only from others but from the person himself or herself. As a result, such people find themselves in a state of total alienation, with no personal core or center and with no real relationship to those around them. These type of personality orientation emerged after the capitalistic societies like the U.S.A.
Market characters see themselves as commodities with their personal value dependent on their exchange value and their ability to sell themselves.

- They have shaky personal security and adjust to fit what others want
- Negative qualities include aimlessness, opportunistic, incompetence, and wasteful
- Positive qualities include changeability, mindedness, adaptability, and generosity

6.4 HORNEY’S MODEL OF PERSONALITY AND BASIC ANXIETY

You have been introduced to Horney’s theory in Unit 3. The basic idea will be recapitulated here and developed in detail. Karen Horney developed Feminine Psychology in 1967. Horney posits that early childhood experiences in socio-cultural context shapes one’s personality. People who do not have their needs for love and affection satisfied during childhood develop basic hostility toward their parents and, as a consequence, suffer from basic anxiety. This basic anxiety is not pathological rather experienced by all. Most children, however, find themselves overwhelmed by basic anxiety, which in children is mostly a matter of fear of helplessness and abandonment. For survival’s sake, basic hostility must be suppressed and the parents won over. If this seems to work better for the child, it may become the preferred coping strategy compliance. They say to themselves, “If I can make you love me, you will not hurt me.”

As mentioned in Unit 3, she presented a more constructive and positive picture of human personality. She developed the five principles of personality development. These are as follows:

(i) Optimism-positivism: Based on her clinical experience she found that human beings have many positive qualities.
(ii) Socio-cultural interaction: She posits that socio-cultural factors have strong effect on personality development.
(iii) Character structure: According to her, genetic and cultural factors play an important role in the development of character.
(iv) Self-concept: Her theory says that self-concept is the directing force in life and
(v) Conflicts: Horney says conflicts are an integral part of human development. Her theory includes the notion of neurotic triad. It means that when people are in conflict they try to solve their conflicts in three ways. These ways of conflict resolution are as follows:
- Moving toward people/Compliance: It refers to tendency to move toward others to relate oneself.
• **Moving against people/Aggression**: It refers to tendency to move against others

• **Moving away from people**: It refers to neutral attitude toward moving toward others.

Most well functioning people use any of these modes of relating to people but neurotics are compelled to rigidly rely on only one.

### 6.4.1 The Foundation of Neurosis

Horney offered a different way of viewing neurosis. She saw it as much more continuous with normal life than previous theorists. Specifically, she saw neurosis as an attempt to make life bearable, as a way of "interpersonal control and coping." This is, of course, what we all strive to do on a day-to-day basis, only most of us seem to be doing alright, while the neurotic seems to be sinking fast. Based on her clinical experience, she gave ten types of neurotic needs.

Let’s take the first need, for affection and approval, as an example. We all need affection, so what makes such a need neurotic? First, the need is unrealistic, unreasonable, indiscriminate. For example, we all need affection, but we don’t expect it from everyone we meet. We don’t expect great outpourings of affection from even our close friends and relations. We don’t expect our loved ones to show affection at all times, in all circumstances. And, we realize that there may be times in our lives where we have to be self-sufficient.

Second, the neurotic’s need is much more intense, and he or she will experience great anxiety if the need is not met, or if it even appears that it may not be met in the future. It is this, of course, that leads to the unrealistic nature of the need. Affection, to continue the example, has to be shown clearly at all times, in all circumstances.

The ten neurotic needs espoused by Horney are as follows:

(i) Neurotic need for affection and approval  
(ii) Neurotic need for a powerful partner  
(iii) Neurotic need to restrict one’s life within narrow boundaries  
(iv) Neurotic need for power  
(v) Neurotic need to exploit others  
(vi) Neurotic need for social recognition or prestige  
(vii) Neurotic need for personal admiration  
(viii) Neurotic need for ambition and personal achievement  
(ix) Neurotic need for self-sufficiency  
(x) Neurotic need for perfection and unassailability
6.4.2 The Idealized Self-Image

Horney looks at neurosis as self-image. Her theory asserts that self is the core of one’s being and potential and one’s experiences while relating to others forms the self-image. Cooley’s *looking glass self* (1902) helps explain the development of self. If people are healthy, they would have an accurate conception of who they are, and they would then be free to realize that potential (self-realization). According to Horney, we can have two views of our self: the “real self” and the “ideal self”. The real self is who and what we actually are. The ideal self is the type of person we feel that we should be. The real self has the potential for growth, happiness, will power, realization of gifts, etc., but it also has deficiencies. The ideal self is used as a model to assist the real self in developing its potential and achieving self-actualization. But it is important to know the differences between our ideal and real selves. The ideal self is what people strive to become while real-self is what actually people are. The minimum discrepancy between these two selves indicate healthy and well-functioning personality.

Check Your Progress

5. Where did Fromm explain his theory of productive and non productive type?
6. Mention the Freudian personality type which bears similarity to Fromm’s exploitative orientation type.
7. What is the neurotic triad as per Horney?

6.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The combination of lack of animal instincts and presence of rational thought makes humans the most unusual beings of the universe.
2. All factors operating following fertilization and till the birth of the child are known as antenatal factors.
3. The four stages of childhood are as follows:
   (i) Infancy: It starts from birth and continues till first birthday of the child
   (ii) Toddlerhood: It starts from 1 year and lasts till 2 years
   (iii) Early childhood: From 3 to 5 years
   (iv) Middle and late childhood: From 6 to 12 years
4. Murray’s theory of personality is often known as personology. Though he was inspired by Freudian model, yet he asserted that personality is rooted in the brain.
5. Fromm explained his theory of productive and non productive type in his book *Escape from Freedom*. 
6. Exploitative trait is similar to Freud’s oral aggressive type and can be seen in robber barons, fascist leaders, or domineering people in any setting.

7. Horney’s theory includes the notion of neurotic triad. It means that when people are in conflict they try to solve their conflicts in three ways. These ways of conflict resolution are as follows:
   - Moving toward people/Compliance: It refers to tendency to move toward others to relate oneself.
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   - Moving away from people/: It refers to neutral attitude toward moving toward others.

### 6.6 SUMMARY

- Modern human life has gone away from its very nature and its prehistoric union with it. Yet, current human beings are rational, logical, have foresight and imagination. The combination of lack of animal instincts and presence of rational thought makes humans the unusual beings of the universe. Self-awareness contributes to feelings of loneliness, isolation, and homelessness. To escape from these feelings, people strive to become re-united with nature and with their fellow human beings.

- Humans have two alternatives: to escape from freedom into interpersonal dependencies to move to self-realization through productive love and work.

- Human beings are caught between illusion and reality, as the mind dwells in the subjective world of ideas and concepts, but physically one exists in the world of objective reality that cannot be directly experienced or fully understood. This is further complicated by the use of reason and logic to guide the mind to truth. One can distinguish between apparent reality and ultimate reality, as well as between physical or human-independent reality and mental or human-constructed reality.

- Humans have acquired the facility to reason, called the human dilemma. Humans face fundamental dichotomies
  - The first is life and death
  - The second is that humans are capable of conceptualizing the goal of complete self-realization but are also aware that life is too short to reach that goal
  - The third is that people are ultimately alone, yet we cannot tolerate isolation. This is a paradox of human condition

- Frankl (1959) purports that people can discover meaning through creative, experiential, and attitudinal values.
The development of an individual starts just after fertilization. The fertilized egg comprises of sperm and ovum and genetic material lies in that.

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The development of child’s personality start developing proactively once it comes into this world. Growth and development interacts with experiential background, physical and emotional status and personal motivation besides other environmental factors which effects children’s personality and behaviour.

Murray (1938) gave need theory of personality. He defines needs as “Deficiency arises in an individual” like low blood sugar etc. He argues that needs give motivation and direction to human behaviour. A need involves a physicochemical force in the brain that organizes and directs intellectual and perceptual abilities. Needs may arise either from internal processes such as hunger or thirst, or from events in the environment. Needs arouse a level of tension; the organism tries to reduce this tension by acting to satisfy the needs. Based on his research, he formulated 20 psychological needs in human beings. Not every person has all of these needs.

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Fromm’s theory posits that character traits underlie all behaviour and are strong determinant by which a person relates or orient himself or herself to the world. His model assert that personality is a blend of some or few traits. These traits are divided into
(i) Productive types and
(ii) Non-productive types

Karen Horney developed Feminine Psychology in 1967. Horney posits that early childhood experiences in socio-cultural context shapes one’s personality. People who do not have their needs for love and affection satisfied during childhood develop basic hostility toward their parents and, as a consequence, suffer from basic anxiety. This basic anxiety is not pathological rather experienced by all. She developed the five principles of personality development.

Horney offered a different way of viewing neurosis. She saw it as much more continuous with normal life than previous theorists. Specifically, she saw neurosis as an attempt to make life bearable, as a way of “interpersonal control and coping.” The ten neurotic needs were espoused by Horney.
Horney looks at neurosis as self-image. Her theory asserts that *self* is the core of one’s being and potential and one’s experiences while relating to others forms the self-image. Cooley’s *looking glass self* (1902) helps explains the development of self. If people are healthy, they would have an accurate conception of who they are, and they would then be free to realize that potential (self-realization). According to Horney, we can have two views of our self: the “real self” and the “ideal self”.

### 6.7 KEY WORDS

- **Physical reality**: It is defined as extended in space, having physical properties such as mass, and existing independently of the observer. Mental reality has no extension in space and exists only in the minds of individuals, with its existence depending on the observer.

- **Productive type**: It is a personality type defined by Fromm. People with productive type character orientation are those who are capable of using their capacities to the fullest and realize their fullest potential.

- **Ideal self**: As per Horney, it is the type of person we feel that we should be. It is used as a model to assist the real self in developing its potential and achieving self-actualization.

### 6.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

#### Short Answer Questions

1. What are the assumptions on which human evolutionary behaviour is based?
2. Write a short note on Frankl’s creative, experimental and attitudinal values.
3. Briefly explain personality development in childhood.
4. What are the personality traits of market characters?
5. List the five principles of personality as per Horney.
6. What is idealized self-image as per Horney?
7. Mention Horney’s ten neurotic needs.

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Discuss the basic human dilemma in personality theory.
2. Describe Murray’s basic psychological needs.
3. Explain Fromm’s productive and non-productive character types.
6.9 FURTHER READINGS


UNIT 7  MAJOR THEORETICAL APPROACHES: HUMANISTIC THEORIES

Structure
7.0  Introduction
7.1  Objectives
7.2  Abraham Maslow: Personality Development, the Hierarchy of Needs and Study of Self-Actualizers
7.3  Carl Rogers: The Self and Actualization, Experimental World, Development of Self in Childhood and Fully Functioning Persons
7.4  Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
7.5  Summary
7.6  Key Words
7.7  Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
7.8  Further Readings

7.0  INTRODUCTION

Uptil now, you have learnt the basics of personality theories. The concentration was on psychoanalytical theories. In this unit, you will learn about a different school of personality theories which are termed as humanistic theories. The two prominent authors which will be discussed under these theories are Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. They have introduced and developed the concept of self-actualization in theories of personalities and theorized on human needs and experiences having a bearing on their personality.

7.1  OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss Maslow’s personality development
- Examine Carl Rogers’s theorization on the Self and Actualization, Experimental World, Development of Self in Childhood and Fully Functioning Persons
7.2 ABRAHAM MASLOW: PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT, THE HIERARCHY OF NEEDS AND STUDY OF SELF-ACTUALIZERS

A Maslow (1908–1970) was the originator of the theory of self-actualization. His approach to personality development was quite different from behaviourism and psychoanalysis. His theory was based on the hierarchy order of needs from physiological to self-actualization. The order of needs starts from basic survival or lower order needs to higher order needs or primary needs to secondary needs. The hierarchy of needs, according to him, is as follows:

1. **Physiological Needs:** These are concerned with the gratification of bodily needs.
2. **Safety Needs:** These relate to security and protection from dangers to life, against pain, etc.
3. **Love Needs:** These include affection, acceptance, belongingness, etc.
4. **Self-esteem Needs:** These are concerned with self-confidence, self-respect, feeling of strength and adequacy.
5. **Self-actualization Needs:** These comprise of self-fulfilment, self-expression, fulfilment of potentialities, use of capacities, etc.

The pyramid shown in Fig. 7.1 gives us five levels of needs in order of priority. It starts with physiological needs and ends with the need of self-actualization.

According to Maslow, all the higher needs appear only when the lower needs are satisfied. A self-actualized person is in a position to fulfil all types of needs. He gave the following characteristics of a self-actualized personality:

1. Acceptance of self, others and nature
2. Autonomy
3. Creativity
4. Democratic outlook
5. Detached outlook
6. Interpersonal good relations
7. Humanistic attitude
8. Humorous
9. Non-conformist
10. Perception of reality
11. Philosophic
12. Problem-centred

The foregoing concept of a self-actualized personality is an ideal picture of a personality. Such personalities are very rare. Of course, a person should strive
Major Theoretical Approaches: Humanistic Theories

7.3 CARL ROGERS: THE SELF AND ACTUALIZATION, EXPERIMENTAL WORLD, DEVELOPMENT OF SELF IN CHILDHOOD AND FULLY FUNCTIONING PERSONS

Carl Rogers developed a quite different approach to understand human personality. He presented in 1947 a theory known as self-theory of personality which is basically based on his client-centred therapy. He stresses the importance of the individual who determines his own fate. The core of our nature is essentially positive. All of us try to achieve self-actualisation, maturity, and socialisation. His theory has been greatly influenced by his early training as a student of divinity and his scientific attitude to life. Rogers criticised behaviouristic theory of personality as mechanical. He believed that behaviour is not based primarily on physiological needs, drives or avoidance behaviour but, instead, on a higher driving force within human beings which impels them toward complex personality patterns; that is, a person seeks a form of spiritual reward in a religious sense but in a self-fulfilling sense.

Structure of personality

There are two basic concepts underlying his personality theory: (a) Organism, and (b) the Self. The organism is the centre of all experiences that take place within the individual at a particular time. The totality of experiences is called the ‘Phenomenal field’. It develops a person’s unique outlook or frame of reference. This phenomenal field of the individual includes totality of experiences. The self as a part of the phenomenal field can perhaps best be thought of as the concept of I, me or myself. In addition to this concept of self called the real self, there is an ideal self which represents what we would like to be.

According to Rogers, each of us has a potential for self-actualization. Self-actualization for Rogers means a set of guiding principles, the potential of which is present in us from childhood like seeds but in need of water. The basic potential is present in the individual, but the individual must become aware of it. The experiencing individual reacts to his perceptual field as reality and as an organized whole as he seeks to actualize, maintain and enhance himself. Behaviour, according to him, is basically goal-directed effort of the organism to satisfy needs as experienced in the field.

Dynamics of personality

According to Rogers, the organism continually strives to develop and expand the self. Motivation is focused on striving to one’s goal of self-actualization. Here in
Major Theoretical Approaches: Humanistic Theories

NOTES

this aspect of self-actualization his theory resembles the theory of self-actualization by Maslow. In order to clarify the confusion between these two theories, let us differentiate them from each other. The first distinction is that Rogers feels that a person has the potential for self-actualization from the beginning of his life and is working toward it. Under Maslow’s system, self-actualization is possible only after more basic needs have been met by the individual. Second distinction is that in Rogers system a person is self-actualized if he feels satisfied in his environment by producing satisfactory results in his life and has high self-concept whereas in Maslow’s system self-actualization means reaching the apex of achievement in a selected area of life. Maslow is more concerned with goals that satisfy specific needs.

There are no specific stages in the development of personality according to Rogers. Human beings have an inherent tendency to develop their “self” in the process of interpersonal and social experiences which they have in the environment. The important fact of development is how the person sees himself and evaluates his worth at a particular time. He emphasized the importance of the present experiences. In order to achieve self-actualization, four conditions are necessary:

(i) The person must be respected and loved by others.
(ii) The person must respect and have faith in himself and his abilities to achieve his goal.
(iii) The choices available to the individual must be clearly perceived. If the person is unaware of the choices, self-growth is hindered.
(iv) The choices must be clearly symbolized. The person must not only be aware of alternatives but he must also have clear-cut descriptions and full understanding of choices.

Rogers does not propose a fixed set of stages in the development of personality like Freud. He, on the other hand, emphasizes the continuity of growth. The person continually strives to develop self. The person has a number of experiences. He incorporates these experiences into his frame of reference if they are appropriate to him. In doing so he forms a self, may be a self which is outgoing or private, friendly or unfriendly. Once the concept of self is formed then the individual allows into his consciousness external things that fit in his world and rejects those that do not. Rogers calls this process symbolization, meaning that we recognize certain things as appropriate to us and make them into symbols for ourselves.

Personality development is a reciprocal relationship between the ways a person views his experiences and his actual social and interpersonal experiences. Development of personality is a continuous growth which occurs because of inherent tendency toward self-growth on the one hand, and our personal, environmental and social experiences on the other. A self-structure is formed particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others and values develop.
from the self and experiences. Most of the ways of behaving which are adopted by the organism are those which are consistent with the incept of self. A developing and reasonably mature person must have values that are consistent with the behaviour and be aware of his feelings, attitudes and impulses.

There must be flexibility in the development of a person’s personality which will lead to greater creativity and productivity when he is confronted with a problem to solve. A normal person grows more flexible, creative and tolerant as he matures.

### Check Your Progress

1. Who was the originator of the theory of self-actualization?
2. What do safety needs relate to?
3. What does Rogers stress on in his self-theory of personality?
4. Who emphasized on the continuity of growth in the development of personality?

### 7.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. A Maslow (1908–1970) was the originator of the theory of self-actualization.
2. Safety needs relate to security and protection from dangers to life, against pain, etc.
3. Rogers, in his self-theory of personality stresses the importance of the individual who determines his own fate. The core of our nature is essentially positive.
4. Rogers does not propose a fixed set of stages in the development of personality like Freud. He, on the other hand, emphasizes the continuity of growth.

### 7.5 SUMMARY

- A Maslow (1908–1970) was the originator of the theory of self-actualization. His approach to personality development was quite different from behaviourism and psychoanalysis. His theory was based on the hierarchy order of needs from physiological to self-actualization. The order of needs starts from basic survival or lower order needs to higher order needs or primary needs to secondary needs.
- The hierarchy of needs, according to him, is as follows: Physiological Needs, Safety Needs, Love Needs, Self-esteem Needs, and Self-actualization Needs.
Major Theoretical Approaches: Humanistic Theories

According to Maslow, all the higher needs appear only when the lower needs are satisfied. A self-actualized person is in a position to fulfill all types of needs.

Carl Rogers developed a quite different approach to understand human personality. He presented in 1947 a theory known as self-theory of personality which is basically based on his client-centred therapy. He stresses the importance of the individual who determines his own fate. The core of our nature is essentially positive. All of us try to achieve self-actualisation, maturity, and socialisation.

Rogers criticised behaviouristic theory of personality as mechanical. He believed that behaviour is not based primarily on physiological needs, drives or avoidance behaviour but, instead, on a higher driving force within human beings which impels them toward complex personality patterns; that is, a person seeks a form of spiritual reward in a religious sense but in a self-fulfilling sense.

There are two basic concepts underlying his personality theory: (a) Organism, and (b) the Self. The organism is the centre of all experiences that take place within the individual at a particular time. The totality of experiences is called the ‘Phenomenal field’. It develops a person’s unique outlook or frame of reference. This phenomenal field of the individual includes totality of experiences. The self as a part of the phenomenal field can perhaps best be thought of as the concept of I, me or myself. In addition to this concept of self called the real self, there is an ideal self which represents what we would like to be.

According to Rogers, each of us has a potential for self-actualization. Self-actualization for Rogers means a set of guiding principles, the potential of which is present in us from childhood like seeds but in need of water. The basic potential is present in the individual, but the individual must become aware of it. The experiencing individual reacts to his perceptual field as reality and as an organized whole as he seeks to actualize, maintain and enhance himself. Behaviour, according to him, is basically goal-directed effort of the organism to satisfy needs as experienced in the field.

According to Rogers, the organism continually strives to develop and expand the self. Motivation is focussed on striving to one’s goal of self-actualization.

There are no specific stages in the development of personality according to Rogers. Human beings have an inherent tendency to develop their ‘self’ in the process of interpersonal and social experiences which they have in the environment.

Rogers does not propose a fixed set of stages in the development of personality like Freud. He, on the other hand, emphasizes the continuity of growth. The person continually strives to develop self. The person has a number of experiences.
7.6 **KEY WORDS**

- **Self-actualization needs**: It comprises of self-fulfilment, self-expression, fulfilment of potentialities, use of capacities, etc.
- **Phenomenal field**: It is the totality of experiences as per which the organism is the centre of all experiences that take place within the individual at a particular time.

7.7 **SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

**Short Answer Questions**

1. How are hierarchy of needs categorized and ranked as per Maslow?
2. How is the concept of self-actualization explained in *Bhagvad Gita*?
3. What was Rogers opinion of the behaviouristic theory of personality?
5. List the conditions necessary to achieve self-actualization as per Rogers.

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Explain and evaluate Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory.
2. Discuss Rogers’ theory on personality.

7.8 **FURTHER READINGS**


UNIT 8  MAJOR THEORETICAL APPROACHES: TRAIT THEORIES

8.0 INTRODUCTION

As you have learnt earlier, personality can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences their environment, cognitions, emotions, motivations, and behaviours in various situations. The word originates from the Latin persona, which means “mask”. The study of personality has a broad and varied history in psychology with an abundance of theoretical comments. The major theories of personality include dispositional (trait) perspective, psychodynamic, humanistic, biological, behaviourist, evolutionary, and social learning perspective. It is a scientific study which intent to show how people are individually different due to psychological forces. In this unit, we will examine Gordon Allport’s theory of personality in detail.

8.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Examine Allport’s theory on the development of personality
- Describe how Allport classifies human traits
G.W. Allport is one of the most outstanding trait psychologists. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists. He has conceived that traits have a real and vital existence. He defined a trait as, “a generalized and focalized neuropsychic system with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to imitate and guide consistent forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour.”

The definition given by Allport is a comprehensive one. It emphasizes that traits are not linked with a small number of stimuli but they are general and enduring in nature. Allport is also famous for his emphasis on functional autonomy and the concept of propium. Functional autonomy means that motives of an adult may have their roots in the tension-reducing motives of the child. The adult grows out of them and becomes independent of these earlier tension-reducing efforts. The propium includes the different aspects of the self (bodily self, self-identity, self-esteem) which the person seeks to organise into an integrated, unified whole. He classified all human traits into three broad categories as given below:

1. **Cardinal trait.** Traits which appear in most of the behaviour of the organism are called cardinal. It may be illustrated with the example of achievement in life. Some people are so devoted to achievement that this trait pervades the whole life.

2. **Central trait.** Central traits are less pervasive than cardinal traits but are quite generalized dispositions.

3. **Secondary dispositions.** Secondary dispositions are specific narrow traits. They are called attitudes.

**Development of Personality**

According to Allport, personality development is related to the concept of self or propium. It includes all the aspects of personality that make for internal unity. The propium develops through conditioning, reinforcement, habits and other aspects of learning. Allport outlines the following stages of the development of propium or self or personality:

1. **Bodily self (Birth to first year).** During infancy sensations provide the anchor. It is the feelings or awareness of body. It is confined to one’s own body.

2. **Self-identity.** After about 18 months the child is capable of recognising himself/herself as a distinct ‘person’ and not merely a ‘body’. He is aware of his likes and dislikes and his relationship with others in the immediate
surroundings. The continuity of experience is made possible through the development of language.

3. **Self-esteem (2–3 years)**. From second through third year of life emerges a sense of autonomy. The child is no more dependent on parents and experiences pleasure (pride) over his accomplishments and humiliation over his failure. He also develops negativism, *i.e.*, refusal to obey or receive orders from others. This results in the development of self-esteem.

4. **Self-extension (4–6 years)**. The child meets people and develops new interests and habits and develops self-image. He develops conscience. He learns to confirm to the expectations of others. The child develops good and naughty selves. He is sensitive to praise and blame.

5. **Self as rational copier (6–12 years)**. The individual develops reasoning power and uses problem-solving approach. Allport calls this rational copier.

6. **Propriate strivings (12 years–Adolescence)**. As the child reaches adolescence, he is able to distinguish between peripheral and propriate motives. Peripheral motives include impulses, drives and striving for immediate gratification of needs. Fulfilment of peripheral motives reduces tension. Propriate motives are our efforts to increase tension rather than to reduce it. The individual strives for important goals in life. The conversion of peripheral motives to propriate motives is called ‘Functional Autonomy’.

7. **Self as knower**. It includes all the previous aspects of the propium.

According to Allport, traits differ in intensity and magnitude in general population from individual to individual. No two individuals are alike in their behaviour. They operate in their unique way in the environment. Each individual is unique in his adjustment.

### 8.3 MOTIVATION AND THE FUNCTIONAL AUTONOMY OF MOTIVES

Allport was one of the first researchers to draw a distinction between Motive and Drive. He suggested that a drive forms as a reaction to a motive, which may outgrow the motive as the reason for a behaviour. The drive then becomes autonomous and distinct from the motive, whether the motive was instinct or something else. The idea that drives can become independent of the original motives for a given behaviour is known as ‘functional autonomy.’

Allport gives the example of a man who seeks to perfect his task or craft. His original motive may be a sense of inferiority engrained in his childhood, but his diligence in his work and the motive it acquires later on is a need to excel in his chosen profession, which becomes the man’s drive. Allport says that the theory:

‘... avoids the absurdity of regarding the energy of life now, in the present, as somehow consisting of early archaic forms (instincts,
Another example of functional autonomy is when the original motive of making money to buy goods becomes a drive, in which making money becomes an end in itself. Functional autonomy is thought to underlie obsessions and compulsions.

**Check Your Progress**

1. What is G.W. Allport known for?
2. How did Allport define trait?
3. According to Allport, how does drive form in an individual?

**8.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

1. G.W. Allport is known for being one of the most outstanding trait psychologists.
2. Allport defined a trait as, ‘a generalized and focalized neuropsychic system with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to imitate and guide consistent forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour.’
3. Allport suggested that a drive forms as a reaction to a motive, which may outgrow the motive as the reason for a behaviour. The drive then becomes autonomous and distinct from the motive, whether the motive was instinct or something else.

**8.5 SUMMARY**

- G.W. Allport is one of the most outstanding trait psychologists. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists.
- Allport emphasizes that traits are not linked with a small number of stimuli but they are general and enduring in nature.
- Functional autonomy means that motives of an adult may have their roots in the tension-reducing motives of the child. The adult grows out of them and becomes independent of these earlier tension-reducing efforts.
- The propium includes the different aspects of the self (bodily self, self-identity, self-esteem) which the person seeks to organise into an integrated, unified whole.
Allport classified all human traits into three broad categories as given below:

1. **Cardinal trait.** Traits which appear in most of the behaviour of the organism are called cardinal.

2. **Central trait.** Central traits are less pervasive than cardinal traits but are quite generalized dispositions.

3. **Secondary dispositions.** Secondary dispositions are specific narrow traits. They are called attitudes.

- According to Allport, personality development is related to the concept of self or propium. It includes all the aspects of personality that make for internal unity.
- The propium develops through conditioning, reinforcement, habits and other aspects of learning.
- Allport was one of the first researchers to draw a distinction between Motive and Drive. He suggested that a drive forms as a reaction to a motive, which may outgrow the motive as the reason for a behaviour.
- Another example of functional autonomy is when the original motive of making money to buy goods becomes a drive, in which making money becomes an end in itself. Functional autonomy is thought to underlie obsessions and compulsions.

### 8.6 KEY WORDS

- **Propium:** It means an attribute belonging inseparably to every member of a species.
- **Traits:** It refers to distinguishing qualities or characteristics, typically one belonging to a person.
- **Stimuli:** It is a thing or event that evokes a specific functional reaction in an organ or tissue.

### 8.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

**Short Answer Questions**

1. What do you understand by the concept of propium?
2. Differentiate between motive and drive.

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Describe how Allport classifies human traits.
2. Explain how personality develops according to Allport.
8.8 FURTHER READINGS


UNIT 9  PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT IN CHILDHOOD

9.0 INTRODUCTION

Personality refers to the organized, consistent and general pattern of behaviour of a person which help us to understand his or her behaviour as an individual. Carver and Scheier (2000) defined personality as ‘Personality is a dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create person characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts, and feelings’. This unit will discuss personality development in children.

The personality of a child depends upon several factors including family composition, home environment, socialization, childhood experiences, education, socio-economic status, parents’ occupations etc. Family influences on personality development are highly significant as parent child relationship, parenting, emotional climate of home; size and type of family determine the process of development during childhood years. (Hurlock, 1998; Wolman, 2000)

The personality pattern, the foundations of which were laid in childhood, begins to take form in early childhood. Since parents, siblings, and other relatives constitute the social world of young children. How they feel about them and how they treat them are important factors in shaping self-concepts- the core of personality pattern. As early childhood progresses, young children have more and more contacts with peer either in the neighbourhood or in preschool or child care.

9.0.0 Introduction
9.1 Objectives
9.2 The Basic Factors of Personality
  9.2.1 The Unique Self
9.3 The Healthy Adult Personality
  9.3.1 Raymond Cattel’s Approach to Personality Traits
9.4 The Influences of Heredity and Environment
9.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
9.6 Summary
9.7 Key Words
9.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
9.9 Further Readings
centres. The attitude of their peers and the way their peers treat them then begin to have an effect on their self-concepts, an effort which reinforce the effect of family members or may contradict and counteract some of the family influences.

9.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Discuss the various personality traits
- Examine Cattell’s approach to personality
- Discuss environmental and heredity factors that influence personality
- Explain the characteristics of a healthy adult personality

9.2 THE BASIC FACTORS OF PERSONALITY

The basic factors of personality can be described looking at the personality traits. Some of the personality traits are as follows:

- **Personal appearance**: While some people place too much emphasis on ‘looks’ and judge mental alertness from personal appearance. It cannot be denied that to some extent success and failure is determined by personal appearance which includes not only weight, height, complexion but also voice, dress, other characteristics of personal nature. There is misconception that the person has good physique is considered as possessing good personality. Good physique is one of the components of healthy personality.

- **Intelligence**: It is the ability to solve problems and meet new situations. It is mental alertness, the ability to learn.

- **Emotionality**: The emotional stability and maturity is required for healthy personality.

- **Sociability**: The young child is inclined to be extremely selfish and self-centred. But gradually he learns to share his things and experiences with the others.

- **Ascendance submission**: This trait indicates forcefulness of approach among individuals. Generally, many of us try to dominate and lead who are inferior and subordinate to us in social position and submit to those who are superior to us.

- **Moral character**: It refers to social approval as to whether we have a balanced personality pursuing well defined goals that benefits to individual society.
9.2.1 The Unique Self

Some developmentalists (see Brown, 1998; Meltzoff, 1990) believe that even new-born infants have the capacity to distinguish the self from the surrounding environment. An interesting piece of evidence for this view is the finding that new-born’s become distressed at hearing a recording of another baby’s cries but not on hearing a recording of their own cries, implying that a differentiation of self and others is possible at birth (Dondi, Simion, & Caltran, 1999).

Cooley’s (1902) theory of the looking glass self analogizes this process to that of checking one’s appearance in a mirror; i.e., a person sees him or herself in a mirror, begins to imagine how he or she appears to others, anticipates their judgment, which evokes an emotional response. Digital cameras allow producers to easily create a mediated form of self while social media platforms afford an easy means of sharing and gathering others’ judgment via replies, comments, likes and shares.

What is considered desirable in the way of a self-concept may vary dramatically across cultures. Western societies such as the United States, Canada, Australia, and the industrialized countries of Europe might be termed individualistic societies: they value competition and individual initiative and tend to emphasize ways in which people differ from each other. Many Asian cultures (e.g., India, Japan, and China) could be considered collectivist (or communal) societies: people are more cooperative and interdependent rather than competitive and independent. Their identities are closely tied to the groups to which they belong (e.g., families, religious organizations, and communities), rather than to their own accomplishments and personal characteristics (Triandis, 1995).

Self in the Upanishads

In the Upanishads, the term ‘Brahman’ is used to denote the Absolute and the term ‘Atman’ to denote the individual self. The term ‘Atman’, however, used to mean both the Absolute and the individual self, because the essence or real self of the individual is non-different from the essence of the world i.e. Brahman.

The self has been the main topic of discussion in the Upanishads. In the Katha Upanishad we find the nature of self in the following ways:

The soul is distinct from and independent of the organs, sensory and motor, the mind, the vital force. It is immaterial and unborn; it is indestructible and as such outlives the body. It has normally three states- waking, dream and deep sleep. goes after death different worlds, high and low according to its past karma and may return to this world. (Singh, N.K. 2005).
Conditions shaping the self-concept in Early Childhood

Since the environment of young children is limited to the home and the family therefore many condition within the family are responsible for shaping the self-concept during early childhood years. A few of them are as follows:

- The child-training method used in the home is important in shaping the young child’s developing self-concepts. The type significantly contribute in shaping the self-concept of the child.
- The aspirations parents have for their children play an important role in their developing self-concept.
- The ordinal position of the children in the family has an effect on their developing personalities. The birth order determine the self-concept of the child. Allport was of the view that oldest child appears to be more responsible and shares the responsibilities of the family whereas the younger sibling try to follow the older child. The younger child tries to achieve in the domain where elder one could not do.
- Young children are aware of minority-group identification, those who have such an awareness are influenced unfavourably if their peer neglect or reject them. The child learns based on religion, caste, colour how they should behave in the larger community and what is expected from them.
- Gender identification and the gender based role play significant role in developing self-concept among the children. The children come to know from the family members what type of dress for the girl and the boys and what are their roles.
- Environmental insecurity whether due to death, divorce, separation or social mobility affects young children’s self-concepts. If the child loses his or her parents or any of the parent he develop different self-concept as compare to the child who has been looked after by both the parents. Even if the child separated from the parents at early stage of life their emotional development suffered.

9.3 THE HEALTHY ADULT PERSONALITY

We change from a biologically dominated organism during infancy to a mature psychological organism in adulthood. In adulthood, we are no longer dominated by childhood drives. Allport described six criteria for the normal, mature, emotionally healthy, adult personality. These are as follows:

1. The mature adult extends his or her sense of self to people and to activities beyond the self.
2. The mature adult relates warmly to other people, exhibiting intimacy, compassion, and tolerance.
3. The mature adult’s self-acceptance helps him or her achieve emotional security.

4. The mature adult holds a realistic perception of life, develops personal skills, and makes a commitment to some type of work.

5. The mature adult has a sense of humour and self-objectification (an understanding of or insight into the self).

6. The mature adult subscribes to a unifying philosophy of life, which is responsible for directing the personality toward future goals.

By meeting these six criteria, adults can be described as emotionally healthy and functionally autonomous, independent of childhood motives. As a result, they cope with the present and plan for the future without being victimized by the experiences of their early years.

**Nature of Healthy Personality**

Several distinguished thinkers have shared their knowledge about the nature of healthy personality. Though, these theorists differ on the major motivating forces in life, all agree on the characteristics of healthy persons. These are as follows.

- rationally direct their behaviour and oversee their destinies,
- have self-awareness,
- are anchored in the present, and
- increase, rather than reduce tension through seeking new challenges, goals and experiences.

9.3.1 Raymond Cattel’s Approach to Personality Traits

Raymond B. Cattel is another ardent propounder of trait theory of personality. The basic structural elements for him for him is the trait. He defined trait as the structure of personality inferred from behaviour in different situations. He classified trait into four categories:

1. **Common Traits**: There are certain traits which are found widely distributed in general population or among all groups. These are called common traits. Honesty, aggression and cooperation are can be called common traits.

2. **Unique Traits**: These traits are possessed by particular persons as temperamental traits, emotional reactions, and energy etc.

3. **Surface Traits**: Traits can be easily recognized by over manifestation of behaviour are called as surface traits as curiosity, integrity, honesty, tactfulness and dependability.

4. **Source Traits**: Source traits are underlying structure or sources that determine the behaviour of individual. They are inferred from behaviour. Dominance and emotionality are source traits.
Cattell through factor analytic approach, determines the contribution of heredity and learning factors in the development of traits in the individual. He emphasized the importance of interaction and heredity and environment influences in personality development.

Cattell identified sixteen source traits as the basic factors of personality (Cattell, 1965). These factors are best known in the form in which they are most often used, in an objective personality test called the Sixteen Personality Factor (16 PF) Questionnaire.

Table 9.1 Cattell's Source Traits (factors) of Personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptors of low range factor</th>
<th>Primary factor</th>
<th>Descriptors of high range factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impersonal, distant, cool, reserved, detached, aloof</td>
<td>Warmth (A)</td>
<td>Warm, outgoing, attentive to others, kindly, easy-going, participating, likes people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concrete-thinking, lower general mental capacity, less intelligent, unable to handle abstract problems</td>
<td>Reasoning (B)</td>
<td>Abstract-thinking, more intelligent, bright, higher general mental capacity, fast learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive emotionally, changeable, affected by feelings, emotionally less stable, easily upset</td>
<td>Emotional Stability (C)</td>
<td>Emotionally stable, adaptive, mature, faces reality calmly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differential, cooperative, avoids conflict, submissive, humble, obedient, easily led, docile, accommodating</td>
<td>Dominance (E)</td>
<td>Dominant, forceful, assertive, aggressive, competitive, stubborn, bossy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introverted, restrained, prudent, taciturn, introspective, silent</td>
<td>Liveliness (F)</td>
<td>Lively, animated, spontaneous, enthusiastic, happy-go-lucky, cheerful, expressive, impulsive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expedient, nonconforming, disregards rules, self-indulgent</td>
<td>Rule-Consciousness (G)</td>
<td>Rule-conscious, dutiful, conscientious, conforming, moralistic, staid, rule bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shy, threat-sensitive, timid, hesitant, introverted</td>
<td>Social Boldness (H)</td>
<td>Socially bold, venturesome, thick skinned, uninhibited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilitarian, objective, unemotional, rough-minded, self-reliant, non-nonsense, rough</td>
<td>Sensitivity (I)</td>
<td>Sensitive, aesthetic, sentimental, tender minded, intuitive, refined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactful, unassuming, accepting, unconditioned, easy</td>
<td>Vigilance (L)</td>
<td>Vigilant, suspicious, skeptical, distrustful, oppositional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grounded, practical, prosaic, solution oriented, steady, conventional</td>
<td>Abstractedness (M)</td>
<td>Abstract, imaginative, absent-minded, impractical, absorbed in ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forklift, genuine, artless, open, guileless, naive, unpretentious, involved</td>
<td>Privacy (N)</td>
<td>Private, discreet, non-disclosing, shrewd, polished, worldly, astute, diplomatic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Assured, unworried, composed, secure, free of guilt, confident, self-satisfied</td>
<td>Apprehension (O)</td>
<td>Apprehensive, self-doubting, worried, guilt prone, insecure, worrying, self-blaming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional, attached to familiar, conservative, respecting traditional ideas</td>
<td>Openness to Change (Q1)</td>
<td>Open to change, experimental, liberal, analytical, critical, free thinking, flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-oriented, affiliative, a joiner and follower dependent</td>
<td>Self-Reliance (Q2)</td>
<td>Self-reliant, solitary, resourceful, individualistic, self-sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant disorders, unaggressive, flexible, undisciplined, lax, self-conflict, impulsive, careless of social rules, unconstrained</td>
<td>Perfectionism (Q3)</td>
<td>Perfectionistic, organized, compulsive, self-disciplined, socially precise, exacting will, power, control, self-sentimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxed, placid, tranquil, tolerant, patient, composed, low drive</td>
<td>Tension (Q4)</td>
<td>Tense, high energy, impatient, driven, frustated, overwrought, time driven</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Primary Factors and Descriptors in Cattell's 16 Personality Factor Model (Adapted from Conn & Reke, 1994).
Dynamic Traits: The Motivating Forces

These are traits concerned with motivation. Cattell believed that a personality theory that failed to consider the impact of dynamic, or motivating, forces is incomplete.

Criticism of Trait Theory

Trait theory of personality has been criticized by psychologists in recent years. The main points of criticism are as follows:

- There is no agreement among psychologists as regards the use of the terms.
- There is a view that the trait is the behavioral disposition which is consistent and does not vary from situation to situation. In daily observations, we find that if a man has friendliness as a trait, he does not behave in a friendly manner in all situations of life. Trait is not the permanent or static characteristic of the individual because personality is undergoing perpetual changes.

9.4 THE INFLUENCES OF HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

Let us now discuss hereditary influences on personality.

Heredity

The personality pattern is inwardly determined by and closely associated with the maturation of physical and mental characteristics which constitute the individual’s hereditary environment. Although social and other environmental factors affect the form a personality pattern takes, it is not instilled or controlled from without, but evolves from the potentials within the individual. The principal raw materials of personality—physique, intelligence and temperament—are the results of heredity. How a person will develop depends on the environmental influences within which a person grows. The significance of hereditary foundations in determining the personality pattern has been stressed by many researchers. It is generally held that personality is formed from the interaction of significant figures (first the mother, later the father and siblings, later extra-familial figures) with the child. The child brings to this interaction biological constitution, a set of needs and intellectual capacities which determine the way in which a person is acted upon by the significant figures in her environment.
The evidence for genetic influence on personality derived almost exclusively from studies of twins that utilized very modest sample sizes and measured different variables. Heritability was estimated as twice the difference between the correlation for identical or monozygotic (MZ) twins and that for fraternal or dizygotic (DZ) twins. The typical conclusion was that about 50% of the observed variance in personality is due to genetic factors. The influence on personality of the shared home environment (estimated as twice the DZ correlation minus the MZ value) was concluded to be small or even negligible. These simple equations make a number of assumptions, including (i) on average DZ twins share half as many as genes in common in descent as MZ twins (ii) the genes add additively, and (iii) MZ and DZ twins experience the same shared environmental influences. If the assumptions are correct, the difference between the two type of twins reflects one half of the genetic influence on the trait being studied.

Environment

It has long been recognized that the psychological influence of environment on the behaviour and development of the child is extremely important. Actually, all aspects of the child’s behaviour, that is, instinctive and voluntary behaviour, play, emotion, speech, expression, are codetermined by the existing environment. Environmental influences begin since the time of the conception of the child in the mother’s womb. There are various environmental factors which influence the development. Some of these are classified as follows:

1. **Physical factors:** Physical and geographical conditions influences a child’s behaviour, responses, and attitudes. For examples, a person born in Chennai would be more tolerant to hot, humid environment, as compared to someone born in Himachal Pradesh.

2. **Family:** Family plays an important role in a child’s development since the first interaction a child has, is with his/her family. The behaviours that a child observes, the values she or he is taught are all through his initial interactions.

3. **School and teachers:** The school environment, and the teachers also play a very important role in the grooming of a child. The teachers are the first role models for a child, and through the way a teacher conducts herself, or interacts with the child affects the knowledge they acquire, and the people they become. There are various other environmental factors, in addition to these, like the book a child reads, or what he/she watches on TV, the sport they play, affects their development.
Cultural

Each society has its own ethical and other values, accepted and unaccepted ways of behaving. Ideas of prestige, status, achievement, and even normative models of hero and heroine which are particular to itself, are transmitted to child first through family and later through contacts with other people on his social milieu. Society is not a concrete entity like parents, but its invisible influence perform basically the same functions for the adult which the parents perform for their children.

Conclusion: In a nutshell, personality is the sum of individual’ experiences. Family influences on personality development are highly significant as parent child relationship, parenting, emotional climate of home; size and type of family determine the process of development during childhood year. Some developmentalists believe that even new-born infants have the capacity to distinguish the self from the surrounding environment. A trait is structure of personality inferred from behaviour in different situations. The significance of hereditary and environment in determining the personality pattern has been widely studied by many researchers.

Check Your Progress

1. What term is used to denote the individual self?
2. What are source traits?
3. How does family play a role in the child’s development?

9.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. In the Upanishads, the term ‘Brahman’ is used to denote the Absolute and the term ‘Atman’ to denote the individual self.
2. Source traits are underlying structure or sources that determine the behaviour of individual. They are inferred from behaviour. Dominance and emotionality are source traits.
3. Family plays an important role in a child’s development since the first interaction a child has, is with his/her family. The behaviours that a child observes, the values she or he is taught are all through his initial interactions.
9.6 SUMMARY

- While some people place too much emphasis on 'looks' and judge mental alertness from personal appearance. It cannot be denied that to some extent success and failure is determined by personal appearance which includes not only weight, height, complexion but also voice, dress, other characteristics of personal nature.
- Some developmentalists (see Brown, 1998; Meltzoff, 1990) believe that even new-born infants have the capacity to distinguish the self from the surrounding environment.
- What is considered desirable in the way of a self-concept may vary dramatically across cultures. Western societies such as the United States, Canada, Australia, and the industrialized countries of Europe might be termed individualistic societies: they value competition and individual initiative and tend to emphasize ways in which people differ from each other. Many Asian cultures (e.g., India, Japan, and China) could be considered collectivist (or communal) societies: people are more cooperative and interdependent rather than competitive and independent.
- In the Upanishads, the term 'Brahman' is used to denote the Absolute and the term 'Atman' to denote the individual self.
- Since the environment of young children is limited to the home and the family therefore many condition within the family are responsible for shaping the self-concept during early childhood years.
- We change from a biologically dominated organism during infancy to a mature psychological organism in adulthood. In adulthood, we are no longer dominated by childhood drives.
- Raymond B. Cattell is another ardent propounder of trait theory of personality. The basic structural elements for him for him is the trait. He defined trait as the structure of personality inferred from behaviour in different situations.
- Cattell through factor analytic approach, determines the contribution of heredity and learning factors in the development of traits in the individual. He emphasized the importance of interaction and heredity and environment influences in personality development.
- The personality pattern is inwardly determined by and closely associated with the maturation of physical and mental characteristics which constitute the individual’s heredity environment.
The evidence for genetic influence on personality derived almost exclusively from studies of twins that utilized very modest sample sizes and measured different variables.

It has long been recognized that the psychological influence of environment on the behaviour and development of the child is extremely important. All aspects of the child’s behaviour, that is, instinctive and voluntary behaviour, play, emotion, speech, expression, are codetermined by the existing environment.

Personality is the sum of individual experiences. Family influences on personality development are highly significant as parent child relationship, parenting, emotional climate of home; size and type of family determine the process of development during childhood year.

### 9.7 KEY WORDS

- **Heredity**: It is the passing on of physical or mental characteristics genetically from one generation to another.
- **Intelligence**: It is the ability to acquire and apply knowledge and skills.
- **Self-Awareness**: It is the capacity for introspection and the ability to recognize oneself as an individual separate from the environment and other individuals.

### 9.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

**Short Answer Questions**

1. Discuss some of the personality traits.
2. Write a short note on the development of the unique self.
3. What are the conditions that shape the self in early childhood?

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Examine the heredity and environmental factors affecting personality.
2. Explain Raymond Cattel’s approach to personality traits.
3. Describe Allport’s criteria for a normal healthy, adult personality.
9.9 FURTHER READINGS


UNIT 10 STAGES OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Structure
10.0 Introduction
10.1 Objectives
10.2 Trait Model of Personality
10.3 Hans Eysenck’s *Dimensions of Personality*
10.4 Robert McCrae and Paul Costa: The Five Factor Model of Personality
10.5 Arnold Buss and Robert Plomin Model: The Temperament Theory
10.6 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
10.7 Summary
10.8 Key Words
10.9 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
10.10 Further Readings

10.0 INTRODUCTION

Human behaviour is dynamic and is a function of the gamut of factors attributed to one’s internal and external factors. Internal factors include one’s constitutional attributes like genetic loading, physiological components etc. People’s childhood experiences determine their cognitive, affective, conative and physiological aspects. Behaviour is one of the components of personality. Situation is also one of the important determining factor of behaviour. It is observed in our day to observations that same situations can lead to different behaviours of people. It highlights the facts that situation also determine the behaviour overpowering the role of different components of personality. In this unit, we will discuss the various stages of personality development.

10.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss Eysenck’s theory on personality
- Examine McCrae and Costa’s five factor model of personality
- Explain Buss and Plomin’s temperament theory

10.2 TRAIT MODEL OF PERSONALITY

Different people have explained the dynamic development of people based on different models. The following section will focus on the trait models of personality development which is being espoused by different theoreticians. Before
understanding these trait models, it is important to understand the concept and nature of traits.

Humans caught on to the idea of traits in classical times, and that the scientific approach has simply cleaned up their number, provided reliable measures, and validated them. Theophrastus (371–287 BCE) enumerated various typical human ‘characters’ that the translator also reckoned could be called traits. Our language has many thousands of words used to describe people’s typical ways of behaving. We talk and write, at least, as if there were traits, and as if these traits were a part of our constitution and influenced our behaviours. Whether or not it was conditioned reflexes or habits that formed the underlying units of traits, traits were ‘noncontingent higher units’, a trait is functionally independent of its origins’. Thus, emerged the famous phrase that ‘A trait is known not by its cause, but by what it causes; not by its roots but by its fruits’. Traits are aspects of personality that are relatively stable over time, differ across individuals. Allport says that trait is ‘what constitutes the essential unit of personality’. Carr and Kingsbury (1938) defines trait as ‘a conceptual attribute or definition of the reactive nature of the individual. The nature of the individual is defined on the basis of certain observable behaviour characteristics.’

Allport (1931) gave the following properties of traits:

(i) A trait has more than nominal existence.
(ii) A trait is more than a generalized habit.
(iii) A trait is dynamic, or at least determinative.
(iv) The existence of a trait may be established empirically or at least statistically.
(v) Traits are only relatively independent of each other.
(vi) A trait of personality, psychologically considered, is not the same as a moral quality.
(vii) Acts, and even habits, that are inconsistent with a trait are not proof of the nonexistence of the trait.
(viii) A trait may be viewed either in the light of the personality which contains it, or in the light of its distribution in the population at large.
(ix) Traits are scalable. It means they can be measured and scaled quantitatively.
(x) Traits are inferred from behaviour.
(xi) Traits are flexible,

Unlike traits, habits and reflexes are narrower concepts. They, however, form the underlying units of traits. Allport (1927) asserts that traits are ‘functionally autonomous’. It means that a trait is functionally independent of its origin. It means that drive can become independent of the original motives for a given behaviour. For example, if a fisherman uses a net for catching and selling fishes, and later on,
becomes habitual of this and starts enjoys doing that activity. Now, the fishing
behaviour is the same but the motive differs.

A trait is known not by its cause, but by what it causes, not by its roots but
by its fruits.

10.3 HANS EYSENCK’S DIMENSIONS OF
PERSONALITY

Hans Eysenck was a British psychologist and did extensive work in the area of
His theory is a blending of trait and type models of personality. He conducted
extensive research on trait dimensions by applying quantitative techniques of factor
analysis. His theory is strongly biological based. His theory is based on the basic
assumption that brain processes can be characterized by means of a simplified
‘conceptual nervous system’ which comprises of key circuits relevant to personality
and behaviour. The two components of his conceptual nervous system are reticulo-
cortical and reticulo-limbic circuits. The reticulo-cortical circuit controls the cortical
arousal generated by incoming stimuli, whereas the reticulo-limbic circuit controls
response to emotional stimuli.

Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism

Eysenck conducted research on ten thousand of soldiers in 1964 and factor
analyzed two dimensions of personality a) Introversion-extroversion and b)
Neuroticism. These traits were measured by Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI).
In its later form, the third dimension of psychoticism was added to his dimensional
model of personality (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1976). He argued that this dimension
is independent of introversion-extroversion and neuroticism. Eysenck found three
fundamental dimensions of personality:

a) Introversion verses extroversion
b) Neuroticism verses stability and
c) Psychoticism

Eysenck (1967) posits that extraversion also known as positive affectivity is
marked by pronounced engagement with the external world and characterized by
high sociability, talkativeness, energy, assertiveness, and impulsivity. Introversion trait
is associated with being calm, temperamentally sluggish, quiet, introspective, reserved
and reflective. People high on introversion can be easily classically conditioned.

Introversion-extraversion behavioural differences is explained on the basis
of reticular-activating system. This system of the brain is associated with arousal
level. The variability in cortical arousal determines extraversion and introversion.
Introverts have lower response thresholds and are consequently more cortically
aroused than extraverts. It means that they have high level of arousal in the brain.
So, they do not require any external stimulation. Extraverts have higher response
thresholds and are consequently less cortically aroused than introverts. So, they require external stimulation leading to being more sociable and gregariousness.

Eysenck asserts that neuroticism, also known as negative affectivity, is marked by emotional instability and low tolerance for stress or aversive stimuli, and characterized by anxiety, fear, moodiness, worry, envy, frustration, jealousy, and loneliness. The term neurosis was coined by William Cullen and is not often used in modern clinical psychology. Neuroses and neuroticism do not have the same meaning. Neuroses was often a diagnostic category in earlier days after Freud's extensive work on this aspect. Eysenck (1975) gave the following description of a person with neuroticism:

an anxious, worrying individual, moody and frequently depressed. He is likely to sleep badly, and to suffer from various psychosomatic disorders. He is overly emotional, reacting too strongly to all sorts of stimuli, and finds it difficult to get back on an even keel after each emotionally arousing experience. His strong emotional reactions interfere with his proper adjustment, making him react in irrational, sometimes rigid ways. If the highly neurotic individual has to be described in one word, one might say he was a worrier; his main characteristic is a constant preoccupation with things that might go wrong, and a strong emotional reaction to these thoughts.

Eysenck and Gudjonsson (1989) describe the neurotic person as anxious, depressed, tense, irrational, shy, moody, emotional, suffering from guilt feelings, and having low self-esteem. Neuroticism refers to the tendency to experience more of negative emotions. Neuroticism is associated with enhanced cognitive processing of emotional cues. High scores on neuroticism predispose these people to react strongly to emotionally arousing experiences and take longer to return to pre-arousal state. This personality trait with high arousal and on the heels always has therapeutic implications. Progressive muscle relaxation is often implicated with such individuals.

The stable individual, on the other hand, tends to respond emotionally only slowly and generally weakly, and to return to baseline quickly after emotional arousal; he is usually calm, even-tempered, controlled and unworried.

Individuals with higher psychoticism scores are more likely to engage in irresponsible or miscalculated behaviour. They may also contravene accepted social norms and be motivated by a need for immediate gratification, regardless of its consequences. High levels of traits such as psychoticism reduce a person’s responsiveness to conditioning, meaning that they do not adopt the social norms that one may learn through reward and punishment. As a result, the theory suggests that individuals may be more prone to criminal behaviour as they seek to fulfill their own interests whilst violating the rules of behaviour accepted by others.

The association of personality traits such as psychoticism with criminal tendencies, along with Eysenck’s emphasis of genetics affecting such traits, has led some to criticize his theory for adopting a deterministic view of behavior.

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) is often used to examine these three personality dimensions among the population.
Eysenck’s model of Neurosis: Incubation theory

Eysenck (1968) developed a conditioning model of neuroses through his experimental work. His work challenged the traditional extinction model of classical conditioning. His experiments showed that when conditioned stimulus is presented without unconditioned stimulus specifically to account for the fact that phobic reactions are often observed to increase in intensity with non reinforced presentations of the conditioned stimulus. This phenomenon is known as incubation, and while it is a common clinical phenomenon, it is clearly inconsistent with the conditioning principle of extinction which predicts a reduction in the intensity of the conditioned response with successive non reinforced presentations of the conditioned stimulus generating an increasingly stronger conditioned response over a series of conditioned stimulus-only presentations. Eventually, because of this process, the conditioned response can become even stronger and more intense than the original unconditioned conditioned response.

10.4 ROBERT MCCRAE AND PAUL COSTA: THE FIVE FACTOR MODEL OF PERSONALITY

Allport, Cattell and Eysenck have been the pioneers in the trait model of personality. Of late, McCrae and Costa (1992) posit that five factors that lie at the core of the personality. The Big Five emerge consistently across a number of domains. For example, factor analyses of major personality inventories, self-report measures made by observers of others’ personality traits, and checklists of self-descriptions yield similar factors. In addition, the Big Five emerge consistently in different populations of individuals, including children, college students, older adults, and speakers of different languages. Cross-cultural research conducted in areas ranging from Europe to the Middle East to Africa also has been supportive. Finally, studies of brain functioning show that Big Five personality traits are related to the way the brain processes information.

These are known by the acronym OCEAN in which each alphabet denotes each trait.

1. Openness to experience
2. Conscientiousness
3. Extroversion
4. Agreeableness
5. Neuroticism

The following section describes the characteristics of each trait.

1. Openness to experience

Openness to experience has been described as the depth and complexity of an individual’s mental life and experiences. It is concerned with people’s willingness to try new things, their ability to be vulnerable, and their capability to think outside the box. This trait is associated with being independent, imaginative, and preference for variety. An individual who is high in openness to experience is likely
someone who has a love of learning, enjoys the arts, engages in a creative career or hobby, and likes meeting new people. An individual who is low in openness to experience prefers routine over variety, sticks to what he or she knows, and prefers less abstract arts and entertainment. Openness to experience is the tendency of the individual to be imaginative, sensitive, original in thinking, attentive to inner feelings, appreciative of art, intellectually curious, and sensitive to beauty. Such individuals are willing to entertain new ideas and unconventional values.

2. Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is a trait that can be described as the tendency to control impulses and act in socially acceptable ways, behaviours that facilitate goal-directed behaviour. Conscientious people excel in their ability to delay gratification, work within the rules, and plan and organize effectively. This trait is associated with being disciplined, careful and organized. Conscientiousness individuals are purposeful and determined. They have the tendency to act dutifully, show self-discipline, and aim for achievement against a measure or outside expectation. Conscientiousness describes socially prescribed impulse control that facilitates task- and goal-directed behaviour, such as thinking before acting, delaying gratification, following norms and rules, and planning, organizing, and prioritizing tasks.

People high in conscientiousness are likely to be successful in school and in their careers, to excel in leadership positions, and to doggedly pursue their goals with determination and forethought.

People low in conscientiousness are much more likely to procrastinate and to be flaky, impetuous, and impulsive.

3. Extroversion

It concerns where an individual draws their energy from and how they interact with others. In general, extroverts draw energy from or recharge by interacting with others, while introverts get tired from interacting with others and replenish their energy with solitude. Extroversion is associated with being talkative, friendly and sociable. It is indicated by positive feelings and tendency to seek company of others. It represents the tendency to be sociable, assertive, active, upbeat, cheerful, optimistic, and talkative. Such individuals like people, prefer groups, enjoy excitement and stimulation, and experience positive effect such as energy, zeal, and excitement.

People high in extroversion tend to seek out opportunities for social interaction, where they are often the ‘life of the party.’ They are comfortable with others, are gregarious, and are prone to action rather than contemplation.

People low in extroversion are more likely to be people “of few words who are quiet, introspective, reserved, and thoughtful.

4. Agreeableness

This factor is associated with how well people get along with others. While extroversion concerns sources of energy and the pursuit of interactions with others,
agreeableness concerns one’s orientation to others. It is a construct that rests on how an individual generally interacts with others. This is associated with sympathetic, kind and appreciative. It is the tendency to be trusting, compliant, caring, considerate, generous, and gentle. Such individuals have an optimistic view of human nature. They are sympathetic to others and have a desire to help others; in return they expect others to be helpful. In essence, agreeable individuals are prosocial and have communal orientation toward others.

People high in agreeableness tend to be well-liked, respected, and sensitive to the needs of others. They likely have few enemies and are affectionate to their friends and loved ones, as well as sympathetic to the plights of strangers.

People on the low end of the agreeableness spectrum are less likely to be trusted and liked by others. They tend to be callous, blunt, rude, ill-tempered, antagonistic, and sarcastic. Although not all people who are low in agreeableness are cruel or abrasive, they are not likely to leave others with a warm fuzzy feeling.

5. Neuroticism

Like in Eysenck’s model, neuroticism denotes tendency to experience negative emotions like anxiety and sadness. Those high in neuroticism are generally prone to anxiety, sadness, worry, and low self-esteem. They may be temperamental or easily angered, and they tend to be self-conscious and unsure of themselves. Neuroticism measures the continuum between emotional adjustment or stability and emotional maladjustment or neuroticism (Costa and McCrae, 1992). People who have the tendency to experience fear, nervousness, sadness, tension, anger, and guilt are at high end of neuroticism. Individuals scoring at the low end of neuroticism are emotionally stable and even-tempered.

Individuals who score on the low end of neuroticism are more likely to feel confident, sure of themselves, and adventurous. They may also be brave and unencumbered by worry or self-doubt.

Check Your Progress

1. What does Allport mean when he states that traits are functionally autonomous?
2. What are the three fundamental dimensions of personality according to Eysenck?
3. What is conscientiousness?

10.5 ARNOLD BUSS AND ROBERT PLOMIN

MODEL: THE TEMPERAMENT THEORY

Temperaments reflect biologically based individual differences in how children interact with, and adapt to, their environments across development, leading to
marked interpersonal variations in both normative behaviour and psychopathological profiles. The core defining feature of temperament is biological based tendency to respond to stimulus. It primarily focuses of observable characteristics focusing more on negative emotions. Temperament is often considered as the base of adult personality. Temperament is a biologically-rooted, early-appearing dispositions that shape long-term patterns of socio-emotional development of an individual. It has been agreed upon by most researchers and clinicians in psychology that the notion of temperament is talked of till the age of 18 years and subsequently, it changes into personality.

Thomas and Chess (1977) gave a classic model of temperament. They gave nine behavioural dimensions of it. These are as follows

1. **Activity level**: It refers to amount of movement and body movement.
2. **Biological regularity**: It refers to regularity of biological functions e.g, sleep-wake cycle, hunger, bowel elimination.
3. **Adaptability**: It refers to how quickly or slowly the person adapts to a change in routine or overcomes an initial negative response.
4. **Approach/Withdrawal**: It means how the person initially reacts to a new persons or an unfamiliar situation.
5. **Sensitivity threshold**: It means how sensitive the person is to potentially irritating stimuli eg sound, temperature, crowd etc.
6. **Intensity of emotional response**: It refers to how strongly a person reacts to positive and negative situations. The energy level of mood expression, whether positive or negative.
7. **Distractibility**: It refers to how easily the person is distracted by unexpected stimulus.
8. **Quality of mood**: It refers to the amount of pleasant and cheerful behaviour (positive mood) as contrasted with fussy, sad and unpleasant behaviour (negative emotions).
9. **Persistence/attention span**: It refers to how long the person will keep at a difficult activity without giving up.

The other researchers in the area of temperament have been Kagan (1984), Goldsmith and Campos (1982), Rothbart and Derryberry (1981) and Cloninger Svrakic, and Przybeck (1993).

Buss and Plomin’s (1984) model of temperament is a theoretical based approach which posits that temperamental traits are heritable. They used twin studies to formulate this model. These are observable in early life, and show a degree of stability and continuity with age. They are also found in non-humans as well. They chose to focus on broad traits in order to capture behaviours that occur in most situations and on traits that are most meaningful or important to an individual like traits that are relatively stable and can still be seen in later life.
Their model asserts that like personality constructs, temperamental traits are also organized hierarchically. In their model, temperament comprises of three traits namely emotionality, activity and sociability. This is often known as the EAS model. The following are the core features of this model:

a) These are inherited
b) They are evolutionally adaptive
c) Present in phylogenetically related species and
d) These emerge in early childhood and are relatively stable in adulthood.

Emotionality is described as distress, or the tendency to become upset easily and intensely. It is manifested as general distress in infants and differentiates into fear and anger in later childhood. This is associated with neuroticism. Sociability is the tendency to prefer the presence of others to being alone. While activity is comprised of what is often known as tempo and vigour, and can be conceptualized in terms of the frequency of activities, the time spent on activities, the intensity of activities (e.g., jumping and bouncing), and choosing high energy activities over low energy activities.

In addition to these three temperaments, Buss and Plomin include the dimension of shyness, characterized as feelings of tension and distress and the tendency to escape from social situations. They emphasize that shyness is closely related to both sociability and emotionality and is not a temperament in its own right. They also added impulsivity in their model which was later dropped. These traits can be measured by EAS Temperament survey (Buss & Plomin, 1984).

Animal studies have shown that temperamental differences are also found in new-borns of animals. This is often noticed in differential reactions in new born animals to stimulus. New-borns respond differently to same stimulus. For example, when new-born kittens are approached, few of them come close while few of them go and hide themselves.

Temperament and Psychopathology

A temperament trait may act as a risk or resilience factor that predisposes individuals to psychopathology or protects them from disorders, in part by influencing the child’s experiences with the external environment and their exposure to additional risk or protective factors. The developmental psychopathology perspective stresses that temperament is an etiological factor that should be studied in interactive systems, in order to reflect the complex, transactional nature of developmental processes, in which adjustment outcomes are the result of successive adaptations that build upon one another. This includes both temperament-by-temperament interactions and temperament-by- environment interactions in predicting outcome. Sociability and extraversion are associated with well-being and happiness.

Traits and Psychopathology

Neuroticism and sociotropy are associated with depression. Sociotropy refers to the tendency to invest excessively in interpersonal relationships. People with high
sociotropy tend to have a strong need for social acceptance, which causes them to be overly nurturant towards people who they do not have close relationships with. Sociotropy are concerned with interpersonal relationships.

### Check Your Progress

1. Allport asserts that traits are ‘functionally autonomous’. It means that a trait is functionally independent of its origin. It means that drive can become independent of the original motives for a given behaviour.

2. Eysenck found three fundamental dimensions of personality:
   - Introversion verses extroversion
   - Neuroticism verses stability and
   - Psychoticism

3. Conscientiousness is a trait that can be described as the tendency to control impulses and act in socially acceptable ways, behaviours that facilitate goal-directed behaviour.

4. The core defining feature of temperament is biological based tendency to respond to stimulus.

5. Sociotropy refers to tendency to invest excessively in interpersonal relationships.

### 10.7 SUMMARY

- Different people have explained the dynamic development of people based on different models.
- Carr and Kingsbury (1938) defines trait as ‘a conceptual attribute or definition of the reactive nature of the individual. The nature of the individual is defined on the basis of certain observable behaviour characteristics.’
- Unlike traits, habits and reflexes are narrower concepts. They, however, form the underlying units of traits.
- Allport asserts that traits are ‘functionally autonomous’. It means that a trait is functionally independent of its origin.
Hans Eysenck was a British psychologist and did extensive work in the area of personality. He wrote a classic book titled *Dimensions of Personality* in 1981.

Eysenck conducted research on ten thousand of soldiers in 1964 and factor analyzed two dimensions of personality a) Introversion-extroversion and b) Neuroticism. These traits were measured by Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI).

In its later form, the third dimension of psychoticism was added to his dimensional model of personality.

Eysenck asserts that neuroticism, also known as negative affectivity, is marked by emotional instability and low tolerance for stress or aversive stimuli, and characterized by anxiety, fear, moodiness, worry, envy, frustration, jealousy, and loneliness.

Individuals with higher psychoticism scores are more likely to engage in irresponsible or miscalculated behaviour.

Eysenck (1968) developed a conditioning model of neuroses through his experimental work. His work challenged the traditional extinction model of classical conditioning.

McCrae and Costa (1992) posit that five factors that lie at the core of the personality. The Big Five emerge consistently across a number of domains.

These are known by the acronym OCEAN in which each alphabet denotes each trait.

1. Openness to experience
2. Conscientiousness
3. Extroversion
4. Agreeableness
5. Neuroticism

Temperaments reflect biologically based individual differences in how children interact with, and adapt to, their environments across development, leading to marked interpersonal variations in both normative behaviour and psychopathological profiles.

Buss and Plomin’s model of temperament is a theoretical based approach which posits that temperamental traits are heritable. They used twin studies to formulate this model.

A temperament trait may act as a risk or resilience factor that predisposes individuals to psychopathology or protects them from disorders, in part by influencing the child’s experiences with the external environment and their exposure to additional risk or protective factors.

Sociotropy refers to tendency to invest excessively in interpersonal relationships. People with high sociotropy tend to have a strong need for social acceptance, which causes them to be overly nurturant towards people who they do not have close relationships with.
10.8 KEY WORDS

- **Extroversion**: It is defined as the quality of being outgoing and directing attention to things other than yourself.
- **Introverts**: It refers to shy, reticent people.
- **Neuroticism**: It is a broad personality trait dimension representing the degree to which a person experiences the world as distressing, threatening, and unsafe.
- **Temperament**: It means a person’s or animal’s nature, especially as it permanently affects their behaviour.

10.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

**Short Answer Questions**

1. What is openness to experience?
2. Discuss the trait model of personality.
3. Write a short-note on the incubation theory.

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Explain Eysenck’s model of personality.
2. Describe the five factors that lie at the core of the personality according to McCrae and Costa.
3. Examine the EAS model of personality.

10.10 FURTHER READINGS

UNIT 11 MAJOR THEORETICAL APPROACHES: COGNITIVE APPROACHES

Structure
11.0 Introduction
11.1 Objectives
11.2 Personal Construct Theory
11.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
11.4 Summary
11.5 Key Words
11.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
11.7 Further Readings

11.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about Eysenck’s theory of personality, McCrae and Costa’s five factor model and the temperament theory. In this unit, the discussion turn towards personal construct theory by the American psychologist George Kelly. The personal construct theory is a major cognitive approach to the theory of personality. Cognitive theories of personality stress on cognitive processes such as thinking and judging. In the 1950s, in his formulation of the personal construct theory, George Kelly emphasized the way a person’s concepts for thinking about the world shape his or her personality and behaviour. Kelly’s theory went on to influence the theory of social learning by Albert Bandura, which we will study about in the next unit.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Discuss the personal construct theory in detail
- Describe the nature of personality according to George Kelly

11.2 PERSONAL CONSTRUCT THEORY

The American psychologist George Kelly is considered the father of cognitive clinical psychology. In the 1950s, he developed the personal construct theory as a reaction to psychoanalytic and phenomenological theories of personality. Kelly’s basic assumption was that most of man’s behaviour is influenced by thinking, judging
and anticipating rather than instincts, drives, growth or other such motivating forces. He viewed the individuals’ way of interpreting an event, situation or the world as the primary influence on behaviour. According to him, a person anticipates events by constructing their replications. A person experiences events and interprets them. He places a structure and a meaning to the events. His system is highly rationale in perspective. It is based on his firm conviction that each man is capable of being a scientist, of constructing his own theory and consequently he believed that each man is able, to a great extent, to control and predict his own life.

**Nature of Personality**

The structure or nature of personality, according to Kelly, is simple. It involves only one type of element, ‘The Personal Construct’. A personal construct is a way of constructing or interpreting the world, based on his evaluations of himself, his evaluation of things that influence his life and his feelings of what the future will bring as a result of these evaluations. The development of personal construct depends on the relationship of the person with significant persons in his life.

Interpretation of the world and himself are dependent on the reflections of his relationship with those persons who are close to him. These interpretations also help determine his own present and future behaviour.

Thus, it seems that the first step in forming a construct is the individual’s interpretation of his experiences and next step is ordering these interpretations into attitudes that are so highly structured as to be personal theories about the world. According to Kelly, all men construct their personal theories. Since an individual is continually faced with solving problems and since constructs are not all of equal importance in solving these problems, Kelly found it useful to talk about constructs that are basic to a person’s functioning.

**Core constructs and peripheral constructs:** Core constructs are basic to a person’s functioning whereas peripheral constructs can be altered without serious modification of the core structure. An example of a core construct formed by the individual is attitude toward a political party or social position. In this case the individual is apt to be influenced by the significant persons in his life or by significant aspect of his world such as his socio-economic background. In contrast, peripheral constructs are illustrated by a person’s food preference.

**Dynamics and development of personality:** By explicitly denying the necessity of motivational concept of instinct, drive or need, Kelly took a unique stand in personality theory. He felt that the concept of motivation implied that man was an inert machine requiring an internal force to move him. To avoid the complexities of motivation, he simply assumed that man has the energy necessary to be the active organism that he is. As Kelly described it, ‘the organism is delivered fresh into psychological world alive and struggling.’
Thus, in one grand gesture, Kelly swept away an issue that had bogged down personality theory for a long time. He felt so since we can solve the question of motivation. He did this simply by stating that motivation is a given, that living organisms are by definition motivated.

Kelly described:

Motivation theories can be divided into push and pull theories. Under push we find drives, motives or stimulus. Pull theories use purpose, value or need. In terms of a well-known metaphor, these are the pitch fork theories on the one hand and Carrot theories on the other hand. But our is neither of these.

Ways of Anticipating Life Events

Since Kelly did not feel the need for motivation to explain the person’s activity so he was of the opinion that a person’s processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates the events. We seek prediction, we anticipate events, we reach out to the future through the window of the present. In experiencing events, the individual observes similarities and differences, thereby developing constructs. Kelly, like Rogers, had no explicit description of how the personality develops. Rather he seemed to make the implicit assumptions that since personal constructs appear to be a function of experience, development is the gradual elaboration based on the person’s experiences, of one’s personal constructs. In turn, if constructs are based on experience, then the more varied and rich the individual’s experiences, the more complex and elaborate his system of constructs. The major contribution of Kelly is his emphasis on rationality in the development of personality. He developed a fixed role therapy in which the client is urged to behave in new ways, to think of himself in new ways and thus becomes a new personality.

Kelly believed in a non-invasive approach to psychotherapy. Rather than having the therapist interpret an individual’s psyche, which would mean imposing the doctor’s constructs on the patient, the therapist should just act as a helper of the patient finding his or her own constructs. The patient’s behaviour is then primarily explained as ways to selectively perceive the world, act upon it and update the construct system in such a way as to increase predictability. To help the patient find his or her constructs, Kelly developed the repertory grid interview technique.

Check Your Progress

1. Who is the father of cognitive clinical psychology?
2. In relation to psychotherapy, what type of approach did Kelly believe in?
### Major Theoretical Approaches: Cognitive Approaches

#### NOTES

1. The American psychologist George Kelly is considered the father of cognitive clinical psychology.
2. Kelly believed in a non-invasive approach to psychotherapy. Rather than having the therapist interpret an individual’s psyche, which would mean imposing the doctor’s constructs on the patient, the therapist should just act as a helper of the patient finding his or her own constructs.

### 11.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The American psychologist George Kelly is considered the father of cognitive clinical psychology.
2. Kelly believed in a non-invasive approach to psychotherapy. Rather than having the therapist interpret an individual’s psyche, which would mean imposing the doctor’s constructs on the patient, the therapist should just act as a helper of the patient finding his or her own constructs.

### 11.4 SUMMARY

- The American psychologist George Kelly is considered the father of cognitive clinical psychology.
- In the 1950s, he developed the personal construct theory as a reaction to psychoanalytic and phenomenological theories of personality.
- Kelly’s basic assumption was that most of man’s behaviour is influenced by thinking, judging and anticipating rather than instincts, drives, growth or other such motivating forces.
- The structure or nature of personality, according to Kelly, is simple. It involves only one type of element, ‘The Personal Construct’.
- A personal construct is a way of constructing or interpreting the world, based on his evaluations of himself, his evaluation of things that influence his life and his feelings of what the future will bring as a result of these evaluations.
- The development of personal construct depends on the relationship of the person with significant persons in his life.
- The first step in forming a construct is the individual’s interpretation of his experiences and next step is ordering these interpretations into attitudes that are so highly structured as to be personal theories about the world.
- Core constructs are basic to a person’s functioning whereas peripheral constructs can be altered without serious modification of the core structure. In contrast, peripheral constructs are illustrated by a person’s food preference.
Since Kelly did not feel the need for motivation to explain the person’s activity so he was of the opinion that a person’s processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates the events.

- The major contribution of Kelly is his emphasis on rationality in the development of personality.
- Kelly believed in a non-invasive approach to psychotherapy. Rather than having the therapist interpret an individual’s psyche, which would mean imposing the doctor’s constructs on the patient, the therapist should just act as a helper of the patient finding his or her own constructs.

11.5 KEY WORDS

- **Psychotherapy**: It is the use of psychological methods, particularly when based on regular personal interaction, to help a person change behaviour and overcome problems in desired ways.
- **Rationality**: It is the quality or state of being rational – that is, being based on or agreeable to reason.
- **Cognitive**: It means processes related to thinking.

11.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

**Short Answer Questions**

1. What is Kelly’s basic assumption in his personality construct theory?
2. What is a personal construct?

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Describe the personal construct theory in detail.
2. How does George Kelly describe the nature or structure of personality? Discuss.

11.7 FURTHER READINGS

Major Theoretical Approaches:
Cognitive Approaches

NOTES


12.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about Kelly’s personal construct theory. Kelly’s theory helped inspire the social learning theory by Albert Bandura, which will be taken up in this unit. Most of the behaviour of individuals is learned. The learning depends upon the environmental factors. Many of the behaviour patterns are learned by direct experience. The reinforcement plays a major part in such type of learning. According to the social learning theory, the situation is the most important determinant of behaviour. Social learning approach to personality is basically interested in knowing a specific behaviour pattern and then identifying the conditions that effect that pattern. Another area of interest is to discover whether there is any change in behaviour because of the change in the stimulus condition.

Thus, social learning theory emphasizes the environmental variables which influence behaviour, so by changing the situations the behaviour can be modified. Thus the emphasis is on situation specific behaviour. This theory finally asserts that people’s behaviour remain fairly consistent if the situations and the role they are likely to play remains stable.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Discuss the basic principles of social learning
- Examine the process of observational learning
- Explain the terms ‘self-efficacy’ and ‘self-reinforcement’
12.2 ALBERT BANDURA’S MODEL

Albert Bandura and his student Richard Walters developed an observational learning theory (Social Learning Theory) of personality which is quite different from the S-R learning theory of Neal Dollard and John Miller. Their theory, no doubt, like other theories is based on the premise that behaviour is learned and personality can be explained in terms of the cumulative effects of a series of learning experiences. The principles of learning are sufficient to explain development of personality. But their approach differs from other learning theorists, particularly from Dollard and Miller’s, on the following points:

1. Dollard and Miller’s theory of personality is based on neo-Hullian approach which has been rejected by Bandura and Walters who emphasize the role of observational learning (cognition) in the development of personality in contrast to strict S-R connections.

2. Dollard and Miller borrowed basic concepts from Freudian and neo-Freudian theories and tried to explain them in terms of S-R connections. They tried to develop a rapprochement between learning theory and psychoanalytic theory of personality. On the other hand, Bandura and Walters are anti-Freudian and rejected psychoanalytic theory as an incomplete explanation of behaviour.

3. Dollard and Miller conducted experiments on animals under controlled conditions in laboratory and developed basic principles of learning. They extrapolated them to human life situations. Their applicability to human behaviour is doubted. Bandura and Walters, in contrast to other theorists, conducted experiments on children and their extrapolation from laboratory to real life is less artificial.

4. Other learning theorists did not take into account the role of observational learning (models) in the development of personality, whereas Bandura and Walters stress the major role of observational learning in the development of personality. They provide a more balanced synthesis of cognitive psychology with the principles of behaviour modification. According to Bandura et al., man’s cognitive symbolic functioning is more important in acquiring new behaviours.

Basic Principles of Social Learning

According to Bandura and Walters, the most fundamental and significant principle of social learning is the principle of reinforcement. Most of our behaviour in social situations is acquired through the principle of reinforcement. The scope of responses acquired through reinforcement is unlimited. We will describe how aggressive behaviour can be acquired through reinforcement by children. An experiment to this effect was conducted by Cowan and Walters (1963). The experiment was conducted on small children who were given ‘Bobo’ clown with a sign saying ‘Hit me’ painted on the clown. It was observed by the experimenters that the rate of
responding (hitting) were increased as a result of reinforcement. This experiment further established the fact that partial reinforcement leads to greater resistance to extinction than continuous reinforcement.

Bandura and Walters emphasize the importance of reinforcement in situations where a person observes the actions of another person (model) who is reinforced or punished for these actions. They introduced an important type of reinforcement that is known as vicarious reinforcement which refers to the modification of an observer’s behaviour by reinforcement administered to a model which is being observed. An illustration from the experimental studies conducted by Bandura and Walters will make the concept of vicarious reinforcement more clear. Nursery school children were exposed to films of adults or live adults behaving aggressively to a large plastic doll. They found that children who were exposed to aggressive models tended to behave toward the doll in the same way and exhibited a large number of precisely matching responses. Such responses rarely occurred for children who were not exposed to models behaving aggressively. This experiment indicates that children acquire novel responses through vicarious reinforcement by observing the behaviour of the model. This process of learning through imitation is influenced by the nature of the reinforcement given to the model. If we minutely analyse the behaviour of children, adolescents and even adults, we find that most of the behaviour is imitated to match the behaviour of the model. Models may be categorized into two broad categories:

(a) Real life models. Under this category we can include parents, teachers, friends, movie stars, sports stars, most successful persons in the society or in the immediate environment.

(b) Symbolic models. They include verbal material, pictorial and representation (film and TV) written materials, books, magazines and works of art. Both types of models are equally effective in learning.

It is a common experience that what children view and listen on TV and in films they try to imitate in their real life. Hairstyle, dress, delinquency and conversational styles have been imitated by our adolescents in recent years from films and TV.

Self-Reinforcement

Bandura and Walters use another term ‘self-reinforcement’ which operates in observational learning. In many situations the individual sets a standard for self-reinforcement. Children and adolescents tend to adopt standards of self-reinforcement which matches the standards of the models to which they have been exposed.

Positive reinforcement and reward play an important role in social learning. They strengthen our responses and develop a tendency to repeat the same responses in future. Bandura studied a number of factors which operate in social learning (observational learning). A few of the variables are given below:

A. Stimulus properties of the model

1. The model’s age, sex, social and economic status relative to that of the subject are varied. High status models are more imitated.
2. The model’s similarity to the subject. The more similarity is between the model and the subject, the more imitation occurs.

B. Type of behaviour exemplified by the model

1. Novel skills,
2. Hostile or aggressive responses, and

C. Consequences of model’s behaviour

Rewarded behaviours of the model are more likely to be imitated.

1. Motivational set given to the subject: Instructions given to the subject before he observes the model provide him with high or low motivation to pay attention to and learn the model’s behaviour.
2. Motivating instructions may be given after the subject views the model and before he is tested. This aids in distinguishing learning from performance of imitative responses.

The Basics of Observational Learning

Bandura and his associates extensively studied observational learning and made an analysis of the whole process of learning. They emphasized four interrelated sub-processes in observational learning as listed below:

1. Attentional processes: Attention to the model is the first process in observational learning. The subject must attend the model in order to learn from the model. Attention is influenced by a number of variables including the past functional value of attention to the model.
2. Retention processes: The subject, in order to integrate the behaviour of the model, must retain the learning.
3. Motoric reproduction of skills: A child or adult may know ‘cognitively’ and roughly what is to be done but nonetheless be relatively unskilled at the performance itself. A considerable motor practice with feedback of results is needed to shape the motor skills. It is known that with some motor skills such as basketball, shooting, driving and dart throwing, covert cognitive rehearsal or imaginary practice can often produce significant improvement in actual performance.
4. The role of reinforcement: Bandura treats the anticipation of reinforcement as a motivational factor determining expression of cognition and behaviours learned earlier.

The Processes of Observational Learning

The principles of observational learning have been applied by Bandura and Walters in the development of personality. From the very beginning of his life, the child learns a number of activities through observation of other’s behaviour. The male
child imitates the behaviour of his father and the female child tries to imitate the behaviour of her mother. The model which the child observes in his environment plays two important roles in social learning. The first is that the model’s behaviour may serve to elicit some responses in the observer that are already in his repertoire. This occurs when the behaviour is socially acceptable. Secondly, when the model is performing socially prescribed and deviant behaviour. It has been observed that children may identify with a person whom they dislike, if his behaviour is successful.

Bandura and Walters studied acquisition of different types of behaviour in children and adolescents. They advanced a new explanation of aggressive behaviour in children and adolescents. According to Miller, aggression is indirectly expressed or displaced outside the home but Bandura, in contrast to this view, points out that aggressive boys who are punished in home but are rewarded outside the home learn aggression. The tendency to be aggressive outside the home is an instance of acquisition of a discrimination based on the reinforcement history of these boys. They reject the theory of Miller on the ground that displacement may or may not occur and if it occurs the precise target for expression of tendency is chosen as a result of a specific reinforcement history in which responses directed towards that target have been directly or vicariously reinforced.

Observational learning plays an important role in personality development. We can learn acquisition of a variety of new responses like aggression, sex and dependency, etc. from a model. The strengthening or weakening of inhibitory responses such as acquiring greater or less fear by observing model’s behaviour. Bandura in an experiment demonstrated that observational technique could lessen snake phobia. Observation also stimulates already existing responses in the repertoire of the individual.

As regards the stages in development of personality they do not postulate continuities and discontinuities in the development of personality like Freudian and other theorists. They emphasize that there are marked differences between individuals in their reinforcement history. Summarizing the main concept in their theory, we can say that they have emphasized the role of observational learning through which an individual attempts to imitate the behaviour of the model whose behaviour he has observed. They have given more importance to imitation in learning and have specified the conditions under which a child will reproduce the behaviour of a model. They reported that children tended to imitate the behaviour of an adult who controlled and dispensed reinforcements rather than an adult model who competed for reinforcement. Social learning theory by Bandura and Walters appears to be quite satisfactory theory of personality development but it has been criticized on two important points: one is that the theory is an antitrait and antigenetic approach to personality. It lays emphasis on the particular learning history of the individual which leads an individual to behave in a particular way in a particular situation. This approach emphasizes the importance of each particular situation in eliciting a particular behaviour pattern for a particular situation. It makes no allowance for genotypical influences on the development of personality. Genotypical influences are those influences which exist prior to and apart from the social learning process. The theory minimizes or ignores
any intra-organismic determinant of behaviour which cannot be derived from a knowledge of individual’s social learning history. Genotypical influences play an important role in the development of personality which have been ignored by Bandura and associates. The second criticism has been levelled by Epstein and Frenz (1967) who conducted experiments on the reactions of sport parachutists to the approach-avoidance conflict engendered by a forthcoming jump. Several evidences indicate that novice parachutists are very fearful as they approach the jump situation which is against the principles of social learning theory developed by Bandura and Walters. The social learning theory needs certain modifications in the light of recent investigations conducted by psychologists.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is the optimistic self-belief in our competence or chances of successfully accomplishing a task and producing a favourable outcome. According to Albert Bandura, there are four sources of efficacy beliefs. These are:

1. Mastery Experiences
   The first and foremost source of self-efficacy is through mastery experiences. However, nothing is more powerful than having a direct experience of mastery to increase self-efficacy. Having a success, for example in mastering a task or controlling an environment, will build self-belief in that area whereas a failure will undermine that efficacy belief.

2. Vicarious Experiences
   The second source of self-efficacy comes from our observation of people around us, especially people we consider as role models. Seeing people similar to ourselves succeed by their sustained effort raises our beliefs that we too possess the capabilities to master the activities needed for success in that area.

3. Verbal Persuasion self-efficacy
   Influential people in our lives such as parents, teachers, managers or coaches can strengthen our beliefs that we have what it takes to succeed. Being persuaded that we possess the capabilities to master certain activities means that we are more likely to put in the effort and sustain it when problems arise.

4. Emotional and Physiological States
   The state one is in will influence how one judges our own self-efficacy.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the most significant principle of social learning?
2. What is the first process in observational learning?
3. What is self-efficacy?
12.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
QUESTIONS

1. According to Bandura and Walters, the most fundamental and significant principle of social learning is the principle of reinforcement.
2. Attention to the model is the first process in observational learning. The subject must attend the model in order to learn from the model. Attention is influenced by a number of variables including the past functional value of attention to the model.
3. Self-efficacy is the optimistic self-belief in our competence or chances of successfully accomplishing a task and producing a favourable outcome.

12.4 SUMMARY

- Albert Bandura and his student Richard Walters developed an observational learning theory (Social Learning Theory) of personality which is quite different from the S-R learning theory of Neal Dollard and John Miller.
- According to Bandura and Walters, the most fundamental and significant principle of social learning is the principle of reinforcement.
- Bandura and Walters emphasize the importance of reinforcement in situations where a person observes the actions of another person (model) who is reinforced or punished for these actions.
- Bandura and Walters use another term 'self-reinforcement' which operates in observational learning. In many situations the individual sets a standard for self-reinforcement.
- Bandura and his associates extensively studied observational learning and made an analysis of the whole process of learning. They emphasized four interrelated sub-processes in observational learning as listed below:
  1. Attentional processes
  2. Retention processes
  3. Motoric reproduction of skills
  4. The role of reinforcement
- The principles of observational learning have been applied by Bandura and Walters in the development of personality.
- Observational learning plays an important role in personality development. We can learn acquisition of a variety of new responses like aggression, sex and dependency, etc. from a model.
- Self-efficacy is the optimistic self-belief in our competence or chances of successfully accomplishing a task and producing a favourable outcome.
- Influential people in our lives such as parents, teachers, managers or coaches can strengthen our beliefs that we have what it takes to succeed.
12.5 KEY WORDS

- **Attention**: It is the behavioural and cognitive process of selectively concentrating on a discrete aspect of information, whether deemed subjective or objective, while ignoring other perceivable information.
- **Self-Efficacy**: It is an individual’s belief in their innate ability to achieve goals.
- **Social Learning**: It is the process in which individuals observe the behaviour of others and its consequences, and modify their own behaviour accordingly.

12.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

**Short Answer Questions**

1. What is self-reinforcement?
2. What are the four interrelated sub-processes in observational learning?
3. Write a short-note on the principles of social learning.

**Long Answer Questions**

1. Differentiate between social learning theory and Dollard and Miller’s SR learning theory.
2. What is self-efficacy? Discuss the sources of self-efficacy according to Bandura.
3. Examine the process of observational learning.

12.7 FURTHER READINGS


UNIT 13 BEHAVIOUR THEORIES

Structure
13.0 Introduction
13.1 Objectives
13.2 B.F. Skinner’s the Basis of Behaviour: Operant Conditioning
  13.2.1 Application of Operant Conditioning
13.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
13.4 Summary
13.5 Key Words
13.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
13.7 Further Readings

13.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about Bandura’s theory of social learning. In this unit, the discussion will turn towards operant conditioning.

The history of operant conditioning begins with Professor B.F. Skinner (1904–1990) of Harvard University. When he was a graduate in the department of Psychology of Harvard University, he wrote his dissertation in 1931 entitled The Concept of the Reflex in the Description of Behaviour. He made historical survey of previous studies and an operational analysis of the concept of the reflex. He emphasized that the basic datum for the student of behaviour is simply an observed correlation between stimulus-response (S-R) connection. Reflex was adopted by him as the basic unit for analysing behaviour of the organism. He held that it is necessary to study something simpler, i.e., the relationship of a part of behaviour (a response) to a part or modification of the part of environment (stimulus).

13.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Examine B.F. Skinner’s theory of operant conditioning
- Explain the shaping of behaviour and the schedule of reinforcement
- Describe some of the applications of operant conditioning
- Discuss the methods of self-control of behaviour
B.F. SKINNER’S THE BASIS OF BEHAVIOUR: OPERANT CONDITIONING

Prof. B.F. Skinner started his research work on behaviour while he was a graduate in the Department of Psychology at Harvard University. In 1931, he wrote his thesis entitled, *The Concept of the Reflex in the Description of the Behaviour*. Thereafter, in the middle of forties, Skinner conducted a good deal of research at the Minnesota and Indiana Universities, on the theory of operant conditioning. Skinner was a practical psychologist who conducted several experiments on rats and pigeons. He popularized ‘teaching machines’ in learning in 1954. His important publications are: *The Behaviour of Organism* (1938); *Science and Human Behaviour* (1953); *Verbal Behaviour* (1957); *Cumulative Record* (1959); *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (1971) and *About Behaviourism* (1974).

**Meaning of Operant Conditioning:** Skinner called his theory as operant conditioning, as it is based on certain ‘operations or actions’ which an organism has to carry out. The term ‘operant’ stresses that behaviour is carried out in the environment to generate its own consequences. An operant is a set of acts which conditions an organism in doing something. In the process of operant conditioning, operant responses are modified or changed by reinforcement. Reinforcement is a special kind or aspect of conditioning within which the tendency for a stimulus to evoke a response on subsequent occasions is increased by reduction of a need.

Most SR theorists have assumed the existence of a stimulus as a prerequisite for evoking a response. In the absence of any external stimulus, they have assumed some internal stimuli for evoking the response. Skinner was against this ‘no stimulus — no response’ theory and believed that most of the responses could not be attributed to the known stimuli. He defined two kinds of responses — the one elicited by the known stimuli, which he called as respondent or reflexive behaviour, and the other emitted by the unknown stimuli, which he called as operant behaviour.

Respondent behaviour is learnt according to Pavlovian model of conditioning. Since it is concerned with the stimuli, it is known as S-type conditioning. Skinner attached greater importance to operant behaviour which is primarily concerned with response rather than stimuli, it is known as R-type conditioning. Out of many responses which an organism is capable of giving, the problem with the experimenter is to evoke only the appropriate responses and fix them properly. Thus Skinner changed the usual SR formula into an RS formula.

**Operations Involved in Operant Conditioning**

Several operations are involved in the process of operant conditioning. Some of the important operations briefly described are as follows:

- Shaping (generalization, chaining and habit competition)
- Extinction.
1. Shaping and Successive Approximation

Shaping is the most important mechanism used in operant conditioning. It refers to the judicious use of selective reinforcement to bring certain desirable changes in the behaviour of the organism. The basic process in shaping is successive approximation to the desired behaviour. The experimenter shapes or moulds the behaviour of the organism just as clay is moulded by a potter in a definite form of a pot.

**Principles involved in shaping:** There are three important psychological principles which are involved in the process of successful shaping of behaviour. They are as follows:

(a) Generalization,
(b) Habit competition,
(c) Each segment in the chain must be linked to the other.

2. Extinction

It is permitting a behaviour to die out by not reinforcing it. This is known as external approach to motivation.

3. Spontaneous Recovery

Extinction of a response may take place due to non-reinforcement or interference by incompatible responses but there can be a spontaneous recovery of the responses.

4. Reinforcement

A reinforcer is the stimulus whose presentation or removal increases the probability of a response. Skinner thought of two kinds of reinforcements—positive and negative. A positive reinforcement is any stimulus the presentation of which strengthens the probability of a response. A negative reinforcement is any stimulus the withdrawal of which weakens the probability of response. Any electric shock, a loud voice are negative reinforcements while food, water, etc., are positive reinforcements.

Skinner did not attribute motivation to internal processes within a living being. He stressed that the reinforcement of conditions was a common way for motivation. He pointed out that just as food was reinforcement to a parrot or pigeon, correct knowledge was to a learner in school. According to him, reward strengthens the behaviour which preceded it but punishment does not permanently reduce a tendency to respond. Extinction—permitting a behaviour to die out by not reinforcing it—and not punishment, according to him, was the appropriate
process for breaking habits. This was, in Skinner’s view, the external approach to motivation.

**Schedules for Reinforcement**

As a result of the external approach, Skinner worked out the following effective schedules of reinforcement:

1. **Fixed Internal Reinforcement**—According to him, when reinforcement is given after a fixed interval of time, it should be called fixed internal reinforcement.
2. **Fixed Ratio Reinforcement**—When reinforcement is given after a fixed number of responses, it is called fixed ratio reinforcement.
3. **Variable-Interval Ratio Reinforcement**—When reinforcement is given on varying intervals of time or after a varying number of responses, it is called variable reinforcement.

Skinner was of the view that learning of a response takes place quickly if every correct response is reinforced, but is forgotten easily when the reinforcement is stopped. If reinforcement is given after varying number of correct responses or at varying interval of time, the response is remarkably resistant to extinction.

**Two Types of Operant Reinforcements:** There are two types of operant reinforcements—stimulus discrimination and response discrimination. Stimulus discrimination occurs when a given response is made to one member of a pair of stimuli and not to the other member of the pair. Differentiation of a response occurs when the response form is adjusted or attested approximately to the situation.

**Typical Problems in Learning Explained by Skinner’s Theory**

1. **Capacity:** Differences in capacity have been attributed to the empirical constants which are formed in Skinner’s laws, because the value of these constants varies from species to species.
2. **Practice:** Skinner accepted something like a law of exercise for ‘Type-S’ conditioning and for ‘Type-R’ conditioning he favours repeated reinforcement. He emphasized intermittent reinforcement as protection against extinction.
3. **Motivation:** Reward increases the operant strength, while punishment has no corresponding weakening influence. Drive level also affects the role of responding.
4. **Understanding:** Rapid learning, which has been identified with ‘insight’ by Keller and Schoenfeld, depends upon (a) similarity of the problem to one solved earlier, and (b) simplicity of the problem. Problem solving is the process of manipulating variables to correct response. It does not involve originality.
5. **Transfer**: Generalization, which Skinner called induction, is the basis of transfer.

6. **Forgetting**: There is no special theory proposed by Skinner for forgetting. Extinction of a response may take place due to non-reinforcement or interference by incompatible responses, but there can be spontaneous recovery of the response also, which means that extinction is not forgetting. True forgetting is a slow process of decay with time.

**Skinner’s Experiments (Skinner’s Box)**

The early experimental work by Skinner was carried out with rats with pressing levers for food packets in a box, constructed by him. Figure 13.1 depicts the initial form of the box constructed by Skinner to experiment with rats, and Figure 13.2 shows the modified box as adapted for pigeons.

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![Fig. 13.1 Initial Form of Skinner’s Box for Rats](image1)

![Fig. 13.2 Skinner’s Box as Adapted for the Pigeon](image2)
The experimental base of the analysis was gradually extended to other animals, to humans and to situations and behaviours differing increasingly from the original base, i.e., to teaching machines. Entire Programmed Learning is based on Skinner’s learning theory.

Skinner constructed a box and equipped it with a lever and a food tray. The lever could be pressed. Skinner placed a hungry rat in the box and the rat would wander over the bar from time to time and push the bar down. The moment it happened, a food pellet would fall into the tray. The rat learnt this task of pressing the lever more frequently in order to get the food pellet and this reinforced the behaviour. Skinner modified the procedure; food pellets would be supplied under certain conditions—when the lever was pushed down and a tone was sounded but not under other conditions. The rat pushed the lever when tone was sounded.

Skinner used pigeons also as subjects where the operant investigation was pecking at a spot that acted as a key to trigger the reinforcement. He also conducted experiments on human beings where the operant was problem-solving. For pigeons, food was the reinforcement just as it was for the rat in the box. For human subjects, it could be getting the right answer or a verbal expression of approval.

The first few reinforcements were relatively ineffective but later, the rate of response was extremely rapid.

Superstitious Behaviour

Skinner also demonstrated that accidental reinforcement of a response can lead to superstitious behaviour through his experiment. He set the dispenser to deliver food to animals in an operant chamber at fixed time intervals, for example every 15 minutes. The pigeons associated whatever behaviour they were engaging in at the time of the food being dispensed with the delivery of the food. The likelihood of those behaviours occurring then increased. Skinner conditioned pigeons to spin around in circles, nod their heads, or to make swaying motions.

Educational Implications of Skinner’s Learning Theory

1. Learning objectives should be defined very specifically in terms of behaviour.
2. Objectives should be arranged in order from simple to complex
3. For developing motivation in students for classroom work or activity, reinforcements like praise, blame, grades, etc., should be used.
4. Proper use of positive and negative gestures also serves as reinforcements.
5. Reinforcement should be used periodically so that the possibility of extinction of the desired behaviour is resisted.
6. In the classroom, the principle of immediate reinforcement is very important. Praise for a job done well given immediately can be a stronger motivator than a grade given much later.
7. Skinner’s principles of learning focus attention on the individual’s pace of learning. Various teaching mechanisms and learning programme systems have been devised on the basis of the theory of learning, founded by Skinner.

Limitations of Operant Conditioning

1. It is doubtful if live results derived from controlled experimental studies on animals, would yield the same results on human beings in social learning situations.
2. It is argued that Skinner had ignored the structural and hereditary factors which are very important in the development of psychological process of language.
3. The operant reinforcement system did not adequately take into account the elements of creativity, curiosity and spontaneity in human beings.
4. Skinner argued that all human behaviour is acquired during the lifetime of an individual. Thus, the importance of genetic inheritance was not given due consideration.
5. Skinner’s theory of learning dehumanized the learning process on account of its emphasis on the mechanization of the mental process.
6. Operant theory of learning did not deal with the depth of mind and, thus, is artificial in nature.

13.2.1 Application of Operant Conditioning

Skinner originally conducted a series of experiments on animals in controlled laboratory conditions. He formulated certain laws of behaviour on the basis of his extensive experimental studies. He prepared grounds for the application of those laws in human behaviour. He was fully convinced that the principles of Operant Conditioning promise equal success in school learning. He developed a system of learning known as Programmed Learning or Programmed Instruction which has greatly influenced teaching-learning process in recent years all over the world. Programmed Instruction is being used in various areas of education at different levels with success.

B.F. Skinner noted certain weaknesses in the educational system of America and developed a new system of learning. If we examine our own system of education we find that our system also suffers from the same weaknesses. The most characteristic weaknesses of our teaching-learning system are:

1. Behaviour is dominated by aversive stimulation. The whole atmosphere of our schools is dominated by fear and unpleasant experiences. Though legally corporal punishment is prohibited, still teachers use punishment of various varieties. Students work to avoid punishment from teachers and parents. They work out of fear. The
schools can use the principles of operant conditioning to eliminate the element of fear from school atmosphere by using positive reinforcement.

2. Wide gap between behaviour and reinforcement. The desirable behaviour of a learner is not immediately reinforced. The delay of reinforcement destroys the effect of reinforcing stimuli. Suppose a child scores high marks in the test and his behaviour is not immediately reinforced by the teacher but reinforcement comes after a day or two. This reinforcement will have no effect on the behaviour of the child. Generally, in our schools, the desirable behaviour of the learners is not immediately reinforced to raise the probability of the recurrence of the same behaviour in future. Reinforcing stimuli should follow the response immediately for an effect on the behaviour. Though in present teaching-learning system where a teacher handles 50 to 70 students at a time it is not possible for the teacher to reinforce the behaviour of each student in the class, but the use of programmed material in the form of a book or machine makes provision for immediate reinforcement.

3. Absence of a programme of serial reinforcement. Our programme of teaching-learning does not proceed forward step by step by reinforcing a series of progressive approximations to the final or terminal behaviour. We reinforce behaviour in classroom teaching in a haphazard way. The Programmed Instruction proceeds in a serial order from initial behaviour to terminal behaviour by reinforcing behaviour at each step.

4. Objectives are vague. The greatest weakness of our present system of education is that objectives of the courses have not been defined in operational terms. In programmed instruction objectives are defined in observable and measurable way. The initial and the terminal behaviour which the teacher wants to instil in the final repertoire of the learners are defined in operational terms.

5. Lack of receptivity to new innovations among teachers. The teacher can use the principles of operant conditioning in his classroom teaching for efficient and effective learning. But in our country, every innovative idea is resisted by traditional teachers and educationists. The same attitude is applicable to programmed instructional methods. They criticize it that for being costly and time consuming affair to develop programmes on Programmed Instructional model. Leaving aside the business of developing programmes, we can at least use the basic principles of operant learning in our teaching. The teacher may plan contingencies of reinforcement and provide reinforcement at the most appropriate time to the learners. He may involve the students in teaching-learning process so that students' interest may be maintained in learning activities.
Evaluation and Critique

Operant Conditioning has generated a great amount of research studies all over the world. Though originally, the principles of operant conditioning were developed on lower order animals, later on those principles were successfully used in human learning. A number of devices and techniques have been evolved by using the fundamental principles of operant conditioning to modify the behaviour of human beings. Specific mention may be made of programmed instruction, computer-assisted instruction, mathematics and behaviour therapy, etc. Mostly psychologists and educationists agree that operant conditioning is a practical approach to human behaviour and can be used in classroom teaching-learning. There is another group of psychologists who have frequently raised objections to the use of terms like stimulus, response and reinforcement as conceptual tools for the analysis of behaviour outside the psychology laboratory. Chomsky has critically examined the theory of operant conditioning and has pointed out a number of weaknesses of the theory. Some of the weaknesses are described below:

1. Chomsky criticized the generality of application of the concepts and principles derived from controlled experimental studies on animals to the social learning situations. What bothered Chomsky was that in natural settings the relationship between behaviour and its controlling stimuli is extremely complex. He argued, therefore, that concepts derived from situations in which these relationships have been clarified do not apply to the natural conditions of learning. Problem lies in the difficulty of material, not in the limitations of the concepts of operant conditioning.

2. Skinner has completely ignored the structural and hereditary factors which are very important in the development of psychological process of language. He failed to take into account the known factors about the development of language in recent years. Chomsky maintained that Skinner’s interpretations of verbal behaviour were:
   “Formulated in terms of metaphoric extension of the technical laboratory ... in fact the terms used in the description of the real life and of laboratory behaviour may be homonyms, with at most a vague similarity of meaning.”

3. The operant reinforcement system fails to account for spontaneity, curiosity and creativity in human beings.

4. Sometimes Skinner in his description of behaviour lapses into subjective explanation such as self-reinforcement and thinking, etc.

5. Skinner neglects innate endowment. According to him, all behaviour is acquired during the lifetime of the individual. It denies the importance of genetic inheritance.

6. It mechanizes the mental process and treats the organism like a machine. It dehumanizes learning process.
7. It is superficial and does not deal with the depths of the mind.
8. It is said that it is antidemocratic because the relation between experimenter and subject is manipulative and its results can be misused by dictators.

Self-Control

Skinner’s *Science and Human Behavior* provided a survey of nine categories of self-control methods. These are:
- Physical restraint and physical aid
- Changing the stimulus
- Depriving and satiating
- Manipulating emotional conditions
- Using aversive stimulation
- Drugs
- Operant conditioning
- Punishment
- Doing something else

Check Your Progress

1. What does the term operant stress?
2. List the operations involved in the process of operant conditioning.
3. What are the two types of operant reinforcements?
4. What is fixed ratio reinforcement?

13.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The term ‘operant’ stresses that behaviour is carried out in the environment to generate its own consequences.
2. The operations involved in the process of operant conditioning are as follows:
   - Shaping (generalization, chaining and habit competition)
   - Extinction.
   - Spontaneous recovery.
   - Concept of reinforcement.
3. There are two types of operant reinforcements—stimulus discrimination and response discrimination.
4. When reinforcement is given after a fixed number of responses, it is called fixed ratio reinforcement.
13.4 SUMMARY

- Prof. B F Skinner started his research work on behaviour while he was a graduate in the Department of Psychology at Harvard University.
- Skinner called his theory as operant conditioning, as it is based on certain ‘operations or actions’ which an organism has to carry out.
- The term ‘operant’ stresses that behaviour is carried out in the environment to generate its own consequences. An operant is a set of acts which conditions an organism in doing something.
- Most SR theorists have assumed the existence of a stimulus as a prerequisite for evoking a response. In the absence of any external stimulus, they have assumed some internal stimuli for evoking the response.
- Several operations are involved in the process of operant conditioning. Some of the important operations briefly described are as follows:
  - Shaping (generalization, chaining and habit competition)
  - Extinction.
  - Spontaneous recovery.
  - Concept of reinforcement.
- Skinner thought of two kinds of reinforcements—positive and negative. A positive reinforcement is any stimulus the presentation of which strengthens the probability of a response. A negative reinforcement is any stimulus the withdrawal of which weakens the probability of response.
- According to Skinner, when reinforcement is given after a fixed interval of time, it should be called fixed interval reinforcement.
- When reinforcement is given after a fixed number of responses, it is called fixed ratio reinforcement.
- When reinforcement is given on varying intervals of time or after a varying number of responses, it is called variable reinforcement.
- The early experimental work by Skinner was carried out with rats with pressing levers for food packets in a box, constructed by him.
- Skinner used pigeons also as subjects where the operant investigation was pecking at a spot that acted as a key to trigger the reinforcement. He also conducted experiments on human beings where the operant was problem-solving.
- Skinner also demonstrated that accidental reinforcement of a response can lead to superstitious behaviour through his experiment.
- It is argued that Skinner had ignored the structural and hereditary factors which are very important in the development of psychological process of language.
Operant Conditioning has generated a great amount of research studies all over the world. Though originally, the principles of operant conditioning were developed on lower order animals, later on those principles were successfully used in human learning.

Mostly psychologists and educators agree that Operant Conditioning is a practical approach to human behaviour and can be used in classroom teaching-learning. There is another group of psychologists who have frequently raised objections to the use of terms like stimulus, response and reinforcement as conceptual tools for the analysis of behaviour outside the psychology laboratory.

13.5 KEY WORDS

- **Operant**: It means involving the modification of behaviour by the reinforcing or inhibiting effect of its own consequences.
- **Reinforcer**: It is the stimulus whose presentation or removal increases the probability of a response.
- **Self-Control**: It means the ability to control oneself, in particular one’s emotions and desires, especially in difficult situations.
- **Superficial**: It means something existing or occurring at or on the surface.

13.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. State the effective schedules of reinforcement.
2. What are the educational implications of Skinner’s learning theory.
3. List the different methods of self-control according to Skinner.

Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the operations involved in operant conditioning.
2. Examine Skinner’s box experiments in detail.
3. Explain some of the applications of operant conditioning. What are some of the criticisms of Skinner’s theory?

13.7 FURTHER READINGS


UNIT 14 THE PSYCHODYNAMIC PERSPECTIVE

14.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about Skinner’s concept of operant conditioning. In this unit, we will discuss the psychodynamic perspective. The psychodynamic perspective in personality essentially refers to psychoanalysis. Psychoanalysis, as has been discussed earlier, is a system or school of psychology, a theory of personality, a method of therapy and a technique of research.

The psychodynamic approach encompasses all the theories in psychology that see human functioning based upon the interaction of drives and forces within the person, particularly unconscious, and between the different structures of the personality. The first psychodynamic theory was Freud’s psychoanalysis. The other psychodynamic theories are those of Kohlberg, Adler, Jung and Erikson. We have already covered many of these theories in the previous units of the book. Here, we will provide a brief recapitulation of the different theories.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

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

- Explain the classical psychoanalysis of Freud
- Discuss ego psychology and the Neo-Freudians
- Examine the different stages of Kohlberg’s moral development
14.2 CLASSICAL PSYCHOANALYSIS OF SIGMUND FREUD

Psychoanalysis was one of the most influential theories of 20th century. It was given by Sigmund Freud, an Austrian neurophysiologist. The classic psychoanalysis was developed out of the observation and the analyses of data derived from his clinical practice. Besides his own clinical work, the classical psychoanalytical model was also influenced by the work of Charcot, Breuer and Mesmer. This model is also influenced by the concept of thermodynamics in physics.

The term psychoanalysis has three distinct meanings:

a) Firstly it is a school of psychology, which emphasises psychic determinism and dynamics. It is a technique which investigates the dynamics of the unconscious and conscious mental life of an individual. As a school of psychology it also emphasises the importance of childhood experiences in moulding one’s adult personality and behaviour.

b) Secondly, psychoanalysis, with its emphasis on the role of unconscious in determining human behaviour, is a specialised method for investigating the unconscious mental activities and

c) Finally, psychoanalysis is a therapeutic method for the investigation and treatment of mental disorders, especially the neurotic disorders

In psychology, concepts like urges, association and gestalt all represent theoretical constructs which are used to help understanding observed behaviour.

Basic Postulates of Classic Psychoanalysis

The basic postulates of classical psychoanalysis are as follows:

1. The first important postulation of classic psychoanalysis is that behaviour is determined by biological instincts. These are basic psychic energies which are innate and unlearned. Whatever the person is or does at any particular time is determined by these instincts. It posits that the only reason that people behave at all is the motivating forces of these instincts. According to Freud, there are two basic instincts: The life instinct “Eros” and death instinct “Thanatos”. Eros is the source of sexual behaviour in the wide meaning which Freud gave to sex. Thanatos is often known as death instinct and its motive is to aggress and has survival value.

2. The second important postulate of classic psychoanalysis that structure of personality. It posits that human personality comprises of id, ego and superego. Id is the main reservoir of both the life and the death instincts. It comprises mainly of psychobiologic energy and follows reality principle. The ego is often refers to one’s self or conscious intelligence. It is based on reality principle and directs behaviour toward maximum satisfaction of the
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3. Topographical aspects of the self is the third postulate of classical psychoanalysis. Freud refers to the unconscious, the pre-conscious and conscious as the topographical aspects of the self. Unconscious is where all desires are held, pre-conscious is partial awareness while conscious is the present awareness of an individual. Consciousness is like the ‘tip of the iceberg’. The personality is buried in unconscious part of the self about which the individual is not even aware.

4. Mechanisms: Conflicts between ego, super-ego and id in the conscious or unconscious are resolved in an economical fashion in various manners through ‘defence mechanisms’ which are unconscious strategies employed by people to resolve their conflicts when their self or ego is threatened. These mechanisms are often known as ego defence mechanisms. Repression is the basic mechanism on which other such mechanisms are built. Other mechanisms are sublimation, displacement etc.

5. Developmental stages: Classical psychoanalysis posits that the development of an individual occurs in stages. This model gave five main stages of developments in order which includes oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital. Each stages has sensitive zone which needs stimulation. If the healthy developmental process does not occur, fixation occurs leading to several psychopathological conditions in an individual.

6. This model is deterministic, it means that early childhood experiences have the maximum effects on one’s personality and behaviour in later life.

7. Classical psychoanalysis posits that no behaviour occurs by chance or randomly. Each behaviour has some motivational purpose.

8. Motivations that are symbolic of unconscious needs are desires that can be interpreted through an understanding of overt behaviours.

14.3 EGO PSYCHOLOGY AND NEO-FREUDIANS

Psychoanalysis has a significant influence on various domains of human functioning and even institutions like religion, education and other pertinent areas like arts and literature. His work has significant contribution in the emergence of psychotherapy. Freud’s biographer, Ernest Jones often refers Freud to as Darwin of Mind (1953). Freud’s theory, however, is not free from criticism. Neo-Freudians emerged during his times who disagreed with many of his theoretical ideas. These include those who dissented with Freud’s classical psychoanalysis and gave a more positive
picture of human behaviour and personality. They, however, agree with the Freudian notion that unconscious forces influence behaviour and the fact that childhood experiences have a significant effect on later human behaviour and personality. Adler, Jung, Sullivan, Erikson, Hartman, Horney, etc., all belong to this group. The neo-Freudians disagree with Freud on the following points:

1. Human behaviour and personality is not only governed by biological and sexual motives but also by the social and broad cultural factors.

2. Neo-Freudians present a more positive picture of human behaviour and personality functioning. They posit that human beings are also creative and have lots of potential for contributing to society and for his/her own growth. Toward the end of his career and life, Freud changed his stance and asserts that love and work are the strong motivating factors behind behaviour.

3. Later experiences of life also play a role in personality development and behaviour.

4. Personality is not fixed rather flexible and dynamic.

**Ego Psychology**

Ego psychology has emerged as one of the offshoot of Freudian psychoanalysis. Neo-Freudian models and Ego psychology has lots of similarities. It is the ego especially that organizes and mediates compromises, integrating each individual’s unique psychic reality. Hence the name ego psychology. The following section discusses the basic concepts of Ego psychology.

Heinz Hartmann (1939) is often considered the pioneer in Ego psychology. For him, ego structure has the most important function which helps people to adapt to the changing environment. He says ego includes perception, attention, memory, concentration, language, object comprehension and motor activity. It does come emerge from id, rather develop independently of it. Ego is not just an organ of adjustment attempting to balance it with id rather it has more adaptive functioning. Hartmann gave two types of adaptive functioning. These include alloplastic and autoplastic adaptation. Alloplastic adaptation refers to individual’s efforts to alter external environment to cater to human needs. Autoplastic adaptation refers to individual’s efforts to accommodate the external realities. Hartmann’s model talks of ego as working as conflict-free sphere because it is guided by the id and work independently.

Hartmann (1939) expanded the role of the ego as a mental structure by emphasizing how the ego was not only tied to conflict and pathological functioning, with a role circumscribed to mobilizing defences; but in addition, the ego also would have at its disposal energy that, while stemming from aggressive and sexual drives, could be de-sexualized and de-aggressivised by a process known as neutralization which includes adaptations as explained by him. Ego also operates to find ways to gratify impulses, as made possible by the opportunities afforded by the person’s social milieu. Hartmann also introduce the term average expectable
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Hartmann, the functions of ego are:

1. **Reality testing**: The ego’s capacity to distinguish what is occurring in one’s own mind from what is occurring in the external world. It is perhaps the single most important ego function because negotiating with the outside world requires accurately perceiving and understanding stimuli.

2. **Impulse control**: The ability to manage aggressive and/or libidinal wishes without immediate discharge through behaviour or symptoms.

3. **Affect regulation**: The ability to regulate one’s emotions.

4. **Judgment**: The capacity to act responsibly. This process includes identifying possible courses of action, anticipating and evaluating likely consequences, and making decisions as to what is appropriate in certain circumstances.

5. **Object relations**: The ability to have mutually satisfying relationships.

6. **Thought process**: It helps to have more logical, rationale, coherent and abstract thoughts to deal with stressful situations.

7. **Synthesis**: It refers to ego’s capacity to organize and unify other functions within the personality. It includes the capacity to integrate potentially contradictory experiences, ideas, and feelings; for example, if someone loves another person yet also has angry feelings toward him or her at times. The ability to synthesize these feelings is of pivotal developmental achievement.

Ego psychology today accepts the deficit concept. Deficits caused by trauma, deprivation, inborn ego problems, and illness are all recognized as aspects of the contents and organizations of agency structure, of object relations, and of conflict and compromise.

**Check Your Progress**

1. What is the first important postulation of classic psychoanalysis?
2. What is synthesis?

14.4 KOHLBERG’S MODEL: MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Lawrence Kohlberg (1969), an American psychologist modified and elaborated the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget’s work and gave the theory of moral development. Consistent with Piaget, he proposed that children form ways of thinking through their experiences which include understandings of moral concepts such as justice, rights, equality and human welfare. He argues that moral
development is a function of cognitive development. Even Piaget gave initial stages of moral development known as heteronomous and autonomous morality.

Kohlberg’s stage theory of moral development based on his research has three broad stages or levels. He gave the theory based on interviewing with children of different ages with some ethical dilemmas. *Heinz dilemma* is one of the most famous among his work. Each stage is sub-divided into two sub-stages. So, in total there are six stages of moral development takes place. Each level represented a fundamental shift in the social-moral perspective of the individual.

The following section describes these stages in detail.

**Stage 1: Pre-conventional morality**
At the first level, the pre-conventional level, a person’s moral judgments are characterized by a concrete, individual perspective.

a) Obedience and punishment morality
Within this level, a sub stage 1 heteronomous orientation focuses on avoiding breaking rules that are backed by punishment, obedience for its own sake and avoiding the physical consequences of an action to persons and property. As in Piaget’s framework, the reasoning of stage 1 is characterized by ego-centrism and the inability to consider the perspectives of others.

b) Individualism and exchange
At this sub stage 2, there is the early emergence of moral reciprocity. At this stage, orientation focuses on the instrumental, pragmatic value of an action. Reciprocity is of the form, ‘you scratch my back and I’ll scratch yours.’ The Golden Rule becomes, ‘If someone hits you, you hit them back.’ At this stage, one follows the rules only when it is to someone’s immediate interests. What is right is what’s fair in the sense of an equal exchange, a deal, an agreement. At this stage, there is an understanding that everybody has his (her) own interest to pursue and these conflict, so that right is relative (in the concrete individualist sense).

**Stage 2: Conventional morality**
Individuals at the conventional level of reasoning, have a basic understanding of conventional morality, and reason with an understanding that norms and conventions are necessary to uphold society. They tend to be self-identified with these rules, and uphold them consistently, viewing morality as acting in accordance with what society defines as right. It has two sub-stages. These are:

a) Interpersonal orientation
This stage is often known as ‘good boy/good girl stage’. Within this level, individuals at this stage are aware of shared feelings, agreements, and expectations which take primacy over individual interests. Persons at stage define what is right in terms of what is expected by people close to one’s self, and in terms of the stereotypic roles that define being good - e.g., a good brother, mother, teacher.
Being good means keeping mutual relationships, such as trust, loyalty, respect, and gratitude. The perspective is that of the local community or family. There is not as yet a consideration of the generalized social system.

b) Maintaining social order
This stage marks the shift from defining what is right in terms of local norms and role expectations to defining right in terms of the laws and norms established by the larger social system. This is the ‘member of society’ perspective in which one is moral by fulfilling the actual duties defining one’s social responsibilities. One must obey the law except in extreme cases in which the law comes into conflict with other prescribed social duties. Obeying the law is seen as necessary in order to maintain the system of laws which protect everyone.

Stage 3: Post-conventional morality
This post conventional level is characterized by reasoning based on principles, using a ‘prior to society’ perspective. These individuals reason based on the principles which underlie rules and norms, but reject a uniform application of a rule or norm. It has also two sub-stages. The individual makes a clear effort to define moral values and principles that have validity and application apart from the authority of the groups of persons holding them and apart from the individual’s own identification with the group. These are:

a) Social contract & Individual right
Right action tends to be defined in terms of general individual rights and standards that have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. There is a clear awareness of the relativism of personal values and opinions and a corresponding emphasis upon procedural rules for reaching consensus. Aside from what is constitutionally and democratically agreed upon, right action is a matter of personal values and opinions. The result is an emphasis upon the ‘legal point of view’, but with an additional emphasis upon the possibility of changing the law in terms of rational considerations of social utility. At this stage, people begin to account for the differing values, opinions and beliefs of other people. Rules of law are important for maintaining a society, but members of the society should agree upon these standards.

b) Universal-ethical principles
Kohlberg’s final level of moral reasoning is based upon universal ethical principles and abstract reasoning. At this stage, people follow these internalized principles of justice, even if they conflict with laws and rules. This stage remains as a theoretical endpoint which rationally follows from the preceding stages. In essence this last level of moral judgment entails reasoning rooted in the ethical fairness principles from which moral laws would be devised. Laws are evaluated in terms of their coherence with basic principles of fairness rather than upheld simply on the basis
of their place within an existing social order. Thus, there is an understanding that elements of morality such as regard for life and human welfare transcend particular cultures and societies and are to be upheld irrespective of other conventions or normative obligations. Kohlberg (1984) argues that not all people reach stage 6 depending upon their personal and socio-cultural experiences.

14.4.1 Erickson, Adler, Sullivan, Jung and Eric

All these psychoanalytic theories of personality have been discussed earlier on in the book. To briefly recapitulate, Erikson maintained that personality develops in a predetermined order through eight stages of psychosocial development, from infancy to adulthood. During each stage, the person experiences a psychosocial crisis which could have a positive or negative outcome for personality development. On the other hand, Adler’s personality theory is similar to that of Freud’s personality theory except that Adler’s drive for human behaviour is the need to overcome the feelings of inferiority. Sullivan believed that people develop their personality within a social context. Without other people, Sullivan contended, humans would have no personality. Healthy human development rests on a person’s ability to establish intimacy with another person, but unfortunately, anxiety can interfere with satisfying interpersonal relations at any age. Carl Jung’s theory is one of the type theories of personality, as it involved typology of introversion and extroversion. Eric Fromm suggested a theory of personality based on two primary needs: the need for freedom and the need for belonging.

### Check Your Progress

3. How are a person’s moral judgements characterised by at the pre-conventional level?
4. What was Eric Fromm’s theory of personality based on?

### 14.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions

1. The first important postulation of classic psychoanalysis is that behaviour is determined by biological instincts.
2. Synthesis refers to the ego’s capacity to organize and unify other functions within the personality.
3. At the first level, the pre-conventional level, a person’s moral judgments are characterized by a concrete, individual perspective.
4. Eric Fromm suggested a theory of personality based on two primary needs: the need for freedom and the need for belonging.
Psychoanalysis was one of the most influential theories of 20th century. It was given by Sigmund Freud, an Austrian neurophysiologist. The classic psychoanalysis was developed out of the observation and the analyses of data derived from his clinical practice.

Psychoanalysis, with its emphasis on the role of unconscious in determining human behaviour, is a specialised method for investigating the unconscious mental activities.

The first important postulation of classic psychoanalysis is that behaviour is determined by biological instincts. These are basic psychic energies which are innate and unlearned.

The second important postulate of classic psychoanalysis that structure of personality. It posits that human personality comprises of id, ego and superego.

Freud refers to the unconscious, the pre-conscious and conscious as the topographical aspects of the self.

Freud’s theory, however, is not free from criticism. Neo-Freudians emerged during his times who disagreed with many of his theoretical ideas. These include those who dissented with Freud’s classical psychoanalysis and gave a more positive picture of human behaviour and personality.

Ego psychology has emerged as one of the off shoot of Freudian psychoanalysis. Neo-Freudian models and Ego psychology has lots of similarities. It is the ego especially that organizes and mediates compromises, integrating each individual’s unique psychic reality.

Heinz Hartmann is often considered the pioneer in Ego psychology. For him, ego structure has the most important function which helps people to adapt to the changing environment.

Hartmann expanded the role of the ego as a mental structure by emphasizing how the ego was not only tied to conflict and pathological functioning, with a role circumscribed to mobilizing defences; but in addition, the ego also would have at its disposal energy that, while stemming from aggressive and sexual drives, could be de-sexualized and de-aggresivised by a process known as neutralization.

Lawrence Kohlberg, an American psychologist modified and elaborated the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget’s work and gave the theory of moral development.
• Kohlberg’s stage theory of moral development based on his research has three broad stages or levels. He gave the theory based on interviewing with children of different ages with some ethical dilemmas.
  
• At the first level, the pre-conventional level, a person’s moral judgments are characterized by a concrete, individual perspective.
  
• Individuals at the conventional level of reasoning, have a basic understanding of conventional morality, and reason with an understanding that norms and conventions are necessary to uphold society.
  
• Kohlberg’s final level of moral reasoning is based upon universal ethical principles and abstract reasoning. At this stage, people follow these internalized principles of justice, even if they conflict with laws and rules.

14.7 KEY WORDS

• Individualism: It is the moral stance, political philosophy, ideology, or social outlook that emphasizes the moral worth of the individual.

• Moral Development: It focuses on the emergence, change, and understanding of morality from infancy through adulthood.

• Alloplastic adaptation: It refers to individual’s efforts to alter external environment to cater to human needs.

• Ego: In psychoanalysis, it is the part of the mind that mediates between the conscious and the unconscious and is responsible for reality testing and a sense of personal identity.

14.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What is the process of neutralization?
2. What are the various meanings of the term psychoanalysis?
3. How is Adler’s personality theory similar to Freud’s personality theory?
4. What is ego psychology?

Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the basic postulates of classical psychoanalysis
2. Discuss the functions of ego.
3. Examine the various stages of Kohlberg’s moral development.
14.9 FURTHER READINGS


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