



PSY 226

**Personality: Theories and
Assessment Techniques**

Course Manual

Balogun S.K. Ph.D

Personality: Theories and Assessment Techniques

PSY226



University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre
Ibadan Open and Distance Learning Course Series Development

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Vice-Chancellor's Message

The Distance Learning Centre is building on a solid tradition of over two decades of service in the provision of External Studies Programme and now Distance Learning Education in Nigeria and beyond. The Distance Learning mode to which we are committed is providing access to many deserving Nigerians in having access to higher education especially those who by the nature of their engagement do not have the luxury of full time education. Recently, it is contributing in no small measure to providing places for teeming Nigerian youths who for one reason or the other could not get admission into the conventional universities.

These course materials have been written by writers specially trained in ODL course delivery. The writers have made great efforts to provide up to date information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly.

In addition to provision of course materials in print and e-format, a lot of Information Technology input has also gone into the deployment of course materials. Most of them can be downloaded from the DLC website and are available in audio format which you can also download into your mobile phones, IPod, MP3 among other devices to allow you listen to the audio study sessions. Some of the study session materials have been scripted and are being broadcast on the university's Diamond Radio FM 101.1, while others have been delivered and captured in audio-visual format in a classroom environment for use by our students. Detailed information on availability and access is available on the website. We will continue in our efforts to provide and review course materials for our courses.

However, for you to take advantage of these formats, you will need to improve on your I.T. skills and develop requisite distance learning Culture. It is well known that, for efficient and effective provision of Distance learning education, availability of appropriate and relevant course materials is a *sine qua non*. So also, is the availability of multiple plat form for the convenience of our students. It is in fulfilment of this, that series of course materials are being written to enable our students study at their own pace and convenience.

It is our hope that you will put these course materials to the best use.



Prof. Abel Idowu Olayinka

Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

As part of its vision of providing education for “Liberty and Development” for Nigerians and the International Community, the University of Ibadan, Distance Learning Centre has recently embarked on a vigorous repositioning agenda which aimed at embracing a holistic and all encompassing approach to the delivery of its Open Distance Learning (ODL) programmes. Thus we are committed to global best practices in distance learning provision. Apart from providing an efficient administrative and academic support for our students, we are committed to providing educational resource materials for the use of our students. We are convinced that, without an up-to-date, learner-friendly and distance learning compliant course materials, there cannot be any basis to lay claim to being a provider of distance learning education. Indeed, availability of appropriate course materials in multiple formats is the hub of any distance learning provision worldwide.

In view of the above, we are vigorously pursuing as a matter of priority, the provision of credible, learner-friendly and interactive course materials for all our courses. We commissioned the authoring of, and review of course materials to teams of experts and their outputs were subjected to rigorous peer review to ensure standard. The approach not only emphasizes cognitive knowledge, but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The development of the materials which is on-going also had input from experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner-friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind. This is very important because, distance learning involves non-residential students who can often feel isolated from the community of learners.

It is important to note that, for a distance learner to excel there is the need to source and read relevant materials apart from this course material. Therefore, adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information sources are suggested in the course materials.

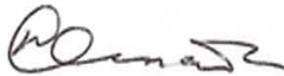
Apart from the responsibility for you to read this course material with others, you are also advised to seek assistance from your course facilitators especially academic advisors during your study even before the interactive session which is by design for revision. Your academic advisors will assist you using convenient technology including Google Hang Out, You Tube, Talk Fusion, etc. but you have to take advantage of these. It is also going to be of immense advantage if you complete assignments as at when due so as to have necessary feedbacks as a guide.

The implication of the above is that, a distance learner has a responsibility to develop requisite distance learning culture which includes diligent and disciplined self-study, seeking available administrative and academic support and acquisition of basic information technology skills. This is why you are encouraged to develop your computer skills by availing yourself the opportunity of training that the Centre’s provide and put these into use.

In conclusion, it is envisaged that the course materials would also be useful for the regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks. We are therefore, delighted to present these titles to both our distance learning students and the university's regular students. We are confident that the materials will be an invaluable resource to all.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Bayo Okunade', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Professor Bayo Okunade

Director

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About this course manual

Personality: Theories and Assessment Techniques PSY226 has been produced by University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre. It is structured in the same way, as other psychology course.

How this course manual is structured

The course overview

The course overview gives you a general introduction to the course. Information contained in the course overview will help you determine:

- If the course is suitable for you.
- What you will already need to know.
- What you can expect from the course.
- How much time you will need to invest to complete the course.

The overview also provides guidance on:

- Study skills.
- Where to get help.
- Course assessments and assignments.
- Activity icons.
- Study sessions.

We strongly recommend that you read the overview *carefully* before starting your study.

The course content

The course is broken down into study sessions. Each study session comprises:

- An introduction to the study session content.
- Learning outcomes.
- Content of study sessions.
- A study session summary.
- Assessments and/or assignment, as applicable.



Your comments

After completing this course, Personality: Theories and Assessment Techniques, we would appreciate it if you would take a few moments to give us your feedback on any aspect of this course. Your feedback might include comments on:

- Course content and structure.
- Course reading materials and resources.
- Course assessments.
- Course assignments.
- Course duration.
- Course support (assigned tutors, technical help, etc).
- Your general experience with the course provision as a distance learning student.

Your constructive feedback will help us to improve and enhance this course.

Course overview

Welcome to Personality: Theories and Assessment Techniques PSY226

This course is intended to introduce students to the diverse ways of conceptualizing, assessing, studying, and treating personality. Personality psychology is a scientific study of the whole person. In the Study Sessions, we will consider trait, biological, psychodynamic, humanistic, cultural and behavioural approaches to understanding human personality. When discussing each of these approaches, we will focus on its ability to account for individual differences in emotions, thoughts, motivation and behaviour, and their stability and change.

This course manual supplements and complements PSY226 UI Mobile Class Activities as an online course. The UI Mobile Class is a virtual platform that facilitates classroom interaction at a distance where you can discuss / interact with your tutor and peers while you are at home or office from your internet-enabled computer. You will also use this platform to submit your assignments, receive tutor feedback and course news with updates.

Personality: Theories and Assessment Techniques PSY226—is this course for you?

PSY226 is a *compulsory* introductory course to psychology students. The course exposes learners to nervous system, sensory processes, and fundamentals of motivation. It provides a means to grasp introductory scientific information required for effective learning of psychology by students coming into tertiary education in the area of psychology.

Course outcomes



Outcomes

Upon a successful completion of Personality: Theories and Assessment Techniques PSY226, you will be able to:

- discuss the meaning of personality and its importance in human relationships.
- explain the principles or theories of personality from different perspectives.
- apply the theories to understand why people behave the way they do.

How to be successful in this course



As an open and distance learner your approach to learning will be different to that from your school days, where you had onsite education. You will now choose what you want to study, you will have professional and/or personal motivation for doing so and you will most likely be fitting your study activities around other professional or domestic responsibilities.

Essentially you will be taking control of your learning environment. As a consequence, you will need to consider performance issues related to time management, goal setting, stress management, etc. Perhaps you will also need to reacquaint yourself in areas such as essay planning, coping with exams and using the web as a learning resource.

We recommend that you take time now—before starting your self-study—to familiarize yourself with these issues. There are a number of excellent resources on the web. A few suggested links are:

- <http://www.dlc.ui.edu.ng/resources/studyskill.pdf>
This is a resource of the UIDLC pilot course module. You will find sections on building study skills, time scheduling, basic concentration techniques, control of the study environment, note taking, how to read essays for analysis and memory skills (“remembering”).
- http://www.ivywise.com/newsletter_march13_how_to_self_study.html
This site provides how to master self-studying, with bias to emerging technologies.
- <http://www.howtostudy.org/resources.php>
Another “How to study” web site with useful links to time

management, efficient reading, questioning/listening/observing skills, getting the most out of doing (“hands-on” learning), memory building, tips for staying motivated, developing a learning plan.

The above links are our suggestions to start you on your way. At the time of writing these web links were active. If you want to look for more, go to www.google.com and type “self-study basics”, “self-study tips”, “self-study skills” or similar phrases.

Need help?



Help

As earlier noted, this course manual complements and supplements PSY226at UI Mobile Class as an online course.

You may contact any of the following units for information, learning resources and library services.

Distance Learning Centre (DLC)

University of Ibadan, Nigeria

Tel: (+234) 08077593551 – 55

(Student Support Officers)

Email: ssu@dlc.ui.edu.ng

Head Office

Morohundiya Complex, Ibadan-Ilorin Expressway, Idi-Ose, Ibadan.

Information Centre

20 Awolowo Road, Bodija, Ibadan.

Lagos Office

Speedwriting House, No. 16 Ajanaku Street, Off Salvation Bus Stop, Awuse Estate, Opebi, Ikeja, Lagos.

For technical issues (computer problems, web access, and etcetera), please send mail to webmaster@dlc.ui.edu.ng.

Academic Support



Help

A course facilitator is commissioned for this course. You have also been assigned an academic advisor to provide learning support. The contacts of your course facilitator and academic advisor for this course are available at onlineacademicsupport@dlc.ui.edu.ng

Activities



Activities

This manual features “Activities,” which may present material that is NOT extensively covered in the Study Sessions. When completing these activities, you will demonstrate your understanding of basic material (by answering questions) before you learn more advanced concepts. You will be provided with answers to every activity question. Therefore, your emphasis when working the activities should be on understanding your answers. It is more important that you understand why every answer is correct.

Assessments



Assessments

There are three basic forms of assessment in this course: in-text questions (ITQs) and self assessment questions (SAQs), and tutor marked assessment (TMAs). This manual is essentially filled with ITQs and SAQs. Feedbacks to the ITQs are placed immediately after the questions, while the feedbacks to SAQs are at the back of manual. You will receive your TMAs as part of online class activities at the UI Mobile Class. Feedbacks to TMAs will be provided by your tutor in not more than 2 weeks expected duration.

Schedule dates for submitting assignments and engaging in course / class activities is available on the course website. Kindly visit your course website often for updates.

Bibliography



Readings

For those interested in learning more on this subject, we provide you with a list of additional resources at the end of this course manual; these may be books, articles or websites.

Getting around this course manual

Margin icons

While working through this course manual you will notice the frequent use of margin icons. These icons serve to “signpost” a particular piece of text, a new task or change in activity; they have been included to help you to find your way around this course manual.

A complete icon set is shown below. We suggest that you familiarize yourself with the icons and their meaning before starting your study.

			
Activity	Assessment	Assignment	Case study
			
Discussion	Group Activity	Help	Outcomes
			
Note	Reflection	Reading	Study skills
			
Summary	Terminology	Time	Tip

Study Session 1

Defining Personality

Introduction



Learning Outcomes

This study session introduces you to the concept of personality. Different schools of thought (that is, approaches to the definition and theories on the concept of personality) are discussed.

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 1.1 *discuss* the concept of personality.
- 1.2 *give* reasons why it may be difficult to agree to one definition of personality.
- 1.3 *explain* why we have theories and what theories do to assist in the understanding of a concept.

1.1 The Concept of Personality

Personality

The combination of characteristics or qualities that form an individual's distinctive character.

It is important for us to first understand the term **personality**, before embarking on a discussion of theories about it. Some people see personality as a construct (i.e. complex idea), which means it cannot be easily or directly observed; rather, it is inferred from observable events. Therefore, a science of inquiry into personality will pursue both its theoretical and empirical investigations so as to assist in arriving at an understanding of the term.

The term personality derives from the ancient Latin, *persona* and the Medieval Latin, *personalitas* (Smith and Vetter, 1982). The meaning of these words is “mask”, that is, something that is hidden. Literarily speaking, we are saying that the individual is hidden behind a mask, thereby presenting a public image different from the real person.

Any attempt at defining personality would be an exercise in futility. This is because there are as many definitions as there are authors, and their views on the term have varying degrees of differences. As at 1958, English and English said there were about fifty definitions, whereas Smith & Vetter (1982) say there are about hundred definitions. However, all these definitions can be classified into three (Uba, 1987).

- **The first class is the external effect** definition sees personality as consisting of certain qualities that are perceived by an observer, its influence on other people, an individual's appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value. Examples include being aggressive, shy, friendly, immature and so forth.
- Because the first class definition was seen as inadequate to capture the true inner feelings of an individual, the second class of definition looks at the **inner structure or characteristics** of personality, that is, an existing, objective entity or what Uba (1987) called unconsciously

perceived qualities within the individual. For instance, the individual would act according to what he/she believes of him/herself. If she/he believes she/he is lovable, bright or stupid, capable or clumsy, she/he would behave accordingly. The second class was also found to be inadequate in the sense that we cannot directly observe the internal structure of man.

- The third class of definition sees personality as specific, measurable traits, such as scores on personality tests or reports by trained observers. Therefore this defines personality as a unique pattern or organization of the individual's habits of adjustment to the demands of his/her environment at a particular point in time.

Based on the foregoing discussion, we cannot proffer a singular definition of personality. Rather we shall conclude that personality is not an existing substantive entity to be searched for, but a complex construct to be developed and defined by the observer with reference to a particular theoretical orientation. We shall observe this conclusion from different theories that we would be treated as from Study session Two. Before then, let us look at what theories are and why they are relevant to the understanding of personality constructs.

1.2 The Structure of Theory

A theory is an unproved speculation about reality, one not known to be either true or false. Smith and Vetter (1982) defined a theory as an organised set of concepts designed to mediate prediction and explanation in a particular area of empirical observation. In other words, a theory is like a map on which some points/parts are known, while further research and experimentation will make the other points/parts to fall in place to form the whole picture. Like Uba (1987) observed, a theory once constructed and accepted performs a variety of functions, namely:

1. It may lead us to observe relationships between hitherto present but unobserved, variables or facts.
2. It helps us explain the past and the present and also predict the future by the propositions contained in it.
3. A theory provides us with a logical framework for the incorporation and integration of empirical observations, which were previously seen as being disparate.
4. It provides and generates, within a logically consistent framework, new hypotheses, which can lead to systematic empirical research.
5. It offers guidelines that would be used in the absence of more precise information on a phenomenon.

On the subject of personality, two questions often asked by personality theorists are: Where does personality come from? And by what mechanisms or processes does it exist or develop? The answers have always been that two factors are important to personality formation; namely, heredity and learning. One school of thought believes that much of our personality is inherited from our parents. These inherited genes predispose us to act in certain ways. Another school of thought says that we learn to be whom or what we are from our interactions with the environment. What we learn depends on the extent of reinforcement that we receive from the environment. Yet another school of thought believes

that the former theories are jointly responsible for our personality formation, only that there is possibility of one being more prominent than the other in the process of formation.

Emerging from all the theories are seven main perspectives of personality formation, depending on the orientation of the authors. The perspectives are:

1. the Psycho-analytical approach;
2. the Neopsycho analytical approach;
3. the Personological or Trait-Factor approach;
4. the Phenomenological/Humanistic approach;
5. the Behavioural Cognitive approach;
6. the Field-Theory approach; and
7. the Limited –Domain approach.

We shall discuss the theories from each of these perspectives as from the next study session.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, various conceptions of personality were examined though no singular definition was arrived at. Seven main perspectives later emerged from the theories of personality formation.

Assessment



Assignment

1. What is personality?
2. How do we acquire our personality?
3. Explain why we have theories and what theories do to assist in the understanding of a concept.

Bibliography

Smith, B.D. and Vetter, H.J. 1982. *Theoretical Approaches to Personality*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Uba, A. 1987 'Introduction'. In Uba A. (ed.) *Theories of Personality*. Ibadan: Claverianum Press.

<http://allpsych.com/personalitysynopsis/intro.html> retrieved July, 2013.

Study Session 2

The Psychoanalytical Theory of Sigmund Freud

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to introduce you to the concept of human personality structure as propounded by Sigmund Freud. You will also learn how individuals come to cover up for their inadequacies by wanting to give reasons as to why they behave the way they do in certain situations. Finally, you will explore the postulation of Sigmund Freud on the stages of development.



Learning Outcomes

At the end of this Study Session, you should be able to:

- 2.1 *describe* how instincts affect human behaviour.
- 2.2 *point out* what constitutes the human personality.
- 2.3 *explain* how personality is formed.
- 2.4 *discuss* the stages of personality development, according to the psychoanalytic theory.

2.1 Basic Instinct of Human Behaviour

Sigmund Freud, credited as the father of psychology was the chief proponent of the psycho-analytic theory of personality development. According to him, people's behaviours are determined by irrational forces, unconscious motivations, biological and instinctual drives, and certain psycho-sexual events during the first five years of life. Instincts are a form of energy that connects the body's needs to the mind's wishes. When the body is in a state of need, the person experiences a condition of tension or pressure and the person is motivated to relieve the pressure. Freud groups the instincts into two – *life instincts* and *death instincts*. The life instincts serve the purpose of survival of both the individual and the species by seeking to satisfy the needs for food, water, air, shelter and sex. The death instincts account for aggressive drive, which compels us to destroy, conquer and kill. Freud further explains the process of living as a continuous strife (conflict), an attempt to strike a balance between sex and the aggressive instincts without infringing on the society's rules and regulations and without suffering personal shame and guilt.

2.2 The Structure of Personality

As mental processes, Freud identifies three constructs of the mind; namely: the conscious, the unconscious and the preconscious. The conscious is all about those things we are aware of in ourselves and the environment. He considers this to be a small and limited part of our personality because a small proportion of our thoughts, sensations and

memories exist in conscious awareness at any given time. The unconscious is the vaster area encompassing those events, wishes, desires and impulses that have been repressed or censored from the unconscious mind. It contains the major driving power behind our behaviour and is repository of forces we cannot see or control (Uba, 1987). Between these two mental processes of consciousness above is the third one known as the preconscious. This is the store house of all memories, perceptions, thoughts and the like, which we are not momentarily conscious of but which we can bring to consciousness when we require them. If the memory passes scrutiny it is allowed to pass into consciousness; if not, it is repressed into unconscious and must remain there (Uba, 1987).

The above notion was however reviewed in 1923 by Freud who then introduced three basic structures of the personality; namely, *the Id, the Ego, and the Super-ego*. The Id is present at birth and is the ultimate source of all psychic energy and that which is later utilized by the other components of the personality. Its sole purpose is to obtain pleasure and so it operates on the pleasure principle level. It is animalistic in nature and takes no precautions in expressing its purposes, which are basically the survival of the individual and successful reproduction. The Id is non-rational and amoral and does not experience any fear. Tension in the individual is reduced using either reflex action or primary process. Reflex action involves the operation of an innate, automatic reflex mechanism, such as blinking an eye or withdrawing a hand from a hot object. Primary process involves the formation of a mental image of some object known to satisfy a drive. A thirsty individual may form an image of cold bottle of coca-cola. The image is usually a hallucination. The Id wants to be satisfied at all cost and would resist any obstruction on its part to get the pleasure gratified.

Effective satisfaction of important drives requires some contact with external reality and some degree of logical reasoning. Hence, the Ego is considered as the seat of rational thoughts. It operates on the reality principle and mediates between the demand of the Id, the reality of the world and the demands of the Superego. The Ego delays gratification (hold unto the drive) until there is an appropriate object in the external world to satisfy the need. For example, if you are hard pressed to urinate, you may form a mental image of a toilet to do it, but the ego would not allow the urine to come until you are able to sight a toilet or a convenient place to ease yourself. According to Uba (1987), the job of the Ego (theoretically) is how to satisfy the Id impulses within the limits of the society and without violating the rules of the Superego. To minimise the guilt that may occur as a result of this conflict, the Ego resorts to defensive processes (to be discussed in Study session three)

The superego is the third part of personality structure that is responsible for the internalized representation of the values and morals of the society as taught the child by the parents and others. This develops as the child inculcates social guidelines and structures. This learning process is a function of rewards and punishments by the parents for the behaviour. Freud says that the Superego is made up of two sub-systems namely: the conscience and the ego ideal. The conscience represents things that the individual believes he/she should not do, while the ego ideal represents things that the individual would like to be. This controlling function of

the Superego occurs largely in the unconscious part of the mind and so the individual may not be aware of this. For example, even if the place to ease yourself is available, the Superego may urge that because you are a girl/lady and because many people are around, you should look for a more appropriate place to uphold your dignity. The Superego represents what is ideal. In other words, *the Id seeks pleasure, the Ego tests reality, and the Superego strives for perfection*. Brenner (1974) has summarised the function of the Superego to be essentially that of our “conscience”, which approves or disapproves of our behaviour or wishes, critically observes the self, administers self-punishment, demands repentance for wrong doing, and rewards the self with self-praise and self-love.

2.3 Mechanisms of Defence

In the last section, we observed that there is a constant conflict between the three parts of the personality structure, contesting for the realisation of their individual functions. The conflict is referred to as intra-psycho conflict because the energy with which they pursue their different but dependent goals is derived from the libido within the individual. The biological Id strives constantly and impulsively to satisfy its drives, but to do so, it must struggle with the reality and rationality of the Ego and the morality of the Superego. For example, consider the following: hunger arouses tension in the Id, which seeks immediate relief through the pleasure principle; the Ego delays eating (blocks Id expression), until an appropriate food object is located. The Superego may impose further delay by dictating certain requirements (certain calories needed, no fish on Friday, no stealing of food). In this instance, the individual becomes anxious. Anxiety is a state of uncomfortable tension that the person is motivated to reduce; otherwise, it may lead to a neurotic disorder in the person. The Ego tries to guard against this anxiety before it gets out of hand by any one of the mechanisms available to distort the anxiety-producing impulse in such a way as to reduce its threat or to block the expression of the impulse entirely.

2.3.1 Repression

The most basic means by which the Ego seeks to control the Id impulses is repression. This is by excluding or preventing from consciousness all painful or dangerous thoughts. For example, you can refuse to admit that a loved one is dead and say you believe he/she is sleeping even when he is being lowered into the grave. The repressed idea or thought is not completely eliminated but may find expression through other avenues, such as dreams and slips of tongue.

2.3.2 Denial of Reality

This is the process of protecting oneself from unpleasant reality by refusing to perceive it. For example, it is common among the born-again Christians that, rather than admit that they are feverish, they resort to saying that they are strong. They believe that if they say otherwise they would not get out of the feverish situation. Another example is when you are pinched by your mother and you reply by saying that it doesn't pain you. To admit that it pains is to satisfy the pleasure of your mother for punishing you and you feeling uncomfortable.

2.3.3 Rationalization

This involves explaining unacceptable behaviour in terms of some personally or socially acceptable motives, or, in general, making excuses justifying unacceptable behaviours. For example, if a student failed in his term report, he would then blame the failure on the inability of the pen to write legibly or that the teacher failed him/her because the student did not greet the teacher while coming into the class the previous week.

2.3.4 Sublimation

This occurs when an individual expresses an unacceptable motive by substituting socially and personally acceptable behaviour for the direct expression of the motive. For example, an individual may decide to join a judo club as a substitute for his/her aggressive tendencies.

2.3.5 Displacement

This is when an individual discharges pent – up feelings, usually of hostility, on objects less dangerous or powerful than those which initially aroused the emotions. An example is when an elder brother hit his younger one after being scolded or beaten by his mother. Another example is when you are denied something by another person and you then see a dog lying down along the way, you may kick it repeatedly for no just cause.

2.3.6 Reaction formation

This occurs when an individual attempts to prevent dangerous desires from being expressed by exaggerating opposed attitudes and types of behaviour and using them as “barriers”. For example, a person who is threatened on the unconscious level by the allure and fascination of pornography may become an avid supporter of censorship.

2.3.7 Compensation

Compensation is when an individual shortcomings or inadequacies in particular are substituted with excessive involvement in another field or endeavour. For example, a person who had wanted to excel at sports but was lacking in athletic prowess might become a famous sports commentator.

2.3.8 Identification

Here, one adopts the characteristics of an individual or institution perceived as being more powerful, successful or otherwise desirable than oneself. It was common at a time among children to claim to be “Mighty Igor”, a wrestler of note, and mimic his movements.

Freud believed that a person’s unique character type develops in childhood from the nature of the parent-child interaction. He conceived the development of each individual as dependent upon three principal sets of factors:

1. innate instinctual forces;
2. biologically determined developmental stages; and

3. environmental influences.

He observed further that a child is polymorphously perversed, that is he/she derives pleasure from all parts of the body, but that this is usually concentrated in certain regions of the body with passage of time. Inability to properly resolve this pleasure at a particular stage would make the individual to be *fixated* (engrossed) and this would reflect in his/her behaviour later in life. Freud believed that the adult personality is shaped and solidly crystallized by the fifth year of life. We shall now examine these stages.

2.4 Psycho-sexual Stages of Development

2.4.1 The Oral Stage: Birth – 1 year

The baby's first contact with the world is through the mouth, which has great sensitivity. The stimulation of the baby comes through the mouth and lips where an association between nursing and being fed constitutes the basis for oral stage of development. Sucking the mother's breast satisfies the need for food and pleasure. There are two modes of activity during this stage; namely: oral incorporative behaviour and oral aggressive or sadistic behaviour. The oral incorporative behaviour occurs first, which involves pleasurable stimulation of the mouth. If fixation occurs, the individual engages in excessive eating, chewing, talking, smoking, kissing, drinking and the like. As the infants teethe, the oral aggressive period begins. Biting is one prominent activity at this time. Adults' characteristics as a result of obsessive interest include sarcasm, hostility, aggression, gossip and degrading comments about others. At the oral stage, if the relationship between mother and child is too comfortable, the child will be excessively attached to his/her mother, and this would result in a dependent personality.

2.4.2 The Anal stage: 1 – 3 years

Beginning from the second year through the third year of life, the child enters into the anal stage where the pleasure instinct is derived from the anal zone of the body. The pleasure is derived from the movement of the bowels and how the child is toilet trained will go a long way in determining his/her personality. How the child withholds his/her bowel and empty it at the right place and at the right time, with the intervention of the parents would affect the personality formation. If strict toilet training methods are used, the child anger may be expressed through defecating at inappropriate places if the child derives satisfaction from his behaviour as means of expressing his/her frustration with the parents. Freud claimed that an anal aggressive personality is likely to form with sadistic and hostile traits. If too much attention is given to the child's bowel movement, the child may either develop creativity and productivity traits (if praises are given at the appropriate time) or an obsessive personality with concern for personal hygiene and neatness or stinginess, which Freud called anal-retentive personality.

2.4.3 The Phallic stage: 3 – 5 years

At about age four, the child's focus of libidinal gratification is shifted to the genital area, hence the stage of phallic (*Phallus* – penis) is entered into. One sign of increased genital pleasure is that children of both sexes fantasise and masturbate about this age and the major event of this stage is what is called the Oedipus conflict/complex. The conflict derives from the unconscious incestuous desires that children develop towards the parent of the opposite sex. There is a triangle form of relationship: at one end is the child, at another end is the love object and yet at another end is the parent of opposite sex. There is a feeling of threat because of limitation placed by the society, yet the child must find expression for his/her feelings and this develops into anxiety – *castration anxiety*. To be more specific, the boy initially adopts the mother as a love object and behaves seductively towards her. At the same time, he recognises the father as a rival for the mother's affection and comes to fear that his father will punish him by cutting off his penis (Smith and Vetter, 1982). Through identification, the boy begins to take on some of his father's behaviours and values in the hope that the father would be displaced and he would take over.

On the other hand, a girl develops what is called the *electra complex*, - which is more or less a desire to have penis (*penis envy*), blaming her mother for the lack of penis and so becomes hostile towards her but develops an attraction towards the father who has the desired organ.

2.4.4 The Latency Stage: 5 – 12 Years

The oral, anal and phallic periods taken together are known as the pre-genital period. A major characteristic of this period is a narcissistic orientation, or an inward and self-centered preoccupation. During this latency period, new interests replace infantile sexual impulses. Freud believed that after the phallic stage, there is a sort of resting period before the next major change in the child's sexual development. Then, too, the child starts schooling activities during this period. The sexual drive is sublimated to some extent into activities in school, hobbies, sports and friendships with members of the same sex. There is a turning outwards towards relationships with others and learning to adjust to an ever-widening world. This period prevails until the onset of puberty.

2.4.5 The Genital Stage: 12 – 18 and Older

The further changes in hormones and the genital organs that take place during puberty re-awaken the sexual energy of the child. Adolescents typically develop interest in the opposite sex, engage in some sexual experimentation, and begin to assume adult responsibilities. Freud placed some emphasis on the fact that not everyone works through this period to a point of mature heterosexual love, if there have been no major fixations at any of the earlier stages of development. There are still many societal sanctions and taboos concerning sexual expression to which the adolescent must conform. Conflict is minimized through the use of sublimation. At this stage, as the adolescents move out of adolescence and into mature adulthood, they develop intimate relationships, become free of parental influence, and develop the capacity to be interested in

others. There is a trend away from narcissism and towards altruistic behaviour and concern for others. Accordingly, working and loving as well as deriving satisfaction from them are of paramount importance.

As we can see, Freud strongly emphasized the importance of the early years of childhood in determining the adult personality. Each of these stages is fraught with the potential for producing frustrations, conflicts and threats. Freud believed that individuals deal with these tensions through identification, displacement and other defence mechanisms.

2.4.6 Psychoanalytic Assessment Techniques

Generally speaking, psychoanalytic approach to personality assessment is geared towards increasing awareness, gaining intellectual insights into the patient's behaviour and understanding the meanings of symptoms. To understand the personality of his patients, Freud primarily employed the case-study method through which he was able to carry out detailed and exhaustive analyses of their lives and past experiences. With these bits of information, he was able to help them overcome their problems.

Though Freud explored different methods of personality assessment, the following came to be major psycho-analytic techniques of assessment: Free association, Dream analysis and Transference.

2.4.7 Free Association

As one of Freud's techniques, free association demands that the patient will report whatever thought or memory that occurs to him without any kind of self-censorship. The analyst instructs the patient to relax (with his eyes closed), while clearing his mind of day-to-day thoughts and pre-occupations and as much as possible to say whatever comes to his mind regardless of how painful, silly, trivial or irrelevant it may be. The therapist stays off the sight of the patient so as not to influence his thoughts and reactions. This technique often leads to some recollection of past experiences and at times a releasing of intense feelings that might have been blocked off.

To help the patient, the analyst identifies the repressed thoughts that are locked in the unconscious of the patient. One key thing is that the analyst listens to the patient, prods occasionally by asking relevant questions when the verbal flow of the patient dries up, but does not interrupt when the patient is talking. Everything the patient says is related without exception to what has previously been said. There may be numerous verbal blockades, but eventually, the history of the person's mind and its present organisation will be divulged to the listener-analyst by following the chain of association through the verbal maze.

2.4.8 Dream Analysis

With dream analysis, patients are asked to relate their dreams, while the analyst interprets the symbols present in the manifest content of their dreams in an attempt to discover the latent or hidden meanings. Freud found that dreams often reveal important repressed memories. In other words, during sleep, defences are lowered and repressed feelings surface. Freud saw dream as a way to the unconscious; where one's unconscious wishes, needs and fears are expressed.

In dream analysis, two aspects of the contents of the dream are of great importance: the manifest content (which is the actual event that takes place in the dream) and the latent content (which is the hidden meaning of the events seen in the dream).

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, we discussed defence mechanisms and why people resort to them. Following were identified as the types of defence mechanisms: repression, denial of reality, rationalization, sublimation, displacement, reaction formation compensation and identification.

We also discussed Freud's psycho-sexual analysis of human development. The stages of psychosexual stages of development discussed were anal stage, phallic stage, latency stage and genital stage. Various assessment techniques in psychoanalytic theory were explained.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Discuss, according to Freud, what constitutes the human personality
2. Explain what instincts are and how they affect human behaviour.
3. What determines the type of people that we are?
4. What are the basic instincts that propel human behaviour?
5. How many types of consciousness levels do human beings possess?
6. What are the three basic components of human personality structure?
7. Discuss the importance of each of the three parts of the personality structure in personality formation.

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Study Session 3

The Analytic Theory of Carl G. Jung

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to expose you to the Carl G Jung's school of thought on personality formation. The school/theory in focus is similar to that proposed by Rogers in that the two talked about motivation to actualise the potentials in human beings. However, it differs from Rogers's theory in that the motivational force is located within the person's consciousness level. To this end, it shows the influence of Sigmund Freud in approach.



Learning Outcomes

At the end of this Study Session, you should be able to:

- 2.1 *explain* the types of consciousness level by which human beings operate; the levels that act as the bed rock of human personality formation.

3.1 Analytic Theory

What is today known as analytic psychology was developed by Carl Jung. He first called the theory complex psychology and later changed it to analytic psychology. Jung's theory of personality posits that human beings possess very strong innate drive towards actualising the self; however, this drive is modifiable by experience and learning. The crux of the theory is that human nature is more positive than negative, in other words, man is always striving towards growth, development and improvement (Boyinbode, 1987).

One of the distinctive things about the analytic theory is the position that human personality is modified by both past and present considerations, meaning that man is forward- looking. Jung sees the human personality as a composite structure and not as an assemblage of different structures. He distinguished three levels of consciousness in the human personality, these are the conscious, the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious. The manifestations of these levels in explaining human personality is dependent on the four mental functions of thinking, feeling, sensing and intuiting.

3.1.1 The Conscious level

This refers to the part of the human mind known directly by the individual. This is manifested from infancy through object and subject identification, and it progressively develops through the application of the four mental functions. However, the uniqueness of individuals is a function of which of the mental functions predominates (superior

function). According to Boyinbode (1987), thinking and feeling functions are rational functions, while sensing and intuiting are known as irrational functions since they do not make use of reason. Another prominent aspect of the consciousness that Jung talked about is the attitudes of extroversion and introversion; the extrovert is more concerned with the external world, while the introvert is more preoccupied with the inner private world of the psyche. However, the introvert-extrovert phenomenon is seen more as a continuum than opposite. In actual fact, it is possible for an individual to be extroverted at times and be introverted at some other times; yet, one usually predominates in an individual. The ego is an important part of the consciousness; it is described as the gateway to consciousness. It is selective and only allows ideas, feelings and memories it recognises to be brought into consciousness.

3.1.2 The Personal Unconscious level

Jung's theory is based on the principle that no experience goes into extinction; rather, all materials that are not recognised by the ego and those that are too weak to force their way into the consciousness are repressed and suppressed into the personal unconscious. Thus, the personal unconscious is regarded as a store or bank, housing all experiences and ideas disallowed by the ego into the consciousness. At the level of the personal unconscious, Jung identified the concept of complexes. Complexes are autonomous and forceful in controlling thought or behaviour; anyone that has a particular complex is dominated by that thing. Identified complexes include: power complex, beauty complex, mother complex, inferiority complex; etc.

3.1.3 The Collective Unconscious level

This is also known as the transpersonal unconscious and it is said to be independent of an individual's personal unconscious. It is the portion of the psyche which contains primordial images inherited from human and pre-human ancestors. Jung's argument was that the collective experiences of mankind from the beginning are deposited in man's mind through the brain and these experiences strongly influence personality and behaviour, which are quite universal. Some of these experiences identified include: fear of the dark, fear of snakes, fear of the devil/Satan, etc.

3.2 Assessment Techniques

Jung emphasised case study as a personality assessment technique. Although, there is a similarity between Jung's assessment technique and Freud's, Jung looked at the following forms of assessment.

3.2.1 Dream Analysis

To Jung, dreams are voluntary and spontaneous eruptions of repressed materials that are rooted in both the personal and collective unconscious. However, their manifest content is not always a disguised attempt at wish fulfilment of sexual or aggressive needs. Instead, dreams are often attempts at resolving current problems and conflicts, and they provide the dreamers with a means of furthering their own development in a healthy direction.

Jung saw dreams as serving prospective, retrospective and compensatory functions. He stated that in being prospective, dreams help the individual to prepare himself for the experiences or events he anticipates in the immediate future, while the retrospective function relates to a re-enactment of past activities. The compensatory function helps to bring about a balance between opposites in the psyche by compensating for the overdevelopment of any single psyche structure. Jung used amplification method of dream interpretation. That is, adhering to a given symbol and giving numerous associations to it. In the process, the symbol's multiple meanings become clearer and the patient is thus provided with insight into his problems. This association are given by both the patients and the clients. Patients usually provide the subjective or personal meaning of the symbols, whereas the therapist provides the universal meanings of the symbols as revealed in mythology, religion, alchemy, art and or history.

3.2.2 Word Association Test

In conjunction with dream analysis, Jung used an experimental technique called 'word association test'. In the word association test, a list of stimulus words are read or presented to the patient, one at a time, and the person is asked to respond to them with whatever words that occur to him or with the first word that comes to his mind. The time taken to respond to each stimulus word is measured by a stop watch. The response time taken is used as an indicator of possible areas of resistance and conflict within the person. Jung's assumption was that the longer the time interval, the greater the likelihood that important complexes or areas of conflict within the psyche are being trapped. In addition, areas of conflict are assumed to be present if the patient:

1. repeats the stimulus word several times as though it had not been heard;
2. Musters the word as some other word;
3. Gives a response of more than one word;
4. Give a meaningless reaction (a made-up word) or
5. Fails to respond at all. Jung also required his patients to recall all their responses to the word stimuli following a rest interval.

Failure to reproduce the words or a distorted reproduction of the words was considered to be indicative of underlying conflict.

3.2.3 Symptom Analysis

This requires focusing on the symptom being experienced by the client. In this case, the client is made to freely associate with possible symptoms. The analyst then analyses and interprets the symptoms to the patient. The expectation is that the patient will experience a relief at this point when the analyst explains and interprets the symptom to him.

3.2.4 Life History Reconstruction

This involves the collation of an individual's past experiences as a means of understanding his present situation. The exercise requires the application of the principle of causality in explaining the existence of present difficulties and the principle of finalism in further understanding,

evaluating and re-shaping the thinking, ideas or feelings of the patient. It is more or less a case study approach.

3.2.5 Painting Therapy

Another assessment technique used by Jung was painting therapy. This technique relies heavily on patient's paintings as an in-road to the patient's unconscious feelings or thoughts. Jung posited that paintings have little artistic merits, but help patients to see that they must be expressions of their inner most selves. Painting exercises are conducted to assist patients in clarifying the symbols seen in their dreams and to help them in coping actively with their problems. In Jung's view, painting has real therapeutic effects. It moves patients off dead center or "helplessness" and starts them on the road to self-realisation.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, we have examined the Jungian theory, This theory propounded by Carl. G Jung assumes that the human personality is modified by past and present considerations. He distinguished three levels of human consciousness as conscious, personal unconscious, and collective unconscious.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Discuss personality, according to Jungian school of thought.
2. Differentiate between the three levels of human consciousness.

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Study Session 4

The Social and Cultural Psychoanalysis of Karen Horney

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to introduce you to another neo-analytic perspective in personality theories. We shall learn about Karen Horney's concept of human personality structure and how this guides the way we behave.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 4.1 *explain* the concept of hyper-competitiveness in human behaviour.
- 4.2 *discuss* how to cope with different feelings of basic anxiety.
- 4.3 *identify* three basic anxiety trends.
- 4.4 *discuss* the assessment technique of socio and cultural psychoanalysis.

4.1 Horney's Perspective on Neurosis

The focus of Karen Horney in social and cultural psychoanalysis was neurosis, and she concluded that hyper-competitiveness is the bedrock of the development of neurosis. Horney (1937) observed that the society is highly characterised with hyper-competitiveness. This she described as an indiscriminate need to compete and win and to avoid losing at any cost as a means of maintaining or enhancing one's feelings of self-worth. Hyper-competitiveness also includes feelings and thoughts of manipulations, aggressiveness, exploitation, and derogation of others across a myriad of situations.

In the attempt to trace the root-cause of this phenomenon, Horney stated that hypercompetitive individuals are from families where they are verbally and physically abused by their parents. They internalised the abuse and unconsciously develop feelings of powerlessness and insignificance. This will usually lead to attempts to attain unlimited success and power to overcome their feelings of inadequacy and inferiority. These individuals become preoccupied with a sense of self-importance and exhibitionism designed to win attention, recognition, and admiration (Ryckman, 1997). Their only weapon is indiscriminate competition and they can be ruthless in it.

In a study to ascertain the validity of Horney's claim, Ryckman, Hammer, Kaczor, and Gold (1990) constructed a scale that measured hyper-competitiveness, and they found empirical support for Horney's idea. Results from this study showed that College men and women who scored higher in hyper-competitiveness were generally less psychologically healthy than were college men and women lower in hyper-competitiveness. The result also indicated that individuals higher in

hyper-competitiveness had lower self-esteem and higher in narcissism, exhibitionism, neuroticism, mistrust, and dogmatism.

4.1.2 Etiology of Neuroses

Horney stated that neurotic tendencies develop from the family. According to her, parents adopt the values of the society and these make them to be in direct competition with the children thereby leading to neurosis. Attitudes of parent's direct/indirect domination, indifference, lack of respect for the rights of children, disparaging attitudes, lack of proper guidance, discrimination, etc. can cause disturbed relationship that will lead to neurosis (Horney, 1945). However, it should be noted that only one of these factors may be enough to cause neurosis but not necessarily a combination factors. These negative factors create what is called basic anxiety and when this is sustained over a period of time neurosis results.

4.2 Using Neurotic Strategies to Cope With Basic Anxiety

In a bid to reduce or cope with basic anxiety, individuals tend to embrace certain defensive attitudes, which serve as temporary relief and buffer from the anxiety (Horney, 1942). These defences on the surface may look ordinary and normal but become abnormal by their compulsiveness, rigidity, and indiscriminate usage. Horney, (1942) identified ten neurotic needs:

1. the neurotic need for affection and approval;
2. the neurotic need for a partner who will take over one's life;
3. the neurotic need to restrict one's life within narrow borders;
4. the neurotic need for power;
5. the neurotic need to exploit others;
6. the neurotic need for social recognition and prestige ;
7. the neurotic need for personal admiration;
8. the neurotic need for personal achievement;
9. the neurotic need for self-sufficiency and independence; and
10. the neurotic need for perfection and unassailability.

4.3 Three Basic Neurotic Trends

While trying to expound upon the neurotic coping strategies, Horney (1945) found that there were commonalities and similarities among the ten strategies earlier identified. These helped her to classify the ten into three basic types.

1. Compliant types: individuals in this category manifest the need to move towards people; they compulsively seek approval, partner to control their lives, and a life contained within restricted borders. At the end, they tend to be self-effacing, submissive and they devalue their own talents and abilities.
2. Aggressive types: these usually have neurotic needs for power, exploitation, social recognition and prestige. They are always moving against people because of their belief that other people are hostile and untrustworthy. They believe more in survival of the fittest.

3. Detached types: these types are characterised by indiscriminate need for self-sufficiency and perfection. Their behavioural manifestation is that of moving away from other people.

4.4 Assessment Techniques

Horney, like Freud, used the free association and dream analysis in treating patients. She felt these will help therapists identify the sources of the neurotic problems. Meanwhile, she did not agree with the classical psychoanalytic position that dreams and contents of free association should be interpreted, especially, in light of thwarted sexual conflicts. Rather, Horney's interpretations focused on patients' actual experiences and coping strategies adopted for basic anxiety.

Furthermore, Horney disagreed with Freud that therapists must refrain from making value judgements about patients' personal experiences. She advocated that therapists should be more honest and open with patients and more active in offering suggestions in order to facilitate the growth of the relationship and lead more readily to a cure (Ryckman, 1977).

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, we have discussed Karen Horney's theory of social and cultural psycho-analysis. The central claim of the theory is the human personality is modified by past and present socio-cultural experiences; and this place a strong probability of making someone to be neurotic towards achieving certain objectives in life. She distinguished three types of basic Neurotic trends in human beings; namely, compliant, aggressive, and detached trends.

Assessment



Assessment

1. What determines the type of people that we are?
2. What is the basis of neurosis development?
3. How do we cope with feelings of basic anxiety?
4. What are the three basic neurotic trends?
5. Discuss the assessment technique of socio and cultural psychoanalysis.

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Study Session 5

The Psychoanalytic Ego Personality Theory of Erik Erickson

Introduction

In this Study Session, you will examine the Ericksonian school of thought on personality formation. The school of thought theory is a reaction to Freud's proposition. The thinking of the school is that personality is influenced by the internal conflicts a man experiences and also by the external environment of men. According to this school it is what the external environment dictates that is internalized, which causes the internal conflict.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 5.1 *discuss* the major focus of Erik Erickson's view on personality.
- 5.2 *explain* how personality is manifested in different stages of human development.

5. 1 Overview of Erickson's Theory on Personality

Erickson's theory on personality is an offshoot of the Freudian theory, the difference being that Freud sees human behaviour as purely a function of internal conflicts whereas, Eriksson suggests that in addition to the internal conflicts, human behaviour is also affected by the external social

world and by the interaction between the social world and the psychic apparatus. The psycho-analytic ego psychology is interested in the process by which a sense of self develops and how the self-adjusts to various social experiences throughout the course of a lifetime (Wilson, 1987). Erickson argues that human personality development is in stages and runs throughout a lifetime, unlike the position of Freud that the personality development ends in childhood. Erickson identifies eight stages of development that the ego passes through. Each stage experiences peculiar crisis that is to be resolved. How the crisis at each stage is resolved, informs the kind of personality identity that will emerge, with implications for behavioural and attitudinal dispositions.

5.2 The Eight Psychosocial Stages of Development of Erickson's Theory

1. **Basic Trust vs. Mistrust:** This stage occurs in infancy; the crisis at this stage is whether the child will develop basic trust or mistrust. If the child's physiological needs (food, water), psychological and emotional needs (warmth, affection, care) are promptly and adequately met, then the child develops basic trust. He sees the world as predictable and comforting; he willingly embraces new people and objects without much protest. On the other hand, if a child experiences unmet or erratically met physiological, psychological and emotional needs, he tends to see the world as a harsh, unfriendly place, and as such the child develops mistrust.
2. **Autonomy vs. Shame & Doubt:** This is the toddler and pre-school age child. The major issue at this stage is control; the child wants to assert himself and do his own things. At this stage, the child requires firm handling and enforced guidelines by parents. If this is successfully done, the child establishes autonomy and positive ego identity; whereas, a child that lacks firm handling develops a sense of shame and self-doubt.
3. **Initiative vs. Guilt:** At about the age of four/five a child begins to exhibit initiative by setting goals, initiating activities and course of actions to reach the goals. If there is excessive parental control and punishment at this stage, the child becomes guilt-ridden and loses all sense of self and spontaneity. If it is otherwise, the child develops sense of initiative.
4. **Industry vs. Inferiority:** The period of middle childhood is characterised by this crisis; it is the child's first sustained interaction with the social world beyond the family. If this interaction is successful and gratifying, the ego becomes stronger and the child develops a sense of self competence, otherwise, the child develops a feeling of inadequacy.
5. **Identity vs. Role Confusion:** At adolescence, the challenge of establishing an identity is predominant; it is a period when the child seems to be searching for himself, "who am I?" If the crisis is positively resolved, the child establishes a unique identity; if not, role confusion results.
6. **Intimacy vs. Isolation:** This is a stage when the young adult makes more intimate contacts and permanent commitments, gives more

considerations to choosing a life partner. A successful resolution of the crisis at this stage leads to the development of healthy intimate relationships, while the opposite leads to a feeling of alienation.

7. **Generativity vs. Stagnation:** The middle age is characterised by the desire to care for and nurture others (generativity). If this desire is not achieved, the individual develops a feeling of stagnation that is, feeling of wasting away.
8. **Ego Integrity vs. Despair:** This is the final stage, the stage at which the individual takes stock of his past life, crises and impending death. If he is satisfied with how the crises over the years have been resolved, then the ego acquires a sense of ego integrity; otherwise, a sense of despair is developed.

5.3 Assessment Techniques

Erickson always identified himself as a psycho-analyst and paid homage to Freud's thoughts and techniques. At the same time, he extended and modified many of Freud's concepts and methods.

A basic difference in his technique compared with that of Freud is in Erickson's view of the relationship between the therapist and the client. He adopted a more egalitarian and personal stance towards his clients than did Freud. Thus, Erickson advocated a stance of "Discipline subjectivity" in which the therapist seeks to analyse and understand the client's problems through empathy as well as by examining historical events that have affected the patient's life.

Erickson used Freudian concepts and procedures of transference, free association and dream analysis in his work, but his usage differs in a number of respects from Freud's. For instance, Erickson typically interpreted dreams in psycho-social terms in an attempt to preserve and enhance the patient's identity (because he believed that dreams are more likely to revolve around questions of identity than of sexuality).

Erickson also employed a variety of play-therapy techniques in assessing his patients. This was informed basically by the kind of patients he had. Unlike Freud who had primarily Psychotic adults to work with, most of Erickson's patients were children. Therefore he had to use techniques that are appropriate to that age group.

Psycho-historical analysis has another technique of Erickson. As an assessment techniques, psycho-analysis takes a broad perspective that includes an appreciation of the tremendous impact of political, economic, social and cultural forces on the development of the personality of an individual. It also seeks to recognise and take into account the subtle ways in which the analyst's own values, experiences and historical background guide his interpretation of the patient's life.

Study Session Summary



Summary

Erik Erickson's theory about personality development is an offshoot of the Freudian theory. He identified the eight stages of psycho-social development as basic trust vs mistrust, autonomy vs shame and doubt, initiative vs guilt, industry vs inferiority, identity vs role confusion, intimacy vs isolation, generativity vs stagnation and ego vs despair.

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Study Session 6

The Trait theory of Gordon W. Allport

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to expose you to the trait school of thought on personality formation. The school/theory focuses on certain inherent dispositions called traits in understanding human personality. It claims that we are born with certain traits, which guide our personality disposition as we grow in life. These traits are observable across cultures.



Learning Outcomes

At the end of this Study Session, you should be able to:

- 6.1 discuss personality according to the trait school of thought.
- 6.2 explain at least two types of traits.
- 6.3 analyse assessment techniques of trait theorists

6.1 Defining the Concept of Trait Theory

Allport worked extensively on the trait- theory in explaining personality. He premised his work on six assumptions to explain the influence on human behaviour. These assumptions are situation, rationality, holism, constitutionalism vs. environmentalism, changeability and exchangeability, and proactivity.

Allport also ran into the problem of a generally acceptable definition of personality like earlier theorists who had given diverse definitions of the concept. However, in 1937, Allport defined personality as the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment. This particular definition has changed the face and approach to the understanding of the concept of personality. in the words of Hjelle& Ziegler (1981), personality exists in individuals and it is a thing that is alive, well and functioning.

Trait, which is the central concept in Allport's theory of personality, is a widely used word both in public and private discourse. Allport (1961) defines traits as those aspects of personality in respect of which most people within a given culture can be profitably compared. Traits come to the fore through observable behaviours, which are applied in attempting to understand people. Traits are not subjected to erratic or incessant changes; rather, they are stable and enduring.

Hjelle and Ziegler (1981) define trait as a predisposition to respond in an equivalent manner to various kinds of stimuli. Traits are relatively generalised and enduring, accounting for the more permanent, enduring tran-situational features of human behaviour. For any definition of

personality to be considered adequate, it must conform to some criteria; these include the following:

1. A trait has more than normal existence.
2. A trait is more generalised than a habit.
3. A trait is dynamic.
4. The existence of a trait's existence may be established empirically.

6.2 Types of Traits

Allport identifies three types of traits; cardinal traits, central traits and secondary traits.

1. **Cardinal Traits:** A cardinal trait is a dominant predisposition by which an individual becomes popular or unpopular, depending on the value his society attaches to it.
2. **Central Traits:** Allport calls these the “building blocks” of personality, they are less pervasive compared to cardinal traits but are more generalised characteristics of the individual. Central traits include things like being attractive, intelligent, energetic, etc.
3. **Secondary Traits:** as the name implies, these are less observable dispositions, less conspicuous behaviours that are often times situationally determined, for example individual tastes and preferences.

For a practical application of Allport's theory of human behaviour, the following must be taken into consideration:

1. Every individual is dynamic and unique.
2. Personality is both whole and complex.
3. Personal problems have causes.
4. The individual's self- concept is often the key to his personal problems.
5. Society can be improved by the optimum development and adjustment of its individual members.

6.3 Assessment Techniques

Because Allport considers personality to be a dynamic and interrelated entity, he postulates that investigations must employ reliable and valid assessment procedures, which are based on objective and systematic observations of given phenomena. This he simply calls “legitimate method of assessment” illegitimate methods according to Allport; include “gossip”, prejudice inference, the exaggerated single instance, unverified anecdote, etc

For Allport, among the legitimate methods used to study personality includes:

1. constitutional and physiological diagnosis,
2. studies of socio-cultural membership, status and roles,
3. personal documents and case studies;
4. self-appraisal techniques such as self-ratings;

5. conduct samplings, such as behaviour assessments in everyday situations; and
6. observer ratings.
7. personality tests and scales;
8. projective tests;
9. depth analysis, such as free association and dream analysis;
10. expressive behaviour measure; and
11. Synaptic procedures – this involves combining the outcomes of a variety of assessment techniques to produce a general picture or profile of the individual’s personality.

Although some of these techniques seek to define the typical case or an average person, Allport’s own focus was on the uniqueness of the individual. “Each person is an idiom unto himself, an apparent violation of the syntax of the species”. Allport’s method therefore could be referred to as idiographic because it primarily focuses on the understanding of the functioning of a specific individual. This is different from the nomothetic approach which relies heavily on the use of statistics in the analysis of human behaviour.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, we have examined the Trait theory of Gordon W. Allport. He defined personality as the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychology-physical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment. Furthermore, Allport identified three types of trait as cardinal traits, central traits and secondary traits.

Assessment



Assessment

1. What are traits?
2. What are the assumptions on which the concept of personality is built in the trait -theory of personality?
3. Analyze assessment techniques of trait theorists

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Study Session 7

The Structure-Based Systems Theory of R.B Cattell

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to introduce you to another perspective in the trait - theory by Raymond B. Cattell who sees personality as a system in relation to the environment. He believes that there are many factors within the individual's culture that would determine his/her personality. Thus, personality should be viewed from multivariate perspectives and should also be measurable. He introduced mathematical concept in personality formation.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 7.1 *explain* the concept of multivariate approach to the study of personality.
- 7.2 *point out* how cultures and groups influence personality.
- 7.3 *use* tentative statement of relationship to determine personality type.
- 7.4 *explain* the assessment technique involved in Cattell's theory of personality.

7.1 Structure Based Systems Theory

The structure-based systems theory of personality is founded on the dynamic interaction between biologically determined traits and the social environments. Cattell, 1950 is of the opinion that the relationship between traits and environment produce change and growth in individuals. In emphasising the importance of the adequacy of personality theory, Cattell believes that a good theory must be able to examine and explain the goal-directed motivations of individuals with particular reference to cognitive processes. In this regard Personality is seen as being beyond simple conditioning principles it's also involves complex cognitive activities and motivational learning which guide people's behaviours. In addition, the role of culture and groups within a culture in influencing individuals and how the individual influences the group are also of paramount importance.

Cattell's theory sees personality study as a scientific endeavour that calls for multivariate research and precise measurement; that is, every construct must be measurable in one way or the other. To arrive at a theory, empirical observation must be the starting point, this leads to the statement of hypotheses (tentative statement of relationship), followed by testing the stated hypotheses in an empirical manner. The obtained results are then organised into a theory, which again generates new hypotheses that lead to the collection of fresh data, and the process begins all over

again. This theory, building process is referred to as inductive-hypothetico-deductive spiral (Nesselroade and Cattell, 1988).

Structure-based systems theory strongly argues against bivariate method of research in psychology (manipulating an independent variable and assessing its effect on a dependent variable) in order not to reduce human behaviour to bits and thus lose the overall impression. According to rather Cattell (1965), multivariate method is better because it will allow consideration of the “whole person” and complexity of human behaviour.

Cattell’s approach to personality study is purely mathematical, and this is manifested in all his work. He defines personality as “that which tells what a person will do when placed in a given situation” (Ryckman, 1997). This definition could be expressed as a mathematical formula:

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

This formula means the behavioural response (R) of a person is a function (f) of the situation (S) confronted by the individual’s personality (P). The bottom-line of the theory then is that personality traits and prevailing situations influence behaviour. Central to the work of Cattell is the issue of traits. He considers traits as relatively permanent and broad reaction tendencies, which serve as building blocks of personality. Some of the traits identified by Cattell are enumerated below.

7.2 Types of Traits

1. **Constitutional traits:** These are biologically determined traits that are genetically programmed and hereditary in nature (nature).
2. **Environmental-mold traits:** These traits develop through experience brought about by the interaction of the individuals with the environment (nurture).
3. **Ability traits:** These refer to a person’s skill in dealing with the complexity of a given situation, for example, intelligence.
4. **Temperament:** stylistic tendencies-being, for example, chronically irritable, moody, excitable, easy going or bold (Ryckman, 1997).
5. **Dynamic traits:** These refer to a person’s motivation and interests, for example, ambitious, power-seeking, etc.

Cattell opines that to have a proper understanding of personality, there should be an inventory of all personality traits that can be named and used to describe individuals. In this regard, Cattell (1957) examined 4500 traits names that were compiled by Allport and Odbert (1936), which he worked on and reduced to 171 traits put into 36 clusters and added ten more from psychiatric literature to make 46 clusters. Using these items and clusters, Cattell developed in a questionnaire administered to people, the 16 underlying source traits of personality, which he then used to develop what is today known as the 16 personality factor (16 PF) questionnaire.

7.3 Assessment Techniques

Based on the psycho-metric assumption underlying the structure-based systems theory, it is not surprising that the assessment techniques are

quantitative and not qualitative. Cattell emphasises that masses of data must be collected from large numbers of people. To obtain such data, Cattell relies on three major procedures: L-data, Q-data, and T-data methods (Ryckman, 1997).

1. **L-data:** This also refers to life-record data and it is the measurement of behaviour in actual, everyday situations, for example, the number of automobile accidents of a person in 20 years, school record, club membership, etc.
2. **Q-data:** This is a questionnaire method where respondents are expected to fill questionnaires in an interview situation from which trait scores can be derived.
3. **T-data:** This is based on objective tests in which an observer gathers information in a standard test situation and assigns scores.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session we have examined the structure-based systems theory of R.B Cattell .The theory states that the environment and the traits inherent in individuals determine personalities and human behaviour. We noted that it was Catell that introduced mathematical approach to personality theories and suggested multivariate approach to determination of individual personality. His method of assessment brought in the use of inventory to personality issues.

Assessment



Assignment

1. What is inductive-hypothetico-deductive spiral in personality development?
2. What are the types of traits identified by Cattell's personality theory?
3. What is an inventory?
4. What are the three major procedures of assessment adopted by Cattell?

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Study Session 8

Theory of Personality Construct- G. A. Kelly

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to expose you to one of the cognitive theories of personality propounded by George A. Kelley. His theory was based on the belief that what people see, read, hear influence their personality development. Kelly states that people use their self-descriptions to interpret reality to which they react.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 8.1 *discuss* the difference between cognitive perspectives of personality development and other personality theories.
- 8.2 *explain* corollaries of personality characteristics in individuals.
- 8.3 *review* Kelly's personality assessment techniques.

8.1 Personality Construct

The theory of personality was developed by Kelley as a result of his experiences in establishing a network of travelling clinics throughout the state of Kansas. It was a clear departure from the psycho-analytic approach that sees conflicts/problems as emanating from overflowing libidinal forces. Rather Kelly (1955) believes that there are other forces responsible for the various phenomena and that people tend to have symptoms they had read about or had seen in other people.

One of the prominent constructs of Kelly is called constructive alternativism. This According to the theory, people are capable of changing or replacing their interpretations of events, depending on the prevailing situation. This indicates that people are not totally rigid in their opinions and perception, thereby meaning that behaviour is not static; it is free to review and change their interpretations of experiences. Fransella and Dalton (1990), in explaining the personality construct theory emphasised the primacy of the individual in decision making and taking responsibilities for whatever decisions or choices made. In addition to the afore-mentioned, however, Kelly also believed that our thoughts and behaviour are also determined by other factors in the environment (Ryckman, 1997). According to Kelly, there is always a super-ordinate construct and when this is chosen, it goes ahead to control other constructs known as subordinate constructs. For example, if a student desires to graduate from the university with a first class (super- ordinate), then the time she spends on social activities and that number of hours spent in the library are controlled by her desire. Personal constructs are developed through a process; events are interpreted and given meanings

through placing construction upon our experiences, and these are then used to handle new situations and give meaning to new experiences in our environment (Ryckman, 1997). This clearly shows that how we deal with new situations is a function of experiences we had in the past. Generally, we organise our personal construct in terms of similarities and distinctions, in this regard, Kelly (1955) affirms that a construct is a way in which at least two elements are similar and contrast with a third. In this theory, constructs are said to be in various forms, some of which are:

1. **Core constructs:** These are constructs considered to be very important to people, beliefs that reveals personal identity and ensure their existence. These constructs are relatively enduring and highly resistant to change (e.g. belief in God).
2. **Peripheral constructs:** The peripheral constructs are not very important to people like core constructs. They can be easily changed without causing any serious discomfort or modification to the core constructs.
3. **Range of convenience:** This refers to the number of other constructs that a particular construct is related to. Kelly (1955) postulated that a given construct may have relevance for some constructs and not for others.
4. **Permeability:** in this regard, a construct is said to be permeable if there is room for new constructs to be accommodated in its framework but considered impermeable if it does not accommodate new constructs. However, It should be noted that it is almost impossible for a construct to be totally impermeable; through, the degree of permeability can vary.
5. **Constellatory construct:** According to Kelly (1955), permits this its elements to belong to other realms concurrently, but fixes their realm memberships. A good example of this is stereotype; once an object is identified to belong to a particular group, we then attribute to that object other traits or attributes.

8.2 Fundamental Postulates and Corollaries of Personality Construct Theory

The crux of Kelly's theory is the assumption that how an individual anticipates events informs his/her perception and behavioural manifestations. In other words, people's expectations direct their behaviours; peoples' behaviours are not statics; rather; they change in line with expectations and interpretations of events. With this in mind Kelly came up with a number of corollaries.

1. **Individuality corollary:** This is the basis of individual differences as a concept in psychology. Differences occur because we anticipate events differently and our past experiences also differ.
2. **Organisation corollary:** This implies that differences are not only in terms of constructs but also in the way they organise the constructs (Kelly, 1955). Organising constructs serves the purpose of reducing potential conflicts in the sense that it helps to prioritise.
3. **Choice corollary:** The assumption here is that we continually make choices between our acquired constructs, and we make choices that allow us to deal effectively with situations we encounter.

4. **Fragmentation corollary:** Fragmentation corollary is manifested when we behave in ways that are inconsistent with our most recent experiences.
5. **Commonality corollary:** This simply states that people who interpret events in similar manner will behave alike, while those who differ in their construction of events will behave differently (Kelly, 1955).
6. **Sociality corollary:** In the words of Kelly, sociality corollary enables us to function effectively in our interpersonal relationships. This is based on the assumption that if we can understand another person's construct system, we can predict accurately what he/she will do and adjust our behaviour accordingly.

8.3 Assessment Techniques

The focus of assessment and intervention, as far as Kelly was concerned, is to promote positive growth in people. To achieve this, Kelly developed several techniques and also adapted techniques from the works of other prominent theorists. The identified techniques were broadly categorised into two; one focuses on the past, while the second one favours de-emphasising the past and concentrating on the present. While agreeing more with preoccupation of focusing on the present, Kelly feels the past should not be totally neglected, he was of the opinion that clinicians should still make use of case histories.

Among the tests Kelly used in therapy, the Role Construct Repertory Test (RCRT) was the most useful. It was conceived as a diagnostic tool for assessing personal construct systems in clinical settings. According to Ryckman (1997), in RCRT, clients are asked to list the names of important people in their social environments after which they are required to sort the people by considering three at a time, indicating ways in which two of them are alike but different from the third person. This exercise will enable the clinician to determine whether there is a lack of differentiation in the client's perception of others or not.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, we have examined Kelly's theory of personality construct. We noted that Kelly belonged to the cognitive school of thought. He identified certain constructs that are assisted by what he calls corollaries in the development of personality. He also introduced the Role Construct Repertory Test (RCRT), a personality test that could be used in identifying and treating personality disorders.

Assessment



Assignment

1. What are constructs in cognitive theories of personality?
2. Define the concept of constructive alternativism.
3. What are the basic assumptions underlying Kelly's concepts of corollaries.
4. Describe what is involved in using the Role Construct Repertory Test (RCRT), as an assessment tool in Kelly's theory.

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Study Session 9

The Needs Theory of Personality of Abraham Maslow

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to expose you to yet another school of thought on personality formation. This school/theory which seems to be the most popular, even in management, bases its argument on why and how people are motivated to be what they want to be. It is this desire that predominates the person at any point in time and so directs his/her personality. That personality is formed through motivation to meet certain needs or goals set by the individual.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 9.1 *point out* what motivates behaviour.
- 9.2 *explain* the stages or categories of human needs and explain why people become disturbed in their personality if one of the stages is not satisfied.

9.1 Needs Theory of Personality

Abraham Maslow belongs to the humanistic school of thought; he sees human beings as well- integrated creatures whose behaviours are goal-oriented. In his research, he was interested in studying normal individuals rather than neurotics and psychotics as done by some psychologists. Maslow believes that man can use his free- will to develop his potentials optimally if the right atmosphere is created. Schultz (1981) describes Maslow's theory as one with a strong sense of confidence and trust in the human ability to shape our own positive and constructive growth.

Specifically, Maslow's theory is premised on the assumption that observed human behaviour is a function of underlying motives or goals; he sees basic needs as the force that propels human to engage in particular activities or behaviours. According to Onyehalu (1987), there are five assumptions that Maslow personality theory are built upon; these are:

1. that man and most organisms are permanently wanting or needy;
2. that total satisfaction is almost impossible;
3. that these needs are graded by the organisms in their order of importance;
4. that as soon as a more urgent and pressing need is satisfied, another higher need immediately emerges, assumes utmost importance, and

automatically becomes the active determinant or organiser of behaviour; and

5. that a currently satisfied need becomes unimportant and underestimated by the organism and no longer controls and dominates behaviour.

Maslow (1943) identified seven very important needs in human beings, and these are arranged in a hierarchy, according to the order of urgency. These needs are structured in such a way that only one can be motivating at any point in time. At that point behaviour is geared towards gratifying that need. It is also noteworthy that behaviour if the need that is motivating at point is not gratified, and then it is not possible to move on to the next levels of need in the hierarchy. The seven identified needs are: physiological needs, safety needs, love and affection needs, achievement needs, self-esteem needs, aesthetic needs, and self-actualization needs.

9.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

9.2.1 Physiological Needs

Physiological needs are at the bottom of the ladder and are considered to be lower level needs; they are biological in nature and when they are motivating, other needs become relatively unimportant until the physiological needs are satisfied. These needs, essential for the survival of the human organism, are food, water, oxygen, sex, and elimination of waste products in the body. An example of how dominating the physiological needs can be is seen in a hungry man. All his capacities are simply directed towards hunger satisfaction, his intelligence, memory, habits; dreams are all pre-occupied with food and strategies for securing it.

9.2.2 Safety Needs

Following the satisfaction of the physiological needs, safety needs become motivating; all the talents, energy and resources are directed towards satisfying these safety needs. These needs include self-preservation and security which are felt by both the young and old. Infants inclusive. Safety needs in children are demonstrated when faced with particular perceived threatening situations like when they get lost, separated temporarily from their parents, encounter strangers, or unfamiliar situations or tasks. Adults' needs for safety are manifested in their quest for a peaceful environment, devoid of danger like crime, assault, murder, war and political instability. According to Maslow, safety need is dramatised in emergencies like war, disease, natural disasters, anarchy and the like.

9.2.3 Love Needs

The next need in order of importance after the satisfaction of the safety needs is the love or belongingness need. When this is activated, it becomes the all-dominating goal that must be attained; every other need pales into insignificance while all efforts are directed towards the gratification of the belongingness need. Specifically, this need has to do with the desire to make friends and maintain cordial relationship and

where this is not satisfactorily gratified, it may result in mal-adjustment in the individual.

9.2.4 Achievement Needs

Maslow, (1943) sees this as the human desire for great personal strength, for adequacy, confidence, and for independence and freedom. Gratification of the achievement need can be measured by the level of respect an individual enjoys from other people based on his demonstration of real capacity. Onyehalu (1987) concludes that it is probably the achievement need that motivates and fuels human curiosity and continuing human struggles for knowledge.

9.2.5 Self-Esteem Needs

Self-esteem need is the strong desire for recognition, reputation and attention, feeling of importance and the desire to be appreciated by the society. Perceived adequate gratification of this need gives way to feelings of self-confidence and high self-esteem while inadequate satisfaction leads to feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness.

9.2.6 Aesthetic Needs

This is the need for beauty, decency and orderliness. The manifestation of this need can be seen from the huge investment made on interior and exterior decorations of private homes and public institutions.

9.2.7 Self -Actualisation Needs

Self-actualization is the highest point in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to Maslow, people aspire towards rare heights and eminence; they desire to be innovative, breaking new grounds and generally bringing about new order. Maslow sees self- actualization as a unique sense of self- fulfilment, which implies doing what one is fitted for. People feel self- actualized when they have successfully developed and applied their talents and potentials effectively in any field of human endeavour.

9.3 Maslow's Assessment Techniques

Maslow utilised a variety of research techniques in arriving at his personality assessment technique. He used the Rorschach test, Murray's Thematic Apperception Test, Free Association and In-depth Interviews to assess his clients. Maslow's assessment procedures are fraught with ambiguities and imprecision and this led to the development of a more valid and reliable measure of self- actualisation called Personal Orientation Inventory (POI).

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, we examined Abraham Maslow's Needs theory belonged to the humanistic school of thought. We stated that he identified seven needs as physiological needs, safety needs, love and affection needs, achievement needs, self esteem needs, aesthetic needs and self-actualization needs.

Assessment



Assignment

1. Discuss the importance of needs in directing the lives of human beings.
2. What are the basic assumptions guiding human personality development, according Abraham Maslow?

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Study Session 10

Personality Theory of Carl Rogers

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to expose you to the Carl Rogers (Rogerian) school of thought on personality formation. This theory differs from that of Freud in that it states that personality is formed from an attempt by a person to seek balance between himself/herself and his/her environment.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 10.1 explain Roger's theory of personality.
- 10.2 explain the differences between the client-centred school of thought and other personality theories.

10.1 Rogers' Theory of Personality

Carl Rogers' theory of personality is a result (almost a side effect) of his continuing attempt to study, both theoretically and empirically, a method of psychotherapy called non-directive or client-centred therapy. The method involves the therapist entering into a highly personalised, one-on-one relationship with the client. The theory revolves around the self in line with self-actualisation, self-maintenance, self-enhancement and experience all based on phenomenological field and congruence. The basic principle is the establishment of a self-structure and the experience that one has about himself/herself. The concept of a 'creative and productive' human development, as well as the move away from the emphasis on the unconscious strongly influenced the development of Rogers' theory. His theory was built on close, intimate and specific observation of man's behaviour in a relationship. In other words, observation of the phenomena that occur within a person's relationships with others is important.

Rogers' theory of personality grew out of his method of therapy. An overview of this theory suggests that it may, like other theories, be viewed in terms of structural principles, motivational dynamics and developmental processes. Basically, the structure of personality consists of the organism and the self. As the totality of the person, the organism is of central concern in Rogerian theory, and it is through the continuing maintenance and enhancement of the organism that optimal psychological development and adjustment occur. The motivational dynamics of the Rogerian theory involve the process of actualization, which is basically a motive to enhance the organism and that of self-actualisation, a motive to actualise the self. These motive systems,

together with their structural counterparts, may operate in harmony or in conflict. Development depends heavily upon actualisation process and moves the person from infant state of undifferentiated totality through a process of psychological differentiation and eventually integration.

For Rogers personality development is a continuing, life-long process. Two aspects of the infant are of primary importance in the Rogerian theory. The first aspect is the mode of experiencing, which characterizes the infant. From the phenomenological viewpoint, experience involves perception, and perception can be biased or distorted by such factors as values and expectations. The infant has not yet acquired a self-concept or the biasing values associated with it. Therefore infants are open to experience and they are also said to have an exclusively internal frame of reference. The second important characteristic of the infant is his motivation system. Rogers postulated that a single motive, the actualisation tendency, provides the impetus for all behaviour. This tendency exhibits several specific characteristics:

1. ***It is innate.*** Every individual is born with the inherent motive to actualise.
2. ***It is directional.*** The individual strives to realise only positive capacities, that is, those which maintain and enhance the organism.
3. ***It drives the organism towards autonomy.*** The individual strives to internalise control to become relatively independent of the external environment.
4. ***It strives for growth and differentiation.*** The infant enters the world as a weak, dependent, undifferentiated totality. It exhibits little or no differential of psychological functions and, of particular importance, no self-concept. Actualisation strives to attain the differentiation which will provide the self.

There are three basic hypotheses put forward to explain Rogers' personality theory:

1. Given certain psychological conditions, the individual has the capacity to reorganise his field of perception, including the way he perceives himself. The result of this perceptual reorganisation is an altered behaviour. In other words, the individual is an active agent in any change, regarding the way perception takes place or the way others are perceived. Similarly, the individual is also an active participant in the alteration of personal behaviour.
2. Again, behaviour is not directly influenced or determined by organic or cultural factors, but primarily (and perhaps only) by the perception of these elements. This means that, the crucial element in the determination of behaviour is the perceptual field of the individual.
3. When all the ways in which the individual perceives, all perceptions of the qualities, abilities, impulses and attitudes of the person and all perceptions of the person in relation to others- are accepted into the organised conscious concept of the self, then this achievement is accompanied by a feeling of comfort and freedom from tension, which are experienced as psychological adjustment (which Rogers

referred to as congruence; i.e. when the concept of self at least ‘fits together’ with all the experiences of the organism).

10.2 Roger’s Perspective on Assessment Techniques

Rogers believed that the assessment of an individual’s personality must be based on the exploration of the person’s feelings and attitudes towards himself and others. It is the client who subjectively interprets experiences and who provides the therapist with valid information about his functioning. Rogers believed that his approach to assessment, as basically person - centred, was a meaningful way of understanding the individual’s personality.

He used questionnaires and emphatic interviews that assessed self-concept. In practice, Rogers utilised a variety of assessment procedures to ascertain the validity and efficacy of his techniques of assessment.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed the theory of Carl Rogers on personality. The theory revolves around the self in line with self-actualisation, self-maintenance, self-enhancement and experience all based on phenomenological field and congruence. The basic principle in this theory is the establishment of a self-structure and the experience that one has about himself/herself. Rogers postulated that a single motive, the actualisation tendency, provides the impetus for all behaviour. This tendency exhibits several specific characteristics, as noted:

1. It is innate.
2. It is directional.
3. It drives the organism towards autonomy.
4. It strives for growth and differentiation.

Assessment



Assignment

1. What is self –actualisation?
2. Name the four characteristics of the tendency to self- actualize in the Rogerian theory.

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Study Session 11

The Expectancy-Reinforcement Value Model of Julius Rotter

Introduction

In this Study Session, you will explore one of the social-behavioural theories of personality among others as propounded by Julian Rotter. We will examine the two major trends of reinforcement and cognitive approach to understanding behaviour, upon which Rotter based his theory. He holds that much of our behaviour is learned, and that behaviour is acquired through our experiences with other people.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 11.1 *point out* whether behaviour is learnt or otherwise.
- 11.2 *explain* how behaviour varies according to the magnitude of available reward, otherwise called expectancy ratio.
- 11.3 *describe* Rotter's assessment techniques.

11.1 Behavioural Theories of Personality

The expectancy reinforcement value model developed by Rotter (1954) followed the principles of learning that emphasise that behaviours are learned and acquired from experiences in our relationship with others in our social environment. In addition to the learning principle, Rotter also suggested the investigation of people's antecedents in order to understand their present behaviour. However, it does not probe too deeply into the past experiences before decision is reached unlike the Freudian school of thought (Rotter, Chance, and Phares, 1972).

In the submission of Rotter, Chance, and Phares, (1972), there is interdependence of personality whereby a person's experiences and interactions continually influence one another. Specifically, past experiences influence current experiences and current experiences change the things learned in the past. In a similar development, Katkovsky (1968) states that different behaviours are functionally related and they all operate to secure the same outcome. In his theory, Rotter endorses the empirical law of effect, in other words, he assumes that our behaviour is goal-directed and reinforcement is an important factor in such motivation. Generally, we strive to maximise rewards and minimise or avoid punishment (Ryckman, 1997).

The social-learning approach is central to the expectancy value model, and it is based on four major concepts: behaviour potential, expectancy, reinforcement value and the psychological situation. This approach is aptly summed up in the words of Rotter (1975) that "the potential for behaviour to occur in any specific situation is a function of the

expectancy that the behaviour will lead to a particular reinforcement in that situation and the value of that reinforcement”.

11.1.1 Fundamental Concepts to Rotters’s Theory

Some concepts are fundamental in Rotters’s theory .They explained thus:

1. **Behaviour potential:** According to Rotters et al (1972), this is the potential of any behaviour occurring in any situation or situations as calculated in relation to any single reinforcement or set of reinforcements. This implies the probability of an individual responding in a particular way when certain environmental conditions are present.
2. **Expectancy:** This is a belief about the property of some events which can vary in magnitude and are subject to modification by experience. Three postulations are derived from the social-learning theory, according to Rotters (1982); these are: (1) simple cognition or labelling of stimuli (I think that painting is a Picasso); (2) expectancies for behaviour-reinforcement outcomes (if I wear my three-piece Pierre Cardin suit, my employees will compliment me); and (3) expectancies for reinforcement sequences (if I graduate from college, I will probably get a high-paying job and become wealthy and respected).
3. **Reinforcementvalue:** Reinforcement value is defined as the degree of preference for any one of a group of reinforcements to occur, if the probabilities of all occurring were equal. Simply put, reinforcement value refers to the importance we attach to different activities.
4. **Psychologicalsituation:** This point takes into consideration prediction of behaviour, as defined from the individual’s personal perspective. In this regard both situational and dispositional factors are taken as influences on behaviour; how unique past and current experiences influence behaviour.

11.2 Rotter’s Assessment Techniques

The experimental method was the first major tool that Rotters used to test hypothesis derived from the social-learning approach. He attempted to study whether people learn tasks and perform differently in situations in which they perceive reinforcement outcomes to be related or unrelated to behaviour. The result obtained from this pioneering effort suggested that reinforcement effects do not have a direct impact on behaviour but are mediated by the person’s perception of the relationship (or lack of it) between behaviour and application of the reinforcement (Rotters, 1966; Ryckman, 1997)

Apart from the experimental method of assessment, Rotters also advanced five other major techniques for personality measurement in clinical setting:

1. **The interview:** This is useful in the assessment of personality traits, counselling and therapeutic purposes.
2. **Projective tests:** These include the Rorschach, Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and Incomplete Sentences Blank. Responses to this test are assumed to indicate underlying conflicts

that determine expectancy levels of failure in given situations (Rotters, 1954).

3. **Controlled behavioural tests:** These are situations whereby people are placed in actual situations and their behaviour is assessed in reaction to stimulus changes engineered by the investigator (Rotter, 1954).
4. **Behavioural observation methods:** These involve the relatively informal assessment of behaviour by observers in natural settings (Rotters, 1954).
5. **The questionnaire:** Questionnaires are used to test social-learning hypotheses, using pencil and paper option.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this study session, we have discussed Julius Rotter expectancy Reinforcement value model .In the process, we noticed the central claims of the, model examined the basic concept involved in the model and explained the assessment techniques used by Rotter in his research as personality formation

Assessment



Assignment

1. Determine why people behave the way do.
2. Identify how behaviour varies according to the magnitude of available reward, otherwise called expectancy ratio.
3. Explain how behaviour is goal directed and the foundation is laid within the family setting.
4. What is motivation to learn and how does it operate in personality development?
5. Analyze the assessment techniques discussed by Rotter in clinical assessment?

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Study Session 12

The Social Learning Theory of Albert Bandura

Introduction

We will explore another theory on personality formation – Bandura’s social learning theory. This school/theory differs from that of Freud in that it believes that personality is formed by learning from others, either as they are taught or from observing what others do.



Learning Outcomes

At the end of this Study Session, you should be able to:

- 12.1 *discuss* personality formation from the social learning point of view.
- 12.2 *explain* the difference between social learning theory and other theory of personality formation.
- 12.3 *explain* Bandura’s approach on personality assessment.

12.1 The Social Learning Theory

According to social learning theory, human behaviour is mostly developed, and learning principles are sufficient to explain the development and maintenance of human behaviour. Bandura (1977) thinks that human beings are not simply pawns of the environment; they think and regulate their own behaviour. To him, a theory of personality must take account of the social context in which behaviour is acquired and maintained.

Bandura belongs to the school of social learning theorists who believe that behaviour in its normal and abnormal manifestations are learned. However, he differs from other behaviourists in that he insists that much behaviour takes place in the absence of any kind of reinforcement at all. In other words, Bandura is saying that every individual has an innate propensity for copying the behaviour of others even when no reward is given. Therefore much learning takes place by imitation or modelling. He states that learning principles are sufficient to explain and predict behaviour as well as behaviour change.

Bandura theories that observational learning has a major influence on an individual’s personality development. He explains human behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants. Within the process of reciprocal determinism lies the opportunity for people to influence their personality as well as the limits of self-direction. This conception of human functioning then neither casts people into the role of powerless objects controlled by environmental forces nor free agents who can become

whatever they choose. Both people and environments are reciprocal determinants of each other.

12.2 Bandura's Concept of Personality Development

Bandura postulates that an individual's personality develops from past socio-stimulus events, which include the nature and characteristics of the individual's social models. However, the individual is not considered a helpless robot with respect to external events. Rather, the reactions to these stimuli are self-activated in accordance with learned anticipations.

The individual is able to observe and interpret the effects of his or her own behaviour and in that way determine which behaviour is appropriate in which situation. People are able to encode and symbolise environmental events and to anticipate that certain behaviour will bring a certain response. Thus, an individual is responsible for choosing and shaping his or her behaviour in order to gain anticipated rewards or avoid anticipated pain.

Bandura believes that individuals can, in part, create their own environments and that abnormal behaviour is nothing more than 'bad habits'. These 'bad habits' create constraints on the individual's capability to choose how he/she will respond to many situations. Also, sometimes the constraints are very binding, allowing the person little, (if any) free choice of how to behave. For example, a person who must wash his or her hands 20 times each hour is not fully free. Such an individual is living within the constraints imposed by him or her. Bandura feels that behaviour modification; a therapeutic technique actually increases the person's freedom. He argues that by removing these constraining symptoms, behaviour modification greatly increases the individual's true freedom and allows more opportunity for personal growth.

Bandura puts forward four interrelated mediation mechanisms that govern the nature of observational learning. These are:

1. The Attention Process
2. The Retention Process
3. The Motor Reproduction Processes
4. The Incentive/ Motivational Process

1. **Attention Process:** This implies that modelling will not occur unless the subject attends to the model. In other words, merely exposing the subject to the model does not guarantee that the subject will be attentive to the relevant cues, will select the most relevant stimulus events, or will even perceive the stimulus situation accurately. It is not sufficient for the subject merely to see the model and what it is doing; the subject must attend to the model with enough perceptual accuracy to acquire the necessary information to use in imitating the model.
2. **Retention Process:** This mechanism requires the subject to retain and remember all significant aspects of the model's behaviour unless the subject is imitating the model's behaviour as that behaviour is taking place. If the subject cannot remember the behaviour, he will not be able to imitate it five minutes or five days

after observing it. In order to retain what has been attended to therefore, it is necessary to encode and represent symbolically what has been seen.

3. **Motor Reproduction Process:** This stage involves the translation of the two symbolic representations into overt behaviour. Even though a person may have carefully formed and retained symbolic representations of model's behaviour and silently rehearsed the behaviour many times, he or she may not be able to perform the behaviour correctly. This is particularly applicable to highly skilled acts of the model that require many individual component behaviours for their correct performance.
4. **Incentive and Motivational Process:** Sufficient incentive or motivation is needed to attend to, retain the behaviour of a model and to perform that behaviour. When sufficient incentives are available, modelling or observational learning is quickly translated into action. Much attention is not usually paid to something that has no incentives attached; when attention is not paid, there is little or nothing to retain.

12.3 Bandura's Assessment Techniques

Unlike most of the other personality theorists, Bandura relies more on experimental methods to assess personality functioning and change. He believed that the most stringent tests of a theory are provided by anchoring a hypothesised mediator (e.g. a cognitive event) in an independently measurable indicant and that the indicant is linked to overt behaviour. In other words, Bandura was interested in demonstrating that experimental manipulations of antecedent events influence cognitive functioning, which in turn influences subsequent responses. If the problem area is complex and uncharted, Bandura thought it would be advantageous to begin by conducting field studies that are essentially correctional in nature. Summarily, Bandura used behavioural observations and questionnaires in assessing people's personality.

Study Session Summary

In this study session, we have discussed the social learning theory of Albert Bandura. We noted that Bandura explained human behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants. We also examined the four interrelated mechanisms governing the nature of Bandura's theory of observational learning; these were the attention process, the retention process, the motor reproductive process and the incentive motivational process. Finally, we discussed the assessment techniques employed by Bandura in his research on personality formation.

Assessment



Assessment

1. Explain the difference between social learning theory and other theory of personality formation.
2. What is the major difference between social learning theory and psycho-analytical theory?
3. Is man active or not active in how his/her personality developed?
4. What are the four basic processes involved in personality formation, according to social learning theory?

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Revision Session

An Overview of Personality Theories

Introduction

The aim of this study session is to attempt a summary of all that we have learnt in the previous fourteen study sessions and proffer a basis why it is difficult to have a single theory or view on human personality development.



Learning Outcomes

At the end of this Study Session, you should be able to:

- evaluate the schools of thought on personality.

Contrast of the Personality Theories

From the preceding study sessions it becomes obvious that theories differ in their views and postulations on the origin and development of human personality. The nature-nurture controversy is one major area that has shown the sharp distinctions in the various theories; meanwhile, it is the same concept that has brought in focus a sort of convergence in the theories, in terms of the fact that all the theories agree that both nature and nurture underlie human personality development and functioning (Smith and Vetter, 1982).

The development of personality theory from the 20th century has been shaped by three major schools of thought. Maslow (1954) called these schools of thought the great forces in personality psychology. The first of these forces is the psycho-dynamic theory, and a major factor in this theory is Sigmund Freud. Psychodynamic theory sees the human being as a creature that is at the mercy of the unconscious and his environment. In a bid to maintain a state of balance, he/she pushes unpleasant experiences and materials into the unconscious while adopting defence mechanisms to get on in life. As far as the psycho-dynamic theory is concerned the personality is perpetually in a state of conflict, which makes the individual to be predisposed to anxiety and neurosis. Overall, Freud and his apologists see man as dominated largely by biological, non-rational and unconscious forces.

Several criticisms have trailed the psychodynamic theory. It has been argued that the proposition has no scientific basis and to agree that man is dominated by biological and non-rational drives will amount to reducing man to a ridiculous intellectual level. These criticisms led to the emergence of behaviourism, championed by people like Watson, Skinner,

Dollard and Miller, and Bandura. The behaviourists argue that for any theory to effectively explain human behaviour, it must be scientific and objective. They believe in the stimulus-response model, that is human behaviour is usually a response to cue(s) in the environment. Critics of the behavioural theory have always premised their argument on the overly simplistic and mechanistic nature of this model of human behaviour; the critics believe that man does not automatically respond to stimuli without a particular degree of internal processing.

The humanistic and phenomenological psychologists disagree with the Freudian school, which sees personality as a product of the unconscious thought, biological drives and non-rational behaviour. They also do not support the behavioural leaning because it is too mechanistic and simplistic. This school of thought sees the individual as possessing an evaluative conception of his or her own characteristics as a central role in behaviour determination. In other words, the self should be established as a major aspect of the personality and principal determinant of behaviour. This school of thought concludes that human beings have an input in determining their own destiny. They contend that an individual is motivated to strive for future goals and for the realization of potentials, not merely to satisfy the biological requirements of the organism and the socio-psychological requirements of the environment (Smith and Vetter, 1982).

In conclusions, we can state that it is because of the criticisms of each of the theories of personality formation that none of them is able to propound an all-embracing personality formation, that we cannot possibly have a single theory of personality formation.

Study Session Summary

This study session summarized all that have been learnt in the previous fourteen study sessions. We concluded that because each of the theories of personality formation is not able to offer an all-embracing explanation, all of them have been criticised in one way or another

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