

PERSONALITY THEORIES

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What is Personality?

- An individual's unique patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that persists over time and across situations.
- The unique pattern of enduring psychological and behavioural characteristics by which each person can be compared and contrasted with other people

What Affects our Personality Development?

There are three main influences on personality development. Those are heredity, environment, and situation.

What Affects our Personality Development?

Heredity: This refers to the influences on your personality that you are born with. They are in your genes and there is not much you can do to change these traits. They can include your temperament, which helps to determine how you react to situations and how easygoing you are

Environment: Our environment is the nurturing aspect of our lives. It is the type of environment in which we live and grow up. Environment would include home, school, work, or other places that you spend a lot of time. Environmental factors also include such things as languages, religion, etc.

Situations: These are the experiences that each individual person goes through. The various things that people experience will leave imprints on and help to develop his or her personality. Everything from divorce, death, trauma, and even happy times fit into the "situations" category of shaping one's personality.

What Affects our Personality Development?

We know from our own experiences that our brothers, sisters, and friends were exposed to different childhood influences than we were and that, as a result, they grew up to have different personalities

If the world in which people live and the factors that affect their upbringing are so different, then surely their personalities can be expected to differ as a result. They do.

We also know that boys and girls are usually reared according to traditional gender stereotypes, and this upbringing also influences personality in different ways. Research has documented many differences between men and women on specific personality factors.

Trait theories of personality imply personality is biologically based, whereas state theories such as [Bandura's \(1977\) Social Learning Theory](#) emphasize the role of nurture and environmental influence.

[Sigmund Freud's](#) psychodynamic theory of personality assumes there is an interaction between nature (innate instincts) and nurture (parental influences).

Classes of Personality Theories

- **Psychodynamic Theories**
- **Humanistic Theories**
- **Trait Theories**
- **Cognitive-Social Learning
Theories**

Freud's Theory

Personality involves several factors:

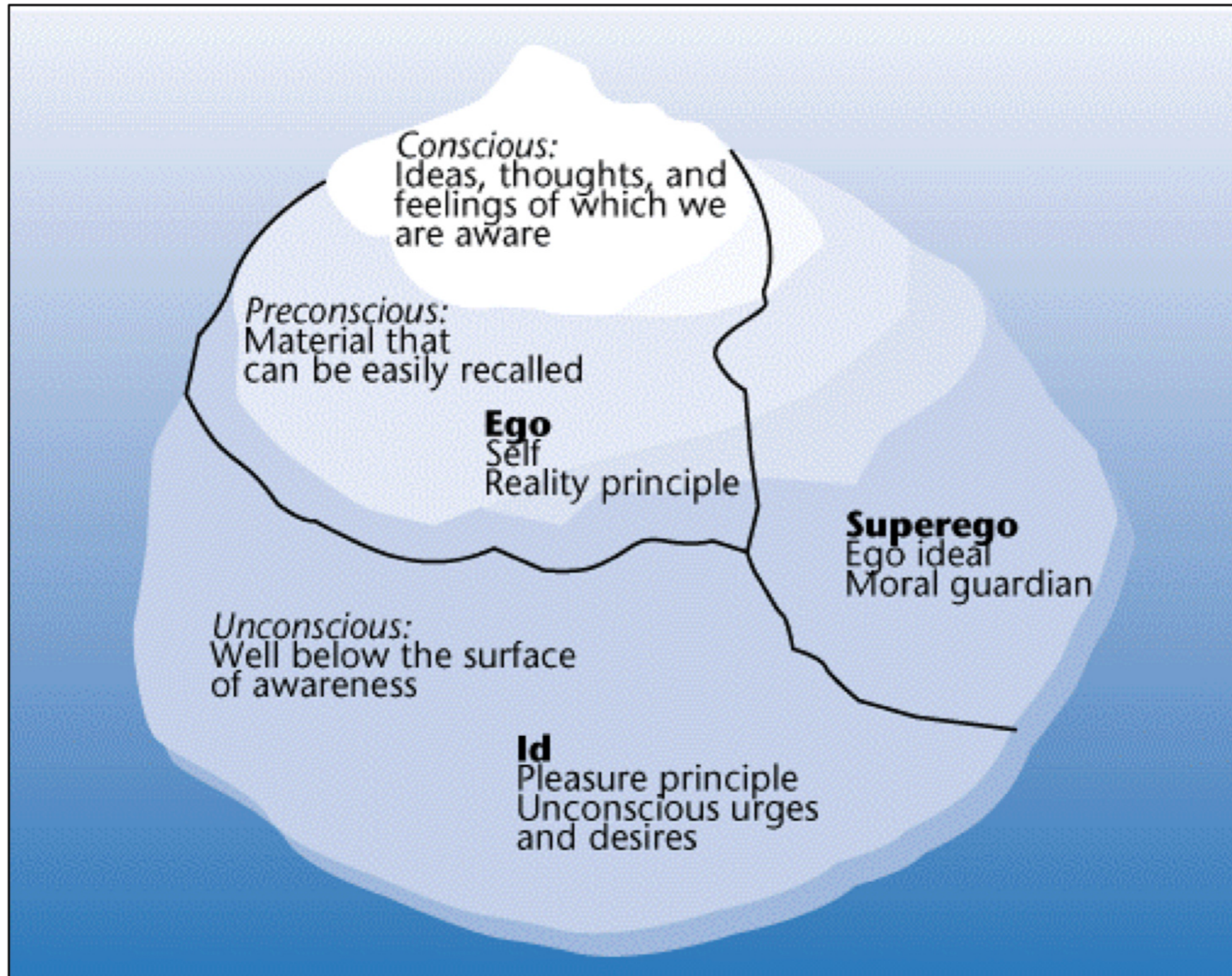
- Instinctual drives – food, sex, aggression
- **Unconscious processes**
- Early childhood influences (re: **psychosexual stages**) – especially the parents

Personality development depends on the interplay of instinct and environment during the first five years of life. Parental behavior is crucial to normal and abnormal development. Personality and mental health problems in adulthood can usually be traced back to the first five years.

Sigmund Freud

- *Psychoanalysis* - Freud's theory of personality and method of therapy
- Freud focused on the “unconscious”
- drives, desires, needs, and conflicts which we are unaware of guide behavior
- Freud's view of humanity is “deterministic” (little free will) and pessimistic

Freud's Structure of Personality

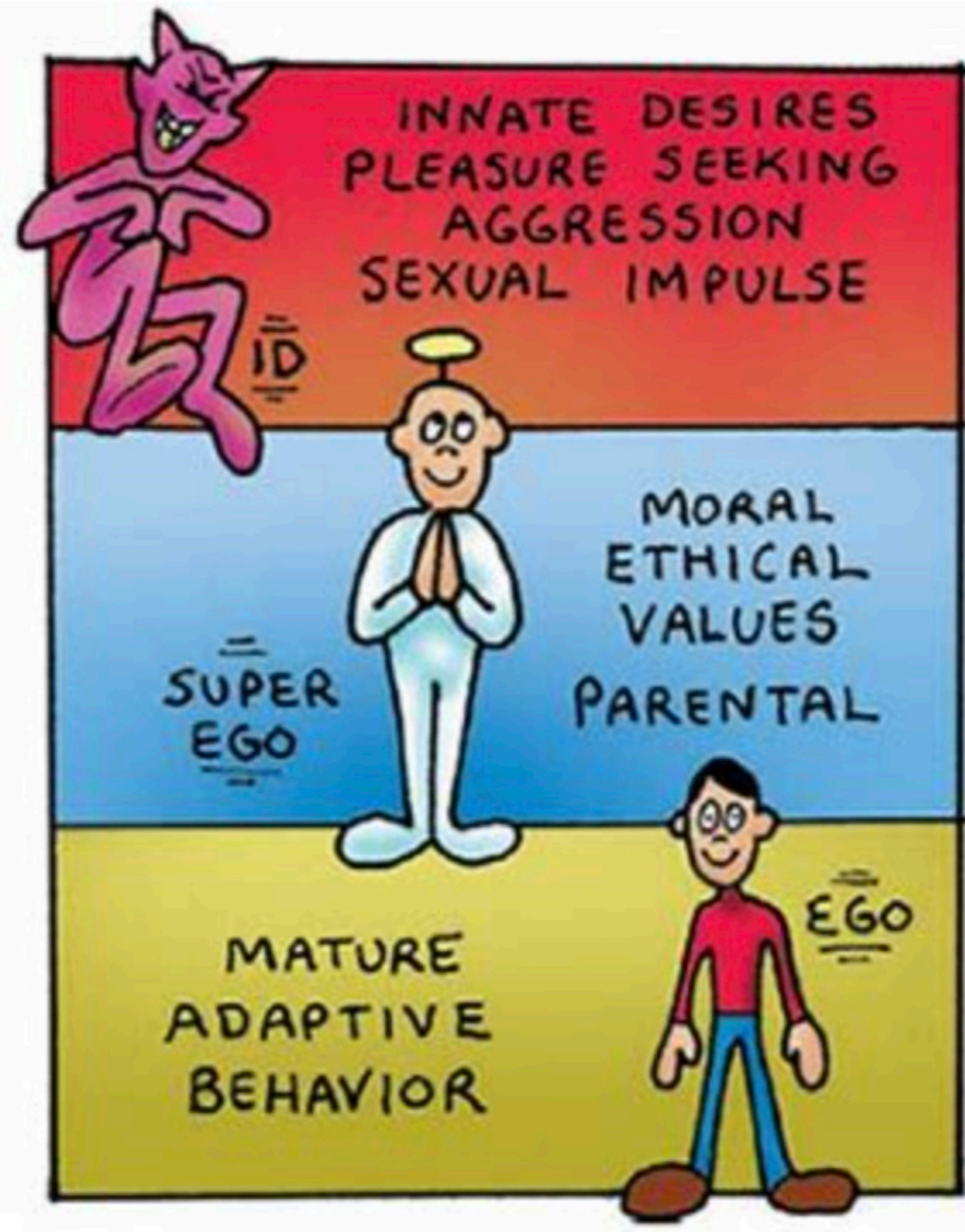


Freud's 3 Levels of Consciousness

- Conscious: ideas, thoughts, and feelings of which we are aware.
- Preconscious: material that can be easily brought into awareness
- Unconscious: material that we can become aware of “only” with great effort and difficulty “if at all”

Freud's 3 Personality Structures

- Id: The collection of unconscious urges and desires that continually seek expression
- Ego: The part of the personality that mediates between the demands of the id and the superego
- Superego: internalized values of family and society (our conscience)



Two Types of Instincts

The Life Instincts (Eros): The life instincts serve the purpose of survival of the individual and the species by seeking to satisfy the needs for food, water, air, and sex, manifested in a form of psychic energy called libido. The life instincts are oriented toward growth and development.

The Death Instincts (Thanatos): In opposition to the life instincts, Freud postulated the destructive or death instincts. Drawing from biology, he stated the obvious fact that all living things decay and die, returning to their original inanimate state, and he believed that people have an unconscious wish to die. One component of the death instincts is the aggressive drive, which he saw as the wish to die turned against objects other than the self. The aggressive drive compels us to destroy, conquer, and kill.

Carl Jung

- Swiss psychiatrist who Freud saw as his successor
- Jung came to disagree with Freud:
 - Freud focused too much on the sexual drive
 - Whereas Freud viewed human beings as prisoners or victims of past events, Jung believed that “man” is not necessarily doomed forever to be shoved about by traumas over which he could exercise little control
- Jung thought the unconscious was a source of energy and strength, not just needs and desires
- Jung had a more positive view of human nature, people are rational and spiritual
- development does not stop at puberty

Carl Jung

He fashioned a new and elaborate explanation of human nature quite unlike any other which he called analytical psychology.

Carl Jung

One of the first points on which Jung disagreed with Freud involved the nature of libido. Jung did not believe that libido was primarily a sexual energy; he argued instead that it was a broad, undifferentiated life energy.

Jung used the term libido in two ways: first, as a diffuse and general life energy, and second, from a perspective similar to Freud's, as a narrower psychic energy that fuels the work of the personality, which he called the psyche. It is through psychic energy that psychological activities such as perceiving, thinking, feeling, and wishing are carried out.

Jung's 2 Divisions of the Unconscious

- personal unconscious: contains each individual's repressed thoughts, forgotten experiences, and undeveloped ideas
- collective unconscious: contains images and ideas (*archetypes*) that are common to all humans. These have developed over our evolutionary history and are present at birth

Carl Jung

Jung believed that just as each of us accumulates and files all of our personal experiences in the personal unconscious, so does humankind collectively, as a species, store the experiences of all our human and pre-human ancestors in the collective unconscious. This heritage is passed to each new generation.

Thus, Jung linked the personality of each of us with the past, not only with childhood but also with the history of the species.

We do not inherit these collective experiences directly. For example, we do not inherit a fear of snakes. Rather, we inherit the potential to fear snakes. We are predisposed to behave and feel the same ways people have always behaved and felt. Whether the predisposition becomes reality depends on the specific experiences we encounter in life.

The ancient experiences contained in the collective unconscious are manifested by recurring themes or patterns, which Jung called **archetype**; Images of universal experiences contained in the collective unconscious.

Among the archetypes Jung proposed are the hero, the mother, the child, God, death, power, and the wise old man . These major archetypes include the persona, the anima and animus, the shadow, and the self.

Some Archetypes

- *mother*: a protective presence, source of life
- *hero*: one who overcomes
- *persona*: our public self (literally “mask”)
- *anima*: The expression of feminine traits in the male (love, nurturance, sensitivity)
- *animus*: The expression of masculine traits in the female (assertiveness, competitiveness)
- *Shadow*: similar to Freud’s id, the “dark side” of our personality
- *The Self*: *represents the unity, integration, and harmony of the total personality . This archetype involves bringing together and balancing all parts of the personality.*

Jung classified people based on the flow of their “psychic energy”

- extraverts: energy is directed toward the external world, are social and like working with others (e.g., politicians)

whereas

- introverts: “psychic energy” is focused more inward on themselves and their own thoughts and feelings (e.g., poets)
- According to Jung, all of us have the capacity for both attitudes, but only one becomes dominant in our personality. The dominant attitude then tends to direct our behavior and consciousness. The nondominant attitude still remains influential, however, and becomes part of the personal unconscious, where it can affect behavior.

Jung also classified people based on how they understand and relate to the world

- rational: regulate their actions primarily by “thinking” or “feeling”

or

- irrational: regulate their actions through the senses “sensing” or through unconscious processes “intuiting”
- irrational here does not have any negative connotations (not “crazy”). It’s just how that person attempts to understand the world

Carl Jung

Jung presented a more positive, hopeful image of human nature than Freud did, and his optimism is apparent in his view of personality development. We are motivated to grow and develop, to improve and extend our selves. Progress does not stop in childhood, as Freud had assumed, but continues throughout life.

Alfred Adler

Alfred Adler fashioned an image of human nature that did not portray people as victims of instincts, biological forces, or childhood experiences. He called his approach individual psychology because it focused on the uniqueness of each person and denied the universality of biological motives and goals ascribed to us by Sigmund Freud.

In Adler's view, each of us is primarily a social being. Our personalities are shaped by our unique social environments and interactions, not by attempts to satisfy biological needs

To Adler, the conscious, not the unconscious, was at the core of personality. Rather than being driven by forces we cannot see and control, we are actively involved in creating our unique selves and directing our own futures.

Alfred Adler

Adler believed that inferiority feelings are a constant motivating force in all behavior. “To be a human being means to feel oneself inferior,” Adler wrote (1933/1939, p. 96). Because this condition is common to all of us, then, it is not a sign of weakness or abnormality.

Adler proposed that inferiority feelings are the source of all human striving. Individual growth results from compensation, from our attempts to overcome our real or imagined inferiorities. Throughout our lives, we are driven by the need to overcome this sense of inferiority and to strive for increasingly higher levels of development.

An inability to overcome inferiority feelings intensifies them, leading to the development of an inferiority complex. People with an inferiority complex have a poor opinion of themselves and feel helpless and unable to cope with the demands of life. Adler found such a complex in the childhood of many adults who came to him for treatment.

Alfred Adler

Whatever the source of the complex, a person may attempt to overcompensate and so develop what Adler called a superiority complex. This involves an exaggerated opinion of one's abilities and accomplishments. Such persons may feel inwardly self-satisfied and superior and show no need to demonstrate their superiority with actual accomplishments.

Adler applied the term finalism to the idea that we have an ultimate goal, a final state of being, and a need to move toward it. The goals for which we strive, however, are potentialities, not actualities.

Adler formalized this concept as *fictional finalism*, the notion that fictional ideas guide our behavior as we strive toward a complete or whole state of being.

Alfred Adler

Adler stated that the ultimate goal for each of us is superiority or perfection, but we try to attain that goal in many different ways. Each of us expresses the striving differently. We develop a unique pattern of characteristics, behaviors, and habits, which Adler called a distinctive character, or *style of life*; a set of beliefs and values that we develop as we strive toward individual and social perfection

Alfred Adler

Birth Order

One's order of birth within the family— being older or younger than one's siblings—creates different conditions of childhood that can affect personality.

One of Adler's most enduring contributions is the idea that order of birth is a major social influence in childhood, one from which we create our style of life. Even though siblings have the same parents and live in the same house, they do not have identical social environments. Being older or younger than one's siblings and being exposed to differing parental attitudes create different childhood conditions that help determine different kinds of personalities.

Alfred Adler

Characteristics of First-Borns

Adler found that first-borns are often oriented toward the past, locked in nostalgia, and pessimistic about the future. Having once learned the advantages of power, they remain concerned with it throughout life. They can exercise power over younger siblings, but at the same time they are more subject to the power of their parents because more is expected of them.

There are advantages to being the first-born child, however. Experiences often enable the first-born to mature intellectually to a higher degree than the younger children.

Adler believed that first-borns also take an unusual interest in maintaining order and authority. They become good organizers, conscientious and scrupulous about detail, authoritarian and conservative in attitude.

Alfred Adler

The Second-Born Child

Second-born children, the ones who caused so much upheaval in the lives of first-borns, are also in a unique situation. They never experience the powerful position once occupied by the first-borns. Even if another child is brought into the family, second-borns do not suffer the sense of dethronement felt by the first-borns. Also, by this time the parents have usually changed their child-rearing attitudes and practices. A second baby is not the novelty the first was; parents may be less concerned and anxious about their own behavior and may take a more relaxed approach to the second child.

Characteristics of Second-Borns

Competition with the first-born may serve to motivate the second-born, who may try to catch up to and surpass the older sibling, a goal that spurs language and motor development in the second-born.

Not having experienced power, second-borns are not as concerned with it. They are more optimistic about the future and are likely to be competitive and ambitious, as Adler was.

Other less beneficial outcomes may also arise from the relationship between first-borns and second-borns. If, for example, the older siblings excel in sports or scholarship, the second-borns may feel that they can never surpass the first-borns and may give up trying. In this case, competitiveness would not become part of the second-borns' lifestyles, and they may become underachievers, performing below their abilities in many facets of life.

Alfred Adler

The Youngest Child

Youngest or last-born children never face the shock of dethronement by another child and often become the pet of the family, particularly if the siblings are more than a few years older. Driven by the need to surpass older siblings, youngest children often develop at a remarkably fast rate. Last-borns are often high achievers in whatever work they undertake as adults.

The opposite can occur, however, if the youngest children are excessively pampered and come to believe they needn't learn to do anything for themselves. As they grow older, such children may retain the helplessness and dependency of childhood. Unaccustomed to striving and struggling, used to being cared for, these people find it difficult to adjust to adulthood.

Karen Horney

An early feminist, she argued that psychoanalysis focused more on men's development than on women's. Horney found that her American patients were so unlike her earlier German patients, both in their neuroses and their normal personalities, that she believed only the social forces to which they had been exposed could account for such a difference. She concluded that personality does not depend wholly on biological forces, as Freud proposed. Horney, like Adler, placed a much greater emphasis than Freud on social relationships and interactions as significant factors in the formation of personality.

Karen Horney

- *Anxiety*: The individual's reaction to real or imagined threats
- *Basic anxiety*: develops in childhood out of the child's dependence on others, esp. parents. Poor parenting could lead to excessive anxiety. *It is the foundation on which all later neuroses develop, and it is inseparably tied to feelings of hostility, helplessness, and fear.*
- *Neurotic trends*: Three irrational strategies for coping with emotional problems and minimizing anxiety as we deal with others

Horney's 3 Neurotic Trends

1. moving towards people (submission or compliant personality), being a “people pleaser,”
Logic is, If I'm nice to you, then you won't hurt me.
2. moving against people (aggression), If I hurt you first, then you can't hurt me.
3. moving away from people (detachment), by avoiding people the person reduces the chance of being hurt.

Erik Erikson

- Agreed with Freud's "psychosexual stages" but felt that development did not stop at puberty
- Probably responsible for the term "identity crisis," he had his own!
- posited 8 stages of development, each with a task or "issue" to be resolved
- success at each stage depends on how the previous stages were resolved

Erikson's stages of personality development

Stage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Oral	Basic trust vs. mistrust							
Anal		Autonomy vs. shame, doubt						
Phallic			Initiative vs. guilt					
Latency				Industry vs. inferiority				
Genital					Identity vs. role confusion			
Young adulthood						Intimacy vs. isolation		
Adulthood							Generativity vs. stagnation	
Maturity								Ego integrity vs. despair

Freud's stages of personality development

Humanistic Personality Theory

- Any personality theory that asserts the fundamental goodness of people and their striving toward higher levels of functioning.

Carl Rogers

- Rogers is the best known of the humanists
- *actualizing tendency*: The drive of every biological organism to become all it is inherently capable of becoming (even plants).
- *self-actualizing tendency*: The drive of **human beings** to fulfill their potential.
- *fully functioning person*: An individual whose self-concept matches his/her inborn potentials. One whose actual self and idealized self are similar.

What makes a Fully Functioning Person

- *unconditional positive regard*: parental acceptance and love regardless of our behavior leads to becoming a fully functioning person. Also the cardinal rule in humanistic psychotherapy.
- *conditional positive regard*: acceptance and love dependent on behaving in certain ways and fulfilling certain conditions. What we more often get from parents and out in the real world.

Trait Theories

- focus is on “describing” personality
- personality traits are “characteristics,” “dimensions,” or “factors” on which people differ (e.g., assertiveness, friendliness)
- many trait theorists see genes and heredity as important determinants of personality
- trait theorists rely heavily on the statistical technique of “factor analysis”

Trait Approach to Personality

This approach assumes behavior is determined by relatively stable traits which are the fundamental units of one's personality.

Traits predispose one to act in a certain way, regardless of the situation. This means that traits should remain consistent across situations and over time, but may vary between individuals. It is presumed that individuals differ in their traits due to genetic differences.

These theories are sometimes referred to as psychometric theories, because of their emphasis on measuring personality by using psychometric tests. Trait scores are continuous (quantitative) variables. A person is given a numeric score to indicate how much of a trait they possess.

Factor analysis - developed by Charles Spearman

- method used by Cattell, Sheldon, Eysenck and others to identify the primary dimensions of personality
- e.g, boldness and sociability are traits or “dimensions” of personality that are related to the primary “factor” of extraversion
- e.g., moodiness, anxiousness, obsessiveness, and perfectionism are traits that are related to the primary factor of “neuroticism”

Hippocrates' Theory of the "Humors"

The theory of the four humors tried to explain human personality and was one of the precursors of modern psychology. It dates back to almost four centuries before the birth of Christ. Many consider it to be one of the first attempts to create the science that would become psychology 2,000 years later.

Hippocrates' theory of the four humors basically states that the human body is made up of four substances. **The theory refers to these substances as "humors."** For ideal health, they have to be in perfect balance. When this balance is lost, **it leads to sickness.** According to the theory of the four humors, the substances that make up the human body are: **black bile, yellow bile, blood, and phlegm.** Hippocrates linked each of these humors to an element in the universe and atmospheric conditions:

Hippocrates' Theory of the “Humors”

- **Black bile:** related to earth, with cold and dry properties.
- **Yellow bile:** related to fire, with dry and warm properties.
- **Blood:** related to air, with moist and warm qualities.
- **Phlegm:** related to water, with moist and cold qualities.

Hippocrates and his followers never saw disease as a solely organic matter. They believed that the **mind and the body** were a single entity. As such, during disease, the mind had certain effects on the physical body and vice versa.

He postulated that an excess of one of the humors brought about a specific temperament in people.

Hippocrates' Theory of the "Humors"

- **Melancholic:** In these people, black bile predominates. They have a melancholic temperament, are very sensitive, and enjoy artistic pursuits.
- **Choleric:** People in this category have a higher amount of yellow bile, which is the source of their passionate temperament. They have enormous vitality and get angry quickly.
- **Sanguine:** Blood is the predominant humor in these people. They're confident, joyful, optimistic, expressive, and sociable.
- **Phlegmatic:** The phlegmatic have a high amount of phlegm in their systems. They're deep thinkers, fair, calm, willing to compromise, and hard workers.

Constitutional Theory

- William Sheldon - suggested that body type (somatotype) was predictive of one's personality type
- 3 basic body types "Somatotypes"
 - ectomorphic: thin and frail
 - mesomorphic: strong and muscular
 - endomorph: soft and round

cerebrotonic: quiet, scholarly, timid, sensitive

somatotonic: bold, adventurous, aggressive

visceratonic: cheerful, calm, relaxed, extroverted

Sheldon found strong correlations between

being ectomorphic and cerebrotonic

being mesomorphic and somatotonic

being endomorphic and viscerotonic

He was a diligent researcher. He argued that mesomorphy's associated temperaments (active and aggressive but lacking sensitivity and inhibition) tended to cause **delinquency** and criminal behaviour. Although his research was groundbreaking, it was criticized on the grounds that his samples were not representative.

Hans J. Eysenck's Typology

Eysenck proposed a theory of personality based on biological factors, arguing that individuals inherit a type of nervous system that affects their ability to learn and adapt to the environment.

He used a technique called factor analysis. This technique reduces behavior to a number of factors which can be grouped together under separate headings, called dimensions.

Eysenck found that their behavior could be represented by two dimensions: Introversion / Extroversion (E); Neuroticism / Stability (N). Eysenck called these second-order personality traits.

Eysenck was a controversial figure who questioned the efficacy of psychoanalysis. He felt we inherited basic response tendencies which interacted with environment to produce personality.

Extraversion/introversion

Extraverts are sociable and crave excitement and change, and thus can become bored easily. They tend to be carefree, optimistic and impulsive. They are more likely to take risks and be thrill seekers. Eysenck argues that this is because they inherit an under aroused nervous system and so seek stimulation to restore the level of optimum stimulation.

Introverts on the other hand lie at the other end of this scale, being quiet and reserved. They are already over-aroused and shun sensation and stimulation. Introverts are reserved, plan their actions and control their emotions. They tend to be serious, reliable and pessimistic. They learn society's rules too well.

Neuroticism/stability

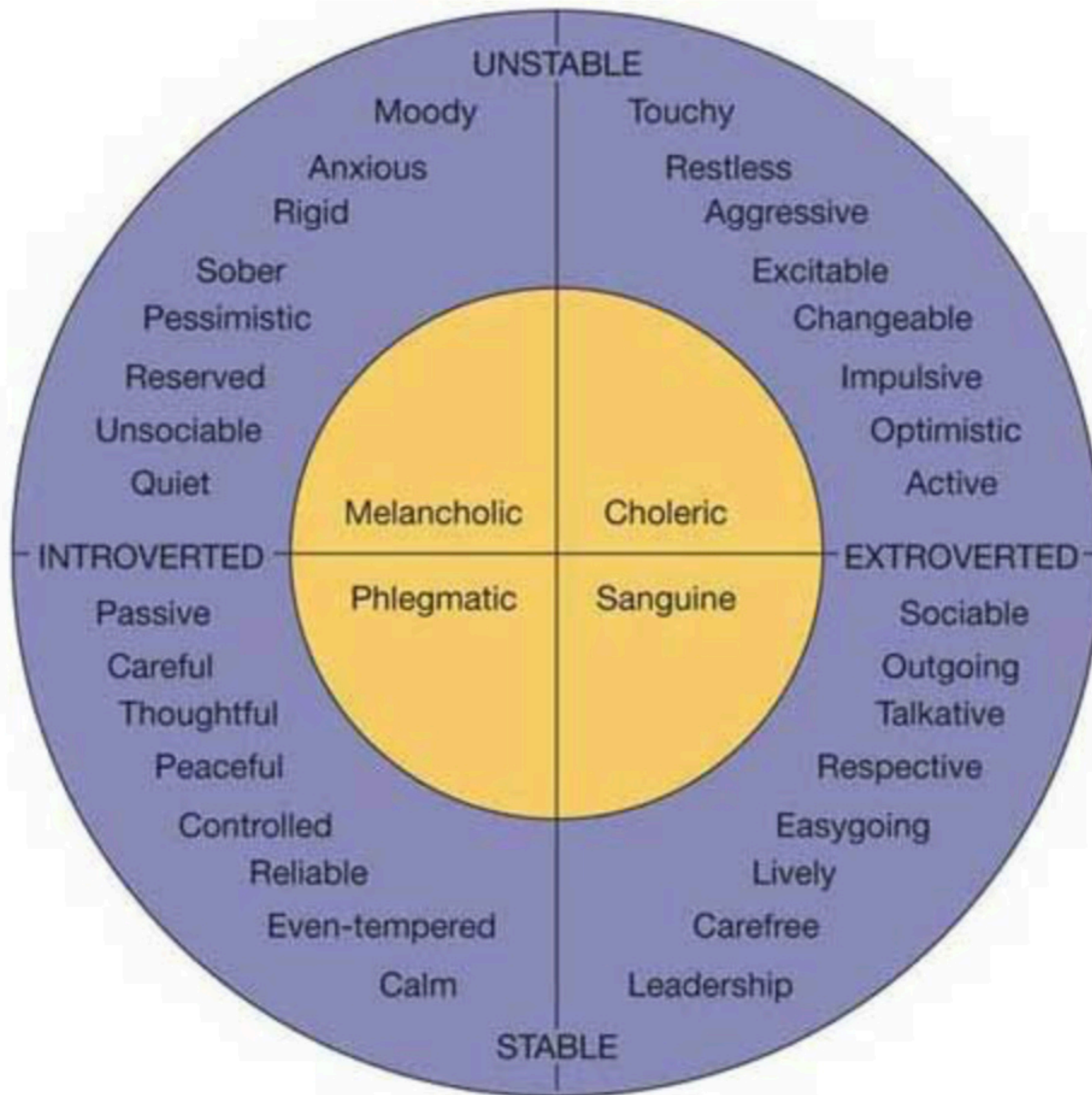
A person's level of neuroticism is determined by the reactivity of their sympathetic nervous system. A stable person's nervous system will generally be less reactive to stressful situations, remaining calm and level headed.

Someone high in neuroticism on the other hand will be much more unstable, and prone to overreacting to stimuli and may be quick to worry, anger or fear. They are overly emotional and find it difficult to calm down once upset. Neurotic individuals have an ANS that responds quickly to stress.

Psychoticism/normality

Eysenck later added a third trait / dimension - **Psychoticism** – e.g., lacking in empathy, cruel, a loner, aggressive and troublesome. This has been related to high levels of testosterone. The higher the testosterone, the higher the level of psychoticism, with low levels related to more normal balanced behavior.

According to Eysenck, the two dimensions of neuroticism (stable vs. unstable) and introversion-extroversion combine to form a variety of personality characteristics.



- Stable people: tend to function well, whether an introvert or an extravert
- Neurotic introverts: tend to suffer from fears, phobias, and depression because of their “biology” (they are melancholic - all superego)
- Neurotic extraverts: tend to be impulsive and, in the extreme, antisocial (they are choleric - all id)

How many factors do we need?

- Eysenck originally suggested two
- Sheldon suggested three
- Cattell suggested 16 factors
- Other theories suggest different numbers
- Currently, the most popular trait model in psychology is the “BIG FIVE” (*the five factor model*)

The Big Five Personality Traits

Many contemporary [personality](#) psychologists believe that there are five basic dimensions of personality, often referred to as the "Big 5" personality traits. The five broad personality traits described by the theory are extraversion (also often spelled extroversion), [agreeableness](#), [openness](#), [conscientiousness](#), and [neuroticism](#)

It is important to note that each of the five personality factors represents a range between two extremes. For example, extraversion represents a continuum between extreme extraversion and extreme [introversion](#). In the real world, most people lie somewhere in between the two polar ends of each dimension.

The “Big 5” Dimensions of Personality

TABLE 11-1

THE “BIG FIVE” DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY

Extroversion

High scorers: enthusiastic, gregarious, playful, expressive, happy-go-lucky, impetuous, energetic, talkative, assertive, demonstrative, daring, confident, frank, witty, enterprising, optimistic

Low scorers: unsociable, untalkative, detached, timid, restrained, unadventurous, submissive, lethargic, moody

Agreeableness

High scorers: accommodating, genial, understanding, lenient, courteous, generous, flexible, unassuming, principled, affectionate, down-to-earth, natural

Low scorers: antagonistic, unsympathetic, demanding, impolite, cruel, condescending, irritable, conceited, stubborn, distrustful, selfish, insensitive, surly, devious, prejudiced, unfriendly, volatile, stingy, deceitful, thoughtless

Conscientiousness/ Dependability

High scorers: organized, efficient, reliable, meticulous, persistent, cautious, punctual, decisive, dignified, consistent, thrifty, conventional, analytical

Low scorers: disorganized, careless, inconsistent, forgetful, rash, aimless, lazy, indecisive, impractical, nonconforming

(Neuroticism)

Emotional Stability

High scorers: unexcitable, unemotional, autonomous, individualistic

Low scorers: insecure, anxious, touchy, emotional, envious, gullible, meddlesome

Culture/ Intellect/Openness

High scorers: introspective, deep, insightful, intelligent, creative, curious, sophisticated

Low scorers: shallow, unimaginative, unobservant, ignorant

Openness

High

- [Very creative](#)
- Open to trying new things
- Focused on tackling new challenges
- Happy to think about abstract concepts

Low

- Dislikes change
- Does not enjoy new things
- Resists new ideas
- Not very imaginative
- Dislikes abstract or theoretical concepts

Conscientiousness

High

- Spends time preparing
- Finishes important tasks right away
- Pays attention to detail
- Enjoys having a set schedule

Low

- Dislikes structure and schedules
- Makes messes and doesn't take care of things
- Fails to return things or put them back where they belong
- Procrastinates important tasks
- Fails to complete necessary or assigned tasks

Extraversion

High

- Enjoys being the center of attention
- Likes to start conversations
- Enjoys meeting new people
- Has a wide social circle of friends and acquaintances
- Finds it easy to make new friends
- Feels energized when around other people
- Say things before thinking about them

Low

- Prefers solitude
- Feels exhausted when having to socialize a lot
- Finds it difficult to start conversations
- Dislikes making small talk
- Carefully thinks things through before speaking
- Dislikes being the center of attention

Agreeableness

High

- Has a great deal of interest in other people
- Cares about others
- Feels empathy and concern for other people
- Enjoys helping and contributing to the happiness of other people
- Assists others who are in need of help

Low

- Takes little interest in others
- Doesn't care about how other people feel
- Has little interest in other people's problems
- Insults and belittles others
- Manipulates others to get what they want

Neuroticism

High

- Experiences a lot of stress
- Worries about many different things
- Gets upset easily
- Experiences dramatic shifts in mood
- Feels anxious
- Struggles to bounce back after stressful events

Low

- Emotionally stable
- Deals well with stress
- Rarely feels sad or depressed
- Doesn't worry much
- Is very relaxed

The Situationist Position

- “Situationists” argue that people behave in certain ways not because of their traits but because of the situations in which they find themselves
- Walter Mischel - is the most vocal proponent of this position
- “Interactionism” a compromise position that acknowledges the roles of both traits and situations

Cognitive-Social Learning Theories

- Personality has a lot to do with our own perceptions of ourselves and our abilities.
- Julian Rotter - Locus of Control
- Albert Bandura - Social Learning Theory

Rotter's Locus of Control

locus of control: - An expectancy about whether outcomes are under internal (our) control or external (outside) control.

- *Internal locus*: One who believes he can control his/her own fate, takes credit for successes and responsibility for failures
- *external locus*: One who believes his fate is determined by chance, luck, or the behavior of others. Responsibility lies outside the person.
- It is generally accepted that having an “internal” locus is psychologically healthier

Bandura's Social Learning Theory

For Bandura: Personality is behavior and behavior depends on our expectations

expectancies: What a person thinks will result from his behaving in a certain way in a certain situation

performance standards: standards people develop and use to evaluate their behavior in a variety of situations

self-efficacy: The expectancy that one's efforts will be successful.

Bandura's Social Learning Theory

- *Reciprocal determinism* - Bandura's concept that we act as a stimulus on the social environment and the environment, in turn, acts as a stimulus on us.
- An attractive, socially adept child is received well and valued by his peers. This increases his self-esteem which, in turn, makes him even more valued and liked.
- Unfortunately, the reverse could be true for an unattractive, socially inept child.

Methods of Personality Assessment

- personal interviews
- observation
- objective tests -(administered and scored in a standard way)
- projective tests (tests consisting of ambiguous or unstructured material)

Two Types of Personal Interviews

- *unstructured*: The interviewer asks questions about any material that comes up and asks follow-up questions whenever appropriate (psychotherapy)
- *structured*: The order and content of the questions are fixed and the interviewer adheres to a set format.

Observation

- One of the best ways of learning about personality, and behavior in general is direct observation
- However, because of factors like high cost and huge time requirements, this method is not often used

Objective Tests

- usually “pencil and paper” questionnaires
- *16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF)*: A personality test created by Cattell that provides scores on the 16 traits he identified (often used in vocational settings)
- *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)*: The most widely used personality test of any kind (the standard by which other tests are judged)

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) (continued)

- The MMPI has 10 “clinical scales”
- For convenience a person’s MMPI results are describes as a “profile” based on the two or three scales he/she scored highest on
- The MMPI is very long, having nearly 600 questions!

TABLE 11-2

THE 10 CLINICAL SCALES OF THE MMPI-2

Clinical Scale	Description of High Scorers
Hypochondriasis	Excessive concern with physical health and bodily function, somatic complaints, chronic weakness
Depression	Unhappy, pessimistic, hopeless; lack of self-confidence, loss of energy, feeling of futility
Hysteria	Reacts to stress with physical symptoms such as blindness or paralysis; lacks insights about motives and feelings
Psychopathic deviation	Disregard for rules, laws, ethics, and moral conduct; impulsive; rebellious toward authority figures; may engage in lying, stealing, and cheating
Masculinity-femininity	Adheres to nontraditional gender traits, or rejects the typical gender role
Paranoia	Suspicious, particularly in the area of interpersonal relations; guarded, moralistic, and rigid; overly responsive to criticism
Psychasthenia	Obsessive and compulsive; unreasonably fearful; anxious, tense, and highly strung
Schizophrenia	Experiences detachment from reality, often accompanied by hallucinations and delusions and bizarre thought processes; often confused, disorganized
Hypomania	Elevated mood, accelerated speech, flight of ideas; overactive, energetic, and talkative
Social introversion	Shy, insecure, and uncomfortable in social situations; timid; reserved; often described by others as cold and distant

Projective Tests

- “*projective hypothesis*” - the idea that we will project unconscious thoughts and feelings onto an “ambiguous stimulus”
- These are favored by “psychodynamic” theorists
- *Rorschach test*: person responds to ten inkblots; what they see reveals aspects of their personality.
- *Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)*: a series of pictures with people in various situations. The person tells a story which gives insight into his/her personality and problems

The End