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**Personal identity** refers to those attributes of a person that make her/him different from others.

**Social identity** refers to those aspects of a person that link her/him to a social or cultural group or are derived from it.

**Personal self** leads to an orientation in which one feels primarily concerned with oneself.

**Social self** emerges in relation with others and emphasizes such aspects of life as cooperation, unity, affiliation, sacrifice, support or sharing. This self values family and social relationships, and is thus also referred to as **familial** or **relational self**.

**Self-concept** is the way we perceive ourselves and the ideas we hold about our competencies and attributes.

**Self-esteem** is the value judgment of a person about himself/herself. Our capacity to view ourselves in terms of stable dispositions permits us to combine separate self-evaluations into a general psychological image of ourselves, and this is known as an **overall sense of self-esteem**. Self-esteem shows a strong relation with our everyday behavior.

People differ in the extent to which they believe they themselves control their life outcomes or the outcomes are controlled by luck or fate or other situational factors. A

person who believes that s/he has the ability or behaviors required by a particular situation demonstrates high **self-efficacy**.

**Self-regulation** refers to our ability to organize and monitor our own behavior. People who are able to change their behavior according to the demands of the external environment are high on self-monitoring.

**Self-control** refers to learning to delay or defer the gratification of needs.

A number of psychological techniques of self-control have been suggested.

- **Observation of our own behavior** – It provides us with necessary information that may be used to change, modify or strengthen certain aspects of self.
- **Self-instruction** – We often instruct ourselves to do something and behave the way we want to, and such instructions are quite effective in self regulation.
- **Self-reinforcement** – It involves rewarding behaviors that have pleasant outcomes.

nd human personality by examining certain broad patterns in the observed behavioural characteristics of individuals. Each behavioural pattern refers to one type in which individuals are placed in terms of the similarity of their behavioural characteristics with that pattern.

- The Greek physician **Hippocrates** had proposed a typology personality based on fluid or humour. He classified people into four types (sanguine, phlegmatic, melancholic and choleric) each characterized by specific behavioural features.
- In India, **Charak Samhita** classified people into categories of vata, pita and kapha on the basis of three humoral elements called the tridosha. Each refers to a type of temperament called prakriti (the nature) of a person.
- There is also a typology of personality based on the trigunas.
  1. Sattva guna includes attributes like cleanliness, truthfulness, dutifulness, detachment, discipline, etc.
  2. Rajas guna includes intensive activity, desire for gratification, dissatisfaction, envy of others and a materialistic mentality.
  3. Tamas guna characterizes anger, arrogance, depression, laziness, helplessness, etc.

All the three are present in each and every person in different degrees. The dominance of one guna over another may lead to a specific type of behavior.

- **Sheldon** classified personality using body build and temperament into Endomorphic, Mesomorphic and Ectomorphic typology.
  1. Endomorphs are fat, soft and round and are relaxed and sociable.

2. Mesomorphs have strong musculature, are rectangular with a strong body build and are energetic and courageous.
  3. Ectomorphs are thin, long and fragile and are brainy, artistic and introverted.
- **Carl Jung** has proposed a typology by grouping people into introverts and extraverts.
  - **Friedman** and **Rosenman**, whilst trying to identify psychosocial risk factors, classified individuals into categories.
    1. Type A personality – Possesses high motivation, lack patience, feel short of time, and are always stressed out. People with this personality are more susceptible to problems like hypertension and coronary heart disease.
    2. Type B personality – It is understood as the absence of Type-A traits.
    3. Type C personality – Suggested by **Morris**, this type of personality is prone to cancer. Individuals are cooperative, unassertive and patient, suppress their negative emotions and show compliance to authority.
    4. Type D personality – Characterised by proneness to depression.

**Trait approaches to personality** focus on the specific psychological attributes along which individuals differ in consistent and stable ways. They are mainly concerned with the description or characterization of basic components of personality. A **trait** is considered as a relatively enduring attribute or quality on which one individual differs from another. Traits are generally consistent across situations, they are relatively stable over time and their strengths and combinations vary across individuals leading to individual differences in personality.

- **Gordon Allport's Trait Theory** proposed that individuals possess a number of traits that are dynamic in nature.
  1. Cardinal traits are highly generalized dispositions and indicate the goal around which a person's entire life seems to revolve.
  2. Central traits are those traits that are less pervasive in effect, for example warm, sincere, etc.
  3. Secondary traits are the least generalised characteristics of persons such as likes or dislikes.

While Allport acknowledged the influence of situations on behavior, he held that the way a person reacts to a given situation depends on his/her traits, although people sharing the same traits might express them in different ways. Allport considered traits more like intervening variables that occur between the stimulus situation and response of the person. This means that any variation in traits would elicit a different response from the same situation.

- **Catell : Personality Factors** – Raymond Catell believed that there is a common structure on which people differ from each other, and this structure could be determined empirically. He tried to identify the primary traits from a huge array of descriptive adjectives and applied a statistical technique called factor analysis to discover the common structures.
  1. He found 16 primary or source traits that are stable and considered as the building blocks of personality.
  2. Surface traits are the results of the interaction of source traits.

He developed a test called the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire for the assessment of personality.

- **H.J Eysenck’s Theory** proposed that personality could be reduced into two broad dimensions that are biologically and genetically based.
  1. Neuroticism vs. emotional stability – It refers to the degree to which people have control over their feelings.
  2. Extraversion vs. introversion – It refers to the degree to which people are socially outgoing or socially withdrawn.
  3. Psychoticism vs. sociability – It is considered to interact with the other two dimensions mentioned above. A person who scores high on psychoticism tends to be hostile, egocentric and antisocial.

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire is the test which is used for studying these dimensions of personality.

The **Psychodynamic Approach** was pioneered by Sigmund Freud, who used free association ( a method in which a person is asked to openly share all the thoughts, feelings and ideas that come to her/his mind), dream analysis and analysis of errors to understand the functioning of the mind.

**Freud’s theory** considers the sources and consequences of emotional conflicts and the way people deal with these. In doing so, it visualizes the human mind in terms of the three levels of consciousness.

- **Conscious** is the first level, which includes the thoughts, feelings and actions of which people are aware.
- **Preconscious** is the second level which includes mental activity of which people may become aware only if they attend to it closely.
- **Unconscious** is the third level, which includes mental activity that people are unaware of. According to Freud, the unconscious is a reservoir of instinctive drives and stores all ideas and wishes that are concealed from conscious awareness because perhaps they lead to psychological conflicts. Most of these

arise from sexual desires which cannot be expressed openly and are therefore repressed. People constantly struggle to find socially acceptable ways to express these desires or find some way of repressing them, and unsuccessful resolution of conflicts results in abnormal behavior.

Freud developed a therapeutic procedure called psychoanalysis, the basic goal of which is to bring repressed unconscious materials to consciousness, thereby helping people live in a more self aware and integrated manner.

**Freud's theory of the Structure of Personality** visualizes the primary structural elements of personality as id, ego and superego that reside in the unconscious as forces and can be inferred from the ways people behave.

- **Id** – It is the source of a person's instinctual energy. It deals with gratification of primitive needs, sexual desires and aggressive impulses. It works based on the pleasure principle, which assumes that people seek pleasure and try to avoid pain. Freud considered much of a person's instinctual energy to be sexual, and the rest as aggressive. Id does not care for moral values, society or other individuals.

Freud also assumed that id is energized by two instinctual forces, called *life instinct* and *death instinct*. The instinctual life force that energises the id is called the *libido* that works according to the pleasure principle and seeks immediate gratification.



• **Ego** – It grows out of id, and seeks to satisfy and individual's instinctual needs in accordance with reality. It works according to the reality principle, and often directs the id towards more appropriate ways of behaving.

- **Superego** – It is the moral branch of mental functioning and tells the id and the ego whether gratification in a particular instance is ethical.

The relative strength of the id, ego and superego determines each person's stability.

**Freud's theory of Ego Defence Mechanisms** suggests that much of human behavior reflects an attempt to deal with or escape from anxiety. Thus, how the ego deals with anxiety largely determines how people behave. Freud believed that people avoid anxiety mainly by developing defence mechanisms that try to defend the ego against the awareness of instinctual needs. Thus, **defence mechanism** is a way of reducing anxiety by distorting reality.

- **Repression** – Anxiety provoking behaviours or thoughts are completely dismissed by the unconscious.
- **Projection** – People attribute their own traits to others.
- **Denial** – Complete refusal to accept reality.
- **Reaction Formation** – A person defends themselves against anxiety by adopting behaviours opposite to his/her true feelings.
- **Rationalisation** – Unreasonable feelings or behaviours are attempted to be made to seem reasonable and acceptable.

**Freud's Five-Stage Theory of Personality (Psychosexual ) Development** claims that the core aspects of personality are established early, remain stable throughout life and can be changed only with great difficulty. Problems encountered at any stage may arrest development and have a long term effect on a person's life.

- **Oral Stage** – A newborn's instincts are focused on the mouth, and this is the infant's primary pleasure seeking centre. The infant achieves oral gratification through feeding, thumb sucking, biting and babbling. IT is during these early months that people's basic feelings about the world are established, and thus an adult who considers the world a bitter place probably had difficulty during the oral stage of development.
- **Anal Stage** – Around the ages two and three the child learns to respond to some of the demands of the society, one of which is made by parents where the child learns to control the bodily functions of urination and defecation. Most children of this age experiences pleasure in moving their bowels, and thus the anal area of the body becomes the focus of certain pleasurable feelings. This stage establishes the basis for the conflict between the id and the ego, the desire for babyish behavior and demand for adult, controlled behavior.
- **Phallic Stage** – This stage focuses on the genitals. At around ages four and five children begin to realize the difference between males and females, and become aware of their sexuality and the sexual relationship between their parents. At this stage, the male child experiences the Oedipus Complex, which involves love for the mother, hostility towards the father and the consequent fear of punishment or castration by the father. A major developmental achievement of

this stage is the resolution of this complex, which takes place by accepting the father's relationship with the mother and modeling his own behavior after the father.

The female child experiences the Electra Complex, where by attaching her love to the father, the girl tries to symbolically marry him and raise a family. When she realizes that this is unlikely, she begins to identify with the mother and copy her behavior as a method of getting her father's affection.

Boys give up sexual feelings for their mothers and being to see their fathers as role models rather than as rivals, girls give up their sexual desires for their father and identify with their mother.

- **Latency Stage** – This stage lasts from about seven years until puberty, where the child continues to grow physically but sexual urges are relatively inactive.
- **Genital Stage** – During this stage, the person attains maturity in psychosexual development. The sexuality, fears and repressed feelings of earlier stages are once again exhibited, and people learn to deal with members of the opposite sex in a socially and sexually mature way. However, if the journey towards this stage is marked by excessive over-indulgence, it may cause fixation to any earlier stage of development.

Freud's theory also postulates that as children proceed from one stage to another stage of development, they adjust their view of the world, and failure of a child to pass successfully through a stage leads to **fixation** to that stage. In this situation, the child's development gets arrested at an earlier stage.

Though Freud's theories are an important part of the psychodynamic approach, a number of theories have further been developed their ideas following Freud. These theorists have been called **neo-analytic** or **post-Freudian** in order to differentiate their work from Freud's. These theories are characterized by less prominent roles to sexual and aggressive tendencies of the id and expansion of the concept of ego.

The **Humanistic Approach to Personality** was mainly developed in response to Freud's theory, and the important contributors to this approach were Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow.

**Carl Rogers** proposed the idea of a **fully functional person**. He believed that fulfillment is the motivating force for personality development. People try to express their capabilities and potentials to the fullest extent possible, and there is an inborn tendency among persons that directs them to actualize their inherited nature. Rogers made two basic assumptions about human behavior.

- Behaviour is goal-directed and worthwhile.

- People will almost always choose adaptive and self-actualising behavior.

Rogers' theory was structured around the concept of self. The theory assumed that people are constantly engaged in the process of actualizing their true selves. He suggested that each person has a concept of their ideal self. When there is a correspondence between the real self and the ideal self, the person is generally happy. Discrepancy between the real self and ideal self often results in unhappiness and dissatisfaction. The basic principle is that people have the tendency to maximize self concept through self actualization.

Rogers views personality development as a continuous process and recognizes the role of social influences in the development of self concept to create positive or negative self-esteem and self-concept.

Rogers' method of therapy was called **client-centered therapy** which requires an atmosphere of unconditional positive regard (non-judgmental attitude of the therapist).

**Abraham Maslow** gave a detailed account of psychologically healthy people in terms of their attainment of self actualization. **Self-actualization** is a state in which people have reached their fullest potential. It becomes possible by analyzing the motivations that govern our lives. Survival needs (biological, security and belongingness needs) are commonly found among animals and human beings. Thus, an individual's sole concern with the satisfaction of these needs reduces her/him to the level of animals. The real journey of human life begins with the pursuit of self-esteem and self-actualisation needs.

According to the humanistic perspective, a healthy person has the following characteristics :

- They become aware of themselves, their feelings and their limits, accept themselves and what they make of their lives as their own responsibility.
- They experience here and now and are not trapped.
- They do not live in the past or dwell in the future through anxious expectations and restored defenses.

**Personality Assessment** is a formal effort aimed at understanding the personality of an individual. It refers to the procedures used to evaluate or differentiate people on the basis of certain characteristics. The goal of assessment is to understand and predict behavior with minimum error and maximum accuracy.

The most commonly used techniques for personality assessment are Psychometric tests, self report measures, projective techniques and behavioural analysis.



**Self Report Measures** were suggested by Allport, where fairly structured measures often based on theory, require subjects to give responses using some kind of rating scale. The method requires the subject to objectively report her/his own feelings with respect to various items, and the responses are accepted at their face value. They are scored in quantitative terms and interpreted on the basis of norms developed for the test. These techniques of personality assessment are known as **direct techniques** because they tend to rely on information directly obtained from the person who clearly knows that her/his personality is being assessed.

- The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) – Developed by Hathaway and McKinley as a tool for psychiatric diagnosis, it has been found very effective in identifying varieties of psychopathology. The revised version is available as MMPI-2 that is a collection of 567 statements, where the subject has to mark each statement as true or false. The test is divided into ten subscales which seek to diagnose hypochondriasis, depression, hysteria, psychopathic deviate, masculinity-femininity, paranoia, psychasthenia, schizophrenia, mania and social introversion.
- Eysenck Personality Questionnaire – This test initially assessed two dimensions of personality, introverted-extraverted and emotionally stable-emotionally unstable. Later on, Eysenck added psychoticism which is linked to social interaction behavior.
- Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) – The test provides declarative statements, and the subject responds to a specific situation by choosing from a set of given alternatives.

Self report measures, however, suffer from a number of problems.

- **Social desirability** is the tendency on the part of the respondent to endorse items in a socially desirable manner.
- **Acquiescence** is the tendency of the subject to agree with the items irrespective of their contents.

The above direct methods of personality assessment cannot uncover the unconscious part of our behavior and thus fail to provide us with a real picture of an individual's identity. This can be overcome by using **indirect methods of assessment** such as Projective techniques.

**Projective techniques** are based on the assumption that a less structured or unstructured stimulus or situation will allow the individual to project her/his feelings, desires and needs on to that situation. These projections are interpreted by experts.

While the nature of stimuli and responses in these techniques vary enormously, all of them do share the following features.

- The stimuli are relatively or fully unstructured and poorly defined.
- The person being assessed is usually not told about the purpose of assessment and the method of scoring and interpretation.
- The person is informed that there are no correct or incorrect responses.
- Each response is considered to reveal a significant aspect of personality.
- Scoring and interpretation are lengthy and sometimes subjective.

Various projective techniques are as follows:

- **Rorschach Inkblot Test** – Developed by Hermann Rorschach, the test consists of ten inkblots, five of which are in black and white, with red ink and the remaining three in pastel colours. The blots are symmetrical in design each blot is printed in the centre of a white cardboard of about 7"x10. The cards are administered in two phases. The first, called performance proper, is where the subjects are shown the cards and are asked to explain what they see in them. The second phase called inquiry is a detailed response where the subject is asked to explain where, how and on what basis the particular response was made.

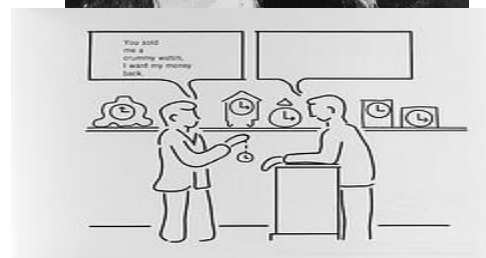


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- **Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)** – Developed by Morgan and Murray, it is a little more structured than the inkblot test. This test consists of 30 black and white pictures and one blank card, and each picture card depicts one or more people in a variety of situations. The subject is asked to create a story explaining the situation shown, including what led up to the situation, what is happening at the moment and what are the characters feeling and thinking? Uma Chaudhury has also created an Indian adaptation of TAT.



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- **Rosenzweig's Picture-Frustration Study (P-F Study)** – It was developed to assess how people express aggression in the face of a frustrating situation. The test presents cartoon like pictures in which one person frustrates another, or calls to attention a frustrating situation. The subject is

asked to explain what the frustrated person will say or do. The analysis of responses is based on the direction of the aggression.

- **Sentence Completion Test** – A number of incomplete sentences are produced and the subject is required to complete them. It is held that the type of endings used by the subjects reflect their attitudes, motivation and conflicts. The test provides subjects with several opportunities to reveal their underlying unconscious motivations.
- **Draw a Person Test** – The subject is asked to draw a person on a sheet of paper, and after the completion of the drawing the subject is generally asked to draw the figure of an opposite sex person, and is asked to make a story about the person as if s/he was a character in a novel or play.

The interpretation of projective test responses requires sophisticated skills and specialized training.

**Behavioural Analysis Measures** use observation of behavior as their basis. Various methods of behavioural analysis are described as follows.

- Interview – It involves talking to the person being assessed and asking specific questions. In unstructured interviews, the interviewer seeks to develop an impression about the person and the way a person presents themselves and answers the questions carries enough potential to reveal their personality. The structured interviews address very specific questions and follow a set procedure, which is done to make an objective comparison of persons being interviewed.
- Observation – It is characterized by the following limitations.
  1. Professional training requires collection of useful data through methods that are quite time consuming and demanding.
  2. Maturity of the psychologist is a precondition for obtaining valid data through these techniques.
  3. Mere presence of the observer may contaminate the results.
- Behavioural Ratings – They attempt to put individuals into certain categories in terms of their behavioural qualities. However, this method suffers from the following limitations.
  1. Raters often display certain biases that colour their judgments of different traits. This often forms the basis of a rater's overall judgment of a person and this tendency is known as the **halo effect**.
  2. Raters have a tendency to place individuals either in the middle of the scale (**middle category bias**) or in extreme positions (**extreme response bias**).

- Nomination – Each person is asked to choose one or more persons of the group with whom they would like to participate in any other activity, and may also be asked to specify the reason for their choice. Nominations thus received may be analysed to understand the personality and behavioural qualities of the person.
- Situational Tests – The most commonly used test is called the **situational stress test** that provides us with information about how a person behaves under stressful conditions.