Block 2
Psychology of Individual Differences

BLOCK 2 PSYCHOLOGY OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Introduction

This block comprises of two Units which deals with the different aspects that makes individual different. It is interesting to note that no two individuals are same, although their looks, behaviour, tastes, nature and personality may be similar. Variation or difference is an inevitable aspect of all biological population of the Earth. Imagine if our Earth had only one type of tree, say only mango tree, or one type of animal everywhere or one type of flower everywhere. Then, how would the world look like? Boring, right? Similarly, imagine a world where every individual is similar to each other in thinking, attitudes, intelligence, social status, and personality (suppose all were extrovert only). Then, again it would become damn boring for us and especially for psychologists because we would not found anything interesting to study on. So, differences or diversity are a pervasive feature of this world and it is even more appealing for us (psychologist). *The first unit* of this block deals with the concept and theories of intelligence. It also discusses the aspects and ways of measuring intelligence. The different levels of intelligence also explain the individual difference. *The second unit* of the second block deals with the concept, aspects and theories of personality. It also discusses the ways by which personality can be measured. Personality has always been a topic of discussion among common people, but defining it and outlining its nature has always been a difficult task for everyone including psychologists. The unit tries to explain these facts about personality.

UNIT 5 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND INTELLIGENCE*

Structure

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Differences or variation is an inevitable part of our world. If you look around you can see innumerable variety of flowers, plants, trees, birds and animals. Humans too are no exception. Just like differences in their skin colour and features, human differ from each other at the behavioural level too. This variation in behaviours or individual differences makes the study of psychology worth.

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* Contributed by Dr. Arti Singh, IGNOU

However, psychologists are not unanimous regarding the cause of differences in behaviour among individuals. One can find numerous causes and theories related to individual differences in psychology textbooks. In this unit, we shall discuss the meaning of individual differences and see how intelligence plays a significant role in manifesting differences among individuals. We will also explore the concept of emotional intelligence and social intelligence in this unit.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this Unit, you would be able to:

• Describe the concept and nature of individual differences;

• Explain the nature vs. nurture debate with reference to individual differences;

• Elucidate the different theoretical approaches explaining the concept of intelligence; and

• Discuss the concept of emotional intelligence and social intelligence.

5.2 CONCEPT AND NATURE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Variation or difference is an inevitable aspect of all biological population of the Earth. Imagine if our Earth had only one type of tree, say only mango tree, or one type of animal everywhere or one type of flower everywhere. Then, how would the world look like? Boring, right? Similarly, imagine a world where every individual is similar to each other in thinking, attitudes, intelligence, social status, and personality (suppose all were extrovert only). Then again, it would become damn boring for us and especially for psychologists because we would not found anything interesting to study on. So, differences or diversity are a pervasive feature of this world and it is even more appealing for us (psychologist).

Now, what do you mean by "individual differences"? It refers to variation among individual with reference to a single or a number of characteristics. According to Plato, "No two persons are born exactly alike, but each differs from the other in natural endowments, one being suited for one occupation and the other for another". Psychology studies "Individual differences in how we think, individual differences in how we feel, individual differences in what we want and what we need, individual differences in what we do. We study how people differ and we also study why people differ. We study individual differences" (Revelle, Wilt & Condon, 2011). Now the question is why we need to study individual differences. It is because it helps us in predicting and explaining the behaviour of the individual more accurately.

5.2.1 Nature vs. Nurture Debate in Individual Difference

Why some people are resilient and persistent in their efforts, while some others easily lose their motivational level and feel depressed? Why some are more intelligent than others? Why some people are more violent than others? Why siblings from the same family have a different aptitude and intelligence level?

To answer these and other similar questions, psychologists emphasize upon nature vs. nurture debate. This debate involves whether differences in human behaviour is the result of nature or nurture? Before moving forward, Let us see what exactly is nature or nurture?

• *Nature:* It refers to the genetic factors that we have inherited from our parents such as height or skin colour.

• *Nurture:* It refers to all those environmental factors that can impact us such

as rearing process, family socioeconomic conditions, social support or cultural factors.
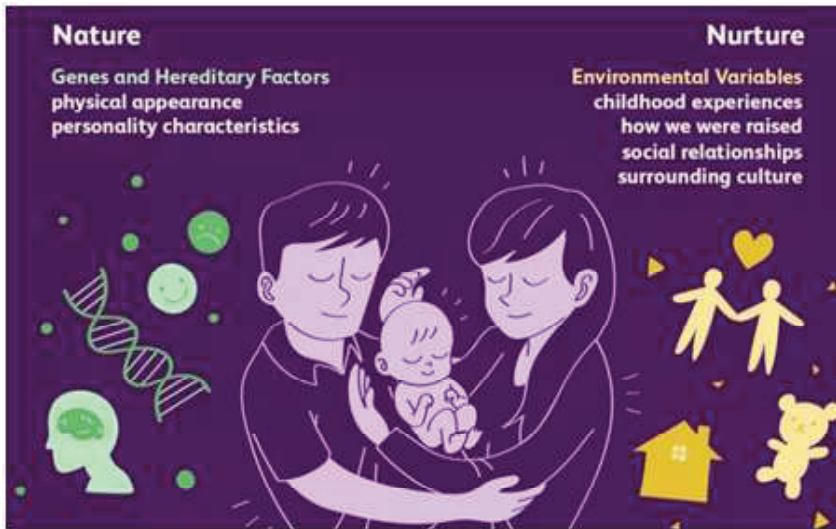

Fig.5.1: Nature vs. Nurture Debate

Source: https://www.verywellmind.com

The debate over the relative importance of hereditary vs. environmental factors is one of the oldest yet unresolved debates. People who believe that our behaviour is purely controlled by our hereditary factors are known as *nativists*. Those who support this view, regard differences in human behaviours as the result of different 'genetic makeup'. Supporters of other end of this debate spectrum are known as *environmentalists* or *empiricists*. Advocates of this view believe that people differ from each other due to their experiences or environmental conditions. One of the well-known and prominent supporters of this view is John Locke. He equated human mind to *tabula rasa*-a blank slate, which gradually fills with our life experience. Following diagram suggest the nativists vs. empiricists take by different approaches of psychology:
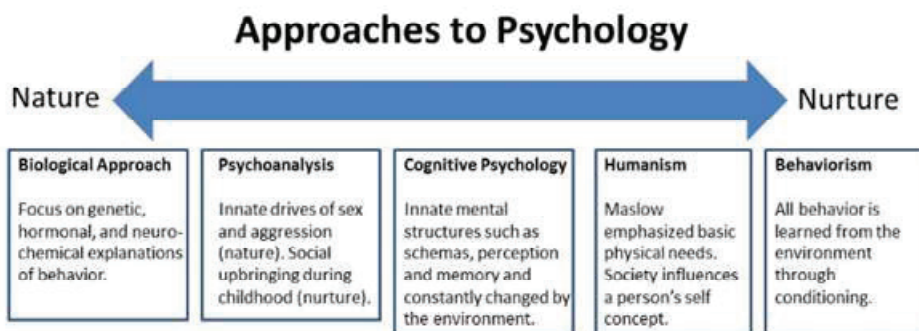
Fig.5.2: Nativists vs. Empiricists Take by Different Approaches of Psychology

Source: https://www.simplypsychology.org

However, contemporary view on this debate suggests that defending any extreme side would be a catastrophe in explaining human behaviour and differences among them. Recently, many studies have suggested that both genetic and environmental factors play a vital role in shaping our behaviour. For example, height as a physical trait has been found to be influenced by both genetic and environmental factors. If parents of a child are tall and if he may have inherited these genes for tall height then whether he will also be tall or not depends on received nourishment. If he had not received proper nourishment then his genes of tall height would not

manifest and he will remain shorter than his parents. You will also find many examples of nature-nurture interaction in your textbooks on abnormal psychology or psychopathology, where the roots of all mental disorders have been explained with the help of both genetic predisposition and environmental factors.

5.3 DEFINITION OF INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence is a hypothetical construct, which refers to a higher level of abstract thought processes. "Intelligence", has always been a topic of discussion among social scientists and philosophers. But defining it in the most appropriate way has always been a challenge for psychologists. In 1986, a symposium was organised by Sternberg and Detterman to define intelligence, however unable to define it, this symposium described intelligence as "a quality of adaptive behaviour (Anastasi), as the end product of development in the cognitive-psychological domain, as a societal concept that operates in several domains - academic, technical, social, and practical (Carroll), as error-free transmission of information through the cortex (Eysenck), as acquired proficiency (Glaser), as mental self-government (Sternberg)" (Fogarty,1999). Alferd Binet (1905), the first psychologist who developed standardised intelligence test, defined intelligence as, "the ability to judge well, understand well, and reason well." As per Wechsler (1944), "Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his/her environment." After having a discussion on the definition of intelligence, let us move to some prominent theories of intelligence.

5.4 THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE

5.4.1 Spearman Theory of Intelligence

Charles Spearman's theory of intelligence is known as the two-factor theory. Spearman noticed that children who perform well in one subject tend to have good marks in other subjects also. This observation led him to propose that there is a common factor which affect all of your activities. Using a statistical method called as "factor analysis", he proposed that all cognitive activity or mental activity consist of two factors namely, "general" or "g" factor and "specific" or "s" factor. So, your intelligence is a sum of "g" factor and "s" factor. The "g" factor affects all kind of mental activities whereas; "s" factor influences your performance on specific or particular mental activity. Further, "g" factor is innate, and constant throughout one's life, present in all cognitive activities. Whereas "s" factor is learned and varies with the task within the same individual, one can have many "s" factors and, it is associated with the only specific task. People who are high on "g" factor are more intelligent than others. One's overall score on an intelligence test represents "g" factor.

5.4.2 Thurstone Theory of Intelligence

Thurstone criticised Spearman's theory of intelligence by suggesting that there is no "g" factor. Instead, intelligence consists of a group of primary mental abilities (PMA). There are basically seven PMA and all are independent of each other. Details of these PMA are:

i) *Word Fluency:* Ability to think or use words rapidly, such as in the task of anagrams.

ii) *Verbal Comprehension:* Ability to understand the meaning of the word, concept or ideas correctly. Vocabulary tests can assess verbal comprehension.

iii) *Spatial Ability* : Ability to manipulate patterns and forms of objects in space visually.

iv) *Perceptual Speed:* Tendency to perceive details quickly in every stimulus accurately.

v) *Numerical Ability:* One's ability to solve a numerical problem quickly and accurately.

vi) *Inductive Reasoning:* Ability to observe facts and making a general rule out of it.

vii) *Memory* : Ability to memorise and recall quickly and accurately.

5.4.3 Sternberg Theory of Intelligence

Robert Sternberg (1984) proposed 'Triarchic Theory of Intelligence'. As the name suggests, there are three forms of intelligence, namely, Componential, Experiential, and Contextual.

Componential intelligence is also known as analytical intelligence and is measured by a traditional intelligence test. People high on this form of intelligence, often score high on traditional IQ tests. Such individuals have highly critical and analytical abilities and usually perform well in academic tasks and school. They are also good at mathematical and verbal skills.

Experiential intelligence or creative intelligence is the ability to develop novel ideas or solutions. People high on this intelligence are creative. They have the ability to use previous experiences in making new inventions.

Contextual intelligence or practical intelligence refers to the ability to adapt to the environment or situational demands. It involves applying knowledge and information to your real world and thus adapting successfully to the situation. Here, adaption involves both adapting to your existing environment and/or ability to modify your environment to fulfill your needs. People who are high on this intelligence are street smart and often successful in their life.

5.4.4 Gardner Theory of Intelligence

Gardener refuted the classic view of intelligence as a capacity for logical reasoning. He proposed that there is no one form of intelligence but a number of intelligence work together. According to him, intelligence is the "ability to solve problems or fashion products that are of consequence in a particular cultural setting or community" (1993). Initially, he proposed seven distinct types of intelligence namely,

1) *Linguistic:* People who are high on this type of intelligence have good linguistic abilities i.e., they can easily articulate and express their thoughts by choosing the most appropriate words. They can easily play with the words. Poets and writers have a higher level of linguistic abilities.

2) *Musical:* People high on this are knowledgeable and sensitive to music. They can manipulate musical pattern to create different music. People

carrying this intelligence are good singers, play musical instruments and are good music composers.

3) *Logical-mathematical:* This involves having the ability to think critically and work on abstract problems. Such people have a scientific aptitude and are good with numbers and abstract problems. Scientists have a higher level of this intelligence.

4) *Spatial:* This intelligence is related to one's ability to manipulate and use visual images or mental images. Navigators, pilots, architects and painters have this intelligence.

5) *Bodily-kinesthetic:* It is the ability to control and train your body or part of it for construction of products and problem-solving. People serving in the military, intelligence agencies, sports person, actors and, dancers have higher levels of bodily-kinesthetic intelligence.

6) *Intrapersonal:* People who are aware of one's own feelings, emotions, needs, and motives are having with level of intrapersonal intelligence. Philosophers and spiritual leaders are high on intrapersonal intelligence.

7) *Interpersonal:* Your ability to understand other person's behavior, motive, and feelings. People high on this intelligence use their understanding of other people to develop a comfortable bond with other people. Counselors, politicians, teachers, social workers are high on interpersonal intelligence.

Later, he added another type of intelligence; *(8) Naturalist:* It refers to being sensitive to different features of nature. The individiual who are highly naturalist, have compassion for nature and are usually nature lovers. Hunters, wild lifers, botanists possess a higher level of this intelligence.

Each individual has a unique combination of these seven types of intelligence, which explains the individual difference. Gardner and his colleagues proposed that the typical paper-pencil tests for intelligence do not measure many aspects of intelligence such as interpersonal ability. Many students performed poorly on the intelligence test but become great leaders because of their refined interpersonal qualities. Suggesting, that the intelligence is more than your mathematical, verbal and analytical abilities, measured by the traditional intelligence test.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ I)

Fill in the Blanks:

1) .... refers to variation among individual with reference to a single or a number of characteristics.

2) .... is a hypothetical construct, which refers to a higher level of abstract thought processes.

3) The Gardner's theory states that each individual has a unique combination of ...., which explains the individual difference.

4) Robert Sternberg (1984) proposed the .... theory of intelligence.

5) .... theory of intelligence is known as the two-factor theory.

5.5   ASSESSMENT OF INTELLIGENCE

Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon were attributed with the first attempt to measure intelligence scientifically. In 1905, they developed first intelligence test known as Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale Later in 1908 they coined a term –*Mental Age(MA)* to measure the intellectual ability of a person in comparison to his or her fellow age group. Whereas, Chronological Age (CA) refers to a person's biological age. According to Binet, if a child has MA more than his CA, then he/she will be classified as bright. If the child scores MA below than his/her or CA, then he/she should be identified as mentally retarded.

In 1912, William Stern came with the concept called *Intelligent Quotient (IQ)*. It is derived by dividing MA with CA and multiplying the result with 100.

$$IQ = (MA/CA) \times 100$$

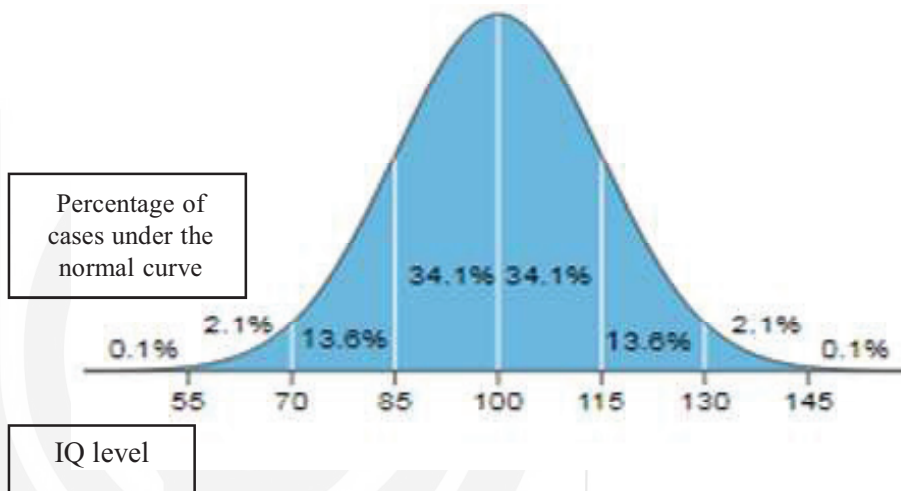If MA equals CA, then your IQ will be 100. If your MA was less than CA, then your IQ will be less than 100.

Percentage of cases under the normal curve

0.1%   2.1%   13.6%   34.1%   34.1%   13.6%   2.1%   0.1%

55   70   85   100   115   130   145

IQ level

 Fig.5.3: Normalised Distribution of IQ with the Mean of 100 and Stranded Deviation 15

Source: https://commons.wikimedia.org

In this normal distribution following scores suggest different types of intellectual abilities:

IQ Range	Descriptive Label
Above 130	Very Superior Intelligence (gifted)
120 to 129	Superior Intelligence
110 to 119	High Average Intelligence
90 to 109	Average Intelligence
80 to 89	Low Average Intelligence
71 to 79	Borderline Intellectual Functioning
55 to 70	Mild Mental Retardation
40 to 54	Moderate Retardation
25 to 39	Severe Mental Retardation
Below 25	Profound Mental Retardation

5.5.1 Types of Intelligence Tests

Intelligence test has been classified based on a number of criteria such as based on the number of participants who can attempt the test, based on items used in the test and whether the test can be used across different cultures or not. Following is the diagram of the classification of intelligence tests:
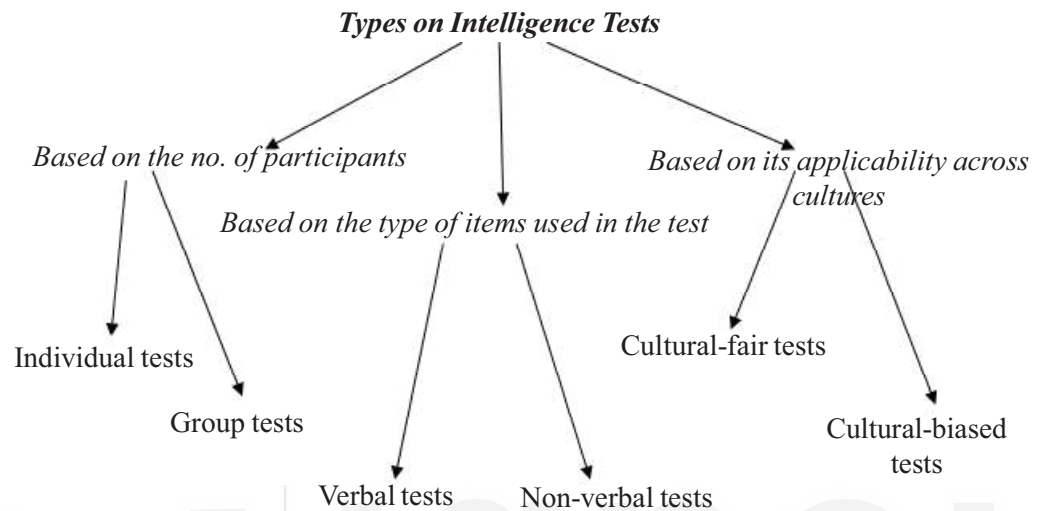
5.5.1.1 Individual and Group Intelligence Tests

5.5.1.1.1 Individual Tests

An individual test is one that can be administered to one individual at a time. There are many standardised individual tests such as The Kaufman Scales, Stanford-Binet Scale and Wechsler Intelligence Scales. Let us discuss about the two most famous intelligence tests i.e., Stanford - Binet Test and Wechsler Intelligence Tests.

Stanford-Binet Scale (SBS) of Intelligence

As you already know this was the first intelligence test, developed by Binet and Simon (1905), it is one of the popular intelligence tests among psychologists. Later, this test was revised and adapted by an American psychologist – Lewis M. Terman who was working at Stanford University. After validating it on the American population, he renamed the original scale as "Stanford-Binet Scale". In 2003, the fifth version of the Stanford-Binet Scale (SB5) was introduced with 10 subtests measuring following five factors:

- Fluid reasoning
- Knowledge
- Quantitative Reasoning
- Visual-Spatial Processing
- Working Memory

Other then scores with reference to these five factors the scale gives three IQ scores (Full score IQ, Verbal IQ, and Nonverbal IQ), as well. The SBS can be used for age of 2 years to 85 years old individuals. On American sample of 4800 individuals, the reliability of the three IQ scores was found to be in the .90s and that of the subtests it ranged from 70 to .85 (Roid, 2002).

The Wechsler Scales

The Wechsler scales were developed by Dr. David Wechsler. He developed three scales; for adults, for school-age children, and one for preschool children. All three of his tests contain several subtests from verbal as well as nonverbal domain and they can measure intelligence and cognitive abilities. He developed his first test (Wechsler- Bellevue scale) in 1939 when he was working in Bellevue hospital.

He devised a new formula for calculating IQ from his scales. As we know the usual formula of IQ is,

IQ = Mental Age/Chronological Age

According to Wechsler,

IQ = Attained or Actual Score / Expected Mean score for Age

Do You Know?

Fig.5.4: David Wechsler

Source: https://wechsleriqtest.com/#

Wechsler was a Romanian-American psychologist who was born on Jan 12, 1896, in Romania. His family relocated to the states in New York when he was just a boy. He earned a Master's Degree from Columbia University in 1917. By 1925, his further delve into education and earned him a Ph.D. It was Robert S. Woodworth that first took a chance on the young psychologist. Woodworth was a big shot in the United States Army, and he was overwhelmed by the number of soldiers that were experiencing mental issues after the war. Working alongside Charles Spearman and Karl Pearson, Wechsler was to develop a test to help the army screen new draftees. However, things took a very different turn.

Wechsler dedicated himself to the study of memory loss in soldiers from WWI. His curiosity built a foundation to test the very intelligence of his patients. Studying the brain was a fascinating undertaking, so he expanded his test to include children. He felt the very formation of the intellect could help him resolve the current problems with memory loss.

What he found was mind-blowing. The IQ of a person is directly predisposed to the atmosphere in which they live. Biological and environmental influences can dictate a person's intellect. Wechsler knew that many factors affected intelligence and cognitive ability, but he also found that persistence had a sizable effect too. He realized that one test would not accommodate all age groups, so he developed a series that would be used for all ages.

Source: Wechsler IQ Test website https://wechsleriqtest.com/#

There are basically three versions of Wechsler's intelligence scale:

- *WPPSI – Wechsler Pre-School & Primary Scale of Intelligence:* This scale can be conducted on children from 2 years and 6 months to 7 years and 7 months. It was introduced in 1967 and originally designed for children between 4 years and 6.5 years old. It consists of 14 subtests measuring three indexes viz., verbal, performance and full-scale IQ. Currently, it is in fourth revision as WPPSI-IV.

- *WISC – Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children:* This test can be conducted on children from 6 to 16 years old. This test was developed from the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale and was first introduced in 1949. This test is often used in schools and other educational steups with the aim to identify gifted children as well as children with learning difficulties. The most recent version of the test is the WISC-V, which was released in 2014.

- *WAIS – Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale:* This test covers teenagers from 16 years of age to adulthood. The current version of the test is the WAIS-IV which was launched in 2008.

5.5.1.1.2   Group Tests

A group test is one that can be administered to more than one person at the same time. There are many intelligence tests which can be considered as group tests such as Multidimensional Aptitude Battery (MAB; Jackson, 1984), Cognitive Abilities Test (Lohman & Hagen, 2001), Culture Fair Intelligence Test (1940) and, Raven's Progressive Matrices (1938,1992). As an example, we will discuss only Raven's Progressive Matrices briefly.

Raven's Progressive Matrices (RPM)

Raven's Progressive Matrices (RPM) was developed by John C. Raven in 1938. It is a non-verbal test of inductive reasoning, designed to measure fluid intelligence. It consist of 60 multiple choice items; it can be administered on children from 5years-old to the elderly. The test contains visual geometric designs with a missing piece and the task of the test taker is to choose the missing part of the matrix from six to eight given alternatives. Raven constructed three different forms of tests: Standard Progressive Matrices, Coloured Progressive Matrices and Advanced Progressive Matrices.

5.5.1.2   Verbal and Nonverbal Tests

5.5.1.2.1   Verbal Tests

Verbal intelligence is the ability to use and solve problems using language-based reasoning. Verbal tests are those which require the use of language for successful performance in it. Verbal intelligence is the ability to comprehend and solve language-based problems. Initially, approximately all intelligence tests were based on language only but later it was realised that such tests are of no use for people who were illiterate, young children who haven't acquired the language abilities fully and people with speech difficulties. To overcome the limitation of these verbal tests, many psychologists came up with a number of non-verbal intelligence tests. Moreover, many verbal standardised tests such as Wechsler scales and Kaufman scales now also have some non-verbal test components.

5.5.1.2.2 Non-Verbal Tests

A nonverbal test of intelligence measures one's ability to analyze visual information and solve problems without necessarily using words. Nonverbal tests are also known as performance tests as they generally require a construction of certain patterns. Some of the famous nonverbal tests are Koh's Block Design Test, Cube Construction Tests, and Pass along Tests. Raven's Progressive Matrices (1938, 1986, 1992, 1995) is also a well-known nonverbal intelligence test which has been discussed in the previous section.

5.5.1.3 Culture Fair Tests and Cultural Biased Tests

5.5.1.3.1 Culture-Fair Tests

Every culture is unique in terms of their values, language, expectations, demands and environmental experiences. A child reared in America will be very different in many respects with a child brought-up in Indian sub-urban area. Due to this reason, in order to assess individual belonging to different cultures psychologists came up with tests which are free from any cultural biases. Some of the famous culture-fair tests are. The Culture Fair Test (Cattell, 1940), Raven's Progressive Matrices (Raven, 1938, 1986, 1995), The Leiter International Performance Scale-Revised (Roid &Miller, 1997) and Draw-a-Man Test (Goodenough, 1926). All these and other culturally faired tests are non-verbal in nature. Now we will discuss an example of culture-fair intelligence test-Draw-a-Man test (Goodenough, 1926).

Draw-a-Man Test

This test was developed by Goodenough (1926) initially. Later it was revised by Goodenough and Harris in 1963 known as Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test. Based on the projective technique, this test requires a test taker (children only) to make three pictures on three separate papers. They are asked to draw a man, women and themselves without giving any further instructions. Interestingly, instead of artistic skill, emphasize is given upon the child's ability to observe accurately and think conceptually.

5.5.1.3.2 Cultural Biased Tests

Many psychologists have attempted to develop culture-fair intelligence tests by making it non-verbal in nature. However, it was realized that the impact of culture cannot be eliminated completely from these tests even after making it nonverbal completely. Due to this reason, only the term 'culture fair' is used in place of 'culture free' tests.

5.6 EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE

5.6.1 Emotional Intelligence

The traditional intelligence test could measure only the cognitive aspect of one's mental ability, but many psychologists like Gardner (1983) proposed that there are many forms of non-cognitive intelligence that affect our behaviour. He further noted that one's intelligence quotient or IQ cannot explain cognitive ability fully. In the early 1990's, John Mayer and Peter Salovey introduced and defined one of the most important non-cognitive intelligence: Emotional Intelligence (EI). In the *Handbook of Intelligence (2000)* they defined emotional intelligence (EI)

as "*the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others*" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000, p. 396; see also Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Although Mayer and Salovey were responsible for introducing this term (EI) to the world of psychology it was Goleman's (1995) bestselling book *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*, which made this term a common currency.

Mayer and Salovey proposed *an integrative model approach* to EI. According to them, EI comprised of the following four abilities:

1) Perceiving and expressing emotions- it is the ability to identify and express emotions in one's and other's physical state, feeling and thoughts.

2) Assimilating emotion in thoughts- the ability to use emotions to facilitate cognitive activities like thinking and problem-solving.

3) Understanding and analyzing emotions- ability to understand the language of emotion.

4) Regulation of emotions- the ability to regulate one's and other's emotions to achieve greater goals.

Whereas, according to Goleman' model, EI comprised of the following five abilities:

1) Knowing one's emotions,

2) Managing emotions,

3) Motivating oneself,

4) Recognizing emotions in others, and

5) Handling relationships.

5.6.2 Social Intelligence

The second type of non-cognitive intelligence is known as Social Intelligence (SI). Thorndike (1920) was the first psychologist to use this term to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people wisely. Goleman has defined SI as 'being intelligent not just *about* our relationships but also *in* them'. According to Mayer and Salovey, emotional intelligence is a part of social intelligence. Due to this reason, Bar-on (2006) has proposed that these two terms are related to each other and may represent the component of the same construct. He further pointed out that in his theory of intelligence; Gardner's (1983) conceptualisation of *personal intelligence* is also a combination of intrapersonal (emotional) intelligence and interpersonal (social) intelligence. Based on above assertions, he pointed out that it would be more accurate to club these two terms (SI and EI) into one construct. He named this new construct as "*emotional-social intelligence*" or "*ESI*". According to Bar-On model, "*emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands*".

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ II)

State whether the following statements are "True" or "False" :

1) Social intelligence is a type of cognitive intelligence.   (   )

2) Mayer and Salovey proposed an integrative model approach to EI.   (   )

3) Non verbal intelligence is the ability to use and solve problems using language-based reasoning.   (   )

4) Every culture is unique in terms of their values, language, expectations, demands and environmental experiences.   (   )

5) The first intelligence test was developed by Binet and Simon in 1905. (   )

5.7   LET US SUM UP

In this Unit, we learned about the concept of individual difference and its relevance with reference to intelligence. We discussed how nature and nurture interact and plays important role in causing individual differences. To explain intelligence, we discussed Spearman's, Thurstone's, Sternberg's and Gardner's Theory of Intelligence in-depth. Then we discussed the classification of intelligence test and different methods to measure it. Lastly, other forms of intelligence such as emotional intelligence and social intelligence were also covered in this Unit.

5.8   UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Explain the concept of individual differences and write a note on nature vs. Nurture debate in this context.

2) What is Spearman theory of intelligence? Compare it critically with Sternberg's theory of intelligence.

3) Write a short note on Gardner's and Thurstone's theory of intelligence.

4) Define IQ, mental age and chronological age.

5) Write a note on the different types of intelligence tests available to a psychologist?

5.9   GLOSSARY

G-factor   : Known as 'general-factor', this is an innate cognitive activity that influences all other kinds of mental activities. It remains constant throughout one's life.

S-factor   : Known as 'specific-factor". It represents our performance on a specific or particular mental activity. It is learned and one can have many s-factors. If we put all the s-factors together, it will give us our g-factor.

Mental age   : It is a measure of a person's intellectual development relative to people of his/her age group.

IQ   : It stands for Intelligence Quotient. It measures an individual's cognitive ability in relation to other people of the same age group.

Wechsler Scales	:	It is a group of tests developed primarily by David Wechsler. It measures intelligence.
Culture Fair Intelligence Test	:	Those tests that measure non-verbal intelligence with the aim of minimizing cultural effect or biases.
Verbal Intelligence	:	It is the ability to comprehend and solve language-based problems such as verbal analogies.
Nonverbal Tests of Intelligence	:	It taps the ability to analyze visual information and solve problems without necessarily using words. The tasks may involve the ability to recognize visual sequences, understand and recognize the relationships between visual concepts and situations, as well as perform visual analogies.

5.10 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Question I

1) Individual differences

2) Intelligence

3) seven types of intelligence

4) Triarchic

5) Charles Spearman's

Self Assessment Question II

1) False

2) True

3) False

4) True

5) True

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UNIT 6   THEORIES OF PERSONALITY*

Structure

6.0   INTRODUCTION

Fig.6.1: Identical twins Jim Springer and Jim Lewis
Source: https://www.firsttoknow.com/jim-twins/

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* Contributed by Dr. Arti Singh, IGNOU

"Jim Lewis and Jim Springer, born in 1940, the boys were adopted by separate families in Ohio and grew up within 45 miles of each other. Both were named Jim by their adoptive parents. Both married twice — first to women named Linda, and then to women named Betty. Both had children, including sons named James Allen. Both owned dogs named Toy. After reuniting in 1979, after 39 years of separation, the twins were recruited for a study, and the results of their tests were extraordinary. Their medical histories were identical, and the pair shared the same habits, including having woodworking workshops in their garages, a fondness for Chevys, and vacations on one particular beach in Florida" (The Week, 2013).

Even after separated from each other for 39 years and raised by different families, why Jim twins shared so many similarities? What do you think? To what extent we are similar to our siblings or any other individual? How different are our personalities? What determines our individual differences? In this unit, we shall see what does individual difference means with reference to personality? What makes us different from each other or similar to each other? Which factors affect our personality? And what are the prominent theories of personality?

6.1 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand the meaning and definition of personality;

- Identify the Freud's contribution to understanding personality;

- Comprehend the views of different personality theories: trait, behavioural and humanistic; and

- Analyse the different ways to measure personality.

6.2 WHAT DO YOU MEAN BY PERSONALITY?

Personality has always been a topic of discussion among common people, but defining it and outlining its nature has always been a difficult task for everyone including psychologists. When we make statements like, "she is a good doctor", or "I really like M.S. Dhoni". Then, do we really judge the competence of the doctor's medical knowledge or her professionalism? Do you like Dhoni because he plays very well or because he is really efficient in leading his team or due to his down-to-earth attitude? So what do we actually look for while describing someone's personality? How do we actually define it?

The word personality has been taken from the Latin word *persona* – the mask used by actors to represent characters during a theatrical play. As the character changes, so does the mask of the actor. So, does this mean that the word personality refers to our ever changing persona? Yes, to some extent. Our behaviour is not always constant or predictable. Sometimes we behave as predicted, sometimes we behave quite differently in a familiar situation, and sometimes our behaviour becomes completely unpredictable. Due to our ever changing yet stagnant behaviour, there is a widespread confusion over the definition of personality. One can find many definitions of personality. We will start with the following definitions of personality:

"Personality is a dynamic organisation, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts, and feelings" (G.W. Allport, 1961).

"The various styles of behavior that different organisms habitually reflect". (Rychlak, 1981)

"The visible aspect of one's character as it impresses others" (Random House *Webster's College Dictionary,* 1991).

According to APA, "**Personality** refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving." It further states that "the study of personality focuses on two broad areas: One is understanding individual differences in particular personality characteristics, such as sociability or irritability. The other is understanding how the various parts of a person come together as a whole."

As definitions suggest, personality is relatively stable in characteristic. It does not change on daily basis. You can easily predict how your parents will react after seeing your report card? Or how your friend will react after receiving compliments from you? There are numerous theories that try to resolve this question. We will focus on some on some of the most famous and established theories of personality in the following section.

6.3   THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

6.3.1 Psychoanalytic Theories

Sigmund Freud, a physician by profession, was the major contributor of psychoanalytic theories of personality. He developed his theory while doing clinical practice with patients. "Unconscious mental processes" is central to his theory. It refers to those desires, needs, and motivations for which we are not aware. Further, according to Freud, darker aspect of human behaviour such as aggression and sexual desires also plays important role in our personality.

In order to explain how our *psyche* (mind) works, Freud proposed;

A topographic model of the psyche (explains how our mind is organised)

A structural model of our personality

Psychosocial Stages of Development

A topographic model of the psyche

In the view of Sigmund Freud, our mind can be divided into three levels; conscious, preconscious and unconscious.

According to him, our *conscious mind* is that part which deals with the current information. That is, all the thoughts, feelings and actions of which you are aware at the very moment are part of the conscious mind. *Preconscious or subconscious mind* deals with all those information for which you are not currently aware but can become only if you pay attention. The last level of mind is *unconscious*. This part of mind stores those socially unacceptable needs, desires, motivations and feelings for which you are unaware of. According to him, this unconscious part of mind plays a vital role in influencing our actions.

A structural model of our personality

Freud proposed that our personality consists of three elements: id, ego, and superego. Before explaining in details, it is important to mention here that id, ego, and superego are just concepts and they do not have any physical or physiological basis.

Id: This part of personality operates unconsciously. It deals with basic instincts, biological needs, and aggressive impulses. It is the most primitive part of human personality present since birth. From id, other parts of the personality (ego and superego) develop. It works on *pleasure principle*-tendency to avoid pain and seek pleasure. The aim of the id is to gratify one's need immediately without considering the moral values of the society and the individual. *Eros* and *Thanatos* are the two driving forces of Id. *Eros* was the God of love in Greek mythology. According to Freud, in the context of id, Eros is the life force. It is responsible for our life instinct and survival, which includes sexual desire, reproduction desire, and pain avoidance. The counterpart of Eros is *Thanatos*-the death force or instinct. It is responsible for violence, aggression and hate like negative feelings. The aim of Thanatos is to balance the drive of Eros by driving us towards death and destruction. When personality is dominated by id, then individual tend to become more impulsive, such people will do what they want irrespective of time, place and situation, just like a kid.

Ego: Suppose a 10-year-old child wants to eat a scoop of ice-cream kept in the refrigerator. But he knows that eating ice-cream without seeking permission from parents will be punished. The part of the personality responsible for this reality check is known as Ego. So, ego works on *reality principle*-delaying id's gratification need will be delayed until an appropriate and more realistic situation is not found. This part of personality emerges from id and its main objective is to strike a balance between id's impulsive needs and the reality of this world. It is the decision-making component of our psyche and works on logic only. In the words of Freud, "ego is that part of the id which has been modified by the direct influence of the external world" (Freud, 1923). If ego would not be able to resolve the conflict between the impulsive demands of the id and realistic demands of this world, then it would lead to the development of anxiety and stress. To ward off this anxiety, individual will be motivated to use unconscious *defense mechanisms* (we will talk about this in the later section).

Superego: It is the moral master or moral guru of our personality. Let us continue the same example referred to in the last section. Whether that 10-year-old kid will ask permission from his parents or not for eating a scoop of ice cream depends on the development of his superego. Since seeking permission is morally correct behaviour; it will indicate the presence of superego in the child. Role of the superego is to internalise the moral and ethical value of society through the process of socialisation. It controls the impulsive urges of the id and pursues ego to choose morally appropriate behaviour instead of only realistic behaviour. This part of our psyche develops between the ages of three to five years. Further, according to Freud, our superego consists of two systems: (i) conscience and (ii) ideal self. The *conscience*'s role is to punish or reward ego, through the feeling of pride or guilt, depending on its behaviour. For example, if ego allows in id's demand and breaks the moral code of conduct, superego will make you feel guilty about your behaviour. The second system, the *ideal self*-idealised picture of your own self, also do the job of making you feel guilty or pride, depending on your behaviour.
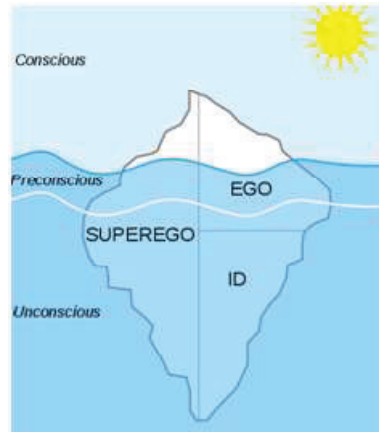
Fig.6.2: Diagram of Freud's Psyche Theory

Source: https://commons.wikimedia.org

Ego Defence Mechanisms

One of the role of ego is to protect the person from anxiety and stress. So when the anxiety and stress from the forbidden desires and motives become overwhelming, we tend to use some psychological strategies, known as ego defence mechanisms. According to Freud, the sole aim of employing these ego defence mechanisms is to protect our psyche from anxiety. A brief description of eight important defence mechanisms has been described below:

MechanismDescription

Table 6.1: A Summary of Ego-defence Mechanisms

Repression	Excluding from conscious awareness those impulses or memories that are too frightening or painful
Rationalization	Assigning logical or socially desirable motives to what we have done, so that we seem to have acted rationally.
Reaction formation	Concealing a motive from ourselves by giving strong expression to the opposite motive.
Projection	Assigning our own undesirable qualities to others in exaggerated amounts
Intellectualization	Attempting to gain detachment from a stressful situation by dealing with it in abstract, intellectual terms
Denial	Denying that an unpleasant reality exists.
Displacement	Directing a motive that cannot be gratified in one form into another channel.

Source: Atkinson & Hilgard (2009), pp. 469

Freud's Psychosexual Stages of Development

Freud proposed a five-stage model of development of personality. According to him, the core aspects of one's personality's developed by the age of five and remains unchanged throughout. Further, he stated that in order to move from one stage to another, a child needs to resolve conflicts of each stage successfully. Unless, it will lead to *fixation*- a continuation of an early mode of satisfaction in later life (The Cambridge Dictionary of Psychology, 2009). For example, individual fixated at an oral stage may have drinking or smoking habits. In the following section, we will talk about five stages of psychosexual development in brief:

Stage I: Oral Stage (birth to 18 months)

Mouth is the source of pleasure during this stage. Children completely depend on their caregivers, especially mother. They drive pleasure and understand the world around them through sucking and swallowing. Over gratification or under gratification may lead to the fixation at this early oral stage resulting in the development of overeating behaviour, drinking or smoking in adulthood. Freud called these people as oral-incorporative or oral-ingestive. Later during this stage, children experience pleasure from chewing and biting. If an individual is unable to resolve the psychological conflict of this stage, then he/she may develop the habit of nail biting and object chewing in adulthood. Freud further pointed out that these people are more critical and sarcastic in nature. He referred to such people as oral-aggressive or oral-sadistic.

Stage II: Anal Stage (18 months to three years)

During this stage, children face the demand of their society for the first time to control and delay the expulsion of urine and faeces. Children experience pleasure in this stage from their bowel and bladder movement. Freud believed that too harsh or too lenient toilet training may cause fixation at this stage. Resulting into either being messy, lesser self-control but generous (called as anal-expulsive characters by Freud) or being tidy, orderly but mean (called as anal retentive characters by Freud).

Stage III: Phallic Stage (three to five years)

Genitals become the erogenous region during this stage. Children knowingly or unknowingly touch their genitals for pleasure. During this stage, they understand the difference between males and females. Freud proposed that male child experience *Oedipus complex* – which involves sexual feeling towards their mother, feeling of rivalry for the father, as well as a threat of getting punished by the father for having a desire for mother. The counterpart of the Oedipus complex is *Electra complex*: experienced by the female child. It involves the sexual attraction for father, feeling of rivalry for mother and a threat of getting punished by the mother for having this feeling towards father. Successful resolution of this complex develops a mature sexual identity. According to Freud, by the end of this stage personality is formed completely.

Stage IV: Latency Stage (six to twelve years)

The sexual energy during this stage is channelised towards educational, sports and social activities. This leads to no or little interest for the opposite gender.

Stage V: Genital Stage (thirteen years to adulthood)

The sexual energy returns again in this stage. Successful completion of previous stages will help in developing a mature intimate relationship with the opposite sex. Whereas, unresolved issues of previous psychosexual stages will start exhibiting during adulthood; leading to difficulty in establishing a healthy intimate relationship with the opposite sex.

6.3.1.1 The Neo-Freudians: Followers of Freud

A number of theorists followed Freud's work. Some theorists who initially worked with him moved on later to develop their own theories. To differentiate their work from Freud and to get due recognition, they called themselves as *neo-*

Freudian or *post-Freudian*, *neo-analytic* or *psychodynamic*. Some of the prominent names include Adler, Horney, Erik Fromm, Jung, and Erikson. Since it is not possible to cover all the theorists; the focus will be given to the theories of Adler and Jung only.

6.3.1.1.1 Alfred Adler: Individual Psychology

Adler's theory is known as theory of individual psychology. He believed that experiences of early childhood shape one's personality. If encouraged during childhood, it would motivate the child to feel capable and acts in a cooperative way throughout their life. Whereas, if discouraged the child may misbehave and indulge in unhealthy competition or withdrawal behaviour. He proposed that there is a need to understand one's personality psychology within their social context. According to Adler, instead of any instinct (as proposed by Freud), an innate force motivates us to perform the behaviour. He named this force as the *striving for the perfection*-an innate desire that motivates individuals to achieve their full potential.

Inferiority and Superiority Complex

As a child, Adler explained that we feel weak, dependent, less capable and thus inferior to others (older siblings, parents, and caregivers). This feeling of inferiority is innate and natural. If a child decides to overcome this feeling of inferiority, then s/he would strive for achievement or success. Thus, overcoming of this feeling of inferiority is essential for optimal development. If this feeling is not compensated, then it would lead to inferiority complex and when overcompensated, it would lead to a superiority complex.

Sibling rivalry and birth order

Adler introduced the term-*sibling rivalry* to explain how competition for parents' love and affection between siblings lead to rivalry and thus shaping their personalities. According to Adler, arrival of a newborn might lead to a feeling of dethronement and sibling rivalry. Here dethronement refers to the feeling of being replaced from the focus of attention and love by the new sibling.

He has also proposed that your birth order also affects your personality. Later, numerous studies have confirmed his proposition about birth order. According to him, firstborn children are usually responsible, obedient and intelligent individuals. The second born master their skill in social adjustment. They are generally trusting, accepting and other-centered. And, the third order children are exhibit strong security, high self-esteem but less competitiveness. Since they are never dethroned; they remain the baby of the family throughout their life.

6.3.1.1.2 Carl Jung: Analytical Psychology

Carl Gustav Jung (pronounce as "yooung"), was a Swiss psychiatrist and a close friend of Sigmund Freud. He emphasised the idea that we need to study different cultures as it will provide the essence of humanity. Jung's personality theory is known as the *analytic theory* or *analytical psychology*.

Jung extended Freud's idea of the unconscious. Freud considered unconscious as an essential part of one's personality. It is a storehouse of repressed memories, aggressive motives, and sexual desires. Even though the basic characteristic of the Freud's unconscious is similar across different individuals but its content is

highly personal in nature. Jung deviated from this view and proposed the idea of *collective unconscious* — the unconscious shared by all humans. According to him, due to the evolutionary process and common ancestors we all carry some common past. Collection of this ancestral past is part of our unconscious known as the collective unconscious. The elements of our collective unconscious have been termed by Jung as *archetypes* — which is shared by all human beings and have some overarching qualities. He described various types of archetypes, some of these are as follows:

The self- knowing about the wholeness of one's own identity

*The persona-*the phony self that we show to others

*The anima-*feminine side of the men

*The animus-*masculine side of the female

*The shadow-*the darker side of our personality, consisting of aggressive urges, biological instincts, and feeling of inferiority.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ I)

Fill in the blanks:

1) .... proposed that our personality consists of three elements: id, ego, and superego.

2) .... is the moral master or moral guru of our personality.

3) Jung's personality theory is known as the ....

4) .... explains how competition for parents' love and affection between siblings lead to rivalry and thus shaping their personalities.

5) The sexual energy during the .... stage is channelised towards educational, sports and social activities.

6.3.2 Behavioural Approach to Personality

Behaviourist psychologists were the main criticisers of psychoanalytical theory of personality. They were against the idea that human personality can be understood using psyche and unconscious contents. John B. Watson was the founder of behavioural approach but B. F. Skinner was the most influential behaviourist.

According to behaviourist theorists, personality is an abstract and hypothetical concept. Describing it with reference to internal mental processes are grossly incorrect. Stimulus-response (S-R) relationship and role of reinforcement in the behavioural process have always been the focus of study among behaviourists. According to them to understand personality, one needs to understand the S-R relationship and role of reinforcement first. So, according to them, personality is a collection of reinforced responses performed for different stimulus. You may recall that there are basically three major theories of learning proposed by behaviourists: classical conditioning, instrumental conditioning and observational learning. One of the most important tenants of the behaviourism is that 'what we are is the result of our learning' and this learning occurs through reinforcement

and observation. Since every human being has different life conditions, therefore their S-R learning pattern is also different from each other. Due to this reason, we differ from each other in personality.

6.3.3 Humanistic Approach to Personality

Also known as the "third force" or "third approach" in psychology, humanistic approach came into existence as a reaction against the pessimistic approach of psychoanalysts and behaviourists towards human behaviour. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers are the two leading theorists of humanistic approach. Now we will briefly examine their theories.

6.3.3.1 Abraham Maslow: Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow proposed many interesting ideas of human behaviour. Hierarchy of needs is one of the most frequently cited works of him. He proposed that we humans have an innate drive to achieve our highest level of capability. He called this state of achievement '*self-actualization*'. Therefore, in his pursuit to understand human personality, he studied many *self-actualisers*. The people, according to Maslow, who have achieved the state of fulfilment by reaching their highest level of capability. Some of the famous names, Maslow studied, include Albert Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, Thomas Jefferson, and Abraham Lincoln. According to him, since early theorists have focused their attention on the darker aspects of human personality, therefore the true nature of human cannot be understood. He emphasised that in order to understand human in its true colour we need to shift our focus to healthy individuals.

His hierarchy of needs consists of five types of needs, as shown in Figure 3. In order to achieve a higher order of need, one needs to fulfil her/his lower needs first.
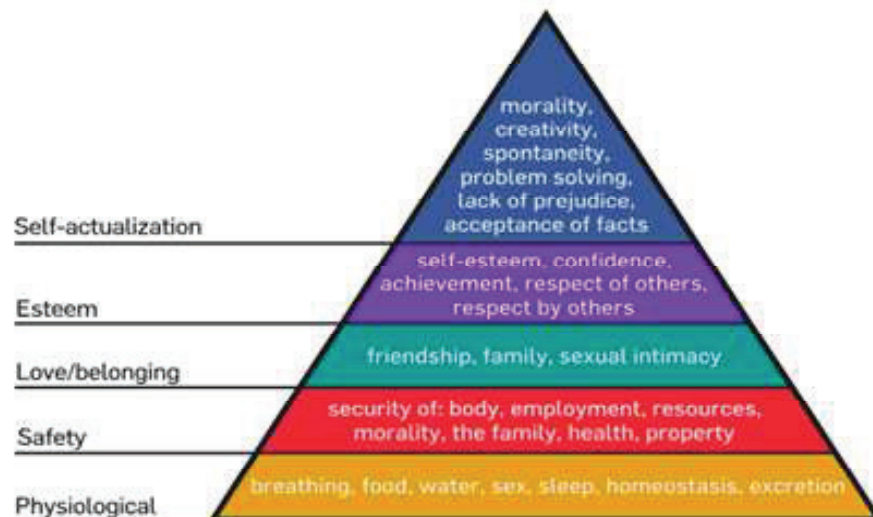
Fig.6.3: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: https://courses.lumenlearning.com

6.3.3.2 Carl Roger: Focus on Self

Carl Roger was a counselling psychologist and Maslow's colleague, who extended the humanistic approach to personality. Like Maslow, he also viewed humans as good and their behaviour is goal-directed. He developed his theory by observing the behaviour of his clients. He noticed that the idea of "self" always plays an

important role in his client's life. Therefore, his theory revolves around the concept of self. According to him, there are basically two types of self; one is an ideal self and other real self. *Ideal self* is one's concept of self that s/he wants or desires to become. Whereas, *real self* is one's inner concept of what we really are. Roger proposed that if there is congruence between one's ideal and real self, then it will lead to help her/him to achieve a state of self-actualisation, which is state of highest potential a person can achieve. He called such people as *a fully functioning person*. On the contrary, if there is no congruence between these two versions of self, then it will lead to a state of anxiety and stress. Carl Roger also mentioned in his theory about the importance of the external environment in achieving congruence in self-concepts. If an individual is getting *unconditional positive regard*, only then, he will be able to value his true worth and can achieve self-actualisation. *Unconditional positive regard* refers to the warm acceptance of one's self by significant others without any condition.

6.3.4 Trait Theories of Personality

A group of theorists believed that our personality is a combination of traits that determine our behaviour. By identifying and studying them, we can predict the personality of other people. Before moving forward, one needs to understand the concept of trait-labels used to identify the characteristic way of behaving. Often traits are viewed as continuous dimension such as the trait of 'extroversion-introversion'. Individuals who are extrovert in nature tend to be friendly, out-going, talkative and often adventurous. Whereas, those who are high on introversion tend to be less friendly, reserved and less adventurous. As shown in Figure 4, an individual may fall along any point on the continuum and his/her behaviour will be in accord with that location.
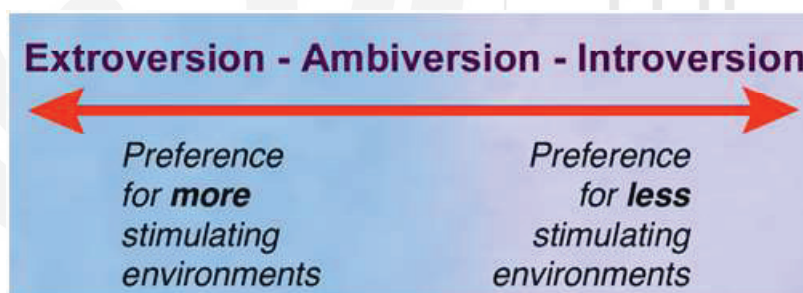
Fig.6.4: Extrovert-Introvert Spectrum

Source: https://commons.wikimedia.org

History of defining personality by trait can be traced down to the times of Hippocrates; however, in recent times, some of the famous names of the trait theorists include Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattell, Hans Eysenck, Robert McCrae, and Paul Costa.

6.3.4.1 Allport's Trait Theory

After examining Webster's (1925) *New International Dictionary*, Gorden Allport and his colleague Henry Odbert come with 4,500 words used in the English language that could describe people. Based on their investigation, they proposed a trait theory of personality. According to their theory, three types of traits govern our personality. They have named these three categories of traits as cardinal traits, central traits, and secondary traits. They organised these traits in a hierarchy.

Cardinal Traits: These are the dominant traits of one's personality. They stand at the top of Allport's trait hierarchy and are the master controller of one's personality. These traits may dominate personality to such an extent that the person may become known for those traits only. Such as Mother Teresa for altruism and M.K. Gandhi for his honesty. According to Allport, these traits are rare i.e., very few people have personalities dominated by cardinal traits, a majority of the people have personality composed of multiple traits.

Central Traits: They come second in the hierarchy. According to Allport, every person possesses 5-10 central traits in varying degrees. They can easily be noticed and are responsible for shaping our personality. Traits such as intelligent, loyal, dependable, aggressive etc.

Secondary Traits: These are less relevant traits of personality. These are basically situational or circumstantial traits. For instance, an aggressive child may not speak much in front of his/her teacher. These can be numerous in number and are responsible for behaviours incongruent to individual's usual behaviour. According to Allport, these traits are "aroused by a narrower range of equivalent stimuli and they issue into a narrower range of equivalent responses"

6.3.4.2 Cattell's Trait Theory

Using factor analysis-a statistical procedure, Cattell factor analysed the Allport's list of 4,500 English adjectives. He came up with the following sixteen trait dimensions of human personality:

Reserved ....Outgoing

Less intelligent .... More intelligent

Stable, ego strength .... Emotionality/neuroticism

Humble .... Assertive

Sober .... Happy-go-lucky

Expedient ....Conscientious

Shy ....Venturesome

Tough-minded .... Tender-minded

Trusting .... Suspicious

Practical .... Imaginative

Forthright .... Shrewd

Placid .... Apprehensive

Conservative .... Experimenting

Group-dependent .... Self-sufficient

Undisciplined .... Controlled

Relaxed .... Tense

In order to measure these trait dimensions, along with his colleagues (Cattell, Eber & Tastuoka, 1977) he developed a questionnaire later known as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF).

6.3.4.3 Eysenck's Trait Theory

Hans Eysenck was a contemporary psychologist of Cattell. Even though he was a behaviourist, he believed that our personality is largely innate and genetically based. He also used factor analysis to understand the underlying personality traits. Initially, he proposed that our personality is comprised of two major personality dimensions: extroversion vs. introversion and neuroticism vs. stability. According to his theory, different combinations of these dimensions lead to the development of different personalities. Later, he added the third dimension to his model and named it as psychoticism vs. socialisation.

Extroversion-introversion dimension refers to the degree to which one seeks external or internal stimulation. People who are extroverts are social, seek adventurous and prefer company when in stress. Whereas, people who are introverts are shy, enjoy their own company and turns inward when in stress. Neuroticism vs. stability refers to a dimension that describes people in the context of their emotionality and maladjusted behaviour. Individuals who are high on neuroticism, tend to be emotionally unstable, moody and maladjusted. Whereas, people at the opposite end of the neuroticism dimension, tend to be calm. In the last dimension: psychoticism vs. Socialisation, people who are high on psychoticism tend to be aggressive, egocentric, anti-social and impulsive. Whereas, people who lie on the socialisation end, they are altruistic, empathetic and conventional.

6.3.4.4 McCrae and Costa's Big-five Factor Theory

McCrae and Costa believed that all human personality traits can be reduced to five factors only: *Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness,* and *Neuroticism*. Acronym as OCEAN, these factors or dimensions were the results of factor analysis (a statistical procedure) of Cattell's original list by McCrae and Costa. Brief descriptions of these factors are given below:

Openness to experience: such people love novelty and creativity. They have a curious mind and have an appreciation for art. They are an independent thinker and prefer to do a variety of things instead of routine activities.

Conscientiousness: these people are more goal-directed, self-disciplined, hard-working, honest and competent. They prefer planned activity instead of spontaneous behaviour.

Extraversion: similar to the description of Eysenck's theory.

Agreeableness: people who score high on agreeableness have a tendency to be cooperative and compassionate. Such people are generally helpful and trustworthy.

Neuroticism: these are worried, insecure and self-pitying people. Whereas, people who score low on neuroticism are self-satisfied and secure.

6.4 ASSESSMENT OF PERSONALITY

Just like the assessment of intelligence (as discussed in the last unit), personality assessment is also a vital task of psychologists. According to APA, "personality assessment is a proficiency in professional psychology that involves the administration, scoring, and interpretation of empirically supported measures of personality traits and styles in order to:

- Refine clinical diagnoses;

- Structure and inform psychological interventions; and

- Increase the accuracy of behavioral prediction in a variety of contexts and settings (e.g., clinical, forensic, organizational, educational)".

The above definition of personality assessment by APA suggests that it is a specialised knowledge which requires an assessor to have knowledge related to psychometric properties of the test instruments, theories of personality, knowledge of administration and interpretation. There are various techniques to assess personality and these techniques can be broadly categorized into the following:

Self-Report Measures and,

Projective Techniques

Self-Report Measures

As the name suggests, in this method, a participant is directly asked various questions about her/him and based on the answers an assessment of her/his personality is made. The questions (called as an item in the language of psychometrics) are based on some theory and are structured in nature. Responses on each item are recorded quantitatively using a rating scale. The total obtained score is then interpreted using a norm table developed for the test. Examples of some of the famous self-report measures are *the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF)*. However, few limitations are also associated with this method. It has been found that participants tend to choose a socially desirable response, which is known as *social desirability bias*. *Acquiescence bias* is another limitation of this method. It refers to the respondent's tendency to select 'yes' as a response to all the items regardless of their content.

Projective Techniques

Based on psychoanalytical theory, this is an indirect way to measure personality. As we know that according to the psychoanalytical theory the majority of our personality is shaped by unconscious processes therefore to measure it, we should resort to an indirect measure of personality only. All projective tests are based on the principle of projection — a defense mechanism proposed by Sigmund Freud. The basic assumption of this technique is that the ambiguous or unstructured stimuli or situation may prompt an individual to project his or her feelings, emotions and desires on them. Some of the famous projective tests include; Rorschach test, Holtzman Inkblot test, Thematic Apperception Test, Draw-A-Person test, Sentence completion test and, Word Association test. These tests produce a response in the qualitative form which is content analysed by the expert of these tests. However, these tests are also not short of limitations. One of the biggest drawbacks of these tests is that they do not have any statistical validity or reliability. Secondly, since the interpretation of the responses is highly subjective therefore it can differ dramatically from one examiner to another.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ II)

State whether the following are 'True' or 'False':

1) People who are extroverts are social, seek adventurous and prefer company when in stress.   (   )

2) Central traits are the dominant traits of one's personality and stand at the top of Allport's trait hierarchy. ( )

3) According to behaviourist theorists, personality is an abstract and hypothetical concept. ( )

4) Projective tests are based on trait theories of personality. ( )

5) McCrae and Costa believed that all human personality traits can be reduced to five factors only. ( )

6.5   LET US SUM UP

In this Unit, we learned about individual difference with reference to personality. The Unit started with the concept and meaning of personality. Then, various theories of personality were also explained with special emphasis on Freud's contribution, Trait theories, behavioural and humanistic viewpoint on personality. Lastly, different methods to measure personality were also discussed.

6.6   UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) What do you understand by personality?

2) Discuss Freud's view of the mind as an iceberg and explain how he used this image to represent the conscious and unconscious region of the mind?

3) Why is the unconscious so important in Freud's theory of personality?

4) Describe and explain any five defense mechanisms given by the psychoanalytical theory of personality.

5) Write a note on Alfred Adler's theory of personality.

6) Describe the humanistic approach to personality and explain Maslow's and Roger's theory to support your view.

7) How are self-report measures different from projective techniques in assessing personality?

6.7   GLOSSARY

Personality   : Refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving.

Cardinal Traits   : These are the dominant traits of one's personality. They stand at the top of Allport's trait hierarchy and are the master controller of one's personality. These traits may dominate personality to such an extent that the person may become known for those traits only.

Central Traits   : They come second in the hierarchy. According to Allport, every person possesses 5-10 central traits in varying degrees. They can easily be noticed and are responsible for shaping our personality. Traits such as intelligent, loyal, dependable, aggressive etc.

Secondary Traits	:	These are less relevant traits of personality. These are basically situational or circumstantial traits. For instance, an aggressive child may not speak much in front of his/her teacher. These can be numerous in number and are responsible for behaviours incongruent to individual's usual behaviour. According to Allport, these traits are "aroused by a narrower range
Id	:	This part of personality operates unconsciously. It deals with basic instincts, biological needs, and aggressive impulses. It is the most primitive part of human personality present since birth.
Preconscious or subconscious mind	:	Deals with all those information for which you are not currently aware but can become only if you pay attention.
Fixation	:	A concept proposed by Sigmund Freud. It refers to a continuation of an early mode of satisfaction in later life.
Collective unconscious	:	It refers to the unconscious shared by all humans.

6.8 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions I

1) Freud
2) Superego
3) *analytic theory* or *analytical psychology*
4) *sibling rivalry*
5) latency

Self Assessment Questions II

1) True
2) False
3) True
4) False
5) True

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