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**PSYCHOLOGY
OF PERSONALITY**



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PART ONE

DIFFERENTIAL AND PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY INTRODUCTORY NOTIONS

CHAPTER 1

PERSONALITY THEORY INTRODUCTION

1.1 PERSONALITY DEFINITION

The semantic complexity of the concept of personality determines its resistance to being included in a strict definition. The use of the term personality in the scientific field raises many problems, so that “the history of psychology is confused, within certain limits, with the history of attempts to answer the question of what personality is” (Fraisie, 1986). This impasse has created, on the one hand, multiple directions of research and various ways of approaching personality and, on the other hand, has led to difficulties in its evaluation.

Overcoming the stalemate is equivalent to explaining some abstract theoretical constructs and their relationship, as well as their operationalization. Therefore, any theory of personality has two levels:

- the level of theoretical constructs;
- the level of empirical observations.

There is a relationship of mutual interdependence between the two aspects: theoretical hypotheses are tested empirically, and empirical observations will enrich the content of the theoretical level, the variety of personality approaches deriving precisely from the way the two levels are constructed. From this point of view, two major approaches of personality are differentiated:

- the systemic approach, according to which the personality is a bio-psycho-social system, with dynamic organization and adaptive finality;
- the functionalist approach, through which the personality is not defined in a certain way, but its part is emphasized in the different theories.

Systemic analysis

This highlights the following fundamental characteristics of personality:

- organized character and coherence, demonstrating that personality is not a set of adjacent elements, but a functional system based on interdependencies;
- hypercomplex character, in the composition of the personality entering a large number of component elements and dynamic relations between them; this quality creates difficulties regarding the simultaneous capture of all the elements and connections, the knowledge of the personality being realized through, through its manifestations in activity;
- probabilistic character, which offers to the study of personality a certain degree of freedom, which makes difficult the predictions on the situational behavior;
- relatively stable character is given by the relative invariability of the laws governing the system; although a person's behavior shows situational variations, in the long run, they fade, providing a relatively stable framework for the personality.

Functionalist analysis

This type of analysis takes into account the main theoretical and methodological guidelines that will capture, each one, the specifics of the personality. The main guidelines in approaching personality are (Reber, 1985):

- Constitutional theories (Kretschmer, Sheldon, Viola, Jung, etc.) consider as a unit of definition of personality, the type. This is a category of high generalization that brings together individuals, based on similar characteristics, being a qualitative description. For example, Jung differentiates between introverted and extroverted type, Freedman, personality type A and B, and so on.
- Trait theories – (Allport) starts from the assumption that personality is a set of traits. The trait is the concept that highlights the relatively stable features of a person, considered to be the cause of consistent behavior. Behaviorally, it indicates a predisposition to respond in the same way to a variety of stimuli. If the type brings together on the basis of similarities, the trait individualizes cognitively, emotionally and behaviorally, the type subsuming several

traits. For example, the extroverted type has as traits sociability, social sensitivity.

- Factor theories (Cattell), by the notion of factor, he wants to go beyond the wide scope of the type or too narrow of the trait, identifying personality with the relationships between factors, they have a quantitative expression.
- Psychodynamic theories include classical psychoanalytic theory (Freud, Jung), as well as social-psychoanalytic theories (Adler, Horney, Sullivan, Erikson, Fromm). They have a common central idea, namely the characterization of the personality through the notion of integration. The evolution of personality is a gradual aspect, subject to a certain process, depending on the way in which the development factors are integrated.
- Humanist-existentialist theories (Maslow, Rogers) promote as central concepts in explaining personality unique experience, self-knowledge, creativity, thus opposing the deterministic model of personality.
- Behavioral theories (Skinner) are an extension of learning theories. As the main representative of this orientation, Skinner considers that the analysis of personality is equivalent to the investigation of external causes, emphasizing the importance of behavioral control. If science can find ways to control behavior, then we can say that it has identified the causes of personality development. Through this vision he opposes the constitutional theories of personality, stating that its explanation in terms of trait or in terms of any other internal determinant allows the prediction of behavior, but not its control.
- The theory of social learning approaches personality as the acquisition of behaviors in a social context. The main theorist is Bandura who states that personality is modeled in interactions with social actors, by observing the development of their behavior and personal and social effects. Through this conception, he opposes behaviorist theorists according to which a behavior is learned only if it is positively reinforced, rewarded. In order to understand the evolution of the personality, it is necessary to analyze the way in which the person learns different behaviors in different situations. Also, personality is explained by the intervention of cognitive factors, such as memory, mental operations, imaginative transformations, etc.

- Situational theories, represented by Mischel, are based on the two previous models, overcoming them. The central idea is that personality must be analyzed from two perspectives – that of situational constancy (similar behavior in different situations) and that of temporal constancy (constancy of aspects of conduct, over time) – the last aspect having a greater relevance in understanding personality. Mischel describes personality through traits – prototypes that signal only the typical elements of a situation, so that the regularity of behavior is attributed to situational similarities.
- Interactionist theory of personality represents a synthetic position of the previous theories, according to which the personality is the result of the interactions between the personal predispositions and the aspects of the environment.

1.2 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION, DYNAMICS AND DEVELOPMENT

Regardless of the approach, systemic or functionalist, all theoretical positions on personality converge on the same idea: to explain personality means to discover the causes of behavior, as an expression of it. For these reasons, it is necessary to postulate the answers to three questions (Cloninger, 1993, p. 2):

- what are the descriptive units of personality, the area of answers outlining the field of personality description;
- what are the processes through which the personality adapts to the requests, marking the dynamics of the personality;
- what are the changes that the evolution of the personality implies, outlining the field of personality development.

Personality description

The identification of the descriptive elements of the personality was a preoccupation of both the systemic and the functionalist approaches, serving, implicitly, also the study of some interpersonal differences.

The main descriptive units of personality have been previously explained, namely the type, trait and personality factor. Below are the essential features of these units:

Personality descriptive units

DESCRIPTIVE UNITS	FEATURES
Type	high degree of generality groups individuals based on similarities qualitative description
Feature	individualizes people relative stability degree of customization
Factor	median position between particular and general quantitative description quantifiable qualities

Another important aspect of personality description is the nomothetic and idiographic study.

- Idiographic research focuses on individual features, on uniqueness, excluding comparative aspects. It is a diachronic search, unfolding over time. In practice, the idiographic approach is almost impossible, because the description of the individual personality involves implicit comparisons (at least with the results of other research).
- Nomothetic research aims at the abstract, the universal or the general, based on comparisons between people, regarding one or more aspects of personality.

The critique of the idiographic approach questions the scientific character of such studies (knowing that one of the conditions for the existence of a science is the ability to enunciate universal laws), as well as their impossibility of replication (Corsini, 1986; Robinson, 1984). On the other hand, Carlson (1971) also reveals the weakness of nomothetic research, namely the consideration of a relatively small number of measurable variables, without “resynthesizing” the structure. It is important that the relationships between the variables investigated in the nomothetic study cannot be replicated in the idiographic research. However, Lamiel (1981) shows that research focused on capturing individuality makes it possible to describe it, proposing constructs that have not only causal but also predictive value on human behavior.

Personality dynamics

This aspect refers to the mechanism through which the personality expresses itself, focusing on motivation, as the main factor of personality dynamics. Each theory brings to the fore a certain spring of personality dynamics – biological factors, social motivation, the tendency to self-realization, suggesting, on the one hand, the existence of a similar motivational foundation in all individuals and, on the other hand, motivational structures, as it varies from one individual to another.

Research in recent decades has focused on individual dynamics, building the concept of “idiodynamics”, with implications for the use of methodologies based on biographies and personal experiences. Personality dynamics involves multiple influences, both from the environment and from internal origin, the notion of multiple causality being, today, a totally accepted aspect.

Personality development

It refers to the establishment of models that explain the formation and changes undergone in the evolution of personality. In this issue, each theory of personality has something to say, “cutting” a certain period of ontogenetic development as essential in what is and will become the personality. Here, too, the issue of the part of heredity and the environment in the development of personality arises, the extreme, radical positions giving way, in the end, to a “middle way”.

Thus, the three “D’s” of personality – description, dynamics, development – will receive different interpretations within the various theories of personality.

1.3 PERSONALITY SCIENTIFIC AND IMPLICIT THEORIES

Personality implicit theories (P.I.T.)

They focus on the opinions, beliefs that people issue on a daily basis, about the personality and causes of their own behavior or the behavior of others. All this amount of direct, empirical observations, of subjective interpretations regarding the different aspects of the personality, having an unscientific character, circumscribe the sphere of P.I.T.

Early studies of P.I.T. focused on identifying the relationships that people captured between various personality traits – relationships that were not the target or the result of scientific research. It is interesting that the existence of such theories is maintained even today, but with a deeper concern for the accuracy of statements (Newmann, 1988; Semin & Krahe, 1987).

The concept of P.I.T. has been disavowed by many researchers who, rejecting its unscientific nature, insisted on the “experimental rigor” of the study of personality.

1.3 PERSONALITY SCIENTIFIC AND IMPLICIT THEORIES

They start from a systematic observation of the researched aspect, to its measurement and, finally, they arrive at a quantitative decoding and a qualitative interpretation of the obtained data, having as central concept, the notion of “determinism”.

Determinism refers to the assumption that a phenomenon is the effect of another phenomenon – cause, precisely these causes must be identified and measured.

Within the theories that promote scientific methods, there are two levels of abstraction:

- The level of theoretical constructs and deterministic links between them. For example, the constructs explained by a theory are “frustration” and “aggression,” and the theoretical statement is that “frustration causes aggression.” Abstract concepts such as the above are not directly observable, but they correspond to observable phenomena;
- The level of direct observations confirms or refutes the hypothesis of the first level. There is a close connection between the two levels – the theoretical constructs are verified practically, by measuring some behavioral variables, so that then the practice to enrich the theoretical knowledge. To test a theory, predictions about observable phenomena are logically derived from the theoretical propositions by which the constructs are related. When observations differ from predictions, the theory is refuted, and when they follow predictions, the theory is confirmed.

For the evaluation of a scientific theory, there are several criteria:

- Accuracy – the theoretical constructs must be described very precisely, in order to be operationally defined;

- Verifiability – the statements of a theory must be verifiable, i.e. testable by empirical methods. It must also make a prediction of the relations between the theoretical constructs, in the form of clear hypotheses;
- Comprehension – the definitions of the theoretical constructs must be made in comprehensible terms;
- Applied value – refers to the ability of the theory to provide practical strategies, solutions for real life;
- Heuristic value – refers to the ability of the theory to generate ideas that would be the starting point of other theories.

Today, it is recognized that, in the research of personality, we resort to a set of methods and concepts and not to a single paradigm, speaking in this case of a conceptual and methodological eclecticism.

1.4 PERSONALITY RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Over time, research has used a wide and varied range of methods and techniques for measuring various aspects of personality. Because each psychological school that supported a certain perspective on personality, proposed a set of its own theoretical constructs, they will be found in the techniques of measuring personality.

Regardless of the theoretical and methodological orientation of personality currents, any measurement must meet two conditions:

- fidelity coefficient – refers to the fact that the test must lead to similar results whenever administered to the same person (assuming no radical changes in the period between the two tests). In general, there are two ways to check the confidence coefficient of a sample:
 - for samples with true/false answers, it is established by comparing equivalent parts of the sample (e.g. the correlation between the two halves of the sample);
 - for the tests that follow the categorization of the subjects by a qualified observer, this is established by calculating the correlation between the assessments coming from two different observers. The correlation coefficient of a sample may be affected in the case of samples that combine inhomogeneous items, increased ambiguity of item formulation or due to the intervention of situational factors.
- *validity* – refers to the quality of a test to measure exactly what it aims to do. We know:

- *predictive validity* – is established when the test can predict the achievement of a future behavior or performance, thus having a practical goal. Thus, the predictive validity of a test instrument is represented by the degree to which the score obtained by a subject in a test has predictive capacity on its future performance. For example, the conditions of employment in a workplace condition that all evidence has predictive validity, in order to allow on the one hand the safety of high performance and on the other hand to prevent possible dismissal on the basis of irrelevant variables;
- *construct validity* – responds more to theoretical than practical purposes and is based on the idea that a theory is a set of constructs or ideas, as well as the relationships between them. Constructs, even if they can be defined, described, they are not directly observable. For example, we cannot achieve self-esteem, but we can find ways to measure this concept. Using the theoretical notions of defining the concept of self-esteem, a researcher can create a tool to help him/her make predictions about the scores a person can get on self-esteem. We then proceed to test a group of subjects, observing the extent to which the test results reflect the predictions of the researcher;
- *convergent validity* – refers to the situation in which the initial measurement of a construct correlates with other measurements of the same construct. For example, if a researcher uses an instrument to measure the intelligence of a subject X, then he/she expects X, obtaining a high score in this test, to also obtain high scores in other tests to measure this aptitude;
- *discriminative validity* – refers to the fact that the measurement of an aspect is not saturated with other factors (for example, if the scores obtained in an intelligence test correlate significantly with a higher IQ, but also correlate the prestige of the occupation or social class, there is no certainty that the test measures intelligence and not other constructs in which intelligence is involved, in other words, if the instrument fails to discriminate between intelligence and other constructs, it has no discriminatory validity.

All these forms of validity are established according to the purpose of the test. Thus, a test that aims at predicting performance must have predictive validity, and one that measures personal style must have construct validity.

The main methods used in measuring different aspects of personality can be summarized in:

- Observational techniques;
- Evaluation and self-evaluation techniques;
- Projective techniques;
- Personality inventory;
- Behavioral measurements;
- Case studies.

Observational theories

The most frequently used research method, observation, consists in the intentional pursuit and systematic recording of information on the personality and behavior of an individual, as well as the situation in which it manifests itself.

In the case of personality assessment, due to the fact that different observers study different behavioral aspects, observational techniques show a low validity and fidelity. For this reason, researchers have had to “align” these judgments with the requirement for greater accuracy and systematization. These conditions were met, in the case of observation, in two ways: structuring the evaluation system and structuring the methods of gathering information, i.e. observation (Kinchla, 1991).

Regarding the structuring of the evaluation, the condition is met that each researcher evaluates the same qualities. In most cases, a set of adjectives is provided which will then be selected to apply to the person being assessed. These adjectives describe various personality traits, with reference to multiple psychological aspects, depending on the purpose of the assessment. Each characteristic will be evaluated on a scale with 5, 7 or 9 grades, 1 containing the judgments that best describe the person, and 9 statements that do not fit the person evaluated. This technique facilitates interindividual comparisons, because the same number of adjectives are related to each individual.

Another way to increase the fidelity and validity of the observation is to structure the information on which it is based, an example in this case being the interview. The interview in which the researcher does not

propose a strict order of questions, leaving more freedom of expression to the person is called unstructured interview; In the structured interview, each interviewee receives the same questions, in the same predetermined order. The semi-structured form of the interview is based on a previously established set of questions, but allows the researcher to explore in depth those answers that seem relevant to that personality.

Also, another way to improve the quality of observation in personality assessment is to structure the situation. The researchers show that the predictive validity of the observations increases if the test situation has similarities with the real situation.

Selfassessment reports

They are based on the subject's ability to become aware of aspects of his/her personality and to verbalize them. The same adjective scales that have been described previously can be used in the case of self-assessment. The fidelity of these reports is fulfilled by the test-retest correlation, and the predictive and construct validity is achieved in the same way as with the observational techniques. The undesirable aspect of these self-assessments consists in the uncertainty of the veracity of the statements about oneself, which are often subject to the tendency of the most desirable social response. One way to alleviate this disadvantage is to clarify the difference between personality and behavior, requiring the investigated subjects to assess the quality of behavior rather than personality.

Another difficulty of self-assessment is the degree of awareness of aspects related to one's personality, given the fact that there is a certain resistance to self-disclosure. Therefore, in the methodological field of personality assessment, especially in the clinical field, projective techniques are used.

Projective techniques

They are based on the projective capacity of the human consciousness, to externalize certain feelings, conflicts, attitudes, through a system of images and ideas. Most of these evidences use an ambiguous, poorly structured perceptual material, the subject's attempt to structure it, as well as the way in which he/she realizes it being in connection with the deepest layers of his/her consciousness. Among these tests, we mention: the Rorschach test, the thematic apperception test (T.A.T.), the Szondi test, etc.

Personality questionnaires and inventories

Questionnaires are organized and structured sets of questions, in order to obtain data, information on the mental life of an individual or group. This method is based on the self-assessments of the subjects regarding their own attitudes, behaviors, perceptions, mentalities, feelings related to certain topics.

In completing a questionnaire, the researcher must take into account the following conditions that, observed, guarantee the qualitative achievement of the research goal (Zlate, 1994, p. 119):

- establishing the type of questions – questionnaires may contain questions with dichotomous answers, such as “yes/no”, with fan answers in which the subject must opt for one or two possible answers from four or five or questions with open-ended answers in which case the subject has freedom of answer;
- establishing the content of the questions – through their content and wording, the questions aim either to collect objective data about the subject (age, education, social affiliation, religion, etc.), or to gather information on the subject’s opinions, attitudes or motivations for a certain behavior;
- how to formulate questions – is an essential aspect in building questionnaires. In this sense, the formulation of questions must avoid far too broad generalities, scientific language, with many neologisms, concepts whose meaning is ambiguous, biased language or hypothetical formulations.

All these conditions are important in the approach of the method, in order to eliminate the effect of the “facade tendency” from the subject who, through an answer, can mask his real attitude towards the respective problem, in the case of students this tendency being supported by the desire for a good impression on the teacher, the value of the answer being questioned. The main advantage of the questionnaire is that it highlights the introspective valences, the disadvantage being the low degree of security regarding the subject’s capacity for self-perception.

If personality questionnaires usually measure a single aspect or dimension, personality inventories measure several personality variables or aspects (examples from these research methods will be explained in each chapter).

Case study and psychobiographical method

The case study is an intensive investigation of a single subject, being a method used in almost all fields of application, but especially in clinical personality research. When the investigation focuses on theoretical considerations, the case study will become a psychobiography (Clloninger, 1993, p. 12). In the latter case, the researcher uses a diversified material (letters, journals, products of the subject's activity).

The biographical method aims to gather information about the main events in the subject's life, the relationships between them, as well as their meanings. From this point of view, the biography as a knowledge of the personal history of the subject contributes to the understanding of the individual specificity.

There are several procedures used in the analysis of biographical data, given the events and their sequence over a longer period of time or the actions performed by the subject during a day, actions that will later be interpreted in terms of decision-making capacity, adaptation, defense mechanism.

But important in this method of knowledge is to provide the opportunity for the student to describe those facts that they themselves consider "eventual", to interpret the meaning given, to "translate" them in terms of emotional experience. Being a method of reconstructing the personal path, of the individual history, the data provided by this method can sometimes be incomplete or even voluntarily distorted. Therefore, this method cannot be used independently, but in relation to other methods.

Psychobiographical studies are not necessarily limited to a single person, but can focus on a number of individuals representative of a social group.

Studies based on non-experimental methods of personality research have the disadvantage of weak statistical correlations and the impossibility of controlling independent variables.

It is important to emphasize that each theory that explains personality dynamics and development will measure the explanatory theoretical constructs by other specific methods that will individualize it in relation to other currents (for example, the method of nondirective conversation developed by Rogers).

The following chapters will describe the main theoretical notions, as well as the widely used research methods for measuring these constructs, highlighting the interpersonal differences and the applicative value of different approaches.

1.5 DIFFERENTIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND PERSONALITY THEORIES

Differential psychology is the branch of psychology whose object of study is the research of interpersonal differences. In the study of personality, semantic differentiations are operated between the following notions:

- Individual – this notion refers to the biological integrity, to the systemic unity of the organism, without including evaluations or assignments of value meanings. This notion is used both to describe a representative of the animal kingdom and the human individual.
- Person – includes all human individuals, characterized in terms of the network of statuses and social roles. This notion is used when emphasizing the individual's belonging to the group.
- Personality – from a structural point of view, it is a system of attributes, values and social norms that define the subject in his/her hypostases of subject that cognitively exhausts the world (epistemic subject), that transforms and acts on reality (pragmatic subject) and subject endowed with the ability to receive and produce values (axiological subject).
- Individuality – this concept describes the human personality, under its distinctive and original aspects. Individuality presupposes a certain perceptual, cognitive style, a certain emotional experience, capacity for relationships, a particular conception of existence, all these individualizing people.

Differential psychology, with the major goal of highlighting interpersonal differences, will focus its research on the notion of individuality.

Similarly to personality theories, differential psychology develops a system of theoretical constructs and applies specific methods of evaluation. Highlighting specific differences, this branch of psychology will conduct comparative studies, measuring the differences between individuals or groups.

Interpersonal differences are situated at the level of psychic processuality, at the level of personality as a system, as well as at the level of behavior, as an expression of personality.

- The level of mental process marks the differences between people, regarding perception, cognitive abilities (thinking, mnemonic processes, imaginative combinatory), volitional capacity (voluntary effort), attention (concentration, mobility, stability, volume and

distributivity), verbal skills, creative potential, motivational structures, emotional experience (intensity, duration, expressiveness, mobility), as well as differences in automated elements of the activity (skills).

- The level of personality as a system includes aspects that refer to temperamental differences (amount of energy mobilized in different activities, pace of development), differences in skills (tools that mediate performance in an activity) and in character traits (personal values, way of relating, attitudes).

Because research is conducted directly on behavior, as an observable aspect of personality, all these differences are manifested in terms of behavior. Specifically, there is debate of direct measurement of behavior and indirect personality.

One of the main objectives of any theory of personality also involves the aspect of interpersonal differences, so that all conceptions and visions of personality dynamics and development will contain elements of differential psychology. Also, due to the wide application area of the notions described in personality theories, the studies also aim to highlight the differences between the normally developed and the pathological personality. These differences (at the level of mental processes and at the level of personality) also consider factors such as age, sex, cultural and educational level, i.e. the influence of label variables.

In the study of personality, the aim is to evaluate the defining features for human nature, in general, the mental characteristics of a civilization, culture or subculture, as well as the individual characteristics, which bear the imprint of personal experiences. In this context, the researches will follow (Minulescu, 1997, p. 82):

- common reference fund (aspects that define human kind, in general);
- differential aspects, following the “mental specificity, as it was implicitly structured through everyday life experiences”.

Each theory of personality discussed will contain, in addition to defining theoretical constructs and research methods, a subpoint that follows interpersonal differences, starting from the basic notions of that theory.

PART TWO

PSYCHOANALYTICAL AND NEUROPSYCHOANALYTICAL VIEW ON PERSONALITY

CHAPTER 2

JUNG – ANALYTICAL PSYCHOLOGY

2.1 PERSONALITY STRUCTURE

Jung's analysis of personality refers to the primordial meaning, originating from the word "psyche", having the meaning of "spirit" or "soul". The whole Jungian conception is under the sign of understanding the personality as an integration of the polarities. From this point of view, Jung's theory is a holistic one, the personality including the totality of personal qualities and potentialities, conscious or unconscious.

Central in explaining the personality is the idea of permanent balance between conscious and unconscious, the two aspects being conceived not as opposing forces from the confrontation of which tension is born, but as counterbalancing parts, between them there are compensatory relations. The unconscious potentially contains everything that will become the human being; for example, in childhood and especially in adolescence, the person becomes aware of his/her social identity, but, according to the principle of compensation, other conscious aspects will be ignored.

The normal development of the personality implies the exploration and reintegration of the unconscious potentialities in the total, unitary Self, a process that Jung calls individuation. The purpose of this process is to develop the latent potential that will support the growth of the Ego and, finally, personal growth. With the integration in the structure of the Ego of the elements of which we were not aware, there is a second phenomenon of differentiation, of awareness of one's own individuality. Thus, the development from general to particular, from nonspecific to specific, is another connotation given to the term individuation. There is, at least intentionally,

a similarity of this vision with that of humanistic psychology which had as its desideratum the rehabilitation of man as a self-determined, creative being, capable of personal growth (Rogers).

Conscious

The conscious part, called the Ego, is made up of conscious processes and functions. The ego is not identical with the whole psyche, so Jung distinguishes the ego from the self, stating that (Jung, 1994, p. 68): “The ego is only the subject of my consciousness, while the self is the subject of my whole psyche, including the unconscious”.

The aspect of the Ego that adapts to the outside world is the “persona”. Having the original meaning of “mask”, worn in the Roman theater, “persona” refers to the parts that the human individual plays, under the pressure of society. Jung shows that the part played by a person as a result of social expectations does not necessarily coincide with that assimilated at a deep psychological level; therefore, when social parts change, man experiences a discontinuity in the sphere of his/her personality.

Based on the same principle of compensation, as the social “façade” consolidates, other potentialities of the personality will be neglected or even suppressed. In most cases, these aspects are represented by elements incompatible with the new social part, which entails their rejection. The person thus appears as a complex of functions with adaptive value, a manifest image that takes into account the individual intentions and opinions of the entourage.

Unconscious

The main point of ideological rupture between Freud and Jung was the way in which the latter explained the unconscious as part of the personality. Jung differentiates between the personal and the collective unconscious.

The personal unconscious develops as a result of the personal, unique experiences of the human individual, of which Shadow, Animus and Soul are part.

The term shadow refers to the complex of ideas, feelings, desires that are forbidden to develop, being the main source of moral conflict.

The persona opposes the inner attitude, i.e. the personal way in which we relate to the inner, subjective world, this last reporting being called Anima and Animus.

The notions of Anima and Animus explain Jung's conception that human kind is bisexual, only social expectations being different from one sex to another; the Anima represents the feminine aspect encountered in the masculine unconscious, while Animus is the masculine aspect of the feminine unconscious.

Jung shows that between Persona, Anima and Animus there are relations of complementarity: the more the external attitude (Persona) has more notes characteristic of the male sex (aggression, dominance, persuasion, rationality), the more the feminine features (Anima) appear in the unconscious. Jung said in this regard that (Jung, 1990): "As in men in general, in the external attitude, logic and objectivity prevail or are, at least, considered ideal, in women, this part has the feeling; unconsciously, however, the relationship is reversed, inside, the man feels and the woman reflects".

Archetypes

By introducing the concept of the collective unconscious, Jung drew the line between him and Freud, even being accused by some exegetes of mysticism. The collective unconscious is a psychic legacy, containing ancestral, primordial images of the species' experience, of which we are not directly aware.

These primordial images are called archetypes and act as organized principles, functioning at the level of all peoples and all individuals of a nation, generally triggering the same reactions. The fact that these images exist is proven by some phenomena, such as the recognition of symbols, the phenomena of "déjà vu", etc. The archetype, as an archaic image, expresses predominantly collective-unconscious materials, the primordial image being always collective, giving rise to a certain psychic experience and to similar reactions to the members of a people. They precede the idea. As examples of archetypes, they are the archetype of the mother, the child, the hero, etc.

The process by which unconscious aspects are explored and reintegrated into the personality structure, with the aim of its reunification, is called individuation. Individualization is a process of differentiation that ensures the development of individual personality. Because personality can only develop through communication, it means that individuation is also related to the social. Jung said that individuation is more or less in opposition to the collective norm, because it is a differentiation of the general and a

constitution of the particular, a particular based on the very constitution of the individual; ultimately, individuation is an enlargement of the sphere of consciousness and of conscious psychic life (Jung, 1994).

The main ideas that emerge from Jung's conception of the structure of personality are:

- personality is not made up of superimposable "elements", but it represents a whole, a totality;
- relations between the parts of the personality are not some conflicting ones, but of compensation;
- personality evolution involves a process that goes from undifferentiated to differentiated, from general to individual;
- personality balance is obtained from opposites and not from similarities; where a unilateral direction of conscious life dominates, an opposite, opposite unconscious position will form over time;
- personality has a psychic heritage that refers to ancestral, primordial images of the experience of the species that, on a behavioral level, give rise to similar reactions to the people of a people, being pre-ideological;
- main source of personality conflict is due to the inconsistency between the unconscious potentials of the personality and the constellation of parts and social statuses.

2.2 PSYCHOLOGIC TYPES

One of the explanatory elements of the description of the personality is the psychological types.

The typology developed by Jung has as a criterion the major direction of orientation of the psychic energy, according to which the extroverted and the introverted type are differentiated. Based on the extraversion-introversion dimension, the inter-individual differences are highlighted, expressing the dominant way of the individual's interaction with the world, as well as the orientation of his/her energies.

In general, the extroverted type is characterized by sociability, the predominant orientation of energy outwards, the initiation of social contacts, and the introverted type, by channeling energy predominantly inward, tendency towards loneliness, etc.

Fordham (1967) shows that the orientations of the two personality types are essentially different, which has consequences in terms of mutual

perception; for example, the extrovert will perceive the introvert as “self-centered and boring,” while the introvert will perceive the extrovert as “superficial and insincere.”

Jung adds to the extraversion-introversion dimension, in explaining the personality structure, four psychological functions, polarized two by two: thinking-feeling (affect), respectively sensation-intuition:

- Thinking (T) and affect (Aff) are two alternative ways of emitting value judgments on a reality, judgments that will form the basis of decisional reasoning. For example, a person can make decisions based on the function of thinking (rational evaluation of alternatives, calculation of advantages and disadvantages, etc.) or based on the function of feeling (appreciation of the emotional value of alternatives). Jung believes that there is a balance between thought and feeling, the adult personality valuing both alternatives.
- Sensation (S) and intuition (It) are complementary ways to extract information about reality. Sensation, assuming the direct contact of the sense organs with reality, the “sensation” type will be predominantly interested in details, in concreteness, focusing his/her attention especially on elements, sometimes failing to see the whole, the structure. The “intuition” type will synthesize information, not being concerned with details, because intuition involves capturing implicitly comprehensible relationships, without resorting to the progressive steps of reasoning.

In conclusion:

- thinking as a fundamental psychological function is based on giving meaning to a content, on a logical analysis, on a conceptual relationship;
- affect or feeling reflects the product of a process that takes place between the Self and certain contents, through which the Self gives them a certain value; it is also a way of judging differently, however, from intellectual judgment, because it takes place not for the realization of a logical connection, but for the subjective acceptance or rejection of a content;
- sensation, as an elementary psychic phenomenon, constitutes an immediate fact, not subject to the laws of reason; an individual who orients his/her general attitude according to this principle, belongs to the sensation type;

- in intuition, as an unconscious perception, any content is a ready-made whole, without the possibility of discovering the way in which the content was born; its contents have the character of “something beforehand”, contrary to the character of “deduced” specific to thought.

An important observation that Jung makes is that the extroverted attitude does not denote the fact that the individual always behaves in any situation according to the extroverted scheme, being able to observe in the same individual psychological aspects of the introversion mechanism; it is called extrovert, a certain habitus in which this dimension is predominant.

From the combination of each dimension (E/I) with each of the 4 psychological functions (T/Aff/S/It), 8 personality types result.

The 8 personality types, as well as their main peculiarities are (Cloninger, 1993, p. 66):

Psychotype features	
PERSONALITY TYPE	FEATURES
Introvert – Thought	Orientation towards the interior, especially towards the ideational world
Introvert – Affect	Reserved, but sympathetic; affectionate, but non-demonstrative
Introvert – Sensation	More interested in experiencing the event than in the event itself
Introvert – Intuition	Interested in the future and less in the present, in the evolution of ideas
Extrovert – Thought	Logic, emotional repression, indifference to relationships
Extrovert – Affect	Affective reporting at the level of interpersonal relationships
Extrovert – Sensation	Attentive to facts and details, ability to analyze facts
Extrovert – Intuition	Adventurous spirit, concerned with the possibilities of changing the outside world

The function that will direct and control the personality will be called the dominant (or main) function, the others becoming auxiliary functions. Only a function whose kind does not contrast with that of the dominant function can intervene as an auxiliary function; for example, in addition to the function of thought, it cannot intervene as a second function, feeling, but intuition or sensation. If the dominant function in an individual is either sensation or intuition, then the auxiliary function must be thought or feeling (compensatory relationships).

2.3 RESEARCH METHODS

Based on the theoretical constructs developed by Jung, a research and measurement instrument of the psychological functions described above was built.

The M.B.T.I. (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) for measuring the psychological types identified by Jung was developed by Myers and Briggs (1976), later improved by Mc Caulley (1990).

M.B.T.I. offers, based on self-assessments, scores for the extraversion/introversion dimension of the personality, as well as for the 4 polarized psychological functions (thinking/feeling; sensation/intuition). Researchers add another one to these psychological functions: judgment (J)/perception (P). Through this last aspect, the personal way of conceiving, reflecting the objective world is evaluated – predominantly logical or predominantly structured.

Following the evaluation of the results of the subjects in this test, each person will be defined by a formula containing 4 positions: the first position (initial) represents the dominant function, and the following positions include the initials of the auxiliary psychological functions. On each of these 4 segments, the personality is on either side of the midpoint, positions 1 and 4 being called “preferences”, highlighting certain innate predispositions.

M.B.T.I.-assessed psychologic types

ATITUDE AND DOMINANT FUNCTION	AUXILIARY FUNCTION	PERSONALITY TYPE FORMULA
Introvert Thought	Sensation	IGSP
Introvert Thought	Intuition	IGItP
Introvert Affect	Sensation	IASP
Introvert Affect	Intuition	IAItP
Introvert Sensation	Thought	ISGJ
Introvert Sensation	Affect	ISAJ
Introvert Intuition	Thought	IItGJ
Introvert Intuition	Affect	IItAJ
Extrovert Thought	Sensation	EGSP
Extrovert Thought	Intuition	EGItP
Extrovert Affect	Sensation	EASP

Extrovert Affect	Intuition	EAIItP
Extrovert Sensation	Thought	ESGJ
Extrovert Sensation	Affect	ESAJ
Extrovert Intuition	Thought	EItGJ
Extrovert Intuition	Affect	EItAJ

The fidelity and validity of this tool has been confirmed by further research (Carlson, 1985; Borrello, 1986; Murray, 1990), the 4 scales being confirmed by factor analysis techniques, the strongest correlation being between sensation – intuition, respectively judgment – perception.

This tool is used in various application areas, such as school and professional guidance (learning-teaching style, cognitive strategies, resolution, vocational guidance), forensic psychology, human resources (decision-making style, negotiation), etc. Research shows that, in addition to the 4 fundamental dimensions, this tool is also used to assess creativity, the intuitive-perceptual type having the highest scores on this issue.

Also, as a source of adjacent information, it is resorted to the systematic observation of the motor and verbal behavior of the subject.

A comparable tool as a structure and method of assessment was developed by Meiseger and Murphy (1987), applicable exclusively to children.

2.4 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

The psychological functions, as well as the fundamental dimension of the personality described by Jung are the basis of some interpersonal differences on a cognitive, affective, relational level. Despite the diagnostic and prognostic successes of the M.B.T.I. questionnaire, Hillman (1987) draws attention to the fact that notions – as Jung explained – are captured without nuance, with no intention of expressing interindividual differences.

Each type of personality, as a qualitative description, subsumes several traits with descriptive value, the picture of these traits marking the interpersonal differences. The differences in terms of personality follow the three aspects described by Jung, to which is added the fourth, introduced by Myers-Briggs:

- Introversion-Extraversion (the major direction of energy channeling);
- Thinking-Feeling (how to make decisions);

- Sensation-Intuition (the type of information noted with predilection);
- Judgment-Perception (general conception of reality).

Two people may have the same predominant energy orientation (I/E), but have different dominant and auxiliary functions attached, these psychological functions being the ground for interpersonal differences.

Without going into the interpretive details of the specific differences, we present the main characteristics of the dominant and auxiliary functions:

- Extroverted – sympathetic ability, initiation and good reception of communication, demonstrativeness, enthusiasm, immediate responsiveness, stimulation through the presence of other people;
- Introverted – avoids contacts, reflexive ability, communication receptors, egocentric;
- Sensory – physical thinking, pragmatism, appreciation of realism, technical skills, orientation towards the present;
- Intuitive – deductive, creative, ability to manipulate symbols, predominantly synthetic thinking, future orientation;
- Thinker – analysis of problem data, appreciation of logic, rationality, tendency to criticism, cognitive motivation;
- Affective – affective reasoning, empathy, desire to please others, emotion, overestimation of feelings, affective motivation;
- Judge – responsibility, perseverance, organization, planning future actions, orientation towards finality, seriousness;
- Perceptual – low resistance to change, process orientation, adaptability, stimulation through new, unique, flexibility.

Following the application of the test, each investigated subject will be described by one of the 16 personality formulas. Each formula will give psychological indications regarding the general orientation of the personality, as well as its functions.

It is essential that the relationships between the measured aspects become more important than the aspects considered separately; for example, the combination on the first positions of “introversion” with “sensation” does not mean a simple addition of their specific features, but results in a new formula that leads to a new interpretation.

2.5 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The psychotypes described by Jung and evaluated with the help of research methods have applicative value in the following fields:

- Education – knowing the grades specific to each type of personality will give the fundamental direction of educational intervention.
- Mental health – the development of unconscious potentials has an important part in reaching maturity, the main way of exploration being the symbolic one.
- Anthropology – genetic inheritance involves the transmission of physical and mental characteristics.
- Human resources – knowledge of the personality formula is useful in personnel selection, conflict mediation, negotiation, communication; decision-making style is related to the psychological type of belonging.
- Legal psychology – the testimony of witnesses, their accuracy and veracity also depend on the formula of the personality of witnesses.
- Society, culture – myths and rituals represent the mark of a society, the manifestation of the ancestral unconscious and at the same time allows the knowledge of the specific matrix of the respective culture.

CHAPTER 3

ADLER – INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY

3.1 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION

Starting with Adler, a new stage is marked in the evolution of ideas on the structure and development of personality, his conception preserving the major theoretical constructs of classical psychoanalysis (the notion of unconscious, the importance of early experiences), but explaining other aspects that will give specificity to his approach.

The central idea of Adlerian theory is that sociocultural context factors condition the development of personality, emphasizing the important part of educational influences (family, society) in the formation of the ego, without neglecting the biological substrate. The interpretation of behavior as an expression of personality must, therefore, take into account the social influences materialized in two aspects:

- adaptation (change of personal parameters, depending on the environment);
- modeling (change of environmental parameters, depending on personal configuration).

In this general context, conflict is the result of social conditioning rather than biological needs.

Starting from this premise, Adler describes the personality as an integral structure, as a confluence of tendencies based on, the tendency towards improvement, towards totality and integration. Adler considers that the essential element of describing the personality is the motivation, the analysis and the understanding of the personality being nothing else than the identification of the causes, of the motivation of the human behaviors.

Inferiority/superiority feeling

The fundamental human motivation is the struggle for improvement, the transition from “a minus of the situation to a positivization of it, from the feeling of inferiority, to totality and social integration” (Adler, 1996, p. 37). In order to describe the improvement effort that has as finality the perfection of the personality, Adler introduces and explains the notions of feeling of inferiority, respectively feeling of superiority.

Influenced by his medical practice, Adler refers to the “organ of inferiority” (organic or mental in kind) as a source of inducing the feeling of inferiority, of the minus in personality.

The feeling of inferiority is a natural one at a young age, because the survival of the child depends on the care and attention of the adult; later, however, the elimination or maintenance of this feeling depends on the subjective experience centered on comparisons with others.

The comparison with the others concerns the following aspects:

- physical and mental abilities (physical strength, cognitive abilities, voluntary abilities, etc.);
- social parts and statutes (quality of life, social relations);
- results of some activities (the performances obtained).

The feeling of inferiority can be compensated, the attenuation of its intensity being given by obtaining very good results in a field of activity or it can even be over-compensated, the individual obtaining superior, performance results.

Compensation, respectively over-compensation is performed in a way:

- direct, when the performance is manifested even in the targeted field of inferiority (for example, people with mild physical disabilities who achieve performance in sports);
- indirect, when the performances are obtained in a different field from the one in which the feeling of inferiority was manifested (for example, people with physical disabilities who achieve performances in the elaboration of a system of ideas).

Adler shows that sometimes the effort of improvement, of overcoming the feeling of inferiority acquires aggressive marks, aggressiveness that finds a direct expression in the verbal behavior or takes a socialized form, for example in some competitions.

The feeling of superiority is installed when the individual has the desire to be very good in a certain area of mental or physical life.

The two notions (the feeling of inferiority/superiority) have a different meaning from that of the inferiority/superiority complex, concepts also important in Adler's theory.

If the compensation of inferiority fails, the inferiority complex will be installed, the person being convinced that whatever he/she does fails to adapt to the demands, to be as good as the others.

If the feeling of inferiority does not lead to the interruption of the compensation effort, the inferiority complex, on the other hand, is accompanied by the consciousness of personal inability to overcome inferiority.

The superiority complex refers to the person's belief that he/she is superior to others; if through the feeling of inferiority, the individual wants to be good in certain areas, through the superiority complex, he/she wants to be the best.

3.2 PERSONALITY UNITY

To emphasize the importance of approaching and understanding personality as a unit, Adler introduces the notion of lifestyle. Started as a compensatory process, the lifestyle represents the totality of the person's conceptions about his/her own Self, capacities, abilities, limits, as well as about life, relationships, society. All these aspects ensure the consistency of his/her personality, and the way we define our lifestyle is an aspect of individualization.

It is noted, as in the case of Jung's theory, the same transition from imitation to voluntary act, from undifferentiated to differentiated, from general to specific.

The lifestyle, as a formation as a high degree of generality, will outline the purpose and meaning of life, the model of life with a dynamizing and orienting part in the behavioral sphere. The lifestyle represents, in the end, the awareness of one's own Self and of its relations with the environment.

Based on the predominant notes of lifestyle, Adler describes 4 personality types:

Personality type description

PERSONALITY TYPES	MAIN FEATURES
Dominant type	aggression, desire for power, feeling of superiority, egocentrism, impulsivity
Dependent type	desire to help others, obedience, passive attitude, depressive tendencies

Avoiding type	decisional incapacity, conflict avoidance, low perseverance
Social type	good social contacts, adaptability, social sensitivity, prosocial behavior

Interpersonal differences occur at the level of this personality structure, each person belonging to a predominant type.

3.3 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Lifestyle, a defining element of personality, is formed under the incidence of both educational factors and analyzed, filtered personal experiences. Personality development thus becomes the formation and consolidation of a lifestyle.

The early development of the personality is dependent on aspects related to the family, the main factors of development being, according to Adler, parental behavior and the family constellation.

Parental behavior

It refers to the actions and attitudes of parental figures towards the child. Adler believes that the maternal figure, in particular, will lay the foundations for the development of social feelings and a cooperative attitude (social style) of the future adult.

From the point of view of the parent-child relationship, Adler describes three types of parental models:

- hypertolerant, characterized by indulgence, excessive tolerance, emotional support, protection, ensuring a sense of security;
- rejective, characterized by ignoring the child's needs, by indifference;
- adaptive, characterized by relationships based on respect, love, trust, independence.

Adler considers that the first two models will determine a poor adaptability of the future adult to the requirements and demands of the environment, inducing the child a feeling of inferiority, because:

- in the case of hyperprotection, reality will not always respond tolerantly to adult needs;

- in case of indifference, the future adult will develop, through a compensatory mechanism, either an exaggerated feeling of dependence (dependent/avoidant type), or aggressive tendencies in interpersonal relationships (dominant type).

Familial constellation

It also plays an important part in the further development of the personality and, implicitly, in shaping the lifestyle, i.e. the existential project.

Adler distinguishes the following situations (Clonninger, 1993, p. 109.):

- the first born has the feeling of inferiority with the appearance of the second child towards whom, in general, he/she will have a protective attitude (compensation of jealousy through protection); as adults, the first born develop a tendency to overestimate authority, will be guided by predominantly conservative values, and those who fail to overcome the natural feeling of inferiority become the so-called “problem children”; usually, parents’ expectations of them are higher, burdening them with more responsibilities;
- the second born will develop the spirit of competition compared to the first who can sometimes take aggressive notes; as adults, they will be stimulated by provocative situations, by ambition, they will be guided by predominantly liberal values, even radical ones, they will underestimate the authority or its signs;
- the single child to the parents, due to the narrow comparisons, has a tendency of long attachment especially to the maternal figure which is usually hyperprotective, the child may even develop a “maternal complex” which can lead to an unrealistic understanding of their abilities.

In addition to family factors, Adler mentions other aspects that influence the development of the adult personality, such as the attitude of the group of friends, social values, etc.

3.4 RESEARCH METHODS

One of the criticisms to Adler’s conception of the description and development of personality refers to the absence of a valid methodological apparatus to measure the theoretical constructs explained.

In recent decades, some tools have been built to operationalize Adlerian concepts, such as:

- feeling of inferiority;
- lifestyle;
- type of parental model and family constellation;
- social interests.

The main methods for evaluating these aspects are:

- personality questionnaires;
- psychobiographical method;
- systematized observation;
- scales of social interests.

Inferiority feeling assessment

The feeling of inferiority, as a theoretical concept, presupposes difficult quantifications, its evaluation rarely rising above a speculative level. However, a tool for measuring the intensity of the feeling of inferiority is known, namely the Comparative Feeling of Inferiority Index (C.F.I.I.), developed by Strano and Dixon (1990). The index assesses the intensity of the feeling of inferiority, both in childhood and in adulthood.

Lifestyle assessment

The same observations as in the previous concept are valid for the notion of “lifestyle”, the capture of the notes characteristic of this notion, through a specific test, being very difficult. Currently, various self-assessment tests developed for the purpose of measuring lifestyle issues are known (Kern, Curlette, 1987; Kern and White, 1989). Despite the fact that the items in this sample capture the significance of the lifestyle concept, the sample has a relatively low validity. On the other hand, the traits that characterize each of the 4 personality types (dominant, dependent, avoidant and social) are included in the vast majority of personality inventories (“California Personality Inventory”, CPI; “16 Personality Factors” and others).

Recent research in the field of personality focuses on a new aspect that can also define the meaning of lifestyle, because it has the meaning of an existential project, namely the quality of life. The most elaborate known self-assessment scale is the Life Style Index constructed by Plutchik, Kellerman, and Conte (1979). This scale was designed to self-assess defensive

mechanisms, such as denial, substitution, projection, or compensation. The index contains 138 items, the subjects reading, in turn, the respective items, after which they evaluate the described behaviors, noting them encrypted on a scale.

Parental model type assessment

Measuring the influences that the parental model (the sphere of parent-child relations, their quality, etc.) exerts on personality development remains a highly controversial methodological issue. One of the arguments put forward by the critics on how to measure these influences is that, by investigating adult subjects who have to answer questions about the relationship between them and their parents, from childhood to the present, it is possible that these answers reflect more, much the current opinion about parental conduct and less the objective reality of relationships during childhood.

One of the tools known and used in the typology of parental models is the Parental Authority Questionnaire which identifies three types of parental models: permissive, authoritarian and democratic. The sample contains 30 items, each item being evaluated by the subject on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 – strong disagreement; 5 – strong agreement).

Another test used in assessing the influence of the parental model on personality development is E.M.B.U. which identifies 15 types of parental patterns. The items of the questionnaire concern aspects of both the conduct and the attitude of the father, as well as of the mother, the subject expressing his/her agreement or disagreement with the statements contained in the items, once for the mother and once for the father.

Social interest assessment

The main methods of measuring social interests are interest questionnaires, self-assessment reports, and scales for measuring social interests.

Among these are the Social Interest Scale (S.I.S.), developed by Crandall (1975), and the Social Interest Index, developed by Greever (1975).

However, the validity of social interest assessment scales is influenced by the aspect of social desirability, the subject often betraying the tendency to agree with socially accepted and supported behavior.

3.5 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

According to the notions developed by Adler, the differences between people refer to:

- differences that exist, cognitively, emotionally and behaviorally, due to the parental model and the family constellation;
- area of social interests, depending on which the 4 personality types are differentiated.

The results of differential research (Forer, Goertzel, Schacter, Fullerton, etc.) on the family constellation demonstrate the influence of its structure on adult personality, but not always in the sense that Adler considered, showing once again the impossibility of generalizing Adler's assumptions. These results refer to:

- Hudson (1990) demonstrates that the first born, in general, shows a greater need for self-realization, being a more frequent presence in the cultural, social or political world.

- Strube and Ota (1982) show that firstborns are much more prone to cardiovascular disease, having a lower resistance to stress, especially in female subjects (type A personality, according to Freedman).

- Hoffman (1991) demonstrates that parents' expectations of their first-born are higher, as well as the responsibilities with which they "burden" them.

- Kiracofe (1990) demonstrates that there is no correlation between the order of children at birth and the manifestation of a certain preferential parental attitude.

Regarding the second direction of capturing interpersonal differences, research shows that:

- people who scored high on the "social interest" dimension scored low on the "narcissism" dimension (Wilkinson, 1987) as well as the "maladaptation" dimension (Murphy, 1988).
- people who recorded high scores on "social interests" also have high scores on the dimensions of affiliation, aggression, self-realization (Leak, 1985).
- social interests correlate with prosocial behavior, job satisfaction, and resistance to anxious factors (Watkins and Hector, 1990).

Referring to these studies, Clonninger (1993, p. 112) also shows the possibility of the existence of an inverted causality: for example, job satisfaction will increase social interest.

3.6 APPLICATIVE VALUE

Adler's conception of personality has influenced research in many fields of application:

- Education – lifestyle identification is an important aspect in counseling and prevention of the development of undesirable, nonadaptive behavior patterns.
- Mental health – personality disorders are due to decreased social interests.
- Family and society – the realization of family intervention and counseling programs based on the idea of assuming social parts, developing prosocial behavior and attenuating comparative educational strategies.

CHAPTER 4

ERIKSON – PERSONALITY PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

4.1 PERSONALITY DYNAMICS AND DEVELOPMENT

Erikson's general conception of personality bears similarities in principle to Horney's view of personality dynamics. On the one hand, Horney considered the conflict born in interpersonal relationships as a factor of personality dynamics; personality orientation was equivalent to the changes that take place in terms of personality, due to the actions of domination of anxiety and basal hostility. On the other hand, Erikson bases on the dynamics of personality the whole notion of conflict that determines, in the development of personality, a crisis of development.

Despite these similarities, there are specific differences between the two approaches:

- kind of the conflict – if Horney conceptualizes conflict as the effect of contradictions between two opposing attitudes towards a person (e.g., dependence/independence), in Erikson the conflict arises from the differences between the possibilities of relating the person and the requirements of the social environment;
- part of early experiences – if Horney remains faithful to the psychoanalytic idea according to which early experience has a decisive part in the development of personality, Erikson sees the human personality as a construction in time, with gradual development. Thus, the developmental potential of the human individual does not remain “anchored” to his/her childhood experiences, fixed to certain types of interpersonal relationships, but acquires fulfillment throughout existence.

Erikson considers that the development of personality, as a stage process, works on the basis of the epigenetic principle (Erikson, 1959, p. 52): “any process of growth presupposes the existence of a general plan, a fundamental aspect from which certain parts in an ascending direction, in a certain time, until the moment when these parts develop, to form a functional whole”.

The epigenetic principle applies both to physical development (the progressive emergence of biological aspects) and to the psychic development of the human being. From the analysis of the definition that Erikson gives to this principle, we deduce that:

- there is an initial moment of development that has the meaning of a general, global, undifferentiated project;
- the potential aspects contained in this project (cognitive, affective, volitional) will be differentiated in the following moments, at different times;
- each aspect that emerges from the general project will follow its own path of development, in an ascending, progressive sense and in its own rhythm;
- all these aspects, reached maturity, will come together to form a functional whole.

In conclusion, Erikson advances the idea that personality development is a stage process, carried out throughout life, having the meaning of moving from undifferentiated to differentiated, from simple to complex, from separate aspects to their integration.

Personality stages

A stage represents a distinct period, limited chronologically, in the development of the personality, a “cut-out” in the ontogenetic evolution, with its own organization. A current stage subordinates its previous stage and prepares the next one.

Each of the 8 stages described by Erikson will contain a crisis represented as a critical moment in personality development. The appearance of the crisis is the result of the conflict between the momentary possibilities of the person and the demands of the restricted social environment (family, group of friends) or extended (society).

Overcoming these crises depends on the social support available to the person, the type of social relationship, the way in which significant people, representative for a certain stage, will relate to the individual. The quality of social support will determine the orientation of behavior in one direction or another, so that each stage will contain its specific aspects, polarized. The evolution of the human individual to one pole or the other will lay the foundations of certain abilities.

An important note must be made at this point: each stage must be evaluated not only from an individual perspective, but also from a social and cultural point of view. The way in which the individual acquires the specific aspects of each stage of development, the way of resolving the conflict will depend on the characteristics of the respective culture. The culture will determine not only the way of mastering the stage, but also the quality of the support for the development of some abilities in the following stages and, finally, for the whole existence.

Each stage of personality development will be described in terms of the polarized aspect it contains, the capacity on which it will be based, and the significant person or institution for that period. The representative character of the institution refers to its capacity to support, stimulate or inhibit the behaviors of the human individual, as well as to mark the evolution, in a certain sense of the personality.

Psychosocial development stages (Clonninger, 1993, p. 127)

	PSICHOSOCIAL STAGE (CHRONOLOGICAL LIMITS)	CAPABILITIES	SIGNIFICANT SOCIAL SUPPORT
1	Trust/Mistrust (0-1 years)	Hope	Maternal figure
2	Autonomy/Dependence (1-3)	Volition	Parental figures
3	Initiative/Guilt (4-6)	Action finalization	Enlarged familial environment
4	Diligence/Inferiority (6-12)	Competence	School Friend group
5	Identity/Confusion (12-18)	Loyalty	Peer group
6	Intimacy/Isolation (18-30)	Love	Friends
7	Generativity/Routine (30-50)	Responsibility	New family Professional relations
8	Integration/Despair (over 50 years)	Wisdom	Person himself/herself

STAGE 1

In the first year of life, the foundations are laid for trust or distrust, the significant person who will influence the orientation of the personality towards one pole or another, being the mother or the maternal substitute. The evolution of the child, at this stage, towards the pole of trust depends on the quality of the parental model, especially on the type of relationship established with the mother, on her ability to provide protection, emotional security and stimulation. Erikson believes that the main way in which the child approaches the world now is the incorporative one, which refers not only to the satisfaction of biological needs, but also to the needs of security, mental comfort or sensory stimulation.

He emphasizes that this stage is one of emotional mutuality, of exchanges between the child and his/her mother, not just one of reception. If the child does not find adequate emotional support, in the relationship with his/her mother, he/she will turn to the opposite pole, developing distrust. Erikson draws attention to the fact that a certain degree of mistrust is not only inevitable, but even necessary in the child's transition to the next stage.

STAGE 2

Between 1 and 3 years, personality development means gaining autonomy. It is known that the first sign of the child's independence is walking that will allow exploring the environment. The child's orientation towards the pole of autonomy presupposes the existence of support from both parents, so that the child begins to develop his/her own control over interpersonal relationships. Inadequate parental support, which punishes the first manifestations of the child's autonomy, will determine his/her orientation towards the negative pole, that of dependence or doubt. Even if the positive pole (autonomy) must prevail, a certain degree of dependence is necessary to move to the next stage.

STAGE 3

In the fourth and fifth year of life, in terms of personality development, a new crisis appears, initiative/guilt. Because, at this age, identification with the parents is very important, the child will be interested in knowing the intersex differences, now laying the foundations for moral development. Under the impact of the strong development of symbolic behavior

(language, representations), the child will approach reality in an integrative way, and his/her actions will be stimulated by curiosity. If the family environment is one that supports and stimulates curiosity, the child will evolve towards the positive pole, that of initiative. If the family environment remains indifferent to the child's initiatives or even sanctions them, then the development of the personality will focus on the opposite pole, that of withdrawal, the child feeling the guilt of his/her actions. Adequate resolution of this conflict will develop the child's initiative and allow access to the future stage.

STAGE 4

This stage is between 6 and 12 years old. The development of the child's personality at this stage is under the sign of the beginning of schooling, of the increase of the number of interpersonal contacts. The institutionalized educational system involves the evaluation of school results and, implicitly, the realization of interindividual comparisons, in terms of results and skills. Erikson states that, at this stage, "the child learns to gain recognition of his/her abilities, through various productions" (Erikson, 1959, p. 86). If the child achieves performance and the evaluation is favorable, he/she will develop perseverance, evolving towards the positive pole (diligence); otherwise, he/she will go to the opposite pole, developing a sense of inferiority. For this reason, in stage 4, the significant people who influence the sense of orientation of the child's personality will be the teachers.

STAGE 5

It includes the age of adolescence, the main acquisition on the level of the Ego, being the self-identity. Being a period of transition to taking on adult-specific parts, resolving identity conflict is essential in the development of adult personality.

Erikson defines identity as awareness of self-image, of one's own abilities and limits, of the continuity of the Ego. The group of friends, through the values to which they are attached, as well as the society, through the models it offers, are representative elements for this stage, influencing the development of the adolescent personality towards the positive pole, of the self or negative identity, of a confused identity. Career guidance, interpersonal reporting are part of the process of establishing identity and

individualization. The identity crisis sometimes finds its unhappy solutions, leading to the development of a negative identity, based on the assumption of undesirable social parts (juvenile delinquency).

STAGE 6

It corresponds to the period of development between 20 and 30 years, in which the central conflict is that of intimacy/isolation. The evolution of the personality towards one pole or the other, depends on the way in which the person solved the previous conflict, of identity. Erikson believes that the attainment of intimacy (the positive pole) is possible only after the human individual has gained self-identity.

In this period of development, the fundamental need is that of affiliation, belonging to a group or a relationship. Intimacy is defined by Erikson as “the ability to psychologically merge with another person, while preserving self-identity” (Erikson, 1959, p. 95). If the group or person with whom the individual interacts represents a danger of disidentification, the evolution will be towards the opposite pole of isolation. At this stage, friendships or relationships are significant for personality development.

STAGE 7

It is between 30 and 40-50 years old. Once the conflict over self-identity and intimacy is resolved, another need now becomes imperative, namely the need for self-esteem and self-realization. The person will evolve either towards the positive pole, of generativity, defined as “the interest in the substantiation and orientation of future generations” (Erikson, 1959, p. 97), or towards the negative pole, that of stagnation. Generativeness means assuming the parts of parent, but also the ability to generate ideas, systems, i.e. the fulfillment of creative potentials in the profession, family or both.

STAGE 8

It is between 50 and 70 years old, as well as over 70 years old. This stage denotes an evolution of the personality with the possibility of its orientation in two opposite directions: towards integrity (positive pole) or towards despair (negative pole). This period is marked by withdrawal from social life, giving up the exercise of social parts and narrowing the relational sphere. Integrity presupposes the capacity to accept successes

and failures, as well as the feeling of accepting death, the end. Failure in its entirety leads the personality to the opposite pole, installing despair accompanied by remorse, feelings of worthlessness and acceptance of death.

We remind you that all these stages will constitute the epigenetic diagram, in which the relations between the specific acquisitions of each stage are more important than the evolution, within the same stage, towards one pole or the other.

By applying the epigenetic principle in the stage development of the personality, it results that each acquired aspect has a particular period of ascendancy, developing in its own rhythm. The current stage is based on the acquisitions of the previous stage, and will prepare the ground for the acquisitions of the future stages. This development of the parts, until the constitution of the functional whole, Erikson calls the epigenetic diagram, being able to be represented thus (Erikson, 1968, p. 128):

4.2 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT SOCIAL ASPECTS

Erikson shows that the development of personality, as a procedural, staged development, takes place throughout life, each stage incorporating a special type of conflict situation. Because internal conflicts, subjectively due to the pressure of external forces, the whole development of the personality will feel the effect of the actions of social and cultural factors.

Cultural influences not only affect the way in which the intrastadial conflict is resolved, but also represent a set of supportive actions that will determine the development of the Ego.

- First stage. At this stage, the religious institution being representative, the person's orientation towards the positive pole (trust) will lay the foundations of hope. For many people, faith or trust presupposes the existence of hope, religious values being susceptible to restoring trust. Erikson agrees that other social media can replace religion.
- Second stage. Positive development will lay the foundations, in adults, of the will or power based on supporting the child's independence. The institutional support of this aspect is the legislative one, the laws, the norms specifying the limits of the authority.
- Third stage. This stage latently contains the individual capacity to complete the actions. The corresponding social element of this stage is the social ideal determined, in part, by the installation of a certain economic order.

- Fourth stage. Now the foundations of competence are being laid, as a value that will guide the behavior of the future adult. Erikson believes that the technological aspects of culture stimulate the development of this aspect.
- Fifth stage. At this stage, the orientation towards the positive pole will influence the development of fidelity, in the sense of the person's belief in a certain ideology. At the social level, the model of social stratification will support this capacity, whether it is about economic, political or professional aspects.
- Sixth stage. Now the foundations are being laid for how the future adult relates to interpersonal relationships. Erikson believes that the relational pattern can be gained by transmitting an educational model, from previous generations to new generations.
- Seventh stage. Generativeness includes the development of responsibility, as a value that will guide the attitudes of the future adult, the institution responsible for this aspect being the educational one.
- Eighth stage. Integrity presupposes the gain of wisdom as a value, the support from culture being philosophy. Interests, at this age, will be expressed in active and selective orientations towards philosophical thinking.

Thus, each stage will have a “representative” institution “in the orientation of personality development” (Erikson, 1963, p. 278-279):

Link between studies and representative social institutions

PSYCHOSOCIAL STAGE (POSITIVE POLE)	REPRESENTATIVE SOCIAL PHENOMENON
1. Trust	Religion
2. Autonomy	Politics/Laws
3. Initiative	Economic order
4. Diligence	Technology
5. Identity	Social stratification
6. Intimacy	Relational pattern
7. Generativity	Education
8. Integrity	Philosophy

All these aspects representative of culture, in general, build the axiological system of the person, laying the foundation for the development of values.

However, the relationship between the individual and the sociocultural plan is not univocal: not only people receive the influence of the cultural environment, but “each generation will revitalize cultural institutions, through the products of activity” (Erikson, 1963, p. 280).

4.3 RESEARCH METHODS

Because Erikson bases his conception of personality staging on clinical observations, the critique of his theoretical constructions addresses the difficulties of evaluating these notions. The efforts of quantification focused, on the one hand, on capturing the specific notes of each stage and the ways of solving the development crisis and, on the other hand, on the influences of social models, through significant cultural institutions, in personality development.

If, regarding the first aspect, a series of tools for evaluating the main theoretical concepts (autonomy, responsibility, identity, etc.) have been developed, instead, the last aspect is poorly covered by psychological evidence.

The most relevant applied research focused on:

- study of the main stage acquisitions;
- study of the relations between the stages;
- study of cultural influences in personality development.

The methods of researching the consistency of the theoretical constructs explained by Erikson include:

- scales for evaluating the status of subjects in different stages of psychosocial development;
- self-assessment questionnaires;
- interview method;
- personality inventory;
- systematized observations.

Assessing aspects included in stage development.

STAGE 5 ASSESSMENT

The most numerous evaluations were made in the sphere of identity, a central concept of stage 5 explained by Erikson. This includes the researches of Cote (1986), Mallory (1989), Porac (1991) and others. Most of these measurements do not have correlated, convergent results. Due to the difficulty of defining this concept, each interview or evaluation scale

will select a certain meaning given to this notion which it will later quantify. Another cause of the inconsistency of these researches starts from the way of conceiving the identity – either as a general, global notion, or as an attribute that is associated with different areas (social, family, professional identity, etc.).

STAGE 4 ASSESSMENT

The specific acquisitions at this stage are diligence (positive pole) and inferiority (negative pole). Marcia (1967), Snyder (1991, 1992) developed a questionnaire to self-assess the person's orientation towards the positive or negative pole of this stage ("Industry vs. Inferiority Questionnaire"). The target group of this study is children aged 7 to 10 years. Following the application of this tool, according to the individual results, the subjects position themselves on a scale that contains at the two poles, diligence, respectively inferiority. Each subject occupies a certain position that reflects the degree of installation of the feeling of inferiority. It is a useful tool for school diagnosis, allowing interventions in this area.

STAGE 2 ASSESSMENT

The main acquisition of this stage, autonomy/independence, is evaluated through systematized observations on the child's attachment to the mother. Research on child attachment has been done by many researchers, including Ainsworth. The course of his research, as well as the results he reaches, are described in the previous chapter (see Horney).

The notions characteristic of the other stages have been less studied, due to the difficulties of capturing the defining notes of the notions (e.g. – "generativity", "integrity", according to Erikson).

Assessing relations between stages

Domino & Affonso (1990) operationalize the 8 polarized aspects, described in the 8 stages of psychosocial development, elaborating an inventory of psychosocial development ("Inventory of Psychosocial Balance" – I.P.B.). This tool aimed both to evaluate the direction of the subject towards a certain pole, and the relationships between stage acquisitions, in the form of correlation matrices. The inventory includes 120 items, divided into 8 scales: the scale of trust, autonomy, initiative, inferiority, identity, privacy, generativity and integrity.

The subject responds to the 120 items, by stating the gradual agreement or disagreement with their content. Research shows that, in general, the scores obtained at I.P.B. they increase with the age of the subjects. Researchers draw attention to the need to consider, when interpreting individual responses, recent events in the subject's life, experiences that may influence these responses. Waterman (1988) also shows that some longitudinal studies highlight deviations from the conception postulated by Erikson (the epigenetic principle), probably caused by certain methodological difficulties.

On the other hand, numerous studies confirm the hypothesis stated by Erikson, that of the connection between the acquisitions of the current stage with those of the previous stage. Domino and Affonso's research demonstrates the existence of positive correlations between the aspects measured at each stage.

Social model influence assessment

Compared to measuring the specific aspects of each stage of development, the possibilities of assessing the influence of social models in personality development are much more limited.

Erikson starts from the idea that the social perception of the two sexes (personal attributes, specific activities, interests) has a strong influence on how to overcome the developmental crisis at each stage and, later, on the formation and strengthening of personal skills.

To highlight this relationship, Erikson uses the method of systematic observation of the playful configuration. He studies, for 2 years, over 300 subjects, aged between 10 and 12, boys and girls. The technique consists in elaborating a scene, the materials used being toys of different genres. Erikson finds some differences in how the scene is constructed, between female and male subjects, for different ages. The conclusion of this study (to which are attached the results of further research) is that the differences in game construction are due to implicit influences of models of social perception of sexual parts, models expressed by adult behavior and taken in children's play.

Chance and Simerly (1985) consider that the playful material made available to children (human faces, geometric figures, etc.) is significant for the type of constructions preferred by both sexes. The results of their research show that there are no significant differences between girls and boys in the construction of the game, if the material used is diverse. If the

material is homogeneous (geometric figures only), it is shown that female subjects construct more structures than male subjects, thus invalidating Erikson's results. It demonstrated a predisposition of boys to constructions from geometric figures (according to the assimilation of the sexual part, on a social level) and of girls to the realization of scenes populated by several human figures.

4.4 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

By measuring the theoretical concepts explained by Erikson, interpersonal differences are highlighted, at the following levels:

STAGE ACQUISITION LEVEL

Self identity/Identity confusion

The results of some experimental researches demonstrate the existence of interpersonal differences in the area of self-identity, as well as the way in which this acquisition is gained. O'Connell (1976), based on the psychobiographical method and the study of retrospective event reports, shows that female subjects fail to define and delimit self-identity until adolescence. There are also differences between the identity of "traditionalist" women (assuming specific female parts) and "nontraditionalist", research showing that solving the problem of identity, in the case of modern women, is more difficult, gradually resolving. The researcher makes an important distinction between:

- acquired personal identity – self-definition, as an effect of one's own personal efforts and experiences;
- reflected identity – defining one's own person as a reflection of the identity of others (taking over features from the outside and internalizing them).

Research initiated by Marcia (1966), Cross (1970), Padd (1975), Neimeyer (1991), on the identity of the Ego, shows that high scores, obtained when measuring aspects related to self-identity, are positively correlated with the resistance of subjects to stressors, with moral judgment and imaging dynamics.

Intimacy/Isolation

Orlofski's studies (1978, 1980) demonstrate the existence of a link between intimacy and the way of interpersonal reporting; the results of his

research show that subjects with a predominant orientation towards the opposite pole of intimacy show low relational behaviors in number and quality, in terms of reception and initiation. There are also differences between the two sexes regarding the private self; Blasi (1991) shows that the scores obtained by female subjects, when evaluating the aspects related to the private ego (defense of privacy) are superior to those obtained by male subjects. Researchers relate this to the mechanisms of ego defense: females resort more frequently to internalization (turning to their own selves), while males prefer outsourcing (projection).

Generativity/Stagnation

Although the results obtained by subjects at different scales for measuring generativity do not always correlate, research shows a correlation between generativity and the motivational structure of personality at different ages. McAdams' (1989) research demonstrates that generativity, assessed by adults' descriptions of future projects, is positively correlated with the need for domination, self-realization, and intimacy, assessed by the T.A.T. Researchers believe that generativity involves two moments – the creation of a material or spiritual product and its affirmation – aspects that correspond to the need for power, respectively the need for security (Clonninger, 1993, p. 137).

Also, Pollack and Golding (1987) demonstrate the existence of a link between the power of the parental ego, the way and level of development of parental generativity and the generative capacity of the future adult.

Ego integrity/Despair

The research of Goebel and Boeck (1988) shows the existence of interpersonal differences regarding the integrity of the Ego, some people obtaining scores that bring them closer to the positive pole, while the results of other subjects denote a predominant orientation towards the negative pole (despair). It is also shown that high scores obtained on the integrity scale (using the I.P.B. inventory) are predictive of the degree of self-realization, measured by the California inventory (Domino & Affonso, 1990).

INTERSTAGE RELATION LEVEL

Sperling (1988) reports that subjects who score low on self-identity are much less prepared for the transition to intimacy and, in general, for sustaining a partnership, as opposed to people with high self-scores who score,

superior and in measuring the ability to initiate intimate relationships (the notion of intimacy receives the meaning attributed by Erikson).

Levitz and Jones (1985) demonstrate that the link between intimacy and identity is stronger in female subjects compared to male subjects. Also, subjects with low scores on the ego identity variable obtain low levels in terms of mature type identification, in a certain work group (Dignan, 1967). Longitudinal studies by Kroeger and Hasslett (1988) show that changes in the sphere of ego identity in the first 2 years of study are predictive of assimilating a certain style of interpersonal attachment.

The research of Ainsworth et al. (1978) shows the existence of a link between initiative (stage 2) and generativity (stage 7), with intersex differences in initiative (self-confidence, self-efficacy, self-esteem) and generativity.

CULTURAL INFLUENCE LEVEL

First, there are differences between cultures in terms of religious and economic values, educational climate, level of technological development, relational pattern and social stratification. Social and cultural values will influence the development of the individual personality, emphasizing:

- interpersonal differences at the level of basic trust, determined by the religious values of the respective society;
- way of social stratification is the cause of some interpersonal differences in the sphere of Ego identity (of the way of assimilating the identity, as well as of the type of identity, personal or reflected);
- educational models of different cultures lead to the appearance of differences between individuals belonging to different cultures, at the level of generativity.

4.5 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The main contributions of the theory of psycho-social development of personality concern the following areas:

- Child and adolescent psychology – the development of the child's personality includes the first 4 stages, each stage having centrally a significant person who influences personality development to one pole or another; adolescence is very sensitive to social and cultural influences, because the way in which the adolescent solves the identity crisis depends on the evolution in the following stages.

- Mental health – personality balance presupposes a strong, fortified Self. This balance depends on resolving the conflict specific to each stage (predominance of the positive or negative aspect).
- Society and culture – the social environment (family, group of friends, society) shapes and orients the personality development, and the cultural institutions (religion, politics, education), through the values they promote, ensure the strengthening of the individual Ego.

CHAPTER 5

HORNEY – INTERPERSONAL PSYCHANALYSIS

5.1 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION

Basal anxiety and hostility

Karen Horney, along with Adler, Erikson, Fromm, represents Freudian descendants, their vision of personality shaping the neo-psychoanalytic conception. The personality approach will thus preserve some directional notes of psychoanalytic theory (the notion of conflict, the part of early experience in personality development), but also marks the beginning of a new perspective that proposes its own specific theoretical constructs and uses particular research methods.

The central notion of the description of personality is that of conflict, but unlike the classical psychoanalytic theory where the conflict was sexual, Horney believes that this conflict is based on interpersonal relationships, hence the name interpersonal approach given to her conception.

Conflict of interpersonal origin is defined as “the effect of the existence of two fundamentally contradictory attitudes toward another person” (Horney, 1945, pp. 40-41). For example, an attitude of dependence on one person may conflict with an attitude of hostility toward the same person. The conflict within the relationship will result, on an intrapsychic level, with a state of tension and the feeling of anxiety, the latter being defined as “the feeling of isolation and helplessness in a seemingly hostile world” (Horney, 1945, p. 41). Horney places the interpersonal conflict with the feeling of anxiety and hostility at the root of the neurotic personality.

Contradictory attitudes are manifested in any interpersonal relationship: in the family (parent-child relationship), in the group of friends, in professional relationships, in society, the individual effort to resolve this conflict and reduce anxiety is an important determinant of personality development. Society can deepen the feeling of isolation, of alienation, by irrational stimulation of the spirit of competition at the same time with the diminution of self-confidence, in the capacity to obtain the performance.

It is noted that, if Adler considers the struggle for perfection as the engine of personality development, Horney, dealing with the problem in the same space of social relations, blames personality development on the resolution of interpersonal conflict.

PERSONALITY TYPOLOGY

Taking as a criterion the way in which the person resolves the conflict established in the sphere of his/her relations, generated by the existence of two hostile attitudes, Horney describes 3 types of personality – compliant, aggressive and detached (Clonninger, 1993, p. 147):

Compliant or dependent personality

It has the following characteristics:

- need for dependence;
- need for affiliation, relationships;
- strong thymic reactions;
- feeling of inferiority, low self-esteem;
- tendency towards obedience and conformity.

The affective reasoning used by the compliant type to justify his/her behavioral actions and reduce anxiety is “if I make them love me, nothing can touch me.” The repression of hostility in such people often leads to somatizations, i.e. to the transformation of mental tension into an organic symptom.

Aggressive personality

It has the following characteristic notes:

- tendency to dominate;
- need for success, social recognition;
- perfectionism;
- competitive spirit, with aggressive tendencies;
- low resistance to frustration.

The affective reasoning used by the aggressive type of personality is “if I have the power and control, nothing can touch me.” Horney considers

that, in essence, this type is highly vulnerable, with power being a protection against it; this type of personality is successful in various fields, provided that aggression does not turn into hostility.

Detached personality

It presents the following specific picture of features:

- emotional detachment from the relationship;
- need for self-realization;
- independence of will (reduced suggestibility);
- need for independence and privacy;
- tendency towards isolation;
- resistance to change.

According to Horney, this type of personality has the greatest creative potential, detachment, as a solution adopted to reduce anxiety, protecting the inner ideational world and ensuring its resistance to distractions.

The predominant affective reasoning of this type is “if I stand aside, nothing can touch me.”

Trying to essentialize the features that individualize the 3 personality types, we obtain the following picture:

Interpersonal orientation typology

PERSONALITY TYPE	PREDOMINANT NEED	INTERPERSONAL ORIENTATION
Compliant	dependence need affiliation need	To the relationship
Aggressive	dominance need social appreciation need	Against the relationship
Detached	independence need self-realization need	Emotional detachment from the relationship

Horney points out that the healthy personality adopts all 3 interpersonal orientations, under different conditions, in order to better adapt. There are situations in which a moderate aggression is necessary for behavioral regulation, signifying initiative, voluntary effort, desire for success. In this sense, a distinction is made between aggression and assertiveness: on a continuum that presents at the poles aggression and obedience, assertiveness is located between the two, having the connotation of free support of opinions. Continuing along the same lines, Bernayk (1990) states that the non-assertive type has difficulties in developing personality.

Inter-personal personality

Starting from the way Horney explains and describes personality, around the 70s, R.F. Bales introduces in the literature the notion of interpersonal personality. Bales (in Zlate, 1997, p. 160) defines this dimension as: “individual personality, as it is perceived by other members of the group, as revealed to the group, depending on its kind and structure, statutes and parts members, the relations to be established between the participants”.

The group facilitates the manifestation of certain aspects and also through the conditions and restrictions imposed on the subject within explicit or tacit laws, and can inhibit the manifestation of other aspects of the individual personality. Knowing the way of relating, the expectations and needs met in group relationships, competition or cooperation, will allow a more appropriate understanding of individual characteristics.

Bales proposes a three-dimensional spatial model of interpersonal personality that includes 6 tendencies, polarized two by two:

- tendency of domination/submission;
- tendency towards conservatism/radicalism;
- tendency of sociability/isolation.

From the combination of the 6 tendencies, 27 types of interpersonal personality result, each type corresponding to one, two or three of the 6 tendencies.

The parallel between the way of conceiving the personality by Horney, respectively Bales, catches the following similarities:

Comparative table

HORNEY – INTERPERSONAL ORIENTATION	BALES – INTERPERSONAL PERSONALITY
1. way of resolving interpersonal conflicts becomes a criterion of typology of personality	1. interpersonal relationships take the form of a dimension in the global structure of the personality, being the basis for the realization of some typologies
2. aggressive type	2. tendency towards dominance, radicalism
3. compliant type	3. tendency towards dependence, conservatism
4. detached type	4. tendency towards isolation
5. normal personality manifests all three orientations, depending on the situation	5. interpersonal personality results from the combination of the 6 opposite tendencies

5.2 ANXIETY AND ALIENATION

Interpersonal conflicts generated by the contradiction between two tendencies or attitudes towards another person may explain, to some extent, the genesis and development of anxiety. The source of the danger felt by the person is nonspecific: it includes both external and internal factors. Horney states that “the internal factor that causes anxiety is not necessarily an instinct, but may be an inhibition” (Horney, 1995, p. 37). Therefore, the correct analysis and interpretation of the situation marked by anxiety is one of the main ways of understanding the conflicts of the subject and, finally, of his/her personality.

The development of the feeling of anxiety, at the same time as the underestimation of personal capacities and abilities and with the endangerment of the feeling of personal security, can lead, according to Horney, to alienation, that is, to alienation from the real ego.

Referring to the three personality types and interpersonal orientations, Horney considers that, for each of these types, the aspect that endangers the feeling of personal security has a different meaning (Horney, 1995, p. 65):

- in the case of aggressive personality, whose sense of security is based on the appreciation and admiration of others, the danger arises when this type is in an environment that does not give him/her recognition;
- in the case of the dependent personality, in which the feeling of security is maintained by the entourage, the anxiety is caused by loneliness;
- in the case of the detached personality, whose sense of security is based on the protection of privacy, anxiety is manifested in the situation when the person is brought “in the light of the ramp”.

Horney explains some so-called anxiety reduction strategies and ego defense mechanisms, such as emotional detachment, ego idealization, or projection. In addition to these major strategies, there are other ancillary strategies that achieve a secondary adaptation of the personality (Cloninger, 1993, p. 164-165):

- denial of thoughts, feelings, desires or needs that cause anxiety; the term is used in the case of unconscious operations whose function is to deny everything that is not accepted by the conscious self;
- compartmentalization allows the conscious recognition of incompatible behaviors, but not simultaneously; the existence of the individual is “divided” into segments – family, professional relations, society. For example, a person may prove, through his/her behavior, compliant in family relationships, but aggressive in professional relationships;
- rationalization by which the person explains his/her own behavior as if it were consistent with socially accepted norms, discovering rational causes of his/her behavior. For example, a dependent personality will rationally justify his/her compliant behavior by his/her sympathetic ability, ignoring the possible presence of a tendency to dominate.

Horney analyzes the relationship between the quality of social trends and the quality of individual conflicts. A neurotic evolution, she says, has its source in “the feeling of alienation, hostility, fear, as well as diminished self-confidence” (Horney, 1995, p. 146), these aspects representing the ground on which neurosis can develop. Such feelings are exacerbated or maintained by a society that focuses on competition and, implicitly, comparisons between people.

Excessive, fierce, aggressive competition, economic and social insecurity will fuel the tension of fear of being despised in case of failure or abuse. These elements disrupt the quality of interpersonal relationships that will facilitate the emotional isolation of the individual. The feeling of personal insecurity also has negative effects on individual performance, because the fear of failure becomes stronger than the desire for success, blocking actions.

Finally, Horney distinguishes between normalcy and mental health, understanding by this last concept “a state of inner freedom in which our capacities are at our disposal, in their fullness” (Horney, 1995, p. 153).

5.3 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

In addition to the biological aspects, Horney considers that the main determinants of the development of the individual personality are of a social and cultural kind. Therefore, in the personality analysis, the influences of the social environment and the cultural values that shape the adult’s personality must not be ignored.

Cultural factors

The cultural values that a society promotes at a given time will influence the development of the normal personality. Of these, Horney considers the influence of cultural perception of sexual parts to be significant.

Sexual parts, in the traditional type of culture, associate to the woman the affection, the dependence, and to the man the power, the aggression, the emotional control, the rationality. As a result, through social perception, certain strict socio-professional parts and statuses will be assigned in the case of both sexes. Any attempt to go beyond the limits of this classification is socially fined, entailing the installation of a feeling of insecurity.

Social factors

Among the social factors influencing personality development, Horney gives a central part to parental behavior and, in general, to the child's early experiences.

In a family environment that provides support, independence, in which relationships are based on respect and love, the child will develop a sense of emotional security.

A hyperprotective parental model will lead, in most cases, to the development of a compliant personality; an indifferent parental model will develop a detached type of personality, while the authoritarian parental model has "chances" to develop, later, an aggressive type of personality.

We summarize these correspondences between the quality of the parental model and the development of a certain interpersonal orientation as follows:

Parental model influence on personality

PARENTAL MODEL TYPE	PERSONALITY TYPE	INTERPERSONAL ORIENTATION
Hyperprotector	Compliant personality	Towards relationship
Indifferent	Detached personality	Detached of the relationship
Authoritarian	Aggressive personality	Against relationship

Later, Ainsworth et al. (1972, 1978), in their research on child attachment, start from the idea that the child-parent relationship, in the first years of life, is a premise of emotional health and the subsequent adaptation of the individual to the demands of the environment. The research focused

on the study of the child's emotional and motor reactions to unfamiliar, foreign figures, recorded in the presence of the mother figure.

Ainsworth describes 3 types of infantile "personalities", depending on the behavior manifested in the presence of aliens: type A, B and C. Type A corresponds, as a qualitative description, detached personality, type B dependent personality, and type C aggressive adult personality (Clonninger, 1993, p. 167):

Comparative table

INFANTILE BEHAVIOR TYPE (APUD AINSWORTH)	ADULT PERSONALITY TYPE (APUD HORNEY)
A type	Detached personality
B type	Dependent personality
C type	Aggressive personality

Feiring (1984), considering the two dominant interpersonal orientations and the aspects of affective attachment, suggests, based on the similarities between them, that infantile attachment may be an important indicator of the development of a certain type of interpersonal orientation in the future adult. In other words, the child's attachment to the maternal figure in particular (as the main factor of socialization) is one of the patterns of further development of personality.

5.4 RESEARCH METHODS

The research methodology, containing subjective and objective techniques and methods, elaborated on the basis of the theoretical constructs explained by Horney, aims at the following aspects:

- evaluation of the style of interpersonal orientation;
- evaluating the degree of alienation of the person;
- evaluating the child attachment behavior, as a pattern of the subsequent development of an interactive style;
- assessment of differences in sexual part;
- evaluation of parental behavior patterns.

As main methods developed for measuring the above aspects, we mention:

- personality questionnaires;
- clinical interview method;
- anxiety assessment scales;

- scales for assessing the degree of alienation;
- systematized observation of behavior.

5.5 INTERPERSONAL ORIENTATION STYLE ASSESSMENT

To determine the type of interpersonal relationship, in order to predict the interaction between two people or to relate the subject to the group, some of the methods used are (Clonninger, 1993; Lester and Bishop, 1997, p. 66-69):

Compliant-, aggressive-, detached-type measurement scale

“Compliant, Aggressive and Detached Scale” (C.A.D.) is developed by Cohen (1967). This tool allows the evaluation, in scorched form, of the tendencies of dependence, aggression, respectively of isolation, within an interpersonal relationship. The test contains 35 items, the subject’s answers being evaluated on a scale from 1 to 6, where 1 represents the strong disagreement of the person with the statement contained in the item, and 6, the strong agreement.

Interpersonal assessment questionnaire

This questionnaire is developed by Bales, starting from the idea that “the human personality specializes in interpersonal relationships in the direction of different behaviors that are then differentially distributed in the interpersonal space” (Zlate, 1997, p. 62). Applying this tool requires the subject to answer “yes” or “no” to a number of 27 questions, the content of each item referring to himself/herself and each member of the group. Therefore, the subject will make an evaluation for himself/herself and an evaluation of the conduct of the other members.

The possibility of objective assessment of behavior is met only if the members of the group know each other, they have a personal history. Establishing the final type of interpersonal personality involves self-appreciation and appreciation of the group. A correspondence was found between the final personality type of a subject (the image perceived by the group) and the particular type of personality (the perception of each member of the group).

Interpersonal relationship orientation measurement questionnaire

“Fundamental Interpersonal Relationships Orientation” – variant B (F.I.R.O. – B) is elaborated by Schutz (1978). The questionnaire evaluates

the behavior of orientation towards another person, as well as the behavior expected from another person, differentiating 3 categories: relationships of inclusion, control and affection.

- Inclusion refers to the need to achieve and strengthen the interpersonal relationship, in terms of interaction, cooperation and association.
- Control refers to the need to achieve and strengthen the relationship, in terms of power and control.
- Affection refers to the realization and consolidation of the relationship, in terms of love and affection.

Each of the 3 measured aspects contains a plus and a minus, the relational behavior being located between the two poles, at a certain position:

F.I.R.O.-B.-measured aspects

INCLUSION		CONTROL		AFFECTION	
(+) Communicability, sympathy, communion spirit	(-) tendency towards loneliness, indifference	(+) dominance, superiority, control need	(-) suggestionable, obedient, condescending	(+) intimacy, openness, sincerity need	(-) affective furthering, rejection tendencies

The questionnaire includes 54 items, and the scoring is done differently for different groups of items, on a scale from 1 to 6.

Alienation degree assessment

One of the methods of measuring alienation, that is, the feeling of alienation from oneself and others, is the Alienation Scale, developed by Dean (1961). The scale contains 24 items to which the subject responds by gradually agreeing or disagreeing with the content of the statements, his/her answers receiving an evaluation from 0 (strong disagreement) to 4 points (strong agreement). This tool allows the measurement of three aspects of alienation described by Dean – the absence of authority, norm and social isolation.

Infantile attachment behavior assessment

Ainsworth et al. (1978) initiated research on the phenomenon of child attachment, using the systematic observation of the child's motor, verbal

and emotional reactions to strangers, given in the presence of the mother. By decoding the obtained data, the researchers show that there are 3 types of infant attachment, type A, B and C. Chess (1986) criticizes the exclusive use of this method, stating that the experimental situation created by Ainsworth is unusual, unfamiliar to the child, and may affect accuracy, observations. The data obtained do not validate the idea of a direct correlation between infant attachment and later personality development.

Sexual part difference assessment

Regarding the identification of characteristics considered socially desirable for both sexes, one of the tools used is the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (P.A.Q.), developed by J.T. Spence (1974). The content of the items included in the questionnaire refers to the rights, privileges and social parts attributed to the two sexes, being also a tool for testing sexual part stereotypes.

The questionnaire contains 3 bipolar scales: the masculinity scale (M) with 8 items, the femininity scale (F) with 8 items and the masculinity-femininity scale (M/F), with 8 items. The 24 items refer to the characteristics that mark the intersex differences, on the dimensions specified above.

- Scale (M) includes socially desirable characteristics for both sexes, but perceived as typical of masculinity.
- Scale (F) includes socially desirable characteristics for both sexes, but perceived as typical of femininity.
- Scale (F/M) refers to characteristics whose social desirability varies according to gender.

Each item receives a score from 1 to 4.

Parental model type assessment

One of the possible methods used in describing and evaluating the type of parental model is the E.M.B.U. questionnaire, the description of which is given in Chapter 3.

Interpersonal differences

Starting from the main notions by which Horney describes the development of the personality, interpersonal differences are highlighted in terms of:

Interpersonal orientation

Some people show tendencies of dependence, affiliation or emotional detachment and social isolation. The picture of psychological characteristics will be different for each type. Research in recent decades (Roemer, 1986; Hamon, 1989) shows that type A and type B personalities (according to Freeman) are consistent, as traits, with the types described by Horney. Thus, type A personality (need for performance, desire for success, perseverance, hostility, predisposition to coronary heart disease) corresponds, as a psychological profile, to aggressive personality.

Social part perception

Research shows that the differences in the perception of the social parts of the two sexes, as well as in the way of attributing their success to social activities are due to the educational level, social-value level, physical environment (urban/rural), personal experiences.

Also, globally, there are differences between cultures and societies regarding the attribution of psychological and behavioral characteristics to the two sexes, in general, the female being associated with interpersonal sensitivity, and the male with interpersonal domination.

5.6 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The heuristic and applicative value of Horney's theory focuses on the following aspects:

- Child psychology – anxiety and basal hostility are fundamental feelings of early childhood, overcoming the feeling of helplessness equivalent to personality development.
- Mental health – the healthy person involves balancing the three major interpersonal orientations.
- Society – society, through the models it offers, improves or exacerbates the feeling of alienation and social isolation.
- Culture – the level of cultural development offers models for attributing some psychological characteristics to the two sexes.

PART THREE

MULTIDIMENSIONAL VIEW ON PERSONALITY

CHAPTER 6

ALLPORT – PERSONALITY FEATURE THEORY

6.1 FEATURE AS A DESCRIPTIVE PERSONALITY UNIT

One of the perspectives that strongly influenced the way we understand personality was that of Allport and Cattell. The controversy over the notion of trait, as well as its explanatory and predictive value for behavior, has been the subject of much controversy.

A first connotation of the term trait is that of a theoretical construct that describes a basic dimension of personality. If the descriptive property of the trait is no longer an element of theoretical dispute, instead its evaluative value for human behavior remains a controversial issue. The general opinion is that the trait can describe the behavior as an expression of personality, but it is exaggerated to identify the trait with its cause, because it would reach a tautological reasoning, the trait being the cause of the behavior, the behavior being the effect of the trait action.

Another connotation given to the term feature is that of structure with relative stability. The stable character of the trait implies its involvement in a large number of behaviors, a situation that is also disputed. For example, trying to find the cause of a child's limited verbal behavior in a certain social situation, if the trait is the cause of the behavior, then we say that shyness (as a trait) determines this behavior, insufficient and limiting explanation, which excludes the possibility of poor communication of the child to be, in fact, the result of a learning of the behavior only in that situation; if shyness were a personality trait, then it would manifest itself in any situation, because it has a relative stability.

Another significance given to this concept is related to interpersonal differences, Cattell focusing his studies especially on this aspect, using statistical procedures, in order to determine how to measure these differences.

Mischel is the main opponent of the “trait paradigm”, saying that behavior is far too inconsistent in time and situation to guarantee the assumption of trait stability.

6.2 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION

The analysis of Allport’s conception of personality starts from the definition he gives it (Allport, 1937, p. 48): “personality is the dynamic organization of the psycho-physical system that determines the unique adaptation of the individual to the environment.”

Each term of this definition is relevant to the way in which Allport describes the dynamics and development of personality, so that:

- organization – refers to the unitary, systematized structure of personality in which the parties are integrated into a unitary symptom of personality pathology;
- dynamic – which involves a permanent movement and process, emphasizing, at the same time, the possibility of development and evolution of the elements, as well as their flexibility;
- psychophysical system – personality is formed under the incidence of biological and psychological factors, the mind-body relationship being a systemic one; Allport accepts the idea highlighted by empirical research that temperament is the biological foundation of personality; Allport points out that “physical appearance, intelligence, and temperament are the main genetic materials of personality,” even providing a mathematical expression of these relationships:

6.3 PERSONALITY – f (HEREDITY, ENVIRONMENT)

- determines – if the dynamic organization of the psychophysical system determines the adaptation of the person, then it means that this system represents the cause of the adaptation, the term “determinative” having the causal meaning; therefore, personality is the cause of behavior, which is a natural consequence of how the system is organized. In this case, the trait as a unit relevant to the personality will become the cause of the behavior, Allport giving the trait a separate, physical existence;

- adaptation – Allport emphasizes through this term the coping function of the personality, this ensuring “the comfort and security of the being, between the affective requirements and the demands of the environment” (Allport, 1937, p. 118);
- unique – by this term, Allport emphasizes that the ways of adaptation bear the imprint of individuality, due, on the one hand, to the hereditary constellation and, on the other hand, to educational influences. Also, the term unique refers to the typology of features.

So the unit Allport uses to describe personality is the trait. He defines the trait as “a relatively stable structure, having the ability to functionally equate stimuli and initiate adaptive behavioral forms” (Allport, 1937, p. 146). Functional equivalence of stimuli involves highlighting similarities between their actions, so as to allow the formation and consolidation of a pattern of behavior; being a behavioral pattern, it can be “applied” in different situations, giving consistency to the personality.

It is noticeable the finding, in the above definition, of the defining notes of the personality: stability, uniqueness, determinative unity (Cloninger, 1993, p. 191).

6.4 PERSONALITY FEATURE TYPOLOGY

Allport uses a typology of personality traits, having as a criterion the extent of the range of behaviors they determine, differentiating between central, secondary and cardinal traits.

Central features

A trait is considered central if it causes a very large number of behaviors; they are 7 to 10 in number, having explanatory and predictive value for a behavior. The term “central” does not refer to the value position occupied by the trait in the personality structure, to its importance, but to its degree of “scattering”, i.e. to the width of the behavioral area. These traits are also the target of interpersonal differences: a psychological characteristic is a central trait in one person, but may be irrelevant to another. For example, “self-confidence” is a central feature for X, because in most behaviors X expresses this characteristic; “self-confidence” is not a central feature for Y, as Y expresses this characteristic in very few situations.

Secondary features

A trait is considered secondary if it causes a small number of behaviors, with a lower degree of generalization and consistency; therefore, Allport calls these traits “preferences” because, “having a latent existence, they control less human behavior” (Zlate, 1997, p. 41); for example, shyness is a secondary feature of X because it manifests itself only in relationships with partners of the opposite sex.

Cardinal features

A cardinal trait is a structure that dominates the entire existence of man, with major significance for life, offering the possibility of knowledge and affirmation of the individual, Allport considering it the “root of life”, being susceptible to the major orientation of existence.

Under the impact of the critics brought to this typology which is reproached with vague character, Allport resizes the qualities of the feature, stating that they are not fixed, immutable, do not have a predetermined position, but are mobile, flexible, and can pass, depending on the situation, from one position to another. This aspect has substantial implications in the educational field, because the bringing of a positive characteristic feature from a secondary position to a central one or, conversely, the marginalization of a negative psychological characteristic leads to an adaptive, performing behavior.

Personality integration levels

Another important aspect related to the way in which Allport describes the personality refers to its hierarchical structure, the features representing only a level of personality integration; at the lower level of integration there are the conditioned reflexes, and at the upper level, the Self. Clloninger (1993, p. 200) renders these levels of personality integration as follows:

superior level	SELF
	FEATURES
	ATTITUDES
	HABITS
Inferior level	REFLEXES

6.5 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Personality evolution stages

In terms of personality development, Allport identifies it with the integration of various elements, such as traits, interests, predispositions, abilities, so that, at the end of dynamic transformations, the mature personality is a whole, a unit in which the elements work together, for an adaptive purpose.

To emphasize the importance of theoretical and methodological treatment of personality as a whole, Allport introduces the notion of “proprium” which “includes biological, psychological, social and cultural aspects in a structure” (Allport, 1955, p. 55).

Kenrick (1988) shows that the Proprium has a meaning – at the teleological level – similar to the notion of Ego or Self, having procedurality. Thus, the constitution of the proprium, of the personality presupposes a stage development, each chronological “cut-out” having specific acquisitions that prepare the later stages.

Allport describes, in the development of personality, 8 stages, each stage being delimited chronologically, containing specific acquisitions on the Ego plane, as well as particular acquisition modalities (Allport, 1989, p. 178). It should be emphasized that the chronological limits are not rigid, there may be cases of precocity and delay. The acquisition of the current stage is based on the acquisitions of the previous stage and will prepare the future ones.

Allport describes these stages, summarized as follows:

Personality development stages

STAGES	LIMITS	SPECIFIC ACQUISITIONS	ACQUISITION MODALITIES
Stage 1	0 – 1 years	Body ego – Physical identity	Organic sensations frustrations within exterior relationships
Stage 2	1 – 3 years	Ego identity – Existence separated of other people	Language development
Stage 3	3 – 4 years	Self esteem – Ego affective dimension	Autonomous actions environment exploration increase
Stage 4	4 – 5 years	Ego extension – Personal possession sense	Competition relationship development

Stage 5	5 – 6 years	Self image – Ability, status, part assessment	Purpose formulation, good/evil difference noticing
Stage 6	6 – 12 years	Rational ego – Rational ability development	Problem situation solution
Stage 7	12 – 18 years	Ego renew – Intentionality, personal involvements	Future planning, world and life conception structuration beginning
Stage 8	18 – ...	Knowing ego – Previous seven aspect integration	Reflexive thought

If personality is the effect of the interaction between heredity and educational actions, then the quality of the above acquisitions depends on biological endowment and social influence, interpersonal differences taking into account how the individual goes through these stages. Obviously, these factors do not give an exhaustive explanation for the situation in which children from the same family have different personality developments.

The idea of staging the development of the Ego is not a new one; if we equate the first 7 stages with the Self-Knowledge, because, now, the subject lays the foundations of knowing his/her own corporality, his/her abilities, plans actions and sets goals, then personality development involves, synthetically, 2 stages:

- formation of the Self-Knower;
- formation of the Ego-Knowledge.

It is noted that the Self-Knower precedes the Self-Knowledge, consistent with the idea that the identity of the other precedes the sense of identity of one's own Self. This dichotomization, the Ego-Knowledge/Ego-Knower, was originally proposed by W. James (1887), taken over and developed in modern theories of personality by Damon and Hart (1997 – the three-dimensional model of personality).

Mature personality

Referring to the integrated, mature and balanced personality, Allport differentiates some of its qualities (Allport, 1989, p. 76):

- Extension of the sense of identity, the mature person being “divided” into different social or personal segments, without losing identity;

- Flexible communication, social interactions based on trust and less on predetermined parts and social expectations;
- Emotional security, with the acceptance of one's own abilities and limits, determining an increased level of self-esteem;
- Realistic perception of self, other and world;
- Objectification of the Ego, based on the capacity for introspection and sense of humor;
- Philosophy of life in the aspects related to human nature, society, culture, values, morals are unified in a system of ideas, in a conception with a high degree of generality.

6.6 RESEARCH METHODS

The methodology proposed by Allport supports the same idea, of the differentiated treatment of the personality as a unit. The research does not segment this whole into affective, cognitive, volitional, behavioral parts, but tries to capture the guideline. His attitude is one of disapproval of methodological excess, of "sophisticated" statistical procedures (here the main difference from Cattell appears), because there is a risk that "individuality will be lost in an average" (Clloninger, 1993, p. 197).

The aspects measured by Allport are personality traits, as stable elements, with descriptive and prescriptive value for human behavior. The study of personality traits can be idiographic (individual traits) or nomothetic (common traits).

The main methods used in the idiographic or nomothetic research of the features are:

- Language analysis;
- Analysis of behavioral constants;
- Psycho-biographical method;
- Personality questionnaires.

Language analysis

Allport believes that an effective way to identify traits is to observe the person's verbal behavior, which provides important information about the structure of his/her personality. Through this subjective method, Allport emphasizes the importance of implicit theories of personality that provide meaningful informational material.

Allport and Odbert (1936), studying the words from the Webster New International Dictionary, extract a large number of words that express psychological traits of the person, which they later classify into 4 categories:

- terms that designate personal traits (“assertive”, “artistic” etc.);
- terms that describe mental states or activities (“alarmed”, “ashamed”, “diligent”, “communicative”);
- terms that refer to the relational sphere or to the influences of others (“shy”, “suggestible”, “conformist”);
- terms designating abilities or conditions (“solitary”, “concentrated”, “reflexive”).

Thus, the subject is offered the possibility to make a verbal or written speech on a certain topic, after which the researcher identifies the belonging of the words used in the speech to one of the predetermined semantic categories; depending on the frequency with which they appear in the language, a synthetic picture of personality traits is made that is subject to psychological interpretation. These purely descriptive categories constitute – as additional information – a possible source of understanding the individual personality.

Subject's behavior/activity analysis

This subjective method is another source of identifying personality traits. Because Allport's idea was that traits lead to consistent behavior, due to their stability over time and situation, he believes that the person's relatively stable orientations towards certain activities, i.e. interests, must be analyzed. The study of interests is thus a key to deciphering personality traits. This study takes the form of a systematic observation or natural and laboratory experiments, the stimulus situation being represented by a specific situation.

Today, a large number of interest questionnaires have been developed that cover different aspects of life, highlighting social, professional, creative interests, etc.

Psychobiographic method

In personality research, Allport recommends the study of cause-and-effect events, on the one hand, of middle-events and purpose-events, on the other hand, considering this study to be significant for the description of personality. Knowing the personal history of the subject, as it appears in documents, journals, letters, contributes to understanding the individual specifics.

There are several procedures used in the analysis of biographical data (causograms), given the events over a long period of time or even the actions of the subject during a week. Events and actions will be interpreted later in terms of decision-making capacity, adaptation, relational style, etc., considering behavioral constants as personality constants.

Because the data provided can sometimes be incomplete or even voluntarily distorted, this method is not used independently, but in relation to others.

Personality questionnaires

Through this method, the study of personality, of traits, as descriptors of it, is a nomothetic one, aiming to highlight interpersonal differences. Allport's assumption is that the main source of these differences are the values that underlie the subject's attitudes and that will guide his/her actions, experiences, and relationships.

In 1937, Allport, together with Vernon and Lindzey, developed a questionnaire to assess the system of personal values, consisting of 60 items. The scores obtained by the subjects are then related to the average, in order to determine which values are predominant (high scores) in the personality structure, these providing the most appropriate expression.

The values measured by this method make the content of 6 scales (Clonninger, 1993, p. 195) which represent as many domains of manifestation of these values:

Personal value system (Vernon and Lindzey)

SCALE (FIELD)	VALUE DESCRIPTION
Social	pair support
Theoretical	truth search
Economic	pragmatic spirit, practical values
Esthetic	artistic values
Political	power, influence, manipulation
Religious	harmony, religious values

Based on this questionnaire, many other questionnaires and scales for measuring personal values have now been built. For example, the scale of values developed by Rokeach that includes 20 middle values and 20 target values. The subject's task is to order these values, assigning ranges from the most appreciated subjective value to the least appreciated by the subject.

By applying the appropriate statistical apparatus, the value structure of the person/group is identified, having relevance in different application areas (education, human resources, etc.).

The target values and average values identified by Rokeach are as follows:

Personal value system (Rokeach)

TARGET VALUES	AVERAGE VALUES
Social appreciation	Diligent
Interior harmony	Ambitious
Work joy	Obedient
Material wealth	Self mastering
Human dignity	Competent
Love	Courageous
Equality	Sincere
Joy	Forgiving
Wisdom	Imaginative
Freedom	Independent
Soul salvation	Intellectual
Beautiful world	Loving
Peace world	Logic
Comfortable life	Honest
Busy life	Polite
Friendship	Responsible
Family safety	Large views
Country security	Gay

Allport points out that the situation of contradiction between traits-values (e.g. – “dependence/independence”) is not alarming and is not a logical paradox. This situation is explicable, at the psychological level, by the positioning of the traits at the level of the personality and by their capacity to modify these positions (the central ones pass into the secondary and vice versa). For example, “independence” can be a central feature, manifested in most behaviors, and “dependence” is a secondary one, manifested in a specific situation.

6.7 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Although Allport supports the idiographic study of personality, in order to capture the characteristic and essential notes of the person, his research also focuses on the differences between people. These differences concern:

Personality hereditary basis

Interpersonal differences, at this level, concern the aspects with a strong hereditary personality base, i.e. temperament, intelligence and body constitution. Thus, people differ in the degree of energy invested in a specific activity or task, in the ability to use cognitive tools in solving problems, and in the degree of development of these skills.

Personality features

Interpersonal differences concern both the intensity of the manifestation of the trait, through the position it occupies in the personality structure (central/secondary), and its polarity (positive/negative trait).

Personality development stages

The differences are manifested in terms of acquiring different aspects of the ego that will cause differences in the development of mature personality (self-esteem, self-image, ideals, etc.).

Personal value and interest system

Interpersonal differences are also manifested in the system of personal values that guide the individual's behavior and determine their attitudes; interests, containing in their structure cognitive, affective, volitional elements, interpersonal differences will follow the same aspects – cognitive particularities (operations, resolving strategies, etc.), affective particularities (intensity, affective resonance, etc.) and concentration of energy to achieve the goal (qualities of will – independence, promptness, etc.).

6.8 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The way in which Allport, through the theory of traits, describes the dynamics and development of personality, in addition to the heuristic value, has exerted a strong influence on applied research in various fields: specific acquisitions, their knowledge allowing the intervention in the psychic development of the child.

- Adult development – the biological, psychological, social and cultural aspects are integrated in a unitary whole, whose functionality characterizes the mature personality.
- Education – the educational intervention allows the centralization of some positive characteristic features and the marginalization of the negative ones.
- Society/Culture – the development of the individual personality is realized under the incidence of the values that the society promotes, at a certain moment.
- Mental health – mature, balanced personality is characterized by realistic perception, sense of self-identity, humor, flexible interaction, etc.

CHAPTER 7

CATTELL – PERSONALITY FACTORIAL ANALYSIS

7.1 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION – INTRODUCTORY NOTIONS

In an attempt to give a brief history of the evolution of personality theories, Cattell considers that these studies record 3 distinct periods (Cloninger, 1993, p. 245):

- a first period that is marked by daily, direct observations on human behavior, forming the content of implicit theories of personality, expressed in a vast literature;
- the second period focuses mainly on studies of clinical interest, the personality approach being made from its pathology, highlighting the differences from the normally developed personality;
- the third period of personality research is an experimental and qualitative one.

If in the first period the methodological research apparatus is missing, which would make the study of personality a scientific one, in the second period some experimental study attempts are noticed (Jung, McDougall). However, the qualitative approach will mark the entry of research into a new era.

The problem that remains a current one is to find the best combinatorial way of quantitative and qualitative analysis of personality, in order to make behavioral predictions.

One of the criticisms brought to Cattell consists in the atheoreticality of the personality approach, his applied research following the prediction of the behavior, without being based on a system of well-defined theoretical

constructs. However, Cattell is the first to emphasize the need to describe the personality through a unit capable of measuring the degree to which the human person possesses a certain trait.

Personality factors

The personality factor, as a descriptive and explanatory element of personality, located as a degree of generality between type (formation that brings individuals together, based on similarities) and trait (formation that individualizes), is called personality factor.

Cattell considers that the personality factor has a predictive value on the behavior, the personality being the structure that allows the realization of some predictions on the behavior developed in a certain situation.

The main difference between Cattell and Allport is that the former considers personality descriptors as abstract notions, without rendering them an independent physical reality.

Surface factors and source-factors

In his description of personality, Cattell identifies two types of factors:

- surface factors, with direct expression in the verbal, motor behavior of the human individual;
- source-factors that is, in fact, the behavioral pattern of the person, based on which it extracts information about the behavior of an individual in a given situation.

The realization of systematized observations on the person's behavior will lead to the extraction of a set of variables (aspects of personality) and to the identification of the relations between them. Cattell calls this set of correlated variables, surface factors (for example, in clinical trials, the syndrome is a model of intercorrelated symptoms). The term "surface" indicates that the occurrence of these issues is not constant, but varies in different situations or in different populations.

In addition to surface factors, Cattell identifies repetitive relational patterns that manifest despite interpersonal differences. This new matrix of intercorrelations is called source factors and is likely to describe a person's behavior, with a higher probability than that of surface factors.

Therefore, the methodology developed by Cattell will be oriented especially towards the study of the source factors of the personality that produce small variations in the situational behavior.

A comparison of Allport and Cattell's conceptions of personality description is required, based on similarities between surface factors and what Allport called a "secondary trait" (involved in a small number of behaviors), as well as between source factors and central trait, involved in most behaviors.

Motivational factors, temperament and abilities

In addition to surface and source factors, Cattell identifies three other types of factors. having as criterion their involvement in obtaining the performance in an activity; these are the dynamic factors, temperament and abilities.

Dynamic factors

They include the motivational aspects of the personality, with a part in triggering, orienting and energetically supporting the behavior. Some motivational structures are innate (instincts, biological needs), others are the effect of learning. Cattell calls innate dynamic forces, ergic factors ("ergos", energy); when ergic (energetic) tension is channeled into learned patterns, it turns into acquired motivational forces, called metaergic factors. Cattell includes feelings and attitudes in the latter category.

Feelings and attitudes

Feelings are considered fundamental dynamic structures for the personality, based on a subjective, deep attitude, specified by the object to which it is fixed and by the behaviors to which it is attached. Human behaviors acquire specificity by relating to a feeling, and the feeling energizes a certain type of behavior. From the category of feelings, as metaergic aspects, Cattell considers the feeling of the Self as the adaptive structure that integrates different attitudes and interests of the person. The centrality given to the feeling of the Ego brings Cattell's conception closer to that of Allport, who, through the notion of proprium, emphasizes the integrative character of the biological, psychological, social and cultural aspects.

When the individual's reaction to the action of certain stimuli takes on a certain specificity, we speak of attitude. Thus, the attitude of the subject becomes the expression of a certain feeling.

Feelings and attitudes as the main factors of personality dynamics operate, psychologically, a selection of goals, stimulate the emotional response to certain stimuli and allow the selection of circumstances and means to achieve the proposed goals.

Relationship between ergic and metaergic factors

Regarding the relationship between innate (ergic) and metaergic (feelings and attitudes) factors, Cattell describes a dynamic network of personality, based on the principle of secondaryity. This principle, taken from Murray, refers to the fact that the elements of the motivational-dynamic network through which the personality is described find different forms of manifestation in behavior, i.e. they can be satisfied by different people, through different behavioral ways. This dynamic network, built on the principle of secondaryity, links the attitude of feeling with ergic factors (native impulses): attitude is secondary to feeling, and it is secondary to instinctual forces (Clonninger, 1993, p. 233): pulsation (tendency) → feeling → attitude → behavior.

For example, the tendency to submit to the ego creates certain religious feelings that, in turn, found the religious attitude (religious values) that will be expressed in a typical behavior. If the drive is subject to a small extent to conscious and voluntary control, instead attitude and feeling are the effect of learning, educational models.

Temperament

Temperamental traits, with a strong genetic dominance, refer to the tempo and general style in which the person performs a certain behavior (energy, emotional reactivity).

Abilities

It refers to a person's ability to achieve above-average results in an activity. Cattell differentiates two types of cognitive skills:

- fluid intelligence equivalent to the ability to acquire knowledge, skills, abilities in any field of activity. The term “fluid” has the meaning of involving this type of intelligence in different learning tasks. This type of intelligence correlates with divergent thinking, being involved in solving complex, poorly defined problems, using heuristic procedures;
- crystallized intelligence is involved in solving tasks in certain fields of activity, correlating with convergent thinking and the use of algorithmic procedures.

Regarding this dichotomy of intelligence, Cattell also addresses the issue of the hereditary-acquired relationship. He considers that about 80% of the structure and functionality of intelligence is innate, i.e. fluid, the remaining 20% being the result of learning.

Cattell's assumption of the predominant innate character of intelligence was a controversial aspect of his theory. The criticism came from research that showed that subjects with almost similar genetic heritage, but who benefited from different educational backgrounds, get different performance in an activity. A categorical statement on the percentage of the part of heredity and the environment in the development of intelligence is impossible.

Cattell focuses not only on the description of the individual personality, its explanatory and predictive factors, but also on the personality of the group. The term sensitivity refers to the differences that exist between groups, in terms of their attitude towards certain aspects and behaviors.

7.2 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Similarly to Allport's conception, Cattell considers personality to have a double influence: from heredity and from the social environment, in a broad and narrow sense. These influences are expressed in the ergic, constitutional factors of the personality (hereditary character) and in the me-teargic factors (the feelings and attitudes of the subject).

Unlike Allport, Cattell is concerned with the statistical determination of a percentage of heritability that expresses the degree to which a particular personality factor is subject to hereditary influence.

Heritability is defined as "the proportion of variance of a particular trait in the population, determined by interindividual differences in the factors present at birth" (Cattell, 1973, p. 147). It expresses the hereditary degree of a personality factor, as follows: $H = V_g/V_t$ where: H = heritability, V_g = variation in the population, due to genetic aspects, V_t = total variation.

By applying mathematical calculations and statistical formulas, Cattell concludes that the factors of personality with the highest degree of heritability are intelligence, impulsivity, emotional reactivity.

Thus, the hereditary – acquired relationship in the development of some aspects of personality remains a controversial aspect, some research supporting the existence of a genetic basis for certain facets and influences predominantly from the environment, in other aspects of personality.

7.3 RESEARCH METHODS

With Cattell's research, the psychology of personality enters a new era, that of experimental and quantitative studies, being the one that propelled the multivariate research method.

Cattell develops a research methodology in order to simultaneously examine the multiple determinants of personality that take the form of variables with predictive value for human behavior. Personality being conceived as a network of interconnections of its various aspects, its measurement involved the elaboration of a mathematical model through which the different variables were related to each other. The multivariate research strategy collects a lot of information from each subject, their quantitative and qualitative analysis being a psychological description of the individual personality.

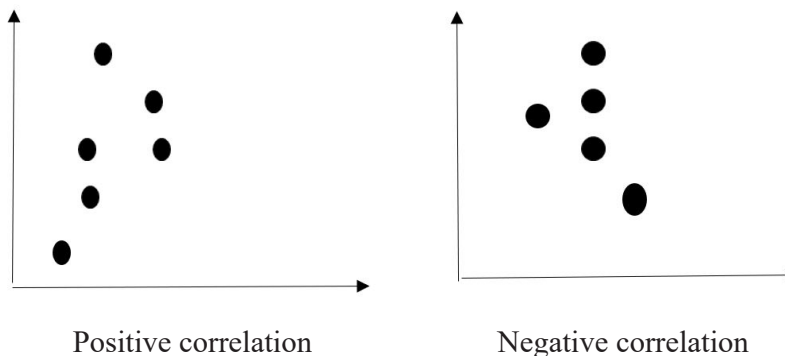
The statistical procedure used by Cattell to determine the relationships between personality aspects is based on the concept of correlation and is called factor analysis. The correlation coefficient measures the relationships between two sets of numbers, these being the mathematical expression of the measurement of different personality variables.

If the high elevations obtained by the subject in one set of numbers are associated with high elevations in another set, then there is a positive correlation between the measured aspects. If the low odds in one set correlate with the high odds in another set, then there is a negative correlation between the measured aspects (factors).

The correlation coefficient takes values between -1 and $+1$, values that indicate the direction and intensity of the association of the measured variables. The correlations between all pairs of variables will constitute the correlation matrix.

Using a graphical representation of the two types of correlation (positive/negative), we obtain the following illustrations (Cloninger 1993, p. 222):

Illustration of the two correlation types



Based on the principle of factor analysis, the main methods developed by Cattell for measuring personality aspects (source factors, dynamic factors, abilities, temperament traits, etc.) are:

- personality questionnaires and inventories
- dynamic scales
- intelligence tests.

Personality questionnaires

They measure the basal, fundamental factors of the individual personality, i.e. the source factors. Cattell states that most personality tests are influenced by multiple factors that are not related to the basic structure of the personality, i.e. surface factors.

One of the most well-known and used personality questionnaires developed by Cattell is the questionnaire for measuring personality factors, “16 Personality Factors” (16 PF) which measures 16 variables considered defining for the description of personality, i.e. 16 source factors. These are the 16 scales of the test, for each factor there is a set of questions to which the subject must answer by “yes” or “no”. Each aspect of the personality is measured on a scale that has at the end the high score (the highest value obtained in the test), respectively the low score (the low value obtained in the test). The factors identified and measured by this test are:

Personality factors (16PF)

	FACTORS	FEATURES
1	Squizotomy (high score) Cyclothymia (low score)	nice, generous distant, rigid, impersonal
2	Intelligence Intelligence	high intellectual level, abstract intelligence reduced intellectual level, physical intelligence
3	Ego force Ego force	emotional stability emotion, irritability
4	Dominance Submission	independence, authority, assertivity conformism, culpability
5	Expansivity Non-expansivity	enthusiasm, changing dispositions prudence, diligence, sobriety

6	Supraego force	integrity, consciousness, morality
	Supraego force	tolerance to tension, indifference
7	Dare	sociability, spontaneity
	Timidity	reduced personal contacts, hesitation
8	Idealism	affective dependence, sensitivity, refinement
	Pragmatism	realism, practical spirit, rational
9	Suspicion	egocentrism, mistrust, scepticism
	Suspicion	trust, good adaptation
10	Imaginative	originality, reflexive thought
	Practical	scrupulosity, detailism, conventionalism
11	Naivety	subtlety, diplomacy, relational ability
	Naivety	naturalness, spontaneity
12	Anxiety	restlessness, depression, insecurity
	Anxiety	calm, trust, self-satisfaction
13	Radicalism	innovative spirit, critical, free
	Conservatorship	traditionalism, resistance to change
14	Social dependence	independent, personal decisions
	Social dependence	suggestionability, decisional tergiversation
15	Conformism	controlled, formalist, vain
	Conformism	impulsive, unadapt
16	Relaxed	relaxed
	Tensioned	tensioned

Cattell distinguishes two major causes of personality development, namely constitutional traits that originate in biological, hereditary factors and mediated traits, representing the consequence of a learning process and the experimentation of social relationships. The interaction between constitutional and mediated traits becomes the main explanatory aspect of personality development.

Score sets for all factors will form the individual personality profile that can be rendered in the form of diagrams. For example, after testing a subject, with 16 PF sample, the following individual profile of his/her personality is obtained:

Individual profile (example)

Features	Standard										Features
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Impersonal, reserved					A						nice, generous
Physical intelligence					B						Abstract intelligence
Emotional instability					C						Emotional stability
Submission, adaptation					E						Dominance, aggression
Sobriety, prudence					F						Enthusiasm, impulsivity
Carelessness, immaturity					G						Conscious, maturity
Timidity, hesitation					H						Adventure spirit
Realism, practical spirit					I						Intuition, sensitivity
Trust					L						Suspicion
Scrupulosity					M						Imagination, originality
Openness					N						Diplomacy, ability
Culpability					O						Anxiety, insecurity
Conservatorship					Q1						Radicalism
Suggestionable, tergiversation					Q2						Decisional independence
Non-conformism					Q3						Conformism
Relaxed					Q4						Tensioned

Based on the individual profile, a qualitative interpretation of the tested personality will be used, highlighting the connection between these factors in a synthetic interpretive picture.

Intelligence tests

Cattell developed a series of tests aimed at measuring intelligence, preserving the differences it operates between fluid intelligence (abstract thinking) and crystallized intelligence (physical thinking).

C.F.I. test ("Culture Fair Intelligence Test")

Developed by Cattell, this test measures the human individual's ability to learn. Cattell also developed a Comprehensive Abilities Battery (C.A.B.) containing performance tests relevant to vocational guidance.

Although the 16 PF personality questionnaire contains a scale that measures intelligence (factor B), Cattell still recommends the use of specific tests to measure intelligence.

Today, many psychological tests are known to test the level of development of cognitive skills, especially intelligence. Because the inventory of tests that measure intelligence is the subject of psychodiagnosis, I will refer, in this course, to only 2 tests used to measure the level of mental development, namely the Raven test and the general aptitude test, T.A.G.

Raven test

It measures the general level of mental development, being made up of 5 series (A – E) of 12 items each. The difficulty of items from series A to series E increases progressively, as well as in the same series, from exercise 1 to 12. The test items measure the subject's ability to: mentally manipulate abstract symbols, inference of relationships between mental objects, achievement of analogue transfers, capture of similarities and structural differences or of functional principle, etc.

Clinical scales

Based on the same principle of factor analysis, Cattell developed a scale that measures the level of anxiety, a tool used especially in clinical practice.

The 4 PF anxiety scale applies to both sexes, starting at the age of 16, at most types of cultural level. It is used not only for initial diagnosis, but also for the purpose of providing an evolution chart.

The scale measures 5 factors that vary with age:

- self-awareness (rated Q3)
- Ego strength (rated C)
- personal and social security (rated L)
- tendency to guilt (rated Q)
- ergic tension (rated Q4).

Also, the 16 PF questionnaire can be applied both to subjects with normal personality development and to the clinical population. Cattell also built other tests for the clinical diagnosis of personality, such as the “Neuroticism Scale”, the Clinical Analysis Questionnaire, or the Marriage Counselling Report.

Attitudinal scales

Regarding the measurement of meta-energetic dynamic-motivational factors, explained by Cattell (feelings and attitudes), numerous attitudinal measurement scales have now been developed. Cattell also built a test to measure the direction of predominant energy orientation, the introversion/extraversion dimension of the personality, known as the Contact Personality Factors Test (C.P.F.T.).

7.4 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Most of Cattell’s research on personality is materialized in nomothetic studies in which the subjects are analysed in groups, the individual scores being then compared, to highlight some interpersonal differences. Cattell calls the technique used in nomothetic studies the R technique. He demonstrates that factor analysis can be successfully applied to the investigation of a single individual, being the subject of idiographic studies, in order to identify particular aspects of individual personality. In this case, Cattell uses the P technique, analysing the results obtained from a single subject, at a repetition of the test.

Cattell thus uses longitudinal and cross-sectional personality research designs. Longitudinal studies examine the individual personality, at different moments of its development, while in cross-sectional research subjects

are studied only once, and the results are compared with those of other subjects, of different ages.

So, through nomothetic studies and cross-sectional research, the interpersonal differences at the following levels are highlighted:

Source-factor level

There are differences between individuals regarding the 16 aspects of personality, the source of these variations being heredity, educational, social, cultural factors, sex, age, etc.

The results of research in this field show that:

- there are differences between puberty and adolescents, at the level of factor G (Supraego force), this aspect totalling a low score in preadolescents and a high score in adolescents. It has also been shown that this factor correlates with the need for social recognition following the same variations, depending on age;
- factor C (emotionality) has an increase around the age of 20-25 years, explainable by concentrating personal effort towards career or starting a family, as well as around the age of 60, explainable by the onset of withdrawal from social life, decrease the number of parts and statutes and by narrowing the relational field; thus, the emotionality factor marks interpersonal differences, depending on age;
- regarding intersex differences, the research showed, in general, in male subjects, high scores for factors E (domination tendencies), G (superego force), H (boldness) and Q2 (decisional independence), as well as low scores for factors I (idealism) and O (anxiety).

Intelligence level

Interpersonal differences concern on the one hand, the degree of development of general skills (ability to solve tasks in different fields of activity) and specific (which mediates performance in well-defined areas) and, on the other hand, the predominance of fluid intelligence, respectively of the crystallized one. Thus, one person is characterized by an increased level of spatial intelligence, while another, by a high level of verbal intelligence. The results of research in this field show that:

- males perform in tasks that highlight spatial intelligence, manipulation of abstract symbols, while females obtain high scores on tests with linguistic input, highlighting the superiority of social verbal intelligence, etc.
- there are differences between subjects aged 8-11 years in which physical intelligence predominates and those between 12 and 18 years old who obtain superior results in tasks that measure abstract intelligence.

Cattell shows that if the tests that measure mathematical skills (spatial, numerical, geometric relationships) are correlated with each other, as well as those that measure verbal abilities (vocabulary, verbal comprehension, verbal reasoning), instead, between the two aspects – verbal and mathematically – there are insignificant correlations.

- there are interpersonal differences due to hereditary endowment, potentials and limitations of genetic inheritance, in terms of intelligence.

Personality psychologic dimension level

From the point of view of this dimension, the extroverted and introverted type is differentiated. The research results show that:

- in general, high scores at dimension I (introversion) are positively correlated with high scores obtained for factors C (emotional stability), G (Supremacy force), I (idealism) and M (imaginative), on when extraversion correlates positively with factors F (expansiveness), H (boldness) and negatively with factors N (naivety) and Q2 (suggestibility);
- the introvert, due to his/her increased genetic reactivity to stimuli, will protect himself/herself by avoiding environmental stimuli; hence the low tendency towards relationships;
- the extrovert, due to the low cerebral excitability, will look for stimuli and, therefore, will initiate outward, relational and social orientation behaviours.

Attitudinal level

The attitude, intrinsically containing values, the axiological system being predominantly acquired, results that the interpersonal differences,

at the attitudinal level, are due to the educational models. Thus, the inter-personal differences of attitude are, in fact, differentiations regarding the individual system of values.

Group personality level

Cattell demonstrates in his research that there are significant differences between the personalities of different groups in terms of feelings, attitudes, values, needs. Some of this research shows that:

- Americans are characterized predominantly by extraversion, emotional sensitivity, radicalism, unlike the English population who get high scores on the strength of the supremacy, respectively low on anxiety and Q1 (conservatism);
- there are differences between groups on the scale of emotionality and anxiety; low scores are recorded mainly in the American population, and the highest in the case of Italians and Indians. In terms of emotionality, the highest scores (emotional stability) were found in the English and Japanese population. However, the methodological and conceptual accuracy of this research is questioned by current intercultural research and studies.

7.5 APPLICATIVE VALUE

Despite the “atheoreticity” of his concepts, Cattell’s experimental research has an indisputable value in various fields of application:

- Biology – heredity is an important factor that influences the development of aspects of personality; the measurement of heredity influences is performed by calculating the heritability coefficient (H).
- Child psychology – the development of personality traits is under the incidence of hereditary aspects, but also of educational factors.
- Society and culture – there are significant differences between the personalities of small groups or between nations; the basic structures of the syntality can be evaluated.
- Mental health – neurotic and psychotic disorders are described as a combination of traits.
- Human resources – knowledge and measurement of specific skills, motivational structure, attitudes and feelings are important sources of information in personnel selection, negotiation, how to resolve conflicts, increase job satisfaction, etc.

7.6 CATTELL'S CONCEPTION HEURISTIC VALUE

Personality Big-Five model

The heuristic value of a theory of personality lies in its quality of being a starting point for later theoretical conceptions. Cattell, through the theoretical constructs he proposes, as well as through the methods and techniques used, offers a rich informational material for the elaboration of other methods of personality research. One such example is the Big Five instrument, which measures the 5 major dimensions of personality.

Tupes and Christal (1961), starting from the variables derived directly from the personality factors highlighted by Cattell, replicate, in various researches, 5 factors: extraversion, agreeableness, dependence, emotionality and culture. Two years later, Norman, operating differentiations between (stable) and (temporary) personality traits, concludes that there is a structure of factors, with predictive value, likely to reflect the basic structure of the personality. These factors were named as follows:

- extraversion,
- agreeableness,
- conscientiousness,
- emotional stability,
- culture.

Each of the 5 factors that express the basic structure of the personality will contain a set of specific features (Norman, 1963):

Big Five model factors

FACTOR	SPECIFIC FEATURES
Extraversion	Sociable/unsociable Openness/restraint towards experience Optimism/pessimism
Agreeability	Kindness Generosity Understanding
Consciousness	Responsible/irresponsible Arranged/unarranged Scrupulous/unscrupulous

Emotional stability	Tensioned/relaxed
	Tensioned/detached
	Calm/anxious
Culture	Sensitive/insensitive
	Reflexive/non-reflexive
	Educated/uneducated

Sternberg (1985) shows that these characteristics are also found in the implicit theories of personality, i.e. in the set of everyday opinions that people issue about personal or other person's behaviour. Regarding the practical validation of these fundamental dimensions, Minulescu (1997, p. 84) shows that the high fidelity of research reveals these dimensions as belonging to the real, not just the mental.

Costa and McCrae (1994) start from the model developed by Norman and lay the foundations of a systematic theory on the significance of the 5 dimensions for understanding human personality and behaviour. The main problems that arise in replicating this model at the level of different cultures concern in particular the dimensions of conscientiousness and agreeableness which show significant variations at the individual level, due in large part to educational models and the axiological system promoted by that society. But the most controversial remains the culture factor.

If extraversion, respectively introversion, is a relatively universal dimension of personality, emotional stability is given different connotations (neuroticism, in Americans; calm/irritability, in Italians, etc.). Also, agreeableness has specific forms at the level of the Italian population (conventionality and selfishness/altruism). Italian researchers consider this dimension to be a polarized axis of insensitivity/emotional sensitivity.

The cultural dimension is associated, at the level of traits, with different aspects: intellect, openness to experience, creative potential, subsuming traits such as liberalism, independence, innovative spirit, curiosity, experiential style. Costa (1985) even proposes a new defining dimension for personality, namely openness to experience, but other research identifies this factor with culture itself.

Big Five model in Romanian research

This method of evaluating the dimensions of the personality was replicated on the Romanian population, building the questionnaire ABCD – M

(school of psychology in Bucharest). The replication of the hierarchical structural model and the experimentation of the diagnostic tool ABCD – M led to the following results (Minulescu, 1997, p. 88-89):

- The extraversion/introversion dimension covers 10% of the total variance of the behaviour, which Romanian, extrapsychic and intrapsychic dynamics prevail over the other psychic dimensions. The main features of this factor are sociability, optimism/pessimism, self-presentation.
- The emotional stability/instability dimension is renamed hostility/irritability and covers 6% of the total variance. Its main features are hostility, irritability, dominance, resistance to stress, emotional control.
- The agreeableness dimension, covering 5.4% of the variance, was called altruism/sensitivity. It subsumes traits such as tenderness, understanding, sensitivity, kindness, generosity.
- The conscientiousness dimension covers 3.5% of the behavioural variance. Factor analysis, at this level, captures 5 facets, namely stability, prudence, perfectionism, order, superficiality.
- The culture dimension, renamed intellect, covers 2.6% of the total behavioural variance and has as a defining element the intellectual style. At this level, the factorial analysis highlights 5 aspects – perfection, depth, cerebrality, maturity and stereotype.

The Big Five tool, far from being fully developed, is successfully used in various application areas, responding to diagnostic and prognostic purposes.

CHAPTER 8

EYSENCK – PERSONALITY FACTORIAL ANALYSIS

8.1 PERSONALITY STRUCTURE DESCRIPTION

Eysenck, along with Allport and Cattell, is the representative of the multidimensional perspective of the personality approach, his theory having points in common with those of other researchers, but also showing specific differences.

The aspect that unifies the three approaches refers to the general vision on the personality, more precisely, to its descriptive elements. In this sense, they all start from the premise that the type of personality, as a structure that brings together individuals based on similarities, is a descriptor far too general to capture individual particularities. It is true that all individuals have a primary, common structure of personality, but they differ from each other precisely according to the manifestations of particular traits. These observations have led to the imposition of the notion of trait and personality factor, whereby people “should not be rigidly placed in certain categories” (Hampson, 1988, p. 61).

From this point, there is a distinction between Allport’s conception, on the one hand, and that of Cattell and Eysenck, on the other. If for Allport the trait is a qualitative description of the personality of the individual, through the notion of factor, Cattell and Eysenck capture more sensitively the differences between people, depending on the degree to which a personality trait is manifested behaviourally.

Major personality dimensions

Regarding the description of personality, Eysenck starts from the inventory of 39 points related to aspects such as: social situation, personality

traits, neurotic symptoms. It should be noted that Eysenck's research is conducted in the clinical field, where he studied over 700 hospitalized patients, taking into account the above aspects. The practice of understanding how the normal personality works, starting from studies on pathological personality, is not unusual. The dimensions that Eysenck identifies in the personality structure are relevant for the normal personality, they acquire only a certain specificity in the case of pathology.

In personality research, Eysenck uses the method of factor analysis, as does Cattell; in contrast to the latter that, through its technique, determines a large number of personality factors, as well as the correlations between them, the technique used by Eysenck led to obtaining a smaller number of personality descriptors, independent of each other. Birch and Hayward (1999, p. 62) draw attention to this last aspect: "the absence of a correlation means that the score obtained by a subject, at a certain factor, does not give any indication on the dimensions of another factor". From this point of view, Cattell's analysis captures more finely the differences between the degree of manifestation of individual traits.

Analysing, through factorial technique, the results of the subjects obtained in personality tests and questionnaires, Eysenck concluded that personality can be described by four factors, polarized into two major dimensions.

- The first factor, called neuroticism (N), is a general one that covers 14% of the total variance, constituting the dimension stability – emotional instability.
- The second factor resulting from the factor analysis covers 12% of the variance; it is a bipolar one that opposes the group of hysterical symptoms and that of dysthymic symptoms. The hysteria-dysthymic dichotomy corresponds to the second dimension described by Eysenck, namely extraversion-introversion (E).

The first measurements made by Eysenck (1959) concerned only the dimensions E and N; later, in 1964, Eysenck developed a new method of personality research in which the E – N correlation is reevaluated. In 1975, a new scale was built, including a third dimension of personality, psychoticism (P). This scale will be normalized in 1991 by Zuckermann.

Therefore, personality can be described by two major dimensions: extraversion – introversion and stability – emotional instability.

The main features, resulting from correlational studies, subsumed to the two dimensions, are:

E-I dimension psychological features

EXTROVERSION (FEATURES)	INTROVERSION (FEATURES)
High sociability	Introspection capability
Dominance tendency	Action prudence
Misconduct, impulsivity	Balance
Risk assumption	Tendency towards order
Lively emotional expressions	Relational distance
Optimism	Pessimistic tendencies
Indifference	Emotional control

It is important to note that the two dimensions (E and N) have a normal distribution in the population, most people being placed in a quasi-central position of the continuum delimited by these extremes.

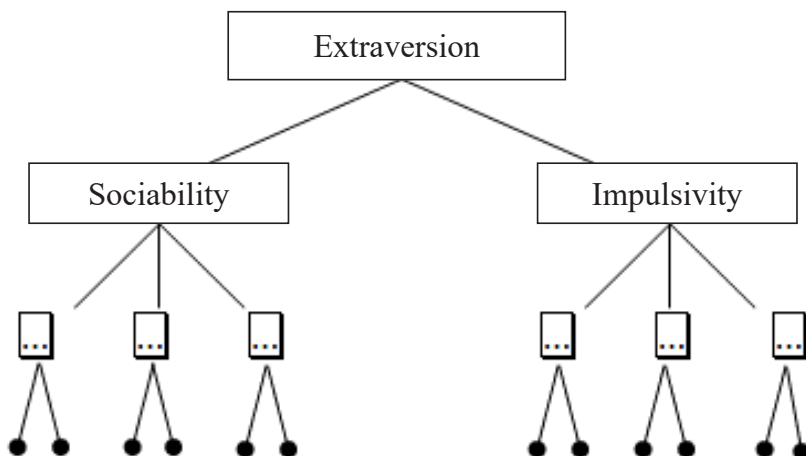
Personality hierarchic structure

Once the major dimensions of the personality are specified and delimited, Eysenck proposes a model of hierarchical structuring of the personality that includes different aspects of it, organized according to their degree of generality. The level with the highest degree of generality comprises the dimension E or N, at a lower level of generality being located the personality traits characterized as individual tendencies towards action. The next level, with a lower degree of generality, is that of the usual answers, including the repetitive actions of the subject in similar situations (behaviours in typical situations). At the lowest level of generality are the specific answers that refer to the subject's preferences to act in a certain way (uncharacteristic answers).

The personality has a pyramidal organization, the levels with the highest degree of generality subordinating its lower levels. When we study an individual's behaviour as an expression of his/her personality, we use, as descriptors, the notions of size, trait, habitual response and specific reactions. For example, at the level of the extraversion pole of dimension E – I (level 4), the specific features are sociability and impulsivity (level 3);

each of these features will subsume certain usual answers, automated by their frequent repetition (level 2), and these, in turn, precede the specific answers (level 1).

The hierarchical structure of personality, in Eysenck's description, can be represented as follows (Birch and Hayward, 1999, p. 65):



Similarly, the N dimension of personality will subordinate the level of certain traits, as trends manifested at the individual level; these traits materialize in habitual answers, and they subsume the specific answers in a certain situation.

Knowing the person's position on a certain position between the two extremes, one can make predictions about the next levels of personality integration – what are the predominant personality traits, what are the subject's responses in typical situations (usual actions) and also what are the individual answers in a given situation (specific actions).

For example, a predominantly extroverted structure (size level) shows tendencies towards sociability and impulsivity (trait level); these tendencies will be manifested, on a behavioural level, in actions of initiation and support of interpersonal contacts in most situations (the level of usual responses); it is possible that in specific situations (for example, competition situations), the person does not have reactions specific to the major dimension of his/her personality, acting prudently, without taking risks (level of specific responses).

8.2 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Heredity influence on personality

Zuckerman (1991) states that Eysenck's theory of personality can be considered a theory of temperament (although Eysenck did not use this term) because the 4 factors describing personality (extraversion, introversion, stability, and emotional instability) are considered dispositional factors. The term disposition emphasizes the existence of a significant genetic inheritance, of an innate pattern, of energetic (I/E) and emotional (N) type.

A first idea that emerges from the assimilation of these factors as dispositions, is that the development of personality is influenced by genetic, hereditary elements. It is known that one of the most important aspects genetically inscribed is the structure of the nervous system, especially through the superior nervous activity. The excitation-inhibition balance receives genetic influences. Eysenck connects the two major dimensions of personality with the state of arousal and cortical inhibition, explaining that (Hampson, 1999, p. 162):

- the E/I dimension is controlled by the ascending activator system, its function being to control the level of CNS stimulation Eysenck suggests that in the case of extraversion, the activator system tends to inhibit neural responses, which has the effect of decreasing cortical stimulation. In other words, extroverts have a low level of cortical excitability (arousal) and, therefore, behaviourally, initiate actions that increase their stimulation (high sociability, search for contacts, risky actions, search for sensations). Complementarily, the introvert activating system tends to stimulate neural responses, which is followed by increased cortical excitability. The introvert, characterized by an increased level of arousal (excitability), will initiate behaviours that limit the increase of external stimulation (weaker social implications, tendencies to avoid potentially tense situations, avoidance of sensations);
- the N dimension has as physiological basis the autonomic nervous system. Based on the stimulation of this system, intense emotional reactions will be associated with somatic reactions (heart rate, high respiration rate, vasoconstriction or vasodilation). In the case of people whose behaviour is at the pole of emotional instability, S.N. autonomously reacts much faster and more intensely than in the

case of emotionally stable subjects. The vegetative changes, which are associated with the evaluation of the significance of events, people or objects, will determine the type and intensity of emotion, explaining the anxious experience of emotionally unstable subjects.

This pattern of emotional reactivity, with a hereditary basis, is one of the factors responsible for the development of personality towards one pole or another of the two dimensions.

Socialisation influence on personality development

The question that Eysenck raises is whether sociocultural factors, family patterns, patterns of social behaviour, or educational values can influence personality development or whether they can “educate” native tendencies.

In 1964, in studies on the high level of crime in certain social groups, Eysenck suggests, as a cause of antisocial behaviour, the low capacity for social conditioning of the personality structure with typically extroverted grades. Moreover, based on factor analysis and correlational studies, the researcher suggests that a combination of high scores of dimensions E and N denotes a strong tendency, at the group level, towards antisocial behaviour (Birch and Hayward, 1999, p. 69). Social conditioning thus became a quality related to the E/I dimension of personality.

These results, which are not fully confirmed by further research, show that social and educational influences in personality development are weaker than those of heredity.

8.3 RESEARCH METHODS

Some researchers (Kendrick, 1981; Lanyon, 1984) consider that the research methods used by Eysenck in describing personality structure are insufficiently consolidated and validated, so they cannot demonstrate their applicative value.

However, the heuristic value of the notions explained by Eysenck is now recognized, his studies being a starting point for further debates, as well as the basis for methodological approaches.

The main research methods that make operational the concepts of Eysenck's theory are:

- laboratory experiments;
- clinical interview method;

- questionnaires and personality inventory;
- clinical scales;
- systematized observation of behaviour.

These measurement methods and techniques aim to:

Fundamental personality dimension assessment

For measuring the E/I and N dimensions of personality, the best known instrument is the Eysenck Personality Inventory (E.P.I.), developed by Eysenck (1964). The development of this inventory was preceded by several other tools, namely the Mandsley Medical Questionnaire and the Mandsley Personality Inventory (1959).

The E.P.I. has two forms (A and B) that allow retesting the subject, without the results being invalidated by memorizing the answers to certain items. The two forms can be used separately or together. Each form of the questionnaire contains 57 questions to which the subject answers yes or no, depending on the agreement or disagreement with the content of these items. The questionnaire contains 3 scales:

- scale for evaluating extraversion and introversion (marked with E);
- scale for evaluating neuroticism (marked with N);
- scale for evaluating the lie (marked with L).

The description of the L scale is justified by the subject's tendency to give desirable answers to the examiner, to put himself/herself in a favourable light. The questionnaire can be applied to subjects from the age of 16, regardless of socio-cultural climate.

Because the two dimensions of personality are considered independent (here is the main difference from the factorial technique used by Cattell that correlates the factors), all combinations between the scores (high/low) obtained in this test can be found in practice. With the help of this tool, interpersonal differences between subjects with normal personality development and neurotic personality are highlighted, as well as some intersex differences.

Subsequent research highlights some possible distortions of the results of this test due to erroneous self-knowledge and limited introspective ability. As Albou (1973, p. 15) said, the subject's answers are determined, first of all, by what the subject thinks about himself/herself, certain mechanisms of self-defence before self-disclosure come into operation. Another possible cause of distortion is the different meanings that the subject gives to the content of an item, in its own reference system used in "decoding" items.

Personality dimension physiological substrate assessment

In order to highlight the physiological substrate of the E/I and N dimensions, Eysenck uses different laboratory experiments, through a careful control of the intervention of some outside variables. Cortical excitability (arousal level) is measured by electro-encephalographic (EEG) technique, and personality dimensions by E.P.I. Birch (1999, p. 68) notes that only half of these studies indicated significant differences between extraversion and introversion in terms of cortical excitability.

Social conditionality assessment

To study the extent to which the cognitive system of the extroverted and introverted subject is accessible to knowledge on the basis of which to later develop social behaviours, Eysenck uses questionnaires and scales to assess anti-social trends. The results obtained from the application of these tests were then correlated with the results of the subjects in the E.P.I. Eysenck concludes that the introverted structure can be conditioned more easily than the extroverted one. However, these evaluation methods have a limited support, the subsequent research refuting Eysenck's hypothesis.

Personality pathological potential assessment

The E.P.I. is also applied in order to evaluate the pathological tendencies of the personality, in general, the high scores of the two dimensions being such an indication.

8.4 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Eysenck's research, through the notions he delimits, allows highlighting some interpersonal differences, at the level of the following aspects:

Personality dimension level

Research reveals the existence of differences between people, regarding their tendency to seek or avoid external stimuli. It results that:

- extroverted people are "sensation seekers", aiming, through their actions, to increase the low level of cortical excitability;
- introverts avoid sensations in an attempt to decrease the increased level of cortical excitability.

Social behaviour level

The researches of Eysenck (1959, 1965) and, later, of Furnham (1981, 1982) show that:

- extroverts show tendencies towards social competitiveness, intimate relationships and social affirmation;
- introverts tend to avoid stimuli of a social kind, have few but qualitative relationships, avoid situations of social competitiveness.

Social adaptation and conditioning level

Eysenck shows that a positive correlation of high scores in dimensions E and N gives information about the tendency towards antisocial behaviour. Other studies (Kendrick, 1980; Farrington, 1982; Cochrane, 1975) contradict these results, showing that:

- there are significant differences between the scores obtained in dimension P (psychoticism) between male delinquent subjects compared to the control group;
- some subjects obtain high scores in dimension N, but these are not associated with high scores in dimension E;
- predominantly introverted structures are more easily conditioned socially than predominantly extroverted structures.

Clinical symptomatology level

Eysenck shows that:

- hysterics and psychotics differ from dysthymic, by higher levels in dimension E;
- hysterics and psychotics have higher levels in dimension N than normal subjects, but lower than dysthymic levels.

8.5 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The theoretical constructs explained by Eysenck are used in different application areas, such as:

- Child psychology – the E/I and N dimensions are dispositional elements, i.e. they have a genetic heritage;
- Adult development – the adult personality, normally developed, is placed in a central position of the continuum delimited by extremes;
- Mental health – the E.P.I. is used for the purpose of a diagnosis and clinical prognosis.
- Judicial psychology – there is a “typical” structure of the antisocial personality, characterized by high levels of dimensions E and N.
- Society – the introverted structure can be socially conditioned more easily than the extroverted one.

PART FOUR

UNIDIMENSIONAL VIEW ON PERSONALITY

CHAPTER 9

PERSONALITY UNIDIMENSIONAL THEORIES

9.1 PERSONALITY MULTIDIMENSIONAL THEORIES VS. UNIDIMENSIONAL THEORIES

If the multidimensional perspective on personality, whose main representatives are Allport, Cattell and Eysenck, aimed at measuring the personality as a whole, the one-dimensional perspective aims to explain and evaluate a single aspect, considered relevant in the personality structure of the individual. This dimension will be expressed in human behaviour, being, at the same time, an element that differentiates people.

The objective of multidimensional theories consisted in identifying the particularities of the human personality, as well as in the elaboration of tests, questionnaires and personality inventories through which the aim was to capture the differences between individuals, depending on these particularities. The objective of the one-dimensional approach is to describe some personality variables that receive values that can be expressed along a single dimension, the interpersonal differences being equivalent to the differences between the positions that individuals occupy, between the two poles of that dimension. And in the case of the last approach, the theoretical constructs were operationalized and quantified by developing specific testing tools.

The term dimension suggests precisely that the personality of an individual, expressed in his observable behaviour, can be placed at a certain point on a continuum.

One-dimensional theories, despite criticisms of the unilaterality of the personality approach, have developed theoretical notions, with heuristic value, and research methods applicable to the study of personality, in various fields of research (education, human resources, legal psychology, etc.).

The main representatives of the one-dimensional approach to personality are Rotter (1966), Gardner, Jacks, Messick (1968), Friedman and Rosenman (1974).

9.2 ROTTER – INTERNAL/EXTERNAL CONTROL AS PERSONALITY DIMENSION

Conceptual explanation

Rotter (1966) considers that the fundamental dimension of personality that influences everyday behaviours is how the person perceives the source of rewards (positive reinforcement) or sanctions (negative reinforcement), i.e. how he/she establishes the link between this system and his/her own behaviour. He shows that there are two categories of individuals:

- those who believe that positive or negative reinforcements derive directly from what they are or from their own actions;
- those who believe that positive or negative reinforcements depend on external forces, regardless of what they are or how they acted until the reinforcement was applied.

The first category of subjects to which the persons who consider themselves responsible for everything that happens to them, desirable or undesirable, belong, have an internal locus of control (internal L.O.C. or internal); the second category, bringing together people who identify the source of events as external to them have an external locus of control (external or external L.O.C.). Thus, Rotter makes the couple internality/externality a fundamental dimension of personality, a significant variable of a person's behaviour.

Monteil (1997, p. 45-46) shows that the internality/externality dimension of personality will influence the way in which the subject attributes the causes of his/her successes and failures to either internal factors (dispositional attribution) or external factors (situational attribution).

Also, research conducted by Monteil and his collaborators in the field of education concludes that (Monteil, 1945): “if an individual establishes a link between a reinforcement and his own behaviour, it will affect the probability of reproducing this behaviour, in a similar situation”.

If the person believes that strengthening (reward or punishment) is due to the action of external factors (outsiders, bad luck, hazard), research shows that this probability is not affected.

For example, a person who considers that the success or failure of his/her actions, in different social plans, is due to his/her own person (skills, exercise, voluntary effort or their absence) has an internal control, assuming responsibility for their actions and consequences, at personal and social level. Such a person will tend to repeat this behaviour in similar situations.

On the other hand, a person who attributes the causes of his/her successes or failures to external aspects has an external control, having a lower responsibility of his/her own actions. Research demonstrates the existence of interpersonal differences in the size of external or internal control of personality, due to different ways of attributing the causes of one's own behaviour or the behaviour of others.

LePoultier (1986) argues that, due to its characteristic notes (responsibility, risk-taking, decision-making autonomy), the norm of internality must be valued in personality development, because it is a vector that ensures a better adaptation to environmental demands than the norm of externality.

Research methods

To measure the fundamental dimension of personality – external and internal control – Rotter developed the Locus of Control Questionnaire. The sample contains 29 items, each item having two statements, a and b, which capture the variant of control internality and that of externality. The task of the subject is to choose one of the two statements, depending on the agreement or disagreement with their content. Following the application of this test, each subject investigated will belong to a certain class, that of interns or class of externals.

Interpersonal differences

External and internal control of the personality proves to be a valid differentiator within a population, most people being located in a central area of the polarized continuum. The main interpersonal differences captured based on this dimension are at the following levels:

Behaviour cause attribution level

The research of James and Nisbett (1972) demonstrates the existence of interindividual differences between actor and observer, regarding the treatment of information about one's own behaviour or that of others. The research results show that the actor (behaviour initiator) tends to make situational attributions to his own behaviour (external locus), while the observer shows more strongly the tendency of a dispositional attribution to another person's behaviour (internal locus).

Schopler and Layton (1975) study a particular case of the attribution phenomenon, namely the attribution of the success and failure of a behaviour in the school environment. The results of their research show that teachers tend to explain school failure by internal, dispositional factors rather than external, situational factors.

Monteil et al. (1989) show that there are differences between teachers in the evaluation of school behaviour. If the teacher predominantly has an L.O.C. internally, will tend to make an attribution of internal causes to student behaviour, while teachers with L.O.C. externally tend to attribute external causes to school behaviour. This research draws attention to the link between the situation of personal control and how to evaluate the behaviour of the other, highlighting different pedagogical styles.

Task performance level

Lefcourt's (1976) research shows that there are differences between people with internal and external locus of control, in terms of performance in a given activity. Thus, interns generally achieve superior performance compared to externals. An explanation given to this fact is that the possibilities of analysis and reflection on one's own dispositions, as well as causes of the performances, specific to the interns, help them in the permanent adjustment to the type and quality of the different tasks.

Social class level

Numerous research and studies (Rabinowitz, 1978; Claes, 1981, 1982) show that subjects from disadvantaged social classes tend to attribute the causes of behaviour to external factors (external locus of control), compared to those in favoured classes where the internal locus of control predominates. However, other researches refute this hypothesis, considering that the issue is much too complex, depending on personal experience and the overall structure of the personality.

Self confidence level

Feather's research (1968, 1970) shows the existence of differences between internal and external, manifested in self-confidence. The results of this research show that:

- the level of self-confidence of outsiders generally increases after a failure and decreases after a success;
- the level of self-confidence of the inmates tends to increase after a success, respectively to decrease after a failure.

In conclusion, depending on the position that each occupies on the axis internality – externality, there are interpersonal differences, at the level of various behavioural segments of the human individual.

9.3 FRIEDMAN & ROSENMAN – A- AND B-TYPE
BEHAVIOUR

Personality A-B dimension

The one-dimensional approach proposed by Friedman and Rosenman aims at a particular type of behaviour as an expression of personality, behaviour with obvious influences in the educational, relational, social, professional sphere.

The two researchers start from studies that aimed to highlight a possible correlation between cardiovascular risk or predisposition to coronary heart disease, on the one hand, and a certain type of personality structure, on the other hand. Their research concludes that there is a certain picture of personality traits that correlates positively with exposure to cardiovascular disease, a picture they call type A personality. The specific behaviour of this personality will be called type A behaviour, they also describe the specific structure of type B personality, with a lower risk of exposure to cardiovascular disease.

The specific personality traits of type A and B are:

A- and B-type personality (features)

A-TYPE PERSONALITY (FEATURES)	B-TYPE PERSONALITY (FEATURES)
Relating to aggressive tendencies Competitive spirit Tendency to dominate and show power Ambition Resistance to self-perception Aggressive ways of resolving conflicts Tendency to appreciate the quantity of results and less quality The need to exercise control	Inclined to addiction Emotional control, relaxation Resistance to frustration Focus on quality and less on quantity Low competitiveness Trends towards self-knowledge

Due to the frequency with which these features are encountered in the population, the A-B axis becomes a dimension of personality, the human individual occupying different positions between the two poles of the scale.

Interpersonal differences

The results of research that takes into account the A-B dimension of personality are revealed at the following levels:

Relational behaviour level

Type A personality tends to dominate the situation and induce a sense of inferiority to the partner, while type B personality, in intimate relationships, shows the need for dependence, and in professional relationships, the spirit of competitiveness is lower. Roemer and Hamon (1978, 1979) study the relationship between type A and B personality, in Friedman and Rosenman's conception, and the type of personality, in terms of interpersonal orientation, highlighted by Horney. Their research shows that there is a positive correlation between type A personality-specific traits and the cognitive, affective, and behavioural characteristics of the aggressive type.

Self perception level

Friedman and Rosenman's research highlights that if type A personality avoids self-disclosure situations, predominantly manifesting a control of external relations, type B personality has a more pronounced tendency towards

self-knowledge (cognitive, affective, volitional, relational). Self-perception being related to the other's perception (the second precedes the first – Radu, 1994, p. 23), interpersonal differences are also possible in terms of empathic capacity and the tendency to transpose on the cognitive or affective level of another person, type A personality with lower empathetic tendencies.

Conflictual-situation-resistance capability level

Research shows that there are significant differences between a type A personality who has a high degree of vulnerability to frustrating situations, followed by aggressive reactions, and a type B personality who shows a greater resistance to frustrating stimuli. Rosensweig develops a model of the human individual's resistance to frustration, considering that two of the most common reactions are those of expunition and intrapunition. Thus, expunitive subjects tend to project guilt, while intrapunitive ones assume guilt and responsibility for their own actions. If the type A and B of personality are related to the intrapunitive type, respectively expunitive, it would be interesting to observe the correlations between these types, the hypothesis being that type A has expunitive tendencies, while type B predominantly manifests intrapunitive tendencies.

Emotional and behavioural control level

It is generally considered that personality type A has less control over his/her emotional reactions and action components compared to personality type B. Because emotionality also has a strong vegetative component, type A personality is prone to more frequent somatizations than type B personality. Moreover, Strube (1989) finds a link between type A behavior and cardiovascular risk groups.

Research methods

To measure the psycho-behavioural characteristics of type A and B personality, Friedman and Rosenman (1974) developed a personality questionnaire ("A and B Behaviour Questionnaire"), used in various application areas, such as career guidance, health, human resources etc.

The critique of the methods used by the two researchers refers to the too high degree of generality of the personality type and the predictive limitation of some subsequent behaviours. Also, personality traits specific

to type A and B behavioural picture are assessed through other personality questionnaires and inventories, such as the 16 PF (Cattell) questionnaire or the C.A.D. scale. (Cohen, see Horney).

In order to highlight the differences between type A and B personality at the levels described above, several methods are known, such as: self-perception scales (described in a later chapter), interest questionnaires, personal value system evaluation questionnaires. (see Allport), projective tests for measuring frustration resistance (Rosensweig).

9.4 FIELD DEPENDENCE/INDEPENDENCE – AS PERSONALITY DIMENSION

Conceptual precisions

Witkin and his collaborators began, around the 1950s, a series of researches and studies aimed at investigating the cognitive sphere of the human subject, focusing on the perceptual process. Their research technique consisted of an experimental situation in which the subjects were placed in a dark room, in front of a bright frame with a certain inclination. A rod was placed inside the frame. The task of the subject was to place the rod in a vertical position, in the situation where it and the frame were inclined in the same direction or in different directions. By measuring the distance between the position in which the subject placed the rod and the position of the rod that the subject had to achieve, the researchers differentiated two groups of subjects:

- a group of subjects who tended to place the rod according to the direction of the frame;
- a group of subjects who tended to place the rod correctly (vertically), regardless of the orientation of the frame.

The subjects who belonged to the first group were called field dependents, because they failed to ignore certain perceptual “anchors”, which influenced the performance in the task; the second group included people independent of the perceptual field. These results, which identified relatively large variations in the subject’s perceptual behaviour, led the researchers to conclude that there is a relationship between field dependence/independence and personality.

In this sense, Witkin (1976, in Birch & Hayward, 1999, p. 101) states that: “Dependence – independence from the field is a manifestation, at the level of the perceptual sphere, of a major dimension of the person’s functioning, a dimension that extends in the sphere of social behaviour and personality”.

Starting from Witkin’s studies that were limited to perceptual behaviour, around the 80’s, Messnick and collaborators initiated a series of experimental research that broadens the scope of the notion of field. This notion is given different attributes or connotations:

- the field of social relations and behaviour oriented towards another person (all forms of interpersonal interaction);
- the field or space of the problem regarding the way in which the subject represents the data of a problematic situation.

Thus, there was a need to extend studies from the perceptual area to the area of interpersonal relationships, problem solving and decision-making behaviour. All research led to the conclusion that each person has an individual way of perceiving, treating the data of a problem, engraving and transforming knowledge, in a word, to process information. The way in which the subject appeals, when he/she detects and interprets a certain problem in his/her field, is called cognitive style.

The dependence/independence of the field was, as a result, studied in relation to the resolving process, to the functioning of some skills, to the way of memorizing and updating the information and, last but not least, to the way of social relationship.

As in the case of the internality/externality dimension, explained by Rotter, there are no people totally dependent or totally independent of the field, but most of them are in a certain position along the continuum with the two extremes. Thus, field dependence and independence become a dimension of personality, along which the behaviours of a subject can be defined and understood.

Research methods

The methodology for evaluating the position that an individual occupies on the axis that contains at the two poles the dependence and independence of the field, includes experiments, systematized observations on perceptual, cognitive, relational behaviour, tests to investigate resolving strategies, etc. The main methods of researching the concepts explained by Witkin and Messnick aim at:

Perceptive ability level dimension assessment

In this area of study, the experimental situations created by Witkin and his collaborators (1948, 1956, 1976) are included. In a series of laboratory experiments, Witkin uses 3 main samples (Birch & Hayward, 1999, p. 99-100):

- Rod and Frame Test (R.F.T.), explained above.
- Body Adjustment Test (B.A.T.) which followed the same principles as the previous test. In a room with a certain degree of inclination, the subject is asked to place his/her body in an upright position. The subject dependent on external indices shows the tendency to follow the angle of inclination of the room, while the subjects who use internal indices (kinaesthetic, postural, balance sensations) position themselves closer to the vertical.
- Embedded Figures Test (E.F.T.) in which the subject's task was to select simple figures that were part of more complex figures.

Through these research methods, different perceptual abilities were studied, such as the ability to separate figure/background (perceptual selectivity), perceptual constancy, the ability to capture structure (perceptual integrity), the ability to prioritize perceptual structure (perceptual structuralism).

Cognitive ability level dimension assessment

Witkin believes that field dependence and independence can be assimilated to intelligence, understood as the ability to adapt to new situations. Vernon (1972) argues that the assessment of field dependence and independence measured nothing more than intelligence tests. However, further research shows that the two notions are not equivalent. The investigative techniques used by Witkin were quite simplistic, ignoring the effect of aspects such as the subject's attitude toward the task, previous experience, or the attitude toward the test situation in general. Regarding resolving strategies, the studies of Franck and Noble (1984) demonstrated the existence of a link between field dependence and independence, on the one hand, and performance in solving anagrams, on the other hand.

Goodwin's research on updating knowledge in physical environments identical or different from those of memory has demonstrated the existence of context-dependent memory. Also, research in the field of cognition shows that the way in which the person represents his/her problem

environment has an influence on the choice of resolution strategies and on the performances obtained.

Social relationship level dimension assessment

Research in the area of social cognition (Linton, Taylor, Fiske, Nakamura) studies the relationship between dependence and field independence and social sensitivity. The notion of sensitivity has several meanings (Reber, 1986, p. 685):

- in a broad sense, it refers to the ability of an individual to react to the action of a stimulus;
- in a narrow sense, it refers to a person's ability to respond to weak, low-intensity stimuli;
- it is sometimes equated with a certain vulnerability to the action of stimuli;
- it refers to the subject's ability to correctly perceive social relationships, the causes of a social behaviour, as well as how others perceive their own behaviour.

Studies of the connection between the fundamental dimension of personality originally described by Witkin and social sensitivity captured, in reality, the ability of a dependent or field-independent person to pay attention to social stimuli, to interpret and evaluate the social situation in general. As evidence, tests of social sensitivity, attitudinal scales, observations on the verb-motor behaviour of the subject were used.

Interpersonal differences

The fundamental dimension of personality – field dependence and independence – underlies interpersonal differences at the following levels:

Perceptive ability level

Research shows that field-independent subjects have a higher perceptual selectivity and perceptual field organization ability than dependent subjects. These differences in perceptual abilities receive an explanation from the attention-activating mechanism, as the orientation of the psychonervous energy towards the points of maximum informational concentration in the perceptual field.

Cognitive ability level

The results of research in the field of human cognition demonstrate the existence of interpersonal differences in the qualities of thought mechanisms, its operations and resolution strategies. It is shown that field independents excel in analytical thinking, as opposed to field-dependent subjects who achieve superior performance in tasks that require synthetic operations.

Social sensitivity level

Field-dependent subjects tend to be more sensitive to social stimuli (rewards and sanctions), paying more attention to other people's attitudes and judgments, compared to field-independent subjects.

Label variable level

Maccoby, Kacklin (1976) demonstrate that subjects under the age of 12 are much more dependent on the field than those over the age of 12, showing that field independence increases with age. There are also intersex differences in field dependence and independence, in general, male subjects have greater field independence compared to female subjects.

9.5 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The one-dimensional approach of the personality, through the proposed notions and through the vast possibilities of their experimentation, represents a particularly important information source in different application fields:

- Child psychology – field dependence and independence, depending on age;
- Educational psychology – cognitive style is an important variable in both teaching and learning; competitiveness must be encouraged within certain limits, so that it does not become aggressive (type A personality); in the school, the internalization actions by the students of the behavioural control (internal L.O.C.) associated with the increase of the responsibility of their own successes and failures must be stimulated.

- Professional orientation – the choice of profession is also dependent on some aspects, such as dependence and independence of the field, the locus of control.
- Organizational psychology – in the selection of staff, especially those in management positions, in negotiation and in conflict resolution, it is necessary to know the location of control, as well as the person's position on the axis of dependence – field independence.

PART FIVE

HUMANIST VIEW ON PERSONALITY

CHAPTER 10

MASLOW – MOTIVATIONAL FACTOR VIEW ON PERSONALITY

10.1 MASLOW'S THEORY ONTEXTUALISATION

The humanistic perspective in explaining the dynamics and development of the personality defines itself as a reaction to the theories of psychoanalytic and neo-psychoanalytic kind, as well as the behaviourist one. What the humanistic perspective reproaches to the psychoanalytic approach is the identification of the personality dynamics with the dynamics of the conflict, as well as the overestimation of the part of the early experience in the development of the adult personality. On the other hand, the humanistic conception accuses behaviourism of transforming man into an exclusive product of environmental conditioning, the development of personality being equivalent to the development of the individual repertoire of acquired behaviours.

In this context, the humanist perspective on personality is developed, considered as the “third force” in psychology, whose main representatives are A. Maslow and C. Rogers. The restructuring of the vision on the human personality, proposed by humanists, referred to the elaboration of new theoretical constructs to capture its unity, as well as to the substitution of the traditional methodology, considered inappropriate, with an innovative, “person-centred” one (Rogers). In this sense, Maslow declares the need to approach and understand the personality, starting from the concept of experiential identity.

In conclusion, the main desideratum of the humanistic theory of personality are:

- restoring of the dignity of the human individual, emphasizing the individual experience;
- developing the capacity for personal growth, self-realization, fulfilment of human potential, by eliminating determinism;
- minimizing the influences of the environment, emphasizing the importance of the will and the personal responsibility that the choice implies;
- understanding the person, starting from the way he/she constructs his/her world, not as an effect of some intrapsychic conflicts, but through the consciousness of the actions, the acceptance of their consequences and the orientation towards the future;
- using predominantly subjective and less objective and abstract methodologies, in order to capture the uniqueness of the human being.

10.2 PERSONALITY DYNAMICS

Maslow considers that the main factors of personality dynamics are motivational factors. The motivational sphere has the integrity and emergence of the personality system to which it belongs. The differentiation of the motivational structures has a staged character, the functioning of the system imposing the level, hierarchical structuring of the needs. From this point of view, interpersonal differences have an intrinsic psycho-physiological foundation.

Need as basal personality motivational structure

The term necessity presupposes three conditions (Crasovan, 1999, p. 148):

- the condition of vital necessity, signalling an imbalance at the level of the organism or of the psyche;
- of tension accumulated in the body, due to functional imbalance;
- of a specific category of objects that have the potential to satisfy the need and reduce the tension, rebalancing the forces.

Regardless of the form it takes, a need is always a state of tension, linked to a need and oriented towards a category of objects that impels the individual in search of a state of equilibrium. Maslow explains that the

structure and functioning of these states of necessity are responsible for personality development.

One of the criticisms of this vision is that Maslow selected from the motivational range precisely the needs that, in many respects, are similar to impulses. However, psychoanalytic theory also speaks of impulses, strongly charged with energy, and humanists opposed this approach. The way out of this apparent impasse is done by clarifying the semantic differences between the two notions:

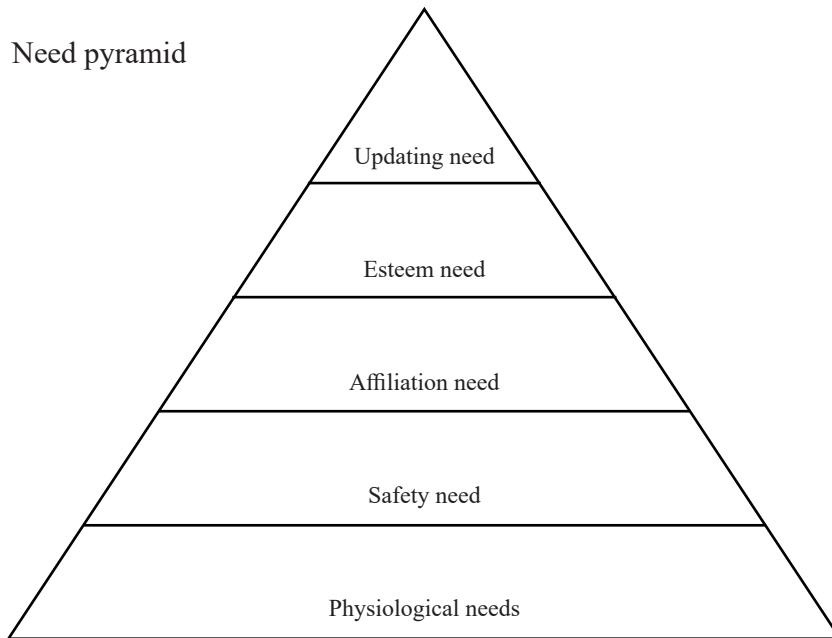
Conceptual differences

NEED	INSTINCT
1. need finds various behavioural ways of satisfaction	1. instinctive behaviour is stereotypical
2. need, as a state of tension, pre-exists the stimulus, existing even in its absence	2. instinctive behaviour is triggered automatically in the presence of significant stimuli
3. need has broader "objectives," targeting a category of reality	3. instinct aims at a very precise finality (performing or inhibiting an act)
4. need actively intervenes in personality, in imaginative predictions, in the dynamics of behaviours	4. instinct is just a reaction to certain elements of the environment

Need hierarchy

In Maslow's conception, needs, as structures that ensure the dynamics of personality, are placed in a pyramidal structure, called the pyramid of needs. This structure involves an organization and hierarchy of needs, being made up of 5 levels, depending on the ontogenetic development and human specificity. These levels are:

Need pyramid



Regarding the functioning of these needs, Maslow (in his early conception) states some principles that take the form of laws that work within the pyramid, namely:

- a need is the less tension generators, the more frequently satisfied;
- a need does not appear as a motivation, unless the previous one has been satisfied; this is what the author calls the principle of emergence;
- the appearance of a new need is not realized suddenly, but gradually;
- the need for self-actualization or fulfilment of the Ego is the fundamental human need, the whole dynamics and development of the personality having the significance of achieving behaviours to satisfy this need.

Maslow calls the needs located at the first 4 levels, deficit needs that correspond to the homeostatic motivation, while the latter is called the need for growth, self-realization and fulfilment of personal potentials, corresponding to individual development.

The application of the principle of homeostasis (balancing the body by reducing stress), in case of deficit needs (biological, security, affiliation and esteem), refers to the fact that their satisfaction, through specific behaviours,

reduces body tension, balancing forces, accompanied phenomenon of positive emotional feelings.

Their dissatisfaction maintains the state of tension, sometimes having serious effects on personality development. For example, the need for (biological) hunger signals an imbalance at the organic level that creates a state of tension in the body, its satisfaction, through specific eating behaviour, reducing stress.

However, the principle that meeting the needs is equivalent to reducing the tension does not apply in the case of a higher need for updating. It is shown that, in this case, the satisfaction of the need, through specific behaviours (reception and production of moral, intellectual, aesthetic values, etc.), is not accompanied by the decrease of tension, but on the contrary, by its increase.

Need typology

We present, below, a brief characterization of each type of need described by Maslow:

- Biological needs – located at the basal level of the hierarchy, include the physiological needs of hunger, thirst, sleep, and sexual needs. These needs, absolutely necessary for the normal survival and development of the individual, are common to man and animals. They are strongly charged energetically, their satisfaction leading to a decrease in tension. These needs can dominate, at some point, individual behaviour, in which case we are talking about an overbearing motivation. Maslow's principle of emergence must not be interpreted rigidly; the transition from one need to another (from biological to security, for example) does not mean the full and lasting satisfaction of previous needs.
- Need for security – at the next level, the person's overbearing motivation becomes that of creating a sense of security or safety. This feeling can be gained by transforming the unknown into the known, the familiar character of things or situations restoring the security of the individual. Under these conditions, the behavioural or situational novelty will re-energize the motivational structure which, again, demands its satisfaction (Lowry, 1973, p. 160). Maslow puts the need for security in relation to the neurotic personality, by manifesting its accentuated tendency to make existence predictable.

- Affiliation need – if the physiological and security needs are met, the next level will become overbearing (predominant). The need for affiliation is what will drive, motivate relationship behaviour, individual membership in a group, initiation and reception of intimate relationships or friendship. Maslow considers that poor satisfaction of this need is the source of serious personality disorders.
- Need for self-esteem and respect – self-esteem, self-respect, becomes a predominant need when the individual is already a partner in a relationship). Satisfaction of this need involves the achievement of performance behaviours in certain areas, relying on cognitive skills and the results of activities. Clonninger (1993, p. 283) states that the principle of emergence explained by Maslow suggests, in this case, that the person with unmet affiliation needs to continue to function at the third level of the pyramid, not being motivated, in his/her conduct, by the need for esteem. For example, a child who has had a rejective parenting model, in which the need for affiliation is assumed to be unmet, according to the principle of emergence, would not be motivated, as an adult, in his behaviours by the need for esteem, because he/she does not exceed the previous level. This fact is refuted by reality (in some cases), which demonstrates the explanatory limits of this principle. Satisfying the need for esteem is associated with increasing self-confidence in the ability to achieve performance, eliminating the feeling of inferiority.
- Need for self-realization – the term self-actualization was first used by Goldstein (1939), to then be taken over and signified differently by various authors, its basic connotation remaining debatable. For Maslow, the need to update the personality, also called metamotivation, refers to the impulse to grow, develop and fulfil the native potential, becoming, in the end, an attitude focused on personal growth. The updated personality will achieve a “dynamic confluence of the conative, cognitive, affective and motor dimensions” (Mamali, 1968, p. 211). At this level, the personality dynamics are not based on a deficit motivation (as in the case of the first 4 levels) whose satisfaction decreases the tension, but on metamotivation. The actions and activities of artists are generally motivated by this need, its fulfilment maintaining the creative tension.

- The dynamics of needs discover their applicative value only by relating to the process of personality development. The study of the dynamics of needs as the main engine of personality development is the source of information for the dynamics of motivational relationships between two or more people, as well as the evolutionary value of these relationships.

10.3 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Regarding the explanation of the mechanisms and factors of personality development, of the changes and transformations undergone in its evolution, Maslow confines himself to describing a picture of the updated personality. This fact has been the subject of extensive criticism of Maslow's theory, the features that he considers defining for the updated personality not being the result of the application of objective research methods, but rather of speculative intuitions.

In accordance with the pyramidal structuring of needs, personality development involves the integration of all motivational levels into a unitary whole that is the updated personality.

The main characteristics of the updated personality are (Maslow, 1987, p. 128-131):

- realistic perception – referring to the ability to perceive the perceptual “false” and, in general, to judge correctly a person's behaviour;
- self-acceptance – the ability to be aware of one's own abilities and limits and to tolerate them;
- spontaneity – the ability to be natural, relaxed, to achieve unpredictable behaviours; it is based on the individual's ability to keep in touch with subjective experience;
- need for intimacy – refers to the tendency towards loneliness, towards isolation correlated with the independence of the will;
- need for autonomy – the updated person being motivated rather by internal structures and less by external factors;
- openness to experiences – includes the need to “test” new perspectives, new theories, sometimes by forcing the limits of resistance;
- interpersonal relationship skills – includes empathic skills, identification with another person, emotional and ideational communication skills;

- moral conscience – the ability to distinguish between moral categories, the internalization of moral values expressed in attitudes;
- creativity – the ability to manifest creative potential in a behaviour that leads to obtaining new, original products;
- resistance to enculturation, the ability to adapt to the values and models promoted by society, while maintaining, instead, a detachment from a certain culture; the quality of being universal;
- coincidence between personal interests and social interests that denote a relational altruism.

All these aspects are the result of empirical observations, in recent decades researchers trying to develop objective methods for studying the features of the updated person. This picture seems idealized, Maslow going further, from the individual to the social level, proposing the creation of a utopian society, called the self-psychic society.

10.4 MASLOW'S PERSONALITY MODEL – CRITICAL VIEW

The humanist approach, in general, is reproached with the enunciation of poorly defined or even equivocal theoretical constructs, methodological subjectivism, the absence of objective tools for evaluating elaborated concepts, as well as the individuality of results, which cannot be generalized without certain risks to the population. We will see further how some of these “weaknesses” will be eliminated by Rogers’ conception, as well as by the emergence of objective methodologies (questionnaires, scales, personality inventory).

The main reproaches brought to the approach of the personality made by Maslow, are related to the pyramidal structure of the needs, to the strict relations between them, to the way of describing and explaining the meta-motivation.

Thus, the principle of emergence, which provided for a strict, progressive order of satisfying the needs at different levels of the pyramid, is annulled by the situation in which the functioning of higher levels is not necessarily preceded by the satisfaction of lower levels. Referring to this aspect, Jantsch (1975, p. 139) considers the proposed model as “a static world, in which there are needs satisfied in a sequential order and absolutely the same, as if they could ever be satisfied and given on the one hand”.

The anthropological research conducted by Fox (1982) concludes that the sequences of satisfying needs in a strict order have no justification in

reality or in the case of certain cultures. He cites the case of people who refuse to eat the meat of animals sacrificed by rite or the case of soldiers who accept death in the name of certain beliefs, thus demonstrating that the needs of higher positioning in the pyramid can be met even if or despite refusing to meet lower needs in the pyramid. Fox (1982, p. 30) also states that “great artists, composers, painters (updated people) made their works at a time when they were the target of deprivation or rejection criticism” (the need for esteem and affiliation).

Mamali summarizes the main criticisms brought to the model of personality dynamics, in Maslow’s vision, emphasizing the need to move from the static hierarchy of needs to their dynamic hierarchy. Only a dynamic organization of the fundamental motivational structures will be able to explain the dynamics of the personality. The main limitations of Maslow’s vision of structuring and the principles of functioning of needs, as essential factors in personality dynamics are summarized by Mamali (1985, p. 55-58) as follows:

- Maslow’s model excludes the cyclicity of needs, emphasizing their static nature;
- the pyramidal structuring mode has a limited cultural character; the hierarchy of values proper to Western culture, which Maslow studied, cannot be generalized to other cultures. Maruyama (1973, p. 55) considered, from this point of view, that “the theory of actualization has its origin in an atomistic thinking, in which the individual is perceived as isolated”. In other words, the functioning of the basic structures of the personality must take into account the variables of the respective culture, its models and values;
- the motivational hierarchy, as Maslow explains, reveals its timeless and spatial character, which is considered identical for any age and for any culture. However, the spatio-temporal context can bring changes in the conceptual expression of this motivational structure; not all societies, social categories or subcultures keep the same hierarchy of motives;
- the transition from one level to another of the pyramid is uni-determined, in the sense that the emergence of a higher need does not change the behaviour of satisfying the previous need, when it becomes predominant again, nor the relationship between them. Achieving higher motivational levels not only depends, but is even

conditioned by the satisfaction of previous levels, does not lead to a restructuring of relationships, which limits the evolutionary nature of the pyramid; Mamali said, in this sense, that “the transition from a lower motivational level to a higher one is conditioned only retroactively, not projectively”;

- the hierarchical structure and the principle of emergence specific to the described pyramid do not explain the behavioural differences between two people who have satisfied, in the same degree, needs belonging to a certain level of the pyramid;
- although a pyramidal structure, in general, presupposes internal organization and relations between its levels, these characteristics are preserved only in terms of the functioning of the structures. The motivational structures in the pyramid are isolated, in the sense that it eliminates “the possibility that, through a certain way of satisfying the basic needs, to be partially or totally satisfied and some higher needs”. It is possible that, by satisfying the need for security (housing, clothing), the need for esteem, status or social recognition (superior need) will also be satisfied, at least in part;
- the pyramidal model exposed by Maslow leads to the creation of the (false) impression of “linear growth of human aspirations”, because the transition from one motivational level to another influences to a small extent the level of corresponding aspirations.

In conclusion, in order to have a more realistic perspective on the quality of interactions in which the personality is involved, it is necessary to shift the emphasis from the static hierarchy of needs to the dynamic one, taking into account the phylogenetic evolution and cultural context in which the person lives.

10.5 METAMOTIVATION NEW MEANINGS

Maslow identifies metamotivation with higher motivation, with the need to realize the Ego. Currently, the concept of metamotivation will be re-signified, taking on new connotations.

The major meaning of metamotivation is that of “motivation resulting from the awareness of existing motives and from the person’s attitude towards them” (Mamali, 1985, p. 225). From this definition, there derive several notes:

- the term awareness involves a careful, voluntary analysis of a fact, which means that the study of metamotivation has as its object the way the person consciously analyses the motivation of a behaviour, the underlying causes of behaviour, as personality expression;
- this analysis concerns, on the one hand, the identification of the reasons for one's own behaviour and, on the other hand, the analysis and interpretation of the motivation underlying the behaviour of another person;
- metamotivation means not only the conscious analysis of one's own motives or the motives of another person's behaviour, but also the formation, based on this analysis, of an attitude towards the person, which indicates that this analytical effort will substantiate the person's relation to himself/herself and to others, so the phenomenon of social perception and self-perception. In this case, the change of attitudes, with their cognitive, affective and value components, will be achieved with the change of the way of perceiving the causes of a behaviour.

Referring to the connection between conscious analysis of motives and attitudes, Mamali (1985, p. 231) states that: "awareness of existing motives is only a first step in generating metamotives, it is associated and filtered by the attitude that the person develops to the existing reasons and to the subjective and objective possibilities of the effective transition from certain reasons to other reasons".

Thus, metamotivation, as a conscious analysis of the reasons for one's own behaviour or the behaviour of another person, will also explain the interpersonal differences regarding the behaviours selected to meet certain needs.

10.6 RESEARCH METHODS

Although the theoretical notions explained by Maslow to describe the fundamental structure and dynamics of personality are difficult to operationalize, in recent decades objective methods of his research have been constructed and developed, such as questionnaires, personality inventories, experiments, autobiographical studies, etc. Also, the principles governing the pyramid described by Maslow have been the subject of intercultural studies as well as anthropological research.

The most important research methods aim at:

Need satisfaction degree assessment

The studies of Graham and Ballour (1975) are part of cross-sectional research, based on comparisons of the motivational structures of people of different ages, with the aim of highlighting their dynamics. They demonstrated, following the application of the questionnaires on the degree of satisfaction of needs, that the needs that occupy higher positions in the pyramid are generally considered less satisfied than the needs of lower positions, and the needs perceived as less satisfied were judged, as having a higher degree of desirability. For example, the need for esteem is less satisfied than the need for affiliation or the need for biological ones, but at the same time, the satisfaction of the need for esteem or appreciation is much more socially desirable than that of inferior needs.

Other research has aimed to measure the degree of satisfaction of needs in the pyramid structure, depending on the age variable (Haymes, Green, 1982; Sullivan, 1983; Lester, 1990). The results of this research show that there is a sequence of meeting needs at different ages. Thus, the physiological needs are more important in childhood (their degree of satisfaction is higher), while in preadolescence and adolescence the need for affiliation and the need for affirmation become overbearing. Hayman (1988) demonstrates that the need to update the ego increases with age.

In order to highlight all these aspects, in addition to observations and experiments, the evaluation scale of the notions explained by Maslow ("Maslowian Assessment Survey Scale" – M.A.S.S.) was used as research methods. This tool allows the assessment of the 5 levels of needs, as well as other aspects related in meaning to those exposed by Maslow, such as the need for gratification or exhibition.

Williams and Page (1989, 1990), using this tool, demonstrate the existence of a positive correlation between the need for appreciation and the level of self-esteem, as well as a negative correlation between this need and depressive tendencies (measured by specific tests).

Clonninger (1993) cites studies by Mathes (1981, 1983) who, by testing groups of students, using questionnaires and scales whose structure was in line with the concepts explained by Maslow, show that the pyramid model can be restricted to 3 levels – physiological needs, belonging and the need for self-realization.

Personality motivational structure assessment

To identify and measure the motivational structures that predominate in the person's behaviour at a given time, the questionnaire for the evaluation of the motivational structure of the personality of S.M.P. ("Motivational Structure of Personality Questionnaire"), developed by Cesaree. The test contains 165 questions to which the subject must answer yes or no, depending on the agreement or disagreement with their content. S.M.P. measures 11 first-order psychogenic needs and 5 second-order needs.

The first order needs are:

- need for performance;
- need for affiliation;
- need for aggression;
- need for defence;
- need for conscience;
- need for domination;
- need for exhibition;
- need for autonomy;
- need to care for others;
- need for order;
- need for help.
-

The second order needs are:

- need for self-justification;
- need for rational domination;
- aggressive nonconformism;
- passive dependence;
- sociability.

Self-realisation need assessment

The need to update the ego, a central concept in Maslow's theory, has been the subject of lengthy debates, both in terms of its theoretical connotation and the way of practical evaluation. Questions were raised about the universal nature of this need or how often it was met in the population.

One tool used in various areas of research (school counselling, family counselling, negotiation, health) is the Personal Orientation Inventory (P.O.I.), developed by Shostrom (1966, 1968). This tool discriminates

between updated and outdated people. Although its construction is based on the consideration of the features of the updated person, as described by Maslow, the items also reflect other existentialist or gestaltist concepts or notions, taken from the theories of Perls, May, Fromm, Rogers, Ellis. The inventory includes 150 items, each item containing two variants (a and b) of dichotomized response, the subject having to choose one of the two variants.

The sample contains 10 subscales that measure different aspects that constitute the scope of the notion of updating the Ego:

- scale of values – refers to the values that underlie the formation of attitudes specific to the updated person;
- existentialism scale – measures the person's ability to react to situations, without a rigid submission to certain principles;
- reactivity scale – refers to the sensitivity or degree of responsiveness to their own needs and feelings;
- spontaneity scale – measures the abilities of spontaneous, natural reaction;
- self-acceptance scale – evaluates the degree of acceptance of one's human kind, abilities and limitations;
- masculinity/femininity scale – refers to the perception of masculinity and femininity, as well as their specific attributes;
- scale for evaluating the synergy – i.e. the ability to overcome dichotomies;
- evaluation scale of the resistance to frustration – that is, of the person's resistance to the action of some factors that induce frustration;
- contact scale – measures the ability to initiate and cultivate intimate relationships;
- self-knowledge scale – refers to the degree of awareness of the personality unit.

Metamotivation concept assessment

Studies on the assessment of the degree of conscious analysis of the reasons underlying one's own behaviour or the behaviour of others, as well as the attitude towards them, have grown in recent times.

We know the metamotivation evaluation questionnaire, developed by Mamali and his collaborators, a tool that aims to measure the degree of reflexivity on the motivational basis of behaviour. This test assesses the metamotivation of interpersonal behaviour, as well as behaviour in other

areas (social, professional), in terms of clarity and realistic perception of their causes. The test includes items whose content reflects the specifics of the 5 levels of needs, as well as questions about the frequency with which the subject is aware of the needs underlying personal or other behaviour. Regarding the clarity of the conscious analysis of motivation, it was measured by analysing the content of the elements that the subject indicated as reasons that he/she accepts or rejects.

10.7 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Starting from Maslow's analysis of the human personality and from the subsequent re-signification of the concepts used by him, the interpersonal differences are manifested at the following levels:

Hierarchy-inversing phenomenon level

The principle of emergence gives rise to interpersonal differences – if some people meet their needs in the order described by Maslow (higher needs emerge only if the lower ones are met), but other people have a behaviour of satisfying the higher needs, without the lower ones being fully satisfied.

Proponent need level

It has been shown that the predominant need differs according to age. If at a young age, physiological and security needs are predominant, in adolescents the affiliation needs predominate, followed by the preponderance of the needs of self-esteem and updating.

Updating need level

At this level, interpersonal differences are manifested in two ways:

- differences in the psychic features characteristic of updated and non-updated people;
- differences in the level of behaviour by which a person satisfies this need.

For example, in the latter case, two people in need of self-realization may resort to two different behaviours to satisfy this need – scientific creation and charitable actions. Research has shown the existence of a

positive correlation between the need to realize one's potential and creativity, highlighting, at this level, interpersonal differences.

Metamotivation level

Research has shown that there are differences between females who are inclined to self-analyse the needs that trigger behaviours in the field of interpersonal relationships and males who predominantly tend to self-analyse the needs that underlie professional behaviour. Also, there are interindividual differences in the conscious analysis of the reasons for their own behaviour, on the one hand, and the behaviour of another person, on the other hand, there are stronger tendencies to reflect on the motivation of the behaviour of others.

Regarding the clarity of the motivation, 3 types of subjects are differentiated:

- with increased clarity of the analysis of the reasons;
- with average clarity of this analysis;
- with reduced clarity of analysis.

Research indicates greater clarity in the analysis of subjects on the reasons for the behaviours they reject than on those they accept.

10.8 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The applicative value of Maslow's conception of personality dynamics and development is revealed in the following areas:

- Child psychology – meeting the biological, security and affiliation needs will prepare the development of the updated personality.
- Adult development – the mature personality is the self-realized one in which certain psychic qualities can be distinguished; the adult is capable of a conscious analysis of the motives underlying his own behaviour or the behaviour of another person;
- Mental health – balanced personality will have a realistic perception of the world, creative potential and increased self-esteem.
- Society, culture – the self-psychic society will support the fulfilment of individual potentials, through changes in the educational and professional field.

CHAPTER 11

ROGERS – PERSON-CENTRED VIEW ON PERSONALITY

11.1 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION AND DYNAMICS

Updating tendency

Rogers is the representative figure for the humanist current that restores the human personality, emphasizing the capacity of self-determination of the human being. Like Maslow, Rogers considers the motivational-dynamic and orientated structure as a central aspect in explaining human behaviour, as an expression of personality. HE subsumes the elements of personality dynamics of a fundamental motivational structure, called the tendency to actualize. Rogers describes this essential aspect in understanding personality dynamics as (Rogers, 1961, p. 351): “the directional tendency that acts at the level of any organic structure or life forms, towards growth. Development, maturation, the tendency to activate and give expression to the potentials of an organism or of the Self “.

Rogers states that all human existence is under the sign of the tendency to actualize or achieve, a tendency that has the significance of a force that drives the growth, development and maturation of the personality. This tendency has an anti-random and anti-anthropic character, opposing external determinism, disorder and chance. No human action is totally unmotivated, Rogers points out, man is not a “recipient” who receives passively conditioning (reply to behaviourism) or a “puppet” in the hands of unconscious forces (reply to psychoanalysis), but his/her

fundamental motivation is the tendency towards personal growth and development. However, this trend takes on a certain specificity, depending on age, developing at different levels.

At the lower level, the tendency to grow involves the satisfaction of primary needs, biological and physiological, so that, at higher levels, this tendency has the meaning of self-fulfilment, in terms of autonomy, activism, creativity, identity (Rogers, 1983). The updating trend ensures complexity, independence and social responsibility, having, by its intrinsic nature, an adaptive, positive finality.

Rogers's belief in the positive kind of the human being, in the constructive intentions of his/her actions, was amended by a number of theories. Thus, for example, Friedman (1982), May (1985) criticize Rogers' exaggerated optimism about human kind, bringing as counter-arguments aggressive, destructive or self-destructive behaviours, as opposed to life. Bokan (1983) tries to mediate this ideational controversy, by introducing the distinction between the individual and the collective level of approaching the problem. Thus, a behaviour can be considered positive, desirable at the individual level, but, at the same time, at the collective level, to be perceived as an aggressive behaviour, with destructive tendencies.

Rogers has an explanation for destructive human behaviour. Man is endowed, he says, with means of self-regulation of conduct, with a "guide" that constantly guides him/her in the direction of potential development. With the first personal experiences, under the action of family, social and cultural models, the person becomes insensitive to the "commands" of this guide that ensures a permanent contact with his/her real self.

With the sedimentation of experiences that can no longer be filtered and interpreted in terms of personal psychological construction, we come to the situation where a set of external norms will become stronger than personal experience. Moreover, external norms and pressures will influence the way information is received and processed, which will subsequently form the basis of decision-making processes.

Under these conditions, destructive tendencies appear as an effect of the rupture between personality and one's own experiences, as an effect of the substitution of personal experiences with external laws, so that "society's values will interfere with the individual process of psychological development" (Rogers, 1964, p. 58).

This permanent dialogue of the individual with his/her own experience, the totality of experiential feelings will be defining aspects for understanding the evolution of the human personality. Focusing on the present, current experiences of the person is another fundamental element in Rogers' conception and, at the same time, a line of demarcation between humanistic and psychoanalytic theories focused on the analysis of the past experiences of the human individual.

Real Ego and ideal Ego

Rogers believes that a person's unique experience will be his or her phenomenal field ("phenomenon"), which cannot be known directly by another person. Therefore, in order to understand the behaviour and, implicitly, the personality of an individual, it is necessary to discover the way in which he/she interprets his/her own life experiences. In a general sense, the formation and development of personality is equivalent to building a "grid of observations" of their own behaviours, reactions, mental states, feelings, attitudes, because, says Rogers, the person has the ability to introspect, self-analysis and self-control. This way of interpreting personal experiences is also the main obstacle to personal growth, making this problematic.

The problem of knowing the personality occurs when the human individual has an unrealistic perception of his/her own person and conduct, abilities and limits, i.e. his/her own Self. From this perspective, Rogers identifies two types of Ego:

- the real or perceived Ego, representing the sphere of feelings, attitudes, way of thinking, the predominant motivation, in general, of the real abilities that the person has;
- the ideal self, with reference to the same aspects, but projected in an ideal plan. It represents how a person would or should be.

For example, a person may be perceived as dependent, compliant, socially compliant, lacking competitiveness and assertiveness. The ideal self of such a person can have a "discourse" themed precisely on the need for social imposition and decisional independence.

Poor adaptation and, in the extreme, the disturbance of the psychic balance result from the denial or distortion of the real Ego or from the absolutization of the ideal one, due to the rupture of the personal contact with the current experience.

The tendency to update, the impulse towards growth and development is part of the realm of the real Ego. Rogers introduces the concept of incongruity, to describe the experience of the conflict between the real and the ideal ego. The greater the distance between the real ego (real qualities) and the ideal one (desirable qualities), the greater the differences between the real and the ideal plan, the stronger the mismatch. For example, a person who thinks he/she likes loneliness (the ideal plan), but in reality deeply feels loneliness (the real plan). If the distance between the real and the ideal plan is small, then we are talking about the congruent personality.

11.2 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Personality development involves a process of updating, i.e. a development of qualitative aspects and real abilities of the person. Personality development is normal, if the distance between the real and the ideal self is small, personality disorders (social, professional relationships, self-esteem) due to the phenomenon of incongruity.

If in the initial personality research, Rogers does not distinguish between the process of actualization based on the tendency of personal growth and the actualization of the Ego, then this distinction is operated – the actualization of the Ego becomes a sub-aspect of the actualization process (Clonninger, 1993, p. 260).

Ford and Mass (1989), trying to clarify these differences, say that updating, as a general trend, is always positive; however, the actualization of the Ego can take on maladaptive forms. In this line, DeCarvalho (1990) suggests that, if becoming is a general human potential, instead, updating the personality, the actual fulfilment of the real potential is an option of some people.

Socialisation aspect

Personal growth involves the development of aspects developed at the “interface” between society and the self, a process called socialization.

The term socialization acquires several meanings (Reber, 1985, p. 680):

- personality aspects determined by social values and influences;
- aspects of personality perceived, within interpersonal relationships, by others;
- aspects of personality with preponderant involvement in social interactions and exchanges.

Although Rogers, like the whole humanist vision, opposes external determinism, he recognizes that the social group (family, friends, institution) influences and controls the development of the individual personality, in the sense of its adaptation or maladaptation. The difference between determinism and influence is essential, at the level of predictions of personality evolution and behaviour: to determine means the existence of a causal relationship, to influence denies this causality.

If A determines B, then B necessarily follows from A and, under any conditions, B is the effect of A – this is causality.

In a discussion with Skinner, a representative of neobehaviourism in personality theories, Rogers clarified the meanings given to the term control; control means (Rogers, 1956):

- a set of conditions imposed by B on A, so that A's behaviour is predictable when B appears – this is external control;
- a set of conditions of B for A, A agreeing to some of these conditions, so that some effects in A are predictable – this is the external influence;
- a set of conditions of A, so that predictions of A's behaviour can be made – this is self-control or internal control.

Rogers reproaches Skinner's conception for insisting only on the first two meanings, when he explains human behaviour, ignoring the possibility of self-control of personality. This distinction operated by Rogers is essential to the understanding of personality development; external social, cultural, family factors do not have a function of external control, determinative for the personality, but of influence on its evolution. More important is the internal control as knowledge of the potentials and condition of the development of a congruent Ego.

We use an example to clarify the conceptual delimitations:

- external control – if the parents stimulate the need of the child to know, then it will necessarily achieve performance;
- external influence – if the parents do not stimulate the child's need to know, then it is possible that he/she does not achieve performance in intellectual activities;
- internal control – the child and, later, the adult is able to self-regulate the behaviour that is based on the need for knowledge.

Conditioned positive support

Rogers agrees that, from birth, the social environment exerts an important influence on the development of the child's personality. Desirable behaviours are rewarded and likely to recur, while undesirable behaviours are punished and therefore likely to be eliminated. Everything happens according to a conditional reasoning: if the behaviour meets the requirements, it is rewarded, if not, it is sanctioned. This mechanism is called by Rogers conditional support, and can take positively conditioned and negatively conditioned forms. Reward and punishment become conditions for the occurrence of desirable or undesirable behaviours, evaluated according to certain external standards. Over time, these tendencies become internalized, so that the most likely effect is to increase the distance between the real self and the ideal self, the person coming to deny some qualities or defects that belong to the real self, leading an ideal existence.

The personality that will develop will be, ideally, obedient, conformist, but, on a real level, it is a rebellious, revolted, nonconformist one. Rogers says that if the child is forced to be good, obedient, as an adult, these traits can stiffen and become maladaptive.

For this reason, Rogers states the condition of a positive unconditional support, as essential in the development of a balanced, mature personality, in which the discrepancy between the real plan and the ideal one is minimal. Positive unconditional support from parents is equivalent to their care for the development of the child's potential; the updating tendency which is a natural one, in convergence with the unconditional support will ensure a normal process of personal growth. Rogers thus argues for the superiority of internal resources over external influences in personality development. The maladapted or even delinquent personality finds its causality in the person's inability to self-analyse, in the acceptance of his/her own limits rather than in external influences. If freedom is given to human choices, at the same time, the person is transferred full responsibility.

Rogers believes that an essential aspect in the development of congruent personality is the stimulation of the creative potential that each of us has latently. Black (1987) defines the meanings given by Rogers to this concept:

- creativity means the capacity for mental openness to experiences;
- internal control and evaluation localization (see Rotter);
- ability to symbolize and operate with symbols.

The parent's interaction with the child becomes an element with predictive value for the development of creative potential and its transformation into creative capacity.

Self esteem

Lawrence (1996) considers that the ego brings together three aspects: the real self, the ideal self and self-esteem. The real self represents its own physical and mental characteristics, developing during early experiences, especially those in the family space. The ideal self represents everything the individual would like to be or have, expressing an ideal behavioural standard to which personal results relate. In the constitution of the ideal ego, an important part is played by the model, being a result of permanent comparisons with it. Self-esteem is "the personal assessment of the differences between the real and the ideal self" (Lawrence, 1996, p. 5), constituting the affective dimension of the self.

All these aspects can be summarized in three main dimensions of the Ego: cognitive, affective and behavioural. On a pragmatic level, aiming especially at the student-teacher relationship, the Ego develops in three areas: the Real Ego, the Ideal Ego and the self-esteem. According to Lawrence (1996), the ego brings together the three aspects as follows:

Self esteem scheme

EGO

Real Ego ↔ Ideal Ego

Updated person psychologic features

The actualization of the Ego means an optimal functioning of the individual capacities, an adaptive fulfilment of the personal potential. Rogers explains some characteristics of the updated person (in Clonninger, 1993, p. 258):

- openness to experience, the updated person is receptive to both external stimuli and internal requirements; the non-updated personality, having an unrealistic perception of the events, will censor his/her experience through various defence mechanisms;
- self-confidence – the updated person will perceive the needs, feelings, emotions, starting from a premise of trust, without distortions;

- independence of will – refers to the ability to make decisions based on their own judgments and analyses, without contesting a certain external determinism;
- creativity – the ability to combine, recombine and permanently transform the world that has the meaning of adapting to unique conditions and orientation towards the future and possible.

Responding to criticisms of the difficulties in conceptually and operationally defining these characteristics, Rogers argues that subjective experience may be compatible with the scientific approach. In fact, his preoccupations are also known in the study of paranormal phenomena (transcendental experience, extrasensory perception, etc.).

Rogers' theory – general aspects

The concepts explained by Rogers regarding the dynamics and development of the Ego proved to have a real applicative and heuristic value, he being the initiator of some therapeutic techniques that constituted a starting point of some subsequent therapeutic approaches.

His therapy is centred on the subject (“client centred therapy”), Rogers stating 6 necessary and sufficient conditions for the optimal development of a therapeutic relationship (Clonninger, 1993, p. 263):

- interpersonal psychological contact;
- existence of a person in a state of incongruity;
- existence of a congruent and integrated person in the relationship (the therapist);
- positive unconditional support from the therapist;
- empathic understanding of the subject's frame of reference (cognitive and emotional);
- introspective capacity on the part of the subject.

The purpose of any therapeutic process, in terms of Rogers' theory, is to reduce the incongruity, the distance between the real and the ideal self, by restoring the subject's confidence and self-esteem, the changes in his/her personality during therapy being gradual.

11.4 RESEARCH METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

The notions explained by Rogers to describe the personality, despite the criticisms regarding the methodological inconsistency, were operationalized, by different methods, as:

- questionnaires and self-evaluation inventory;
- non-directive conversation method;
- interview technique and Q sorting technique;
- clinical scales;
- systematized observations on behaviour.

The main methods and techniques used in the operational definition of the concepts of Rogers' theory concern:

UPDATING TENDENCY AND PERSONALITY ORIENTATION ASSESSMENT

General tendency assessment

From the consideration of the updating trend as a natural impulse towards growth and maturation, several instruments are currently known to measure this trend. Of these, the "Index of Self Actualization" scale developed by Jones and Crandall (1986) is used today. The test contains 15 items that evaluate 5 aspects of the updating trend:

- Ego autonomy (5 items);
- self-esteem or self-acceptance (3 items);
- emotional expressiveness (2 items);
- trust and responsibility in interpersonal relationships (3 items);
- ability to resolve contradictions (2 items).

This tool allows you to highlight the differences between updated and non-updated people. On a scale of 1 to 6, the subject gradually expresses his/her agreement or disagreement with the content of the 15 items.

For the evaluation of the ego orientation, the inventory of interpersonal orientation (P.O.I.), elaborated by Shostrom (1966), explained in the previous chapter, is known.

Self esteem assessment

For the evaluation of self-esteem, as an emotional experience of incongruity, among the numerous tests that measure this aspect, we retain the inventory of social behaviour ("Social Behaviour Inventory"), developed by Helmreich and Stapp (1974). This test contains 32 items that assess self-esteem expressed in social skills. Based on the investigation of over 600 subjects, the tool allows highlighting interpersonal differences between subjects with high and low self-esteem, respectively. Each item is rated on a scale of 0 to 4 points.

Another test for assessing self-esteem is the one developed by Rosenberg, called the Self Esteem Scale.

Creative potential assessment

Regarding the aspect of creativity as a characteristic of the updated personality, it is evaluated by various tests that allow indirect measurement of creativity, by evaluating factors positively correlated with creative potential, such as flexibility and originality of thinking, resistance to absurdity, tolerance to ambiguity, the ability to manipulate symbols, divergent thinking or the ability to abstract.

In the following, we will list some of the known tests for evaluating creativity (Bejat, 1972, p. 250):

FLUIDITY TESTS

- expression of verbal associations (number of words);
- unusual uses (Guilford technique, number of uses).

FLEXIBILITY TESTS

- spontaneous figurative flexibility (number of perspective switches, Necker cubes, Schroder scale, figure and background, Ruby);
- spontaneous semantic flexibility (number of word categories, within the verbal associative experiment and categories of uses, in the sample of unusual uses);
- figurative adaptive flexibility (test for adapting sorts to criteria changes – WISC Card Sorting Test);
- symbolic adaptive flexibility.

ORIGINALITY TESTS

- prolonged free verbal associative experiment (novelty of associations, for the subject);
- unusual uses (originality and novelty of uses, for the subject).

Openness to experience assessment

Starting from the definition of the qualities attributed by Rogers to the updated personality, namely the openness to experience, including the transcendental experience, Cartwright (1989) elaborates a scale for evaluating the transcendental mental power (T.M.P.S.). His research demonstrates the existence of correlations between the results of subjects in this scale and their results in certain evaluation reports (biographical method) on the ability of mental openness to experience.

Later, Cartwright and May develop a Feelings, Reactions and Beliefs Questionnaire to measure the aspect described by Rogers. This test contains 9 scales, so it measures 9 aspects of personality (Clonninger, 1993, p. 259):

- focusing attention;
- emotional openness in a relationship;
- behavioural self-control;
- feeling of relational discomfort;
- feeling of relational ambivalence;
- compensating the feeling of inferiority;
- self-confidence;
- openness to transcendental experiences;
- spiritual beliefs.

Personality congruence and incongruence assessment

Because the phenomenal field of the person is not subject to direct observations, the method proposed and developed by Rogers for understanding personality, its aspects of congruence and incongruity, is based on the way the subject interprets his/her own experiences. Rogers uses in therapeutic practice the method of nondirective conversation, as a discussion between therapist and subject, a conversation that takes into account certain principles and takes place according to a certain pattern. First, Rogers clarifies the term nondirectivity, which differs from non-intervention, the latter having the meaning of an indifference that sometimes leads to hyper-tolerance and the inability to distinguish desired from unwanted behaviour.

The dialogue technique proposed by Rogers, within this method, refers to following some steps (Mitrofan, 1997, p. 88):

- clarification of the current feelings and thoughts of the subject;
- reformulating the contents of the subject's statements;
- unconditional acceptance manifested verbally and nonverbally;
- active listening which implies the nonverbal support and encouragement of the message;
- echo repetition;
- repeating while changing the tone;
- reformulation by reversing the report;
- use of opening techniques, when the communication is blocked.

Personality change assessment

The main technique used by Rogers to examine the changes in personality, self-perception during therapy, is the Q sorting technique, initially explained by Stevenson (1953) and later enriched by Rogers. The procedure of this technique involves sorting a series of cards on which there are written various statements about aspects of personality, such as: “I am generally a happy person” or “I am upset almost all the time” (Darley, 1991, p. 457).

Subjects are asked to arrange the cards on a continuum, from the least characteristic statement of the person to the strongest characteristic. Sometimes, two sorts of cards are required, one for the real self, the other for the ideal self.

Another method used to capture and evaluate changes in self-perception is the method of semantic differentiation, developed by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1957). Using this technique, the subject must define a concept (“problem”, “experience”, “success”, etc.), on a 7-point scale, the scale containing at the ends polarized adjectives “happy/unhappy”, “active/passive” etc.). In this way, the phenomenal field, personal experiences and their interpretation will be projected in the way of designing the grid. An example of this grid can be the following.

“Group norm obedience”								
	- 3	- 2	- 1	0	+ 1	+ 2	+ 3	
unpleasant								Pleasant
bad								Good
difficult								Easy
weak								Powerful
slow								quick
tense								relaxed
incorrect								correct
superficial								deep

Birch and Hayward (1999) show that studies that have attempted to establish the validity of the Q sorting technique are equivocal as results. There is research that demonstrates the validity of these measurements, but on the other hand, the results obtained by the subjects of this technique do not correlate with the measurements on the congruence and incongruence

of the Ego. Thus, the main criticism of Rogers' method is the lack of solid support for the fidelity and validity of this technique.

11.5 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Although the intention of the humanistic approach was not to highlight interpersonal differences, because central to explaining personality was the notion of uniqueness, Rogers' research and subsequent studies have shown the existence of such differences at the following levels:

Personality updating level

The updating trend is a general-human one; interpersonal differences are manifested in terms of ego orientation, as well as how to update personal potentials.

Following the application of questionnaires and update scales, Shostrom, James and Crandall highlight two categories of people:

- updated people, characterized by high level of self-esteem, autonomy, openness to experience;
- non-updated people, characterized by addiction, reduced contacts with their own experience, feelings of inferiority.

Helmreich (1974), Rosenberg (1976) differentiate between:

- people with high levels of self-esteem (self-confidence, responsibility, emotional balance);
- people with low level of self-esteem, characterized by the tendency to avoid difficult situations, not taking risks, resistance to change, behavioural reluctance (procrastination of the decision-making act due to minimal confidence in success).

Monteil (1989) demonstrates the existence of a relationship between internality (internal locus of control), self-esteem and school performance. Subjects with internal control (dispositional attribution) have a higher level of self-esteem, obtaining superior performance in activities, unlike subjects with external control (situational attribution) which denotes a low level of self-esteem.

Regarding the dimension of creativity, all people have a creative potential, the differences being manifested at the level of fulfilling this potential. Rogers differentiates between:

- creative people (mental flexibility, divergent thinking, originality, etc.);
- people with a lower level of creativity (mental rigidity, routine, convergent thinking, etc.).

Rogers attributes these differences to parental patterns that stimulate or inhibit the development of a child's creative potential.

Bug (1991) demonstrates the existence of interpersonal differences in openness to mental experience, showing that high scores obtained by subjects on the spiritual faith scale correlate positively with their scores on the focus of attention scale.

Ego congruence level

Tansch (1979), after corroborating the results of subjects in tests evaluating congruence and neurotic tendencies, concludes that individuals with a high level of incongruity have predispositions to neurotic symptoms, as opposed to congruent subjects who have these less pronounced manifestations.

Level of changes during therapy

Studying the gradual changes in personality, during the therapeutic sessions, Rogers differentiates 2 types of people:

- people who easily accept the change, open to self-acceptance, who make voluntary efforts to reduce incongruity;
- people who are resistant to change, with weak voluntary mobilization.

11.6 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The main contributions of the humanistic conception on personality can be summarized as follows:

- Biological development – there is a natural tendency towards development, growth and maturation.
- Child psychology – positively conditioned acceptance, by the parent, is likely to increase the incongruity of the child's personality; positive unconditional support is the one that will fulfil the tendency towards personal growth; the development of the child's

personality presupposes the attention of the educational model on the stimulation of the creative potential.

- Mental health – the updated, fulfilled person is open to experiences, free, creative, responsible; mental health means cancelling the difference between the real and the ideal plan of the Self; subject-centred therapy stimulates personal contact with one's own experience, gaining independence.
- Human resources – the relationship between management and subordinates can be assimilated to a therapeutic relationship, having the same three conditions of such a relationship.
- Society and culture – social values and models can disrupt the process of updating the personal growth trend, through a norm that breaks the subject's contact with his/her own experience.

PART SIX

SOCIAL-BEHAVIOURAL VIEW ON PERSONALITY

SOCIAL-BEHAVIOURAL VIEW GENERAL ASPECTS

The social-behavioural perspective has two representatives whose studies, although carried out in different periods, have a lot in common. Mischel and Bandura, making a retrospective of the main approaches to personality, describe three lines of their evolution:

- in terms of personality description, it has evolved from a qualitative to a quantitative description, from the advancement of high generality descriptors (type or size) to descriptive elements with a lower degree of generality (feature or factor);
- regarding the personality dynamics, the transition from the external determinism to the inner one and to the notion of influence is highlighted;
- regarding the development of personality, it, in general, was conceived as a gradual one, influenced either by internal, subjective factors, or by external, objective factors (parental model, social values).

The two theorists note that, in explaining a person's behaviour as an expression of his personality, he uses terms such as "temperament", need for self-realization, "need for power", "energy orientation", "sociocultural modelling", without giving attention to aspects related to the cognitive sphere.

Cognitive variables generally refer to the way information is processed (extraction, evaluation, storage, transformation); thus, the granting of meanings to an aspect of the internal or external reality presupposes an evaluation, in terms of the individual psychic procedurality, of the meaning of the personal behaviour or of another person. Mischel and Bandura consider that this pattern of attribution of meanings plays an important part in deciphering the behaviour and, implicitly, in understanding the development of the personality.

For example, the exclusive study of the physiological aspects of emotions, ignoring their cognitive element, is a limitation of personality theories (Eifert, 1990).

With the research initiated by Mischel and Bandura, the cognitive perspective in understanding the human personality opens up, an approach that aims to study the intellectual processes and their effects in terms of personality. In this sense, Zettle (1990, p. 41) states that: "Cognitive challenge, by appealing to the mechanism of mental processes, provides a much more complex and appropriate understanding of human behaviour than the analysis itself."

Neo-behaviourists also responded to this challenge, although they focus on the behavioural response, they do not deny the existence of internal variables with cognitive connotations (Tolman).

The main objection of personality psychology schools regarding the inclusion of cognitive variables in the study of personality is that they are not subject to direct observations and cannot be manipulated experimentally. For example, Skinner (1987), Lee (1989) challenged the ability of personal cognitive constructions to be causes of behaviour, not giving them a predictive value. Neo-behaviourists will respond to the cognitivist challenge, reinterpreting cognitive control in behavioural terms.

The main assumptions of the social-cognitive perspective on personality are:

- personality structures are constituted within a network of interactions with the social and cultural environment;
- individual behaviour must be interpreted, taking into account the attributes of the specific situation in which it takes place;
- knowledge of the intrinsic mechanism of cognitive processes ensures a more adequate explanation of human behaviour;
- interindividual differences are located at the level of the way in which each person gives a certain meaning to the behaviour, these cognitions being the key to understanding the personality differences;
- changes in the sphere of personality are influenced by changes in cognition.

Another important differentiation between the cognitive theorists of personality and the behaviourists is at the level of the methodology used in the evaluation of personality; social-cognitive research aims at a longitudinal study, of nomothetic type, emphasizing the importance of modelling as a method of influencing behaviour.

Although Mischel and Bandura have similar theoretical orientations and close collaborations, their research and studies have been published independently.

CHAPTER 12

MISCHEL – PERSONALITY SITUATIONAL THEORY

12.1 SITUATIONAL VARIABLE INFLUENCING BEHAVIOUR

Mischel starts from the finding that, in personality theories, “people are characterized by a set of general traits that explain behavioural invariance in different situations; however, applied research does not lead to results that confirm this intuition” (Mischel, 1984, p. 355). Starting from a study conducted together with Peake (1982) which aimed to examine two characteristics, conscientiousness and friendship, on a group of students, they conclude that these features are not immutable, but vary over time. The results of their research highlight a correlation coefficient $r = 0.30$ between the results obtained by the subjects in the self-assessment questionnaires of the two characteristics and behaviour, an insignificant coefficient for supporting the idea of behavioural consistency. They found that these features give rise to different behaviours in different situations.

Controversy concerning personality consistency

Mischel provokes one of the strongest controversies known in the literature, a controversy that had as its major theme, the notion of trait. The target of his critique was the traditionalist theories of personality, in this case Allport’s conception, which attached to the term the attributes of predicativeness and stability. Allport sees personality traits as the cause of consistent behaviour because, he says, what matters in the study of personality are aspects that remain constant in different situations. These aspects will characterize the most appropriate person. In other words, the consistency of the personality was given by the stability of his/her features.

Mischel opposes this view which absolutizes the importance of the trait in describing and understanding personality, considering that (Mischel, 1968, p. 140): “with the possible exception of intelligence, studies could not demonstrate the general consistency of behaviour, regardless of the situation in who is that person; the concept of personality trait as a general predisposition to certain behaviours cannot be practically supported”.

The discrepancy between the theoretical postulate of personality trait and the results of research of everyday behaviours is the paradox of consistency. Although we perceive an individual's behaviour as being, in general, constant in different situations, research conducted in this field does not confirm this. To explain this discrepancy, Mischel cites an example: a person may have honest behaviour (honesty as a trait) in the family, group of friends, or professional relationships, and at the same time manifest dishonest behaviour in paying taxes. Also, children who, in the presence of their parents, are calm have a different (impulsive) behaviour in other situations (group of friends).

Noting these aspects, Mischel makes the following reasoning: if the person changes his/her behaviour from one situation to another and if the trait is the cause of the behaviour, then the traits are not stable structures and therefore cannot best characterize the personality. It follows that, in order to know the personality of an individual, we do not have to follow the constancy in different situations of the behaviour, because the adaptation to the situation denotes precisely our capacity to discriminate the situations.

The conclusion of this reasoning is that situational variables have the strongest effect on behaviour and personality. The behaviour of the person in a certain situation depends on the positive or negative reinforcements (reward/punishment) that he/she receives; the constancy of the behaviour will be related to the effects it produces on a personal or social level. If different situations produce different effects, then the adaptive response varies from situation to situation.

For example, a child who is repeatedly rewarded for his verbal behaviour will have this behaviour in a variety of situations; if the same child is punished for his verbal behaviour, then he will have a weak manifestation of it.

After proving theoretically and experimentally the impossibility of defining personality consistency by trait, Mischel must answer another question: how can personality consistency be explained and, ultimately, how

an individual's personality can be understood, if his/her behaviour varies according to the situation? He answers this question by introducing the notion of temporal consistency. A behaviour is consistent not in different situations, but in time and only in similar situations.

Returning to the two points of view, that of traditional theories (constant behaviour in different situations) and that of Mischel (constant behaviour over time, in similar situations), we will give an example of interpreting a behaviour, in terms of the two perspectives:

- according to the situational consistency, X is anxious (anxiety as a trait) if he/she manifests this behavioural characteristic in as different situations as possible (group relations, intimate relations, society, etc.),
- according to the temporal consistency, X is anxious, if he/she manifests in this way only in intimate situations, but this makes it constant over time.

This dispute, which marked for a long time the way of thinking about the personality, registered many supporters and detractors, on both sides. Hoffman (1985), trying to reconcile the two conceptions, considers that traits are the most appropriate descriptive elements, when analysing the behaviour of others, while the situation is activated as an explanatory element, when referring to their own behaviour. This idea was later demonstrated, through research in the field of social cognition, in the form of the theory of causal attribution to one's own behaviour and the behaviour of other people, in this context the differences being much more finely highlighted.

Social behaviour predictability model

Mischel, through his situationist theory of personality, shifts the emphasis from personal characteristics to those of the situation, laying the foundations of a model that demonstrates the connection between traits and behaviour.

The model of the predictability of social behaviour (Clonninger, 1993, p. 377-378) was developed by Wright and Mischel (1987), studying aggression as a personality trait. The hypothesis from which this study starts is that aggression influences behaviour only under certain conditions, so it cannot be a personality trait, in the way that Allport characterizes, to determine aggressive behaviour, regardless of the situation. However, these

conditions had to be explained theoretically. The two researchers delimited the conditions that facilitate the occurrence of aggressive behaviour (measured by the number of aggressive acts, at the physical or verbal level) to two main situations:

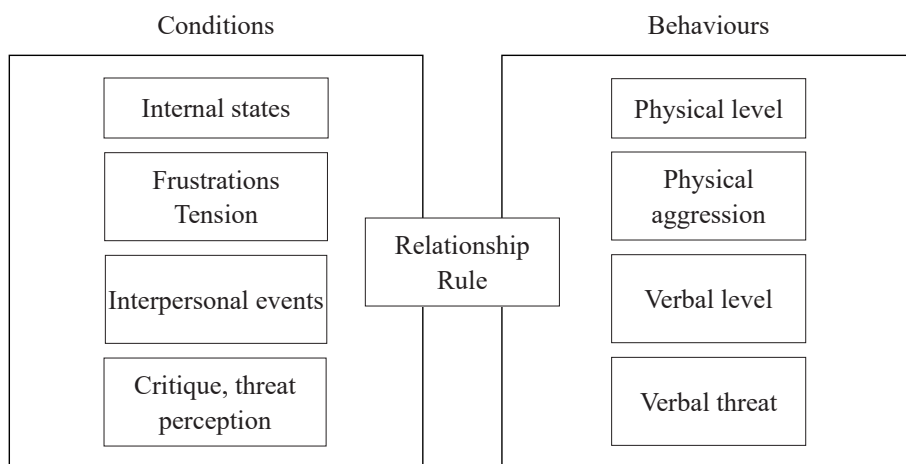
- inducing frustration, by prohibiting access to the category of desirable objects;
- situation of criticism and threat.

Under these conditions, people with the dominant trait of aggression will have a different behaviour from those in whose picture this trait does not occupy a central position. In other conditions, people who may be characterized by the trait of aggression may not exhibit aggressive behaviour.

All these remarks are condensed into a statement, such as: “A has the behaviour X, if Y”. Mischel also states that the perception of traits and the understanding of personality must be based on the knowledge of the most varied situations in which they manifest themselves.

There have been some criticisms of situational personality modelling, most of which raise the following questions: if behaviour varies with changes in situational parameters, then behavioural predictions would be impossible because it cancels out the existence of invariable personality structures.

Their research was conducted on a group of children with social adjustment problems, “categorized” as aggressive and impulsive, finding that these children, in conditions different from those previously reported, do not show aggressive behaviour. Wright and Mischel give an explanatory model of how aggressive behaviour is provoked under certain conditions:



Mischel considers that situational variations are not a problem for understanding personality, as long as the individual's ability to discriminate between different situations is a characteristic of the adapted person. However, an important clarification must be made: the person's behaviour changes not from one particular situation to another, but within the same type of situation, it remains constant. Temporal consistency means constant behaviour over time, in similar situations.

In order to "simplify" the information environment, we unify several situations in a prototype. A prototype is a typical example of a category; the prototype situation will render the general and essential characteristics of several situations, i.e. it will be representative. Depending on their similarity to the prototype, the behaviours are assimilated as belonging to a certain class. Under these conditions, a particular behaviour will be related to the prototype, borrowing its characteristics. For example, we say about a person, observing the behaviour, that he/she is a typical introvert, because he/she has all the properties of the prototype.

Subsequent research on this issue addresses the solution of the "middle line", showing the need for a more refined analysis to understand when people behave consistently and when they discriminate between situations. Even Mischel eventually turned to an intermediate position, concluding that "only the situation cannot fully explain an individual's complex behaviour" (Mischel, in Birch & Hayward, 1999, p. 80).

12.2 PERSONAL VARIABLES INFLUENCING BEHAVIOUR

Mischel, by supporting the situational consistency of the personality, failed to explain why, however, two people in the same situation have different behaviours. If the situation shapes the personality, and the behaviour is the expression of the personality, how is this difference scientifically justified?

To solve the dilemma, Mischel introduces the notion of personal variables, referring to those aspects that vary from one person to another and that will determine behaviour. Personal variables do not have the meaning of stable and generalized personality structures, as traits are conceived. From the multitude of personal variables, Mischel selects those of a cognitive nature, considering the human capacity to process information as central in explaining behavioural differences in the same situation. These are called cognitive-social variables, because they derive from cognitive

processes (perception, thinking, memory, combinatory) and develop in a process of social learning.

From this perspective, the differences between the behaviours of two people, who are in the same situation, are due to the commissioning of personal cognitive variables. These personal variables refer to information encoding strategies, personal constructs, competencies and expectations, giving meaning to a stimulus, the system of self-regulation and action planning. We will refer briefly to these cognitive variables.

Encoding strategies and personal constructs

Encoding strategies refer to the totality of concepts used in the description of situations and events, to the ways in which the human individual encodes information about reality. Because these modalities vary from person to person, encoding strategies may explain the different adaptive response in the same situation.

Although the concept of personal construct is explained in detail in Kelly's theory, it also appears as a cognitive variable in Mischel's conception. The personal construct brings together the ways in which a person perceives, understands, predicts and controls reality. In a general sense, it refers to the way we represent our personal and another person's behaviour, as well as its effects. These cognitive variables are transparent in the language used by people when describing different behaviours.

Competences

In a broad sense, the concept of competence refers to a person's ability to perform a certain task. There are perceptual skills (observational spirit), cognitive (resolving, inferential, deductive, inductive, mnemonic, etc.) that will influence the behavioural response of the subject in a given situation, generating different behaviours in similar situations. Mednick and Wandersman (1986) consider that these personal variables have stability in time and situation.

Expectations

The behaviour of the individual in a situation depends not only on the tools of knowledge (skills) available, but also on personal expectations regarding the results of this behaviour. Mischel states that expectations

determine individual performance, knowing that a positive expectation increases the chances of success, while a negative one decreases these chances. Mischel and Zeiss (1975) identify 3 types of expectations:

- personal expectations regarding the consequences of a behaviour (what will happen if X has Y behaviour);
- personal expectations regarding the development of a behaviour;
- expectations regarding one's own ability to obtain high-performance results in a specific situation.

The latter are called Self Efficacy Expectancies, a concept that will occupy a central position in Bandura's theory.

Stimulus significance granting

This personal variable refers to the cognitive evaluation of a stimulus that can be perceived as a reward or punishment. This stimulus is evaluated as having a rewarding value for one person and a punitive one for another person.

Self-regulation and planning system

This variable occupies a central place in Mischel's theory that states that the individual himself/herself has the most accurate picture of his own behaviour, based on self-knowledge. Through the regulation and planning system, we control our own actions and we can also change the environment. One of the most important functions of this system is to ensure resistance to reward delay.

Delaying the reward, involving the person's ability to expect a future reward for present actions, is an adaptive skill that is grounded in childhood. Research shows that this ability is related to the power of the Ego (see Cattell), being associated with resistance to temptation and the preference for strong but future rewards instead of insignificant but immediate ones.

12.3 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of personality development is situational adaptation. Peake (1985) notes that the two situations – internal and external variables – that exert an influence on behaviour are equally validated in reality, so extreme theoretical and methodological positions are inadequate in explaining personality evolution. The most coherent way of conceiving its development is summarized in the statement that, in determining behaviour, personality

(personal variables) interact with the situation. It is interesting to note that both Mischel and Allport finally agree with the idea of the interaction between internal variables and external factors when explaining personality development. The interaction between internal, subjective and environmental aspects provides a surplus of information about personality than the two aspects, considered separately, can do.

Obviously, some situations are so significant that they affect us all in a similar way (for example, career choice). These are called strong situations. Other situations, on the other hand, have insignificant effects on personal behaviour, so that, in this situation, cognitive and motivational variables speak for themselves, causing certain interpersonal differences. These are called weak situations. If the strong situations highlight the influence of the environment, the weak ones facilitate the experimentation of some internal, personal particularities.

Pervin and Lewis (1978) consider that the study of personality development must be interested not only in the subjective particularities and situational parameters, but especially in the relationship between the two aspects. Unfortunately, many of these studies cannot demonstrate the complex kind of this interdependence.

Hampson (1988, in Birch, 1999, p. 82) considers that interaction is a paradoxical solution to the problem of personality consistency, since it gives equal importance to both personality traits and situational variables.

12.4 RESEARCH METHODS

In order to evaluate the influence of situational and personal variables on personality development, a series of researches and studies were performed that used various methods, among which the most important are:

- natural and laboratory experiments;
- mathematical analysis of some variables;
- self-assessment reports;
- systematized observations.

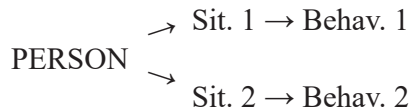
By applying these methods, the following aspects were measured:

Situation influence on personality and behaviour

Hartshorne and May provoke an experimental situation in which a group of children are put in different situations in which they have the possibility of dishonest behaviour, without being detected. For example,

they were offered money or sweets if they cleaned their home and school park. In this way, the experimenters manipulated the situation of manifestation of the behaviour, measuring the number of honest and dishonest behaviours. The results show that the subjects' behaviour was specific to the situation: in one situation, the same child violated the laws, so that in another situation, to show honest behaviour (behaves honestly at home, instead has a behaviour at school that is not dominated by this structure).

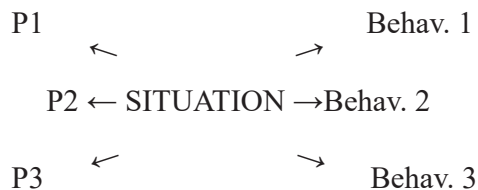
This experiment allowed to highlight the fact that the person selects the situations, and his behaviour is influenced by them. This experiment was followed by similar ones. Mischel (1968, 1970) created different situations for subjects in which they had the opportunity to demonstrate a certain behaviour determined by a trait, measuring the quality and quantity of behavioural acts. Previously, subjects were surveyed, through a personality inventory, to establish the dominant trait (for example, aggression). The experimental situation was manipulated and the behavioural response was evaluated. The results showed that people with the same dominant trait in the personality picture, put in different situations, had different behaviours. The experimental design used was of the type:



The difficulty of these experiments consisted in the clear and precise description of the situations, in the control of the subject's answer and in the explanation of the fact that different situations produce different behavioural responses, in the same person.

Personal variable influence on behaviour

To measure this influence, experimental situations were used in which several subjects, with different dominant traits, had different behaviours in the same situation. The experimental design was of the type:



Personal constructs and encoding strategies

Bem and Allen (1974) evaluate the influence of strategies for gathering information about reality, as well as personal constructs on the behaviour of the subject in a certain situation. Using self-assessment reports on these issues, the researchers show that people are able to identify those traits that remain constant in the situation, as well as those that vary from one situation to another.

Mischel (1965) demonstrates that an individual's successful behaviour can be predictable, starting from the evaluation of constructs and strategies, through personality questionnaires, such as the manifest anxiety scale or Cattell 16 PF.

Competences

Mednick (1986), studying a group of activity coordinators, measures the influence of competencies or abilities on situational behaviour, concluding that some of the skills that ensure success in a leadership activity are the ability to communicate and persuade (arguing ideas). Regarding the control over one's own cognitive competencies, most of the experiments performed in this area show that there is the possibility of behavioural predictions in a specific situation.

Expectations

The evaluation of expectations as a variable that influences the behaviour in a given situation is also done experimentally. The subject is asked to evaluate performance in a certain future task (problem solving, reasoning, mnemonic task); after the end of the test, the individual results obtained are quantified. By comparing them with the expected results of the subject, it is evaluated to what extent the expectation of success or failure influences the situational behaviour.

Research in the field of education (Monteil, 1990) shows that expectation influences behaviour, by activating motivational, cognitive and emotional processes or directly, by the effect on the purpose of performance. Thus, two people with different expectations about their own performance will have different results in the same task.

Reward delaying

Delayed gratification is a central aspect of the self-control and monitoring system, with an influence on the person's situational behaviour.

This aspect has been studied in repeated experimental research (Mischel, 1974; Dawson and Wilson, 1985). Subjects were put in two situations: one in which they received an insignificant but immediate reward, and another in which the behaviour was rewarded more strongly, but later. By manipulating the situation and teaching the subjects the waiting strategies, the researchers identified the aspects that facilitate the delay of gratification. The results of these studies show that waiting is more difficult if the reward is visible and easier if the reward is only represented or imagined.

Personality development assessment

Personality development is subject to both personal variables (constructs, expectations, strategies) and situational factors.

The personality-situation interaction is evaluated by experimental studies by Mischel, Ebbesen and Zeiss (1974, 1976). The design was as follows (Clonninger, 1993, p. 384): two personality traits were studied, the subject's sensitivity as an ability to be aware of his/her own response to a situation (task) and repression, the tendency to avoid information about his/her own responsibility for a task. They worked with two groups of subjects, sensitive and repressive (previously tested by a specific test that evaluated these traits) who were given a specific task. Each group was tested for expectations (they were told to expect a consecutive test) and for non-expectations (they were told it was the only task they received). The dependent variable was the time in which these groups examined their performance, their own results, and their responsibility for the task.

It was found that the "repressive" gave more time to examine this information, compared to the "sensitive", in the condition of non-expectancy, when they knew that the task would not be followed by another. In terms of expectation, the time given by the two groups to examine these issues was relatively the same. Through this experiment, they demonstrate that the behavioural response of the individual depends on both the action of internal and external factors.

Another study on the influence of these factors on behaviour is conducted by McCord and Wakefield (1981). Using also an experimental research, they demonstrated that the extra-version/introversion dimension of the personality interacts with the type of situation, in the elaboration of the behavioural response. The manipulated variable, in this case, was the type of situation – rewarding, respectively punitive. The results show that there are interpersonal differences in behaviour between introverts and extroverts in a reward or punishment situation.

12.5 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Using, in most cases, experimental situations and systematized observations on behaviour in certain situations, the studies highlight interpersonal differences at the following levels:

Personal cognitive variable level

In the same situation, there are behavioural differences between two people, due to:

- personal constructs – there are people who, based on their own experiences, build positive checklists to give meaning to a situation and people who give negative meaning to the same situation, due to a system of constructs of negative predominance;
- planning and control system – there are differences between individuals who have superior skills to plan their own actions and behavioural response in a given situation and individuals who record average or lower results on this issue; there is also a distinction between people who have developed reward waiting strategies and those who prefer inconsistent but immediate rewards. Research has shown a positive correlation between the ability to delay reward, ego power, and resistance to frustration;
- personal expectations – research has differentiated between people with positive expectations (confidence in their own ability to achieve performance) and people with predominantly negative expectations (low self-esteem, low control over behaviour and its effects).

Personality development level

In addition to the differences operated by Mischel and Zeiss, in experimental research, between sensitive and repressive, at the level of personality/situation interaction, studies show that (Birch & Hayward, 1999, p. 81):

- introverts achieve superior performance in arithmetic tasks (numerical calculation, mathematical reasoning), in situations where a weak form of punishment predominates;
- extroverts obtain superior performances in the arithmetic tasks (numerical calculation, mathematical reasoning), in the situations in which the reward predominates.

Because these are correlational studies, it cannot be said that the variables manipulated (punishment/reward) are causes of different behaviours. It is interesting to test the hypothesis according to which the predominantly introverted personality structure is more strongly motivated by aversive stimuli, compared to extroverted structures that are superiorly motivated by the application of rewards.

Birch and Hayward present a study by Moos (1969) that attempts to assess the influence of personal and situational factors on behaviour, marking certain interpersonal differences. A group of people with mental problems was subjected to observation in three different situations, their behaviour being recorded. Moos finds that situational factors account for 10% of behavioural variations, while the share of personal factors is 12%. He shows that the interaction of situational factors – personal factors (psychic qualities) is responsible for 12% of interpersonal differences.

Many of these studies cannot accurately capture the extremely complex kind of this interaction.

12.6 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The situationist theory proposed by Mischel, in order to explain the structure and evolution of personality, develops important concepts in various fields:

- Developmental psychology – the development of the child's personality involves the dynamic interaction between dispositional, internal and situational factors; the consistency of the personality is not expressed in constant behaviours in different situations, but in constant behaviours in time, in similar situations.
- Human resources – personal cognitive variables (skills, expectations) are an important predictive factor in communication, selection of negotiation techniques, selection of staff, etc.
- Mental health – the system of self-regulation and planning of actions through which the person controls and monitors behaviours is a premise of personality balance.

CHAPTER 13

BANDURA – OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING THEORY

13.1 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION

Bandura's theory of personality is limited to the social-cognitive perspective, advancing, in fact, the same assumptions as those proposed by Mischel, according to which:

- personality development is the expression of the interaction between internal and external factors;
- cognitive processes and functions (perceptual selectivity, encoding, information processing and transformation) represent the basis of interpersonal differences, at the behavioural level;
- motivational impulse that ensures the dynamics of the personality are the expectations of the subject regarding the future development of a behaviour, its social and personal effects, as well as the appreciation of the results of the activities;
- personality development is based on the human individual's ability to learn, as an assimilation of information, schemes and operating strategies, as training and consolidation of attitudes, an activity that takes place at any age, depending on certain conditions.

In addition to these general statements, the theories of Mischel and Bandura will be differentiated, the perspective proposed by the latter taking specific notes, both conceptually and methodologically. If Mischel "targets" as a subject of controversy the perspective of features, especially Allport's early vision, Bandura starts, in explaining his notions, from Dollard and Miller's theory of personality.

Dollard considers that the most appropriate description of personality is that of a learning process: a behaviour (personality expression) develops as a result of associations (operant conditioning) between stimulus and reward. If the behaviour is repeatedly rewarded, it tends to stabilize; if associated with an aversive stimulus, it tends to be eliminated. In any case, however, learning is achieved only if the answer is reinforced.

Bandura starts from the fact that people learn by observing the behaviour of other people, in which case learning occurs even in the absence of a reward. He introduces the distinction between learning and performance, saying that if performance, in order to be repeated, requires a reward, on the other hand, that reward is not always necessary for learning.

Behavioural changes and, implicitly, those on the level of personality, result from the exposure of the individual to the behaviour of a certain model. Thus, the description of the personality and the changes that take place on this plan is made in terms of an observational learning process. Bandura defines this type of learning as follows (1965, p. 3): “new answers are acquired or the subject’s existing answers are modified, as an effect of observing another person’s behaviour and its consequences”.

In general, the observation of the behaviour of competent and socialized adults determines, in the child, the development of socially desirable behaviours. If, until now, personality development involved the direct action of external or internal factors on behaviour, the perspective of personality development by observing the behaviour of a social actor, as well as the mental processes involved in this learning, was completely ignored.

13.2 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Child personality modelling

The purpose of personality development is to adapt individual behaviour to different social situations, an adaptation that has the significance of gaining independence on a personal level. Bandura believes that the fundamental process involved in socialization is behavioural modelling.

A model is a certain standard of conduct that can be achieved. Also, under the term model there is represented the person whose behaviour is observed and imitated. Modelling is conceptualized as a strategy for producing personality changes, with considerable behavioural effects. In this explanatory context, the interpretation of the personality aims at the

qualitative analysis of the models to which the respective person was exposed. The main effects of the modelling process are the increase of discrimination capacity, motivational effects or changes in part and social status.

An important idea is that modeling is an ongoing process, specific not only to the child, but also to adults with socially maladapted behaviors that require restructuring.

Bandura, through initiated research, with children as a segment of the population, explains the part of modeling in the development of the child's personality and the manifestation of behavioral differences at this level.

As an intrinsic functional mechanism, modeling is based on the child's ability to identify with parental figures. In terms of modeling potential, parents fall into two categories (Clonninger, 1993):

- power-based models (controls reward);
- status-based models (who, in turn, receive rewards or recognition).

The causes of children's identification with these two types of models are related to the strength or status of the model. The experimental research conducted by Bandura concludes that there is a tendency to identify children with the power-based model and less with the status-based one; in other words, children more often imitate the behavior of the first model than the second. Bandura interprets these results as follows (Bandura & Ross, 1963): social variables, such as the distribution of power in the family constellation, can have a significant influence on the formation of gender-specific behavior and, at the same time, on the attribution of certain qualities. In this case, observational learning is not rewarded directly, but indirectly, by observing the effects of model behavior.

Subsequent research conducted by Bandura and Menlove (1967, 1970) shows that the influence on the development of the child's personality is held not only by adult models, but also by the group of pairs. They are surprised to find that adults with a lower level of education offer models that are imitated much more frequently than adult models with a higher level of education.

Also, the models that a society promotes, at some point, through the media, will be largely imitated and internalized by children. This is the particular case of the aggression that Bandura considers to be a behavior learned through observation.

Adult personality modelling

Bandura's and subsequent research supports the idea of continuity and permanence of personality modeling. This process also takes place at the level of the adult personality, learning the behavior by observing and imitating the model being necessary when the aim is to eliminate a maladaptive behavior or to obtain efficient behaviors (Howell, Nocks, 1990).

Bandura analyzes behavioral learning, by studying the involvement of 4 fundamental processes, their research allowing a more accurate prediction of modeling results.

The four psychic functions predominantly involved in observational learning are attentional function, retention processes, motor reproduction, and motivational processes.

Attentional support

Observing a model consists in consciously and intentionally following his/her behavior, with a certain purpose. Observation cannot be made in the absence of the individual's ability to actively and selectively orient his/her energy towards the model, i.e. in the absence of attentional mechanisms. These mechanisms allow perceptual selection, analysis of action segments, sensing the effects of model behavior. At this level the following skills are required (Bandura, 1986, p. 54):

MODEL QUALITIES	OBSERVER QUALITIES
affective valence	sensorial abilities
attentional mobility	excitability level
complexity	motivation
functional valence	perceptive set
distributivism	previous experience

Retention processes

The second process involved in shaping adult behavior and personality is memory. It is necessary not only to observe the documents, to mobilize attention, but also to store and retain the observed data, in order to be updated, when the context requires it. The behavior of the model will be memorized. The psychological qualities claimed in the retention of the observed behaviors are:

- symbolic coding;
- cognitive organization;
- updating the information;
- motor update.

Motor reproduction processes

Based on the recording of the model's information and movements in the observer's memory system, he/she will reproduce all the model's actions and acts when he/she is in a similar situation. Complex behaviors can be reproduced by combining the components of the response. The behavior of the model will be observed, memorized and reproduced by the observer, which will mimic the adaptive behavior. If the observer achieves performance in that situation, by reproducing the model, the feed-back given by these results will strengthen his/her future actions. The most important aspects involved in these processes are:

- physical skills;
- accuracy of behavioral control;
- ability to mentally represent movements.

Motivational processes

All previous functions and processes – attention, memory and reproduction – do not work at optimal parameters, if there is a lack of dynamic personality support, namely motivation. The internal stimuli that constitute the motivational sphere drive and determine the energetic orientation, the coding of the information and their updating. Without motivational support we cannot talk about the actual learning of a behavior. The motivation can be direct, the generating source being equivalent to the person's needs or indirect, the generating source being outside the person. Bandura believes that the human individual is able to internalize motivation, developing his/her system of regulation and control of his/her own behavior. Aspects that are taken into account at this level are:

- external reinforcers;
- reinforcement by observing the consequences of the behavior;
- self-regulation.

Mutual determinism

In previous theories, it has been noted how different psychological currents describe differently the development of personality, emphasizing the causes of changes in its sphere. If Allport considered that trait is the cause of behavior, and personality development is under the predominant influence of internal causes, and Mischel proposed the situationist conception, Bandura (1987) proposes the term reciprocal determinism, to explain personality development.

The significance of this concept is that between trait, environment and behavior there are links of interdependence, being possible, at this level, all directions of causal connections. Finally, Allport and Mischel resolve the “dispute” by accepting interactionism: personality development is equivalent to the interaction between internal, subjective, and external aspects. Here comes the main distinction between Mischel and Bandura – if Mischel considers behavior (C) as an effect of the interaction between personality (P) and environment (M), Bandura argues that behavior, in turn, acts on personality and environment. These functional interactions can be represented as follows:

$$P \rightarrow C \rightarrow M$$

Interactionism

$$P \leftrightarrow C \leftrightarrow M \leftrightarrow$$

Mutual determinism

According to mutual determinism, behavior can cause changes in the environment and personality. The whole process of observational or modeling learning is based on the significance of this concept.

Larsen (1985) considers that personality influences the situation, because people “choose” situations differently, depending on personality traits. In this case, the mutual influences explain the behavioral consistency and, implicitly, the personality.

Clonninger (1993, p. 394), referring to Bandura’s vision of personality development, states that: “One of the novelty elements of this model is the consideration of individual behavior as a cause, not only as an effect of personality or environmental action; sometimes the behavior itself predicts other behaviors, much better than the personality or situation would.”

13.3 EXPECTATION PART IN PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Expectation, in a broad sense, is “the subjective probability or the explanatory hypothesis regarding the appearance of a result, as a result of a certain behavior” (Dafinoiu, 1998, p. 67). Reber (1985, p. 256) defines expectation as an internal state, attitude, or set by which the person anticipates a particular event. The main meanings given to this concept are:

- anticipating a behavior;
- emotional state related to this anticipation.

Bandura highlights the particularly important part of expectations in observational learning, as a factor that actively intervenes in the modeling and development of personality. As Mischel pointed out, a person’s expectations can be related to three levels:

- the level of consequences of achieving a behavior, effects felt socially and personally;
- the level of behavior development;
- the level of the subject’s beliefs in his/her own performance.

Bandura explains this last level as having an important weight in the development of personality and obtaining an adaptive behavior. Research shows that expectations are the result of observational or conditioned learning. We have expectations regarding the relationship between a behavior and its effects, in the sense of expecting that a certain event – stimulus anticipates the occurrence of another event – stimulus.

Self-efficiency concept

Self-efficacy refers to the person’s belief that he/she can organize and execute a certain course of action (Bandura, 1980).

People with high levels of self-efficacy are confident in their personal abilities to succeed in an activity. For example, a student with a high level of self-efficacy is more likely to succeed in academic activities and to persevere in this behavior, compared to students whose beliefs in their own abilities to achieve superior results are weak (Brown, 1991).

Bandura draws attention to the fact that a subject may manifest a higher level of self-efficacy in a certain behavior or situation and a low level in other situations. For example, a person has the expectation of success in the profession, but he has the expectation of failure in his personal life.

This example underlies the distinction between global self-efficacy (belief in success / failure in most situations) and that specific to a particular situation.

The concept of self-efficacy, developed by Bandura, intervenes as an important operator in various fields – education, health, psychotherapy, human resources. For example, in the field of psychotherapy, Bandura considers that the purpose of a therapy is to increase self-efficacy, the notion being loaded with meaning and utility in the therapy of phobias or eating disorders. Self-efficacy acts, in these conditions, as a motivational factor that orients the person towards achieving the proposed goals, towards delimiting the interests.

Students with high self-efficacy get better results than those with low levels; also, teachers' beliefs in their own efficiency can produce positive changes in the student's belief in achieving good results.

The human individual, learning from observing a behavior and its effects, will reproduce the observed behavior only if he/she has the expectation of success. The notion of self-efficacy highlights the regulatory part of expectations.

Bandura explains the mechanism of action of efficiency not only at the individual level, but also at the group level. When the group has the faith to obtain a performance or performance in a field, we speak of collective efficiency. The model of mutual determinism suggests that personal and collective efficiency will have effects on behavior and situation.

The next question that arises is whether self-efficacy develops in a process. Research conducted in the field of developmental psychology (Skinner, 1985; Chapman, 1988) shows that in childhood the foundations are laid for the further development of control over their own actions, starting from the observation of their results, in different conditions.

Chapman and Bates (1988) show that between the ages of 9 and 12 there are differences between children, in terms of faith in their own ability to achieve performance.

13.4 RESEARCH METHODS

The main methods by which the concepts explained by Bandura are measured are the experiment and the systematized observation of the behavior. These methods address the following issues:

Child personality modelling

Bandura investigates the part of modeling in the development of the child's personality through a series of laboratory investigations on a variety of behaviors, his conclusions generally aiming at the idea that the child's exposure to the behavior of a model has important effects on the evolution of his personality.

In a laboratory experiment, Bandura exposed a group of children, boys and girls, to the behavior of a model. The manipulated variable is the type of model: based on power (controls the reward) and status (receives rewards). The children observed the behavior of the two models, after which they were taken to a room with toys, noting their playful behavior. The subjects' response was operationalized by the number and type of verbal and motor acts. The results show that, regardless of the sex of the observer and the model, there is a tendency to predominantly imitate the behavior of the power-based model and less of the status-based one.

- In another study, Bandura and Whalen (1966) expose a group of children, aged between 8 and 11 years, to models that compensate themselves for obtaining results in a task, in a differentiated way: the first model, for superior performance, the second for average results, and the last model for sub-average results. Also, a group of children were not exposed to the behavior of any model. At a later stage of the experiment, the children themselves realized the behaviors initially performed by the models. It was found that the standards of rewards that each child gives to himself varied according to the behavior of the model. The conclusion of the study was that even the most permissive model (reward for sub-average results) induces subjects to higher self-reward standards than the group of children who did not observe any other model.
- In another experimental investigation, Bandura et al. (1973) studied the process by which children learn aggressive behaviors by exposing them to the adult model. The first group of subjects (the experimental group), between 3 and 5 years old, watched a film in which adults provoked aggressive acts on some objects. The control group included children of the same age who were not exposed to aggressive behavior patterns. Subsequently, the two groups of children were taken to a room with toys, the researchers recording the number of their aggressive acts, in the game with the dolls. It was found that the first group tended to exhibit aggressive playful

behavior, compared to the control group in which the number of such behaviors was much smaller.

Starting from these experiments, a series of researches were subsequently initiated that tested the hypothesis according to which the models of aggressive behavior promoted by television influence the aggressive behavior of the child. Thus, we went from laboratory experiments to natural ones, the results showing that both in “artificial” conditions and in real life, aggressive behavior is learned by observing a similar behavior of adults.

Adult personality modelling

The methods applied for the evaluation of the changes occurred in terms of personality development of adults who learned an observed behavior are in the same area of experiments and systematized observation, highlighting many interpersonal differences.

Self-efficiency measurement

In order to measure the level of self-efficiency, i.e. the personal expectations regarding the fulfillment of a task, experimental studies were used, but scales were also developed to measure this aspect. In 1984, Gibson developed the Teachers’ Efficacy Scale (T.E.S.), which measures two aspects:

- responsibility for one’s own behavior;
- confidence in obtaining performances in the field of teaching activity.

The scale contains 30 items that assess the degree of personal efficiency or conviction of the subject in successfully performing a behavior. Each statement is measured on a scale of 1 (strong disagreement) to 6 (strong agreement). The results highlight two categories of people, with high and low self-efficacy.

Another method of assessing self-efficacy is the Main Self Efficacy Instrument (P.S.E.I.), developed by Hillman (1986). The tool contains 32 items, 16 presenting positive situations (success) and 16, situations of opposite behavior (failure). Subjects must choose 1 of 4 possible answers: the first to make a personal attribution of success, the second a situational attribution of success, the third a personal attribution of failure, and the last a situational attribution of failure. It is noted that this tool relates, in fact, self-efficiency to the locus of control (internal/external), highlighting interpersonal differences.

Other tools for assessing faith in one's own ability to achieve performance in particular tasks (profession) have been built, such as the Medical Self Efficacy Scale (MSES) developed by Miller and Topping, 1990). By applying this tool to a randomly selected population of average medical staff, the researchers found that self-efficacy is correlated with some aspects of personality, such as self-esteem, decision-making independence, and personal experience.

Bandura and Cervana (1986) initiate an experimental research that aims at self-efficiency and self-evaluation, provided that the subjects have a feed-back of the results obtained. Subjects divided into two groups are given a task to solve; after completing the task, group I is communicated the results obtained, while the other group has no control over them. Subjects are given a second task and are asked to anticipate the results they will achieve.

The researchers note that most of the subjects who had control over the previous results have the expectation of success for the next task, compared to the subjects of the second group who do not expect good results in the subsequent task. The conclusion of this study is that self-efficacy is influenced by control over performance.

13.5 INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Experimental and non-experimental research conducted in order to assess the modeling of child and adult personality and measure self-efficacy has highlighted interpersonal differences at the following levels:

Adult-personality-modelling-implied psychic process and function level

Bandura analyzes, through his studies, the process of learning by adults of some observed behaviors, at the level of the 4 psychological functions – attention, memory, motor reproduction and motivational processes.

Attention level

Studies show the existence of interpersonal differences in the ability to actively and selectively direct energy to observe the behavior of a model. Because observation is a conscious, voluntary perception, it increases its quality by involving attentional mechanisms. It was found that people differ depending on:

- the volume of attention as the number of elements they can include simultaneously, in the field of attention (how many behavioral acts they observe in a model);
- the stability of the attention as a persistence in time of the attention on the conduct of the model that will be, later, imitated;
- the concentration of attention as well as the capacity of the subject to resist the action of some disturbing factors, during the observation of the behavioral act.

The level of volume, stability and concentration of attention will influence the modeling of adult behavior.

Memory process level

There are interpersonal differences in the encoding of information, some people having a higher encoding capacity (volume, linking behavioral acts in actions, etc.), others lower. From a qualitative point of view, some people memorize information better if it is visually encoded, while others remember behaviors better if they are verbally encoded.

Behavioral act motor reproduction level

There are interpersonal differences in the updating of stored information, differentiating between people with faithful and prompt updating and people with vague and delayed motor updating.

Motivational process level

At this level, there are interpersonal differences regarding the needs, interests or reasons that guide and energize the observational behavior.

Self-efficiency level

Brown and Lent (1991) demonstrate differences in self-confidence in student performance: students with high self-efficacy show greater perseverance in academic tasks and perform better in this area compared to students whose performance is level of self-efficacy is lower.

In a correlational study on personal efficiency and the location of control (L.O.C.), Snyder (1992) shows that people with high self-efficacy have an internal L.O.C., compared to people with a low level of self-efficacy which have an external L.O.C.

Hill and Smith (1987, 1989), conducting a study on a group of subjects who anticipated performance in a computer task, conclude that those who expect success achieve higher performance than those who expect failure.

Bandura and Cervone (1986) show that subjects who receive control of outcomes in certain tasks have a higher level of self-efficacy on outcomes in future tasks compared to those who do not have this control.

Poole and Evans (1990) demonstrate the existence of intersex differences in self-efficacy. In general, men have a higher level of self-efficacy in most tasks compared to female subjects. Male adolescent subjects have a stronger belief in their ability to cope with problems, in their academic abilities, and in general in the outcomes of their behavior compared to female adolescent subjects.

Long (1989) shows that women who score high on the masculinity dimension of Bem's inventory of sexual parts also have high scores on self-efficacy compared to women who score low on the masculinity scale. Long's studies suggest a correlation that should not be ignored between masculinity and self-efficacy.

Evans (1989) highlights differences between groups, regarding the collective efficiency, some groups being confident in obtaining some performances, others having low expectations regarding the results obtained in an activity.

All these studies, through the interpersonal differences they highlight, converge towards the same conclusion: increased efficiency entails the expectation of success that will generate perseverance in the face of the problematic situation, and this, in turn, will lead to success, while "low expectation regarding their own results in a task will mobilize few resources, increasing the probability of failure and fixing the feeling of inefficiency" (Dafinoiu, 1998, p. 67).

13.6 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The perspective of social-cognitive learning on personality has defined theoretically and operationally a series of notions, widely applicable in various areas of research:

- Developmental psychology – the child's personality develops as a result of an observational learning process of adult behavior; educational techniques must support the child's confidence in his own ability to achieve performance.

- Adult psychology – behavioral modeling is a process that takes place throughout life; in shaping adult personality, attentional qualities, encoding information, updating, and motivational processes are important.
- Mental health – learning by observing the behavior of a model and its consequences is an effective method in treating phobias; mental health means increasing self-efficacy.
- Society and culture – behavioral patterns and attitudes promoted by culture, through the media, will be imitated and internalized by members of society.

PART SEVEN

COGNITIVIST VIEW ON PERSONALITY

CHAPTER 14

KELLY – PERSONAL CONSTRUCT THEORY

14.1 PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION

The perspective that Kelly initiates and develops to explain human personality and behavior has created some difficulties in fitting into a certain overview. Although his point of view gives cognitive factors (prospecting, evaluation, decoding) a central position in explaining personality, cognitivists (Warren, 1990) isolate his theory from specific cognitive ones because, they argue, Kelly also addresses motivational and emotional aspects of personality.

Personality as world reconstruction

To describe the constitution of the personality, Kelly draws an analogy between the work of the scientist and the personality; the human being is similar to the scientist:

- if the scientist postulates a theory by advancing some hypotheses and constructs, likewise, on a personal level, man will build a system of individual constructs;
- the scientist tests the hypotheses, in order to predict the evolution of the phenomenon, similarly, we use personal constructs, in order to make behavioral predictions;
- sometimes the scientist concludes that his/her theoretical predictions are not confirmed by direct observations on the phenomenon; likewise, the human individual sometimes fails in his/her predictions about the real world or relational life;

- the results of the observations will review the theoretical concepts of the scientist, in the same way that the person will review the system of personal constructs.

Using this metaphor, Kelly outlines the first ideas about the human personality, emphasizing that this is a construction and a reconstruction of the world. This observation marks the main differences between Kelly's and Bandura's conception: if, according to Bandura, personality structures are constituted by a process of observational learning of a model's behavior (hence a certain passivity of the subject), in Kelly's vision, people not only observe the world, but also reconstruct it.

In his description of personality, Kelly introduces the notion of personal construct. This notion refers to the way in which the human individual perceives, understands, predicts and interprets the world or reality. Each personal construct functions as a hypothesis, as a possible way of constructing the physical and social environment. Personal constructs are formed from repeated experiences and they can be revised, enriched, as a result of these experiences. The personal construct reflects the unique, individual way of interpreting and signifying the world.

People build their own image about reality and relationship life, evaluating and organizing experiences, in the form of personal constructs that will allow them to exercise control over events. The main motivating force behind personality dynamics is, according to Kelly, the need to make predictions about events and behaviors. Our ability to predict the development and effects of a behavior increases with experience; if the predictions are refuted by actual experience, the person will review their construct system.

Behavior, as an expression of personality, can be known by analyzing and interpreting the system of constructs that constitute the sphere of personality. The person will thus apply these constructs in understanding reality, life events and social relationships.

Personality postulates and corollaries

To describe the structure and functioning of the personality construction system, Kelly presents some postulates and corollaries, in the form of essential statements about human personality.

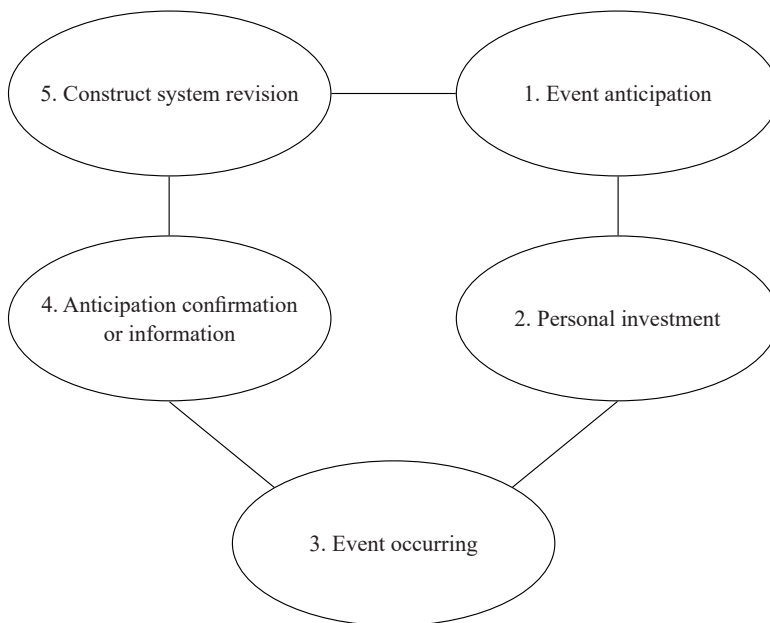
Personality fundamental postulate

This postulate emphasizes the active character of the personality evolution, the direction of activism being determined by the personal way of anticipating the event. Clonninger (1993) finds that Kelly's view of personality does not explicitly signal the existence of a motivational force, as previous theories do, because Kelly finds it unnecessary to specify this motivational support as long as the person is actively related to reality.

This postulate states that (Kelly, 1955, p. 46): "The human personality, through the system of constructs, satisfies the fundamental need of the human individual to predict or anticipate the unfolding of events."

If the prediction is fulfilled, i.e. the event or behavior is performed in anticipated form, then the validation of the construct takes place; otherwise, it is invalidated. This cyclicity – eventual anticipation – experience – confirmation/refutation – reconstruction – can be reproduced as follows (Neimeyer, 1985, in Clonninger, 1993, p. 414):

A personal experience cycle



Maze (1989) criticizes, instead, the omission of references to the motivational support of the personality; Walker (1990) shows that this is not an omission, because Kelly's conception goes beyond abstract theoretical constructs, focusing on the life of the physical man.

Construct corollary

The corollary of the construction states the following (Kelly, 1955, p. 50): “The human person anticipates events, building their replica.”

Although the reality of events is in constant motion, the events themselves have certain similarities and can be categorized. The attempt of the human individual to construct a pattern of events or a pattern of behavior, based on similarities, becomes a means of adapting to the environment. Under the conditions of eventual “categorization” we apply the same constructs to different categories. For example, the construct “happy/unhappy” is replicated in the case of several events.

Epting (1987), referring to this corollary, shows that emotion itself can become a construct that can be multiplied in various situations. For example, if a person becomes tense whenever he/she is in the presence of the father, this proves the existence of a construct (“tensioned/relaxed”) related to the father.

Experience corollary

This corollary contains Kelly’s statement on the principles of development (Kelly, 1955, p. 72): “The system of personal constructs varies according to the sequence of events.”

In other words, the personality changes as the experiences increase, both quantitatively and qualitatively. The direction of these changes differs from person to person, depending on the type of events and the hypothesis of their anticipation. The idea that is confirmed once again is that of the dynamics and the possibilities of changing the constructs, therefore of the personality plan.

Option corollary

This corollary states that (Kelly, 1955, p. 64): “Personal constructs are, in fact, dichotomized categories by which the human individual chooses one of the two alternatives, in order to interpret and control events.”

A personal construct, as a dichotomized category, is like: “honest/dishonest”; “tensioned/relaxed”; “good/bad” etc.

Through this system, we “insert” events and people into these categories, choosing one of the alternatives. Kelly points out that, under the action of anxiogenic factors, humans can easily move from one pole to another of the dichotomous construct. Landfield and Epting (1987, p. 17) argue that “putting contrasting pairs of personal constructs at the center of

understanding personality is a particularly important contribution to Kelly's conception of science in general."

Construct superordination and subordination corollary

Kelly states that "the superordinate construct category used for interpretation and prediction will subordinate other constructs."

Two types of personal constructs are highlighted: subordinate and superordinate constructs. Superordinate constructs represent higher cognitive concepts, necessary for the general interpretation of people's events and behavior; they will subordinate other constructs. For example, the subordinate construct "good/bad" is used in conjunction with the subordinate constructs "happy/unhappy" and "pleasant/unpleasant"; this association allows the individual to conclude that it is good to be happy because happy people are unpleasant and it is bad to be unhappy because unhappy people are unpleasant (Darley & Kinchla, 1991, p. 467). Despite the simplicity of this example, the idea remains that the person develops, throughout his/her existence, a very large number of related constructs that ultimately form a hierarchical, organized and complex system of beliefs and conceptions about the world and existence.

Another typology operated by Kelly, regarding the personal construction system is that of central and peripheral constructions. The central personal constructs form the identity of existence, being aspects stabilized within the individual personality, resistant to change. Peripheral constructs, on the other hand, are subject to continuous restructuring and revision, depending on the confirmation or refutation of anticipation of events or behaviors.

The development of superordinate concepts helps the person to overcome contradictions. Kelly says one person can resolve conflict between expectations by developing an ethical system, while another can reduce conflicting tension by developing a system of conservative values.

Personal construct fragmentation corollary

The statement contained in this corollary helps to understand the concept of personality inconsistency (Kelly, 1955, p. 83): "A person can put into operation, successively, a variety of constructs incompatible with each other."

Not all the constructs that the human individual has are operationalizable, in a certain situation. At one point, two or more constructs are incompatible, which explains the behavioral inconsistency.

Individuality corollary

Kelly states that: “Interpersonal differences are due to the way people construct events.”

Through this corollary, Kelly also captures the aspects of interpersonal differentiation, having great value in a theory of personality. Unlike the previous perspective that explains these differences based on the intervention of internal or external factors, Kelly identifies the source of individual variations in the way the world is constructed and interpreted.

Socialization corollary

This corollary makes direct reference to the realm of interpersonal relationships (Kelly, 1955, p. 95): “Given that the person applies the system of constructs in understanding and predicting another person’s behavior, this system plays an important part in the socialization process.”

Beyond the interpersonal differences stipulated by the corollary of individuality, the system of personal constructs works in order to decipher the behavior of another person.

Summarizing the postulate and corollaries of personality, advanced by Kelly, it results that:

- in the personality system, the central need is to interpret, control and anticipate the unfolding of an event;
- we anticipate events or behaviors by building their response;
- the system of personal constructs is revised, depending on the confirmation or refutation of the anticipated hypothesis;
- personal constructs represent dichotomous, superordinate and subordinate categories, central or peripheral;
- in certain situations, there are incompatible relationships between constructs;
- the way people construct reality (events, relationships, behaviors) is the source of interpersonal differences.

14.2 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

According to the fundamental postulate, the system of personal constructs is subject to permanent changes and reconstructions, depending on the confirmation or refutation of the advanced hypothesis. Because personality is foreshadowed as a system of interrelated, organized, and hierarchical constructs, it follows that it contains, intrinsically, the possibility of change.

The changes that occur in terms of personality development are related, says Kelly, to certain emotions and feelings (in this respect, he is “excluded” from the circle of cognitivists). The fundamental affective feelings that accompany the restructuring of the system of personal constructs are (Clonninger, 1993, p. 422-423):

- The insecurity that is associated with the awareness of the imminent changes of the way of representing reality. The feeling of guilt also accompanies the “dislocation” of the central structures of the personality, that is, of the system of constructs. Insecurity is induced by major changes in existence, in the sense of anticipating significant events, such as death (Moore, 1991). In general, all life experiences that lead to changes in the central constructs (those related to identity) cause these feelings to arise. When the system of personal constructs undergoes changes by the accidental intervention of a new construct, fear arises. Differentiating the two affective feelings, insecurity and fear, which both accompany personality changes, Clonninger (1993, p. 423) interprets these differences as follows: “the less we think about what bothers us, the greater the fear; the more we think about what is bothering us, the greater the feeling of insecurity. “
- Anxiety sets in when the events we face have no correspondent in the system of personal constructs by which we control and anticipate events and behaviors. The way to reduce anxiety is to change the way we represent reality, of existence, in general, that is, to change personal constructs. If anticipation of the event is the main function of the construction system, then anxiety becomes a sign of personal construction failure and the need for change.
- Hostility – changes in the system of personal constructs is a process with strong voluntary implications. Sometimes it is easier to add new constructs than to change them. From this perspective, Kelly defines anxiety as (Kelly, 1955, p. 509): “the continuous personal effort to validate a certain social prediction that has already proved to be doomed to failure, so invalidated by real experiences.”

Regarding the way in which Kelly describes the system of personal constructs and the development of the personality, the criticisms are directed on the strongly intellectualized character of his theory, through the notion of construct emphasizing the cognitive aspect, to the detriment of the affective aspects of the personality.

Bruner (1956) argues that the theory of personal constructs does not take into account the effects of emotions on personality, but only considers them as elements that are associated with changes in personality.

14.3 COGNITIVE COMPLEXITY

Bieri, Miller and Tripoldi (1967), starting from Kelly's cognitive conception, show that the system of personal constructs is an index of the richness, diversity and degree of elaboration of the system of representations of the person. They introduce the notion of cognitive complexity as a system of representations that a person has about himself/herself and others. Starting from the repertoire checklist compiled by Kelly, many ways of assessing cognitive complexity have been proposed; some researchers evaluate aspects of cognitive complexity using methods that are not directly derived from the REP test (Davis, 1987; Manchester, 1990; Chew, 1991).

Bieri considers that a person who gives himself/herself, as an element of the checklist, equal scores for most of the dimensions or psychological characteristics taken into account, shows poor representations and, as a result, has a low level of cognitive complexity. In contrast, very varied scores on the dimensions considered indicate increased cognitive complexity.

Williams (1989) points out the importance of distinguishing between the subject's self-representation and how he or she represents another person when representing and evaluating cognitive complexity.

Greenleaf (1975) reaches the same conclusion as Bieri: people with increased cognitive complexity have the ability to perceive and conceive the social behavior, in the form of characteristics of great diversity, showing flexibility.

Epting (1987) points out that the balanced development of the personality involves not only increased cognitive complexity, i.e. complex and varied representations of oneself (physical aspects, psychological skills, social skills, etc.) and others, but also integration in the system of personality, of these constructs.

The repertoire checklist developed by Kelly, as well as the cognitive complexity assessment tools based on this checklist serve in various application areas, such as clinical research, human resources, professional counseling, educational field.

14.4 RESEARCH METHODS

Repertoire checklist

In order to identify the system of personal constructs through which the person gives meaning to events and relationships, in order to adapt and satisfy the need for behavioral prediction, Kelly developed a tool known as the Role Construct Repertory Test (REP Test). This tool is used to identify how the human individual represents his/her world, his/her existence, in general, in common terms with those of other people.

The first step of the repertoire checklist is to draw up a list containing the significant persons for the investigated subject. Sometimes the subject himself is included in this list, sometimes not. Significant people, for most of us, are parents, siblings, spouse, friends, co-worker, etc. These significant people are listed in the checklist, constituting the elements of the checklist.

In the next phase, the researcher selects 3 of these people. Through the training, the subject is asked to identify a physical or psychological characteristic by which 2 of the 3 selected people are similar and, at the same time, differentiate themselves from the third.

The words or phrases used by the subject in expressing the similarities between the two people are called constructs. The word or phrase used to describe how the third person differs is called contrast. Kelly points out that, in the latter case, the contrast does not necessarily have to take the form of logically opposite pairs. The trait that attaches itself to many people becomes a personal construct.

The personality of the subject is then interpreted by identifying the constructs that he/she uses, in order to understand the behavior of significant people. Each person will be characterized by each construct, forming a checklist, hence the name of the test. Next, the procedure is repeated, taking into account three other elements of the checklist. In this way, the personal constructs of the investigated subject are established, i.e. the way in which he/she represents his/her own person, as well as the behaviors of significant persons.

By the next step, the obtained checklist is subjected to mathematical analyzes, the scoring techniques being extremely varied. Does the risk involved in scoring the subject's answers consist precisely in the content reflected by the resulting score – mathematical content or psychological significance? This tool was validated by comparing the analysis checklist

with clinical observations (Olson, 1986). It is important to note that interpreting the constructs as similar or different takes into account not only the verbal form but also how they are applied to the checklist elements.

A first aspect targeted in the qualitative analysis of the checklist is the polarization, predominantly positive or negative, of the inventoried features, the overall positive or negative character providing information on how the subject constructs his/her reality, through the system of representations of himself/herself and others. The second aspect to consider is “matching” the values given by the subject.

Below is an example of the Modified Repertory Checklist for the personal constructs of a hypothetical subject (Bierz & Co., 1966).

14.5 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The concept of personality as a system of personal constructs has been used as an explanatory factor in various application areas:

- Child development – Kelly does not take into account biological factors in the development of the child’s personality; they develop constructs through which they give meaning especially to the relational field;
- Adult development – adults build and permanently reconstruct the checklist of behavioral repertoires, depending on the confirmation or refutation of anticipated events and behaviors;
- Mental health – personal constructs, their type and quality, are a predictive factor of some personality disorders; the degree of cognitive complexity is an aspect of differentiation between normal people and those with pathological tendencies; mental health is equated, in a sense, with the ability to change the system of personal constructs;
- Society – understanding and interpreting the person’s construct system is the basis of an interpersonal relationship; Kelly does not explicitly refer in his theory to the influence that social institutions and models have on personality development.

Repertoire checklist (Bieri & Co)

+ 3 + 2 + 1	- 1 - 2 - 3	Yourselves	Person you dislike	Mother	Person you would like to help	Father	Same-sex friend	Opposed-sex friend (spouse)	Person with which you feel the best	Authority (Boss, teacher)	Person you cannot understand
Bold	Timid	+ 2	- 3	+ 3	+ 1	+ 2	+ 3	+ 3	+ 2	+ 2	- 2
Adapted	Unadapted	+ 3	- 3	+ 3	+ 2	+ 3	+ 3	+ 2	+ 2	+ 1	- 1
Decided	Undecided	- 1	- 2	+ 3	+ 3	+ 2	+ 1	+ 3	+ 2	+ 2	+ 1
Calm	Excitable	- 2	+ 3	- 2	+ 1	+ 2	- 2	+ 2	+ 3	- 1	- 1
Altruist	Selfish	+ 1	- 1	+ 3	+ 3	+ 3	+ 3	+ 1	+ 3	+ 1	+ 2
Beautiful	Ugly	+ 1	- 2	+ 2	+ 1	+ 2	+ 2	+ 2	+ 1	- 1	- 2
Responsible	Irresponsible	+ 2	+ 1	+ 3	+ 3	+ 3	+ 1	+ 3	+ 3	+ 2	- 2
Polite	Impolite	+ 3	+ 1	+ 3	+ 2	+ 3	+ 3	+ 3	+ 3	+ 2	+ 1
Independent	Dependent	- 1	- 2	+ 1	+ 2	+ 2	+ 2	+ 3	+ 3	+ 2	+ 2
Intelligent	Limited	+ 2	- 1	+ 2	+ 1	+ 3	+ 2	+ 3	+ 3	+ 1	+ 1

PART EIGHT

DIFFERENTIAL ASPECTS

CHAPTER 15

TEMPERAMENT NEUROPSYCHOLOGY

15.1 INTRODUCTION

Around the 1920s, there was an explosion of scientific interest in describing and measuring temperament throughout childhood. The growth of this interest is directly related to the research activity of Alexander Thomas, Stella Chess and their collaborators. They demonstrated through a longitudinal study how the emotional and attention characteristics of children measured early can be predictive of later adult behavior; especially emotional problems of a social-relational kind.

Crockenberg (1986) considers the involvement in mother-child interaction as a contribution to temperament, Attili (1990) reconsiders the involvement of temperament in group relationships, Martin (1989), in education, Keogh (1982), in the interaction between teachers and exceptional children.

Temperament – as a concept – has led researchers in various areas of approach, such as genetic behavior, personality theories, looking for fundamental genetic forms of temperament. A small part of the research focused exclusively on the neuropsychological basis of temperamental behavior.

There are many points of view regarding the definition of temperament, but everyone generally agrees that temperament consists of individual differences in behavioral trends that are present in early life and are relatively stable over time and situation. Some theorists attach particular importance to genetic determinants (Buss & Plomin, 1975, 1984).

The set of behavioral characteristics that are considered temperamental is relatively small, ranging from 3 (Eysenck, 1970) to 9 (Thomas & Chess, 1977) characteristics or traits. Today, however, it has been established that there are several dimensions of temperament. These include:

- activity level (peak or amplitude of the child's coarse and fine motor movements);
- social inhibition (the tendency to stimulate or inhibit activity in unique social situations);
- adaptability (ease and speed of adaptation to a social environment, including family and school restrictions);
- negative emotionality (often referring to emotional intensity, frequency and intensity of emotional expressiveness);
- persistence in tasks and distractibility (the tendency to continue difficult tasks without distraction);
- rhythmicity (temporary regularity of biological functions);
- threshold (the level of stimulation necessary to obtain a response to different sensory stimuli).

All these aspects lead to the idea of a heritability and stability, and in the definition of temperament they lead to the idea that it is relatively impenetrable to the effects of the environment.

Gottlieb and Cairns (1991) consider that the development of the individual, in general, is better seen from a systemic perspective. From this perspective, the development of the individual, and therefore the temperament, has a hierarchical organization, on several levels (genes, cells, organs, systems, organism, behavior, environment), each level being influenced by the other levels.

Another important aspect revealed by behavioral theories shows that the stability of temperament characteristics is given by the correlation between environmental factors that affect behavior and genetic factors that also have an influence on behavior. This is explained by several reasons:

- first of all, the child's behavioral tendencies are to develop responses to the environment. For example, the adapted child may receive more environmental support than the child with a predominance of negative emotionality;
- secondly, the better the mature individuals are adapted to, the more they will receive environmental reinforcements. In short, the child's behavioral predispositions play an important part in creating reinforcements (acceptance/rejection) from the environment.

Thus, the way the child experiences life is determined by certain genetic predispositions that will progressively create greater stability in the temperamental behavior of the future adult (Scarr and McCartney, 1983).

All the research carried out so far has reached a consensus on the stability of temperamental behavior, on the following aspects:

- stability increases from childhood to adulthood;
- it is affected by situational factors;
- it is generally considered moderately-high if the situation remains relatively constant and low-moderate in variable circumstances.

Thus, temperament comprises a series of features that are present from an early age, biologically rooted and relatively stable. This does not preclude the idea of the impossibility of changing these characteristics or the fact that the environment would not play a critical part in the formation and strengthening of temperament characteristics. In this context, genetic studies on temperament manifestations are relevant.

15.2 TEMPERAMENT GENETIC BASES

Goldsmith and Alansky (1987) show that the support of genetic inheritance is very strong for the characteristics of negative emotionality and for the level of activity, but it is moderate for other characteristics.

One of the most compelling studies is that of Brangart, Plomin, De-fries, and Fulker (1992). They studied 161 children aged 1 to 2 adopted from birth and 189 unadopted children of the same age. They were examined using the Bayley test (Bayley Infant Behavior Record – I.B.R.). Three factors were extracted from the I.B.R. :

- affect – extraversion;
- activity;
- task orientation.

To this sample were added 194 monozygotic twins (MZ) and 96 dizygotic twins (DZ) between 1-2 years of age who were examined with I.B.R.

The results of the study are as follows:

- the infraclass correlations for MZ twins were stronger in all 3 factors than for DZ twins. These were 0.40 and 0.50 for affect – extraversion; 0.30 and 0.58 for activity and 0.50, respectively 0.58 for task orientation (the first correlations refer to 1-year-old subjects, the others to 2-year-old subjects);
- the correlations for DZ twins were 0.05 and 0.03 for affect – extraversion; 0.25 and 0.18 for activity and 0.21, respectively 0.20 for task orientation;

- for unadopted children, the correlations were 0.05 and 0.20 (affect – extraversion); 0.20 and 0.21 (activity); 0.23 and 0.22 (task orientation);
- the correlations for the adopted children were almost zero, which indicates a negligible impact of the environment on the child's temperament;
- the heritability percentage for all 3 factors was 44%.

Affect – extraversion indicates 42% genetic composition, task orientation 44%, and activity 47% genetic composition.

One possible interpretation of these data is that early temperament traits are not more strongly genetically influenced than established personality traits in adolescence.

15.3 TEMPERAMENT NEUROLOGIC FUNDAMENTS

We will review some theories that explain the possible connections between temperament and brain function. The first reference is related to the theories of Pavlov and Eysenck, because they developed a conceptual system that is a starting point for later theories. The theories of Jeffrey Gray, Marvin Zuckerman and Jan Strelau will then be presented, as they put forward the best-specified idea of the physiological basis of temperament. Finally, Jerome Kagan's theory will be explained. His works have a special place in the theories of temperament, because they focus on a certain temperamental dimension: social inhibition.

As far as possible, an attempt is made to capture some lines of comparison between these theories, as well as to integrate some common elements.

IVAN PAVLOV

Pavlov describes two major properties of the nervous system – strength and mobility. In fact, balancing these processes will gain considerable importance in his theory. The strength of the nervous system is defined as the strength of the process of nervous excitation, and mobility as the ability to switch from one process to another (from excitation to inhibition).

The combination of these properties leads to 4 forms of the nervous system, each corresponding to the 4 forms of temperament defined by Hippocrates and Galenius. For example, the strong and mobile nervous system has an equivalent in the temperamental sanguine type. Pavlov believes that the type of N.S. is innate and only to a small extent susceptible to environmental

influence. According to him, temperament represents a certain type of N.S. genetically inherited or certain typical behavioral traits conditioned by an innate type of N.S.

Pavlov, Teplov, and Nebylistyn investigated the genetic nature of N.S.'s properties, trying to distinguish the innate part from that acquired by experience. Teplov (1963) found that there is a relatively stable link between sensitivity (N.S. strength) and efficiency. Thus, an individual with a low reactive level is characterized by a low sensitivity and a strong resistance, so a high efficiency. All these concepts will be used in Strelau's research.

JAN STRELAU

Like many other theorists, Strelau makes a fundamental distinction between temperament and personality. In his conception, temperament is a basic property of N.S., both in animals and in the human being, while personality is the product of external social conditions and is essentially a human phenomenon. He considers that those dimensions of behavior that have a strong physiological component, resulting from biological evolution, are an aspect of temperament, while other traits or mechanisms that are influenced by socio-historical conditions are an aspect of personality. This does not mean that temperament traits are resistant to environmental influences.

Temperament is defined as a set of relatively stable traits observable through the energy level of the behavior and the temporal patterns of the reaction. Some traits appear to be formal because they do not directly affect behavior. Temperament is a regulatory mechanism, with indirect manifestations in behavior.

Two basic traits that characterize energy levels are reactivity and activity.

Reactivity is a stable pattern of response to a stimulus that affects the person. It expands from extreme sensitivity.

The activity is associated with what Strelau calls the energy level of behavior that varies in intensity and frequency, depending on different tasks. For example, children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder or severe mental retardation have a low level of arousal, but may engage in behavioral (motor hyperactivity) so as to achieve an optimal level of activity. It is a metabolic level that shows what happens when a hyperactive child receives stimulant medication.

Henriksen, Brulin and Nielsen (1989) showed that the metabolic level of the hyperactive child is lower in the basal ganglia region compared to normal children. If specific medication is given, the metabolic rate returns to normal and hyperactivity decreases.

Regarding the notion of reactivity defined by Strelau, an extreme response can be considered an anxious behavior. It can be appreciated that the C.N.S. is overexcited and, indeed, the child diagnosed with an anxiety disorder will present with a worsening picture when receiving stimulant medication.

The 2 characteristics, defined by Strelau, interact in a complex way, as well as functions of individual development and situational demands. Highly reactive individuals are particularly sensitive to stimulation and have a high stimulation-processing coefficient (Strelau).

The activity is related to the notion of optimal level of arousal. People who are weakly reactive will try to increase the stimulation, and those who are strongly reactive will try to reduce it. Different temperament traits will lead to different reactions in the same situation, depending on the person's level of reactivity.

During development, temperamental traits begin to reveal diverse and increasingly complex reactions, inciting social subjects to various interactions with the child, depending on his/her type of temperament. Temperament induces changes in the environment, and these will have consequences on the development of the individual personality. This indirectly influences the formation of personality, by stabilizing behavioral patterns.

HANS EYSENCK

Eysenck's conception credits him as the first theorist to approach personality from a neuropsychological basis. The author explains the basic theory of personality, reformulating it later.

This theory postulates 3 basic dimensions of personality:

- introversion – extraversion (E);
- neuroticism (N);
- psychoticism (P).

Each of these elements is considered dispositional, so it has a certain significant legacy and therefore Eysenck's theory can be considered a theory of temperament, although he did not use this term.

The difficulty of dissociating the kind of these dimensions is given by the instruments used to measure them. For example, the first measurement

was made using the Mandsley Personality Inventory (1959), the measurement targeting only the E and N dimensions; dimension P was not included in the questionnaire until 1975. In the 1959 version, P was measured using the Guilford scale. In 1964, Eysenck published the Eysenck Personality Inventory (E.P.I.), in which the E-N correlation was reassessed.

Dimension E was composed of 2 types of items in EPI, on sociability and impulsivity. A new scale was developed in 1975, including the P dimension: Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ). Extraversion thus became a factor of sociability. The scale will be normalized later (1991) by Zuckerman. The original scale included, among other things, items on paranoid thinking, sadistic and aggressive tendencies, but these items of pathology were later eliminated. Currently, these micro-traits have been subsumed into macro-traits that can be synthesized as follows (Zuckerman, 1991):

- E: Sociable, active, assertive, sensational, protective, dominant, adventurous.
- N: Anxious, depressed, guilty, shy, tense, irrational, emotional.
- P: Aggressive, cold, egocentric, impersonal, impulsive, antisocial, creative, rational.

According to Eysenck, the dimension of the extraversion is controlled by the Ascending Activator System (A.A.S.), whose function is to control the level of stimulation in the CNS. In this model, introverts are characterized by an increased level of CNS arousal and will therefore initiate various behaviors that limit the increase in external stimulation they receive. For example, they engage in or tend to avoid weak social behaviors because another person can be a source of strong stimulation. Extroverts have a low level of CNS arousal and therefore initiate actions to increase their stimulation, such as social interactions.

Component N is related to the limbic system. According to Eysenck, the reactivity of this system has a low threshold for high scores recorded in dimension N and has a high threshold for low scores. He paid less attention to the neuroanatomy of the P-dimensional control system.

JEFFREY GRAY

Gray's major hypothesis is that temperament reflects individual differences in predispositions to different types of emotions, these emotions being CNS states caused by different agents.

Gray defined emotion as the consistency of states caused by stimuli or events that serve as reinforcements for instrumental behavior. A reinforcement is any stimulus that, following a response, changes the probability of that response occurring.

His model describes three systems of fundamental emotions located in the CNS, each responding to a separate set of reinforcements and each being mediated by a separate set of brain structures that process specific types of information. Gray shows that the individual differences in the functioning of the three systems and the interaction between them are the basis of human temperament. He argues that the variety of emotional systems, at the individual level, will determine the development of the personality.

MARVIN ZUCKERMAN

Influenced by Eysenck's and Gray's theory of personality, Zuckerman develops a complex model of personality through his theory of the neurological basis of personality.

He refers to 3 major dimensions of personality, namely:

- Psychoticism – Impulsivity (Ps-Im);
- Neuroticism – Emotion (Ne-Em);
- Extraversion – Sociability (Ex -So).

The primary characteristics of people at the first pole are increased impulsivity, decreased reflection and socialization. Zuckerman believes that the main problem of antisocial personality is the failure to inhibit behavior in the presence of suggestions or anticipation of punishment. In other words, in situations where both reward and punishment are possible, antisocial personality fails to inhibit behavior.

This type of personality has a strong tolerance for cortical stimulation or arousal. Therefore, under conditions of high stimulation, the person can continue his/her function. Increased levels of cortical stimulation are accompanied by impulsivity and poor socialization, leading people of this size to antisocial acts.

The researcher states that, at the biochemical level, people with this increased dimension have a deficiency of hormones, neurotransmitters and enzymes that would play an important part in inhibiting behavior. The results also showed high testosterone levels in men with high Ps-Im characteristics.

This increased hormone level is related to aggressive behavior. Zuckerman says there is a two-way causal link: Men who have low levels of stress produce low levels of testosterone, and those who are successful in competition and sexual behavior have high levels of testosterone. This connection that Zuckerman makes with the spirit of competition leads us to the aphorism that power is the best aphrodisiac.

People with high Ne – Em experience negative emotions, such as anxiety, depression, hostility, and anger. Zuckerman shows that this dimension is limited to experiencing negative effects, while the Ex-So dimension is related to experiencing positive effects. Regarding the genetic level, he concludes that the vulnerability to anxiety disorders is probably due to a dominant pattern.

At the structural level, the amygdala appears to have control over all types of emotional expression, including fear, anxiety, and aggression. Zuckerman believes that the main function of the amygdala is to determine the emotional significance of sensory stimuli.

The third macro level of personality discussed by Zuckerman is E-S. Extroverts tend to be much more active than introverts (in terms of number of activities and diversity of forms of activity), more involved in social activities, and also more active in pursuing the goal and more optimistic about results.

JEROME KAGAN

The studies of Kagan and his collaborators (1988) are different from the previous ones, in that they show that the aspect of social inhibition is related to the unfamiliar aspect of stimulation. Thus, children with behavior marked by shyness or fear when they encounter an unfamiliar environment were called inhibited, while those called uninhibited tend to socialize quickly with outside stimuli and engage in exploratory behaviors on unfamiliar contexts.

The researchers conducted studies on two groups of children, selected according to their extreme behavior in terms of inhibition, their age being between 21 and 31 months. They followed these children until the age of 7 and a half in order to observe the stability and the behavioral and physiological correlates of the inhibition.

In terms of stability, 75% of children considered inhibited or uninhibited at 21 months of age behave similarly at 7 years of age. In fact, in an

unselected sample based on inhibition or noninhibition, stability remains a feature of inhibition.

Behavioral cues used to determine inhibition included latency in unfamiliar vocalization, latency in approaching a foreign object, or time spent near the mother. The stability of these indices was 0.40 at 7 years.

Kagan also included two physiological measurement indices in the inhibition research. These were heart rate (H.R.) and heart rate variation (H.R.V.). One of the most important aspects studied was the connection between the H.R.V. and inspiration-expiration. During inspiration, H.R. increases slightly, and decreases during expiration. H.R. and H.R.V. are negatively correlated.

An important idea of the concept of inhibition is the stability of these indices. These indices were shown to be relatively stable after the second week of study in the case of the unselected group of subjects. The stability was 0.64 for H.R. and 0.57 for H.R.V. These were more stable than the behavioral indices of inhibition for the same group.

The researchers concluded that inhibited and uninhibited subjects differed on the threshold of arousal of limbic structures; this difference is given by the number of neurotransmitters present, by the number of pre- and postsynaptic terminations.

They also found that adrenaline function is low in children with aggressive behavior and high in those with anxiety disorders. High levels of arousal and adrenaline function are present in the case of hypersensitivity to punitive signals, anxiety behavior, behavioral inhibition (Mass, Rogness, Javois and Macedo, 1990) and also lead to increased attachment behavior (Steklis, 1985).

Kagan launches into some provocative speculation, using the notion of readiness to explain the child's predisposition to exhibit his/her physiological and behavioral aspects. Thus, the state of preparation refers to a state of a biological process, present from birth or produced by the maturation process and which influences the body to react specifically to events (Kagan, 1989). He says that those children who are constantly inhibited have probably been biologically prepared for this response, and the environment has only strengthened their tendency.

However, all studies show that the variability of human behavior cannot be attributed solely to the genetic basis. There are several interactions with the environment that have a significant impact on biological behavior.

15.4 CONCLUSIONS

Temperament is significantly influenced by genetic inheritance, but there are definite interactions with the environment that will induce permanent changes in behavior. Theoretically, there are differences of opinion as to the kind of these interactions.

- Strelau proposes a regulatory theory of temperament (1983). This means that temperament, as a product of biological evolution, plays an important part in regulating human-environment interactions. Two fundamental energetic traits of behavior are reactivity and activity. They regulate the stimulus value of the environment and one's individual behavior, as a guarantee of one's stimulation needs.
- Eysenck's theory of personality and temperament is based on the assertion that individual differences are given by SN reactivity and the degree to which individuals develop conditioned responses (1970). These differences find their expression in the personality: the dimension of introversion – extraversion and neuroticism – stability. Conditionability is a feature of the introversion-extraversion dimension. The central structures of the brain (limbic system and hypothalamus) are the physiological substrates for emotionality, and SAA is the substrate for arousability (Eysenck 1970).
- Gray (1976), modifying Eysenck's theory in some places, renames the factors impulsivity and anxiety. Gray believes these are important influences on behavior. Anxiety was seen as an increase in sensitivity to received signals, and impulsivity is an increase in sensitivity to reward signals. By combining Eysenck's and Gray's theories, anxiety and impulsivity can be associated with introversion – extraversion. Gray's hypothesis shows that performance and learning will be facilitated for introverts if aversive rather than supportive reinforcements are used; extroverted performance and learning will be facilitated if positive reinforcements are used more often than aversive ones. This hypothesis is contrary to Eysenck's predictions.
- Zuckerman (1991) argues that there are three dimensions of temperament: Ps – Im; Ne – Em and Ex – So. The Ps-Im dimension reflects a high level of impulsivity, and the Ne-Em dimension is related to a low impulsivity.

- Kagan focuses his studies on a single dimension of personality: inhibition. His theory of children with inhibited behavior differs from previous theories, except for a few similarities to the anxiety system explained by Gray. These similarities concern both the behavioral manifestation and the neurological substrate. But all these theories have in common the effort to understand and explain the neuropsychology of temperament. Many problems have arisen regarding the comparison of various theories. One of these problems, over the years, has been the need to find communication between two areas: neuropsychological, on the one hand, and temperament, on the other. Some theorists link the two areas, but there are still many who treat them separately.

All these aspects have demonstrated both the conception of neuropsychologists who understand temperament as a manifestation of the neurological aspect, and the conception of temperament theorists who take into account the neuropsychological and neuroanatomical explanations of temperamental patterns in childhood.

15.5 APPLICATIVE VALUE

The ideas demonstrated in the different classical and modern approaches to temperament have a special relevance in various application areas, such as:

- Biology – in terms of temperamental characteristics, genetic inheritance is a relevant factor, highlighting differences even in monozygotic twins and dizygotes;
- Educational psychology – knowledge of the temperamental formula provides information on the energy that the human individual invests in an activity, on the pace of its development; in the field of temperament traits, skills and character aspects develop differently, justifying the intervention of specific educational actions.
- Medical psychology – the problem of antisocial personality is the failure to inhibit behavior, the presence of suggestions and anticipation of punishment, these people having a strong tolerance for cortical stimulation.
- Developmental psychology – the stability of the temperamental structure increases from childhood to adulthood, being affected by situational factors.

- Social psychology – the extraversion dimension of personality is an aspect with predictive value on sociability.
- Differential psychology – different temperamental traits lead to different reactions, in the same situation, in the case of different people, depending on personal level of reactivity; temperament reflects individual differences in predisposition to different types of emotions.

CHAPTER 16

DISPOSITIONAL TEMPERAMENTAL FACTOR INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

16.1 INTRODUCTION

In the twentieth century, there are two major approaches to personality structure: variable-centered approaches and person-centered approaches.

The variable-centered approach, proposing the comparative study of different aspects of personality, highlights interpersonal differences, while the person-centered approach describes the structure of personality for each member of the population, by configuring multiple variables, being rather an idiographic study. In the latter case, the unit of analysis is the person and not the variables.

A significant example of the person-centered perspective is captured by Allport (1989) when he described personality as a psycho-dynamic system that determines the individual's unique adaptation to the environment. Stern (1973) drew attention to the fact that the two types of approaches, although with different goals, are complementary and not opposite: by studying the personality characteristics of each individual (person-centered), one can then operate on interpersonal differences (on the variable).

16.2 VARIABLE-CENTERED APPROACH

Theoretical models that study the energetic, dynamic aspect of personality are considered variable-centered approaches, research in this field on interpersonal differences in children, given that temperamental

manifestations can be observed early. Asendorpf (1993) emphasizes that temperament differs from personality by the stable character of its features which have a strong genetic and neurobiological foundation.

Gartstein, Putnam and Rothbart (2012) categorize the individual temperamental differences in the case of the child population at the level of three aspects: the level of activism, the affective level and the attentional level (the 3A).

Thus, throughout behavioral existence, temperament can be observed through differences in emotional, activation, and attentional patterns. The attentional (as well as motivational) subsystem makes the connection between neural systems and major personality dimensions.

It is noted, in the research on temperamental differences, a transition from considering them exclusively at the level of activism to reconsidering them not only in terms of energy (arousal), but also emotionally and attentively.

In the following, we will describe 3 models of temperament (variable-centered approach) relevant to the transition I mentioned earlier.

Chess and Thomas's model

Chess and Thomas (1991) explain a system that contains 9 categories or units of analysis to explain the significant behaviors for the child's development, as well as the psychological mechanisms of the functioning of these behaviors, namely:

- level of activism;
- rhythmicity;
- approach – avoidance system;
- adaptability;
- threshold of responsiveness;
- reaction intensity;
- type of emotionality;
- distractibility;
- persistence in tasks.

The interpersonal differences in temperament, which appeared even from an early age and remained relatively the same in adulthood, are manifested at the nine levels.

Referring to this temperament model, Asendorpf (1993) highlights some of its limitations:

- rhythm and response threshold are quite controversial, as they tend to vary with age;
- emotionality tends to be restricted only to the negative one;
- adaptability is too large a term that overlaps quite strongly with the pleasantness factor in the Big Five model.

Buss and Plomin's model

The two researchers distinguish, in temperamental manifestations, four dimensions: emotionality, activism, sociability and impulsivity.

Emotionality is broadly equivalent to distress, ranging from a lack of reaction to extreme emotional reactions, hence interpersonal differences. This involves an intense activation of the sympathetic nervous system related to emotional arousal. In the third year of life, emotionality includes three dispositions: distress, fear, and anger.

Activism has two major components: rhythm and intensity, manifested especially in movement and language, with interpersonal differences.

Sociability is defined as the preference to be with others, the need to share experiences and emotions, and the need for reward as an effect of social interaction. The classic measurements for capturing interpersonal differences in sociability are the frequency of initiating social contacts, the number of affiliations, the time spent with others and the reaction to isolation.

Impulsivity is a temperamental dimension that refers to the time it takes to make a decision, inhibitory control, and the search for sensations.

Rothbart's model

The key concepts in Rothbart's model of temperament are reactivity and self-regulation. If the temperament reflects those biologically determined predispositions, the personality is born through social and cognitive elaborations of temperamental endowments. In this sense, Rothbart and Bates (1998) consider that temperamental endowments are added in time:

- cognitive adaptations to the social world and coping strategies;
- self-concept, conceptualizations of others or representations of the world;
- schemes and scenarios regarding the relationships between oneself and the rest of the world.

It seems that the transition from temperament to personality involves a journey from behavior to representation. In this context, Benga (2005) states that temperament plays the main part until the representations begin to be more and more present, so approximately until the second/third year of life. However, no clear and unequivocal boundaries can be drawn between “pure” temperament and socio-culturally and cognitively shaped personality.

Reactivity refers to the excitability, responsiveness or level of behavioral and physiological arousal (motor, emotional responses to internal or external stimuli).

Self-regulation includes attentional control, proximity/inhibition which are intended to facilitate or inhibit reactivity.

If classical theories of temperament regarded reactivity as an exclusive feature of temperament, current theoretical perspectives, in addition to reactivity, emphasize the aspect of self-regulation. Obviously, interpersonal differences in temperament are differences in both reactivity and self-regulation.

There are very close connections between the two temperamental dimensions, and a demonstrative example in this respect is the fact that in the first years of life especially the control of negative emotions (reactivity aspect) is related to the ability to switch attention from the distress stimulus (attentional self-regulation). If the children are initially calmed by adults by hugging or rocking, within 2 to 4 months the ability of visual orientation gradually develops, which allows them to detach from the stimulus that caused them discomfort and direct attention to distractors (Harman and Fox, 1997). Research shows that, even later, adults with a good ability to focus and switch their attention tend to feel less negative emotions.

Another important idea related to the two temperamental dimensions is that, even if both can be practiced, trained within certain limits (let's not forget that they are aspects of temperament, so predispositions), the reactivity dimension is more resistant to learning compared to self-regulation. Rothbart and Bates (1998) also show that not all reactive systems are present from birth – fear (related to the negative pole of the approach/avoidance axis) is an example of a later acquisition, around the age of 6 months. Fear of an emotionally reactive system will later include self-regulatory components (the ability to inhibit fear in situations perceived as unsafe or even secure).

Morris and Kratochwill (1998), Ollendick, Yule and Ollier (1991) classified the fear-triggering stimuli in different age periods as follows:

- 6 to 12 months, fear of loud sounds, lack of support, strangers;
- between 1 and 2 years, fear of change, of strangers, separation anxiety;
- between 3 and 4 years there is the fear of the dark, the fear of being left alone, the fear of insects;
- at 5-6 years old, the fear of wild animals, monsters, ghosts predominate;
- between 7 and 8 years old, the fear of aspects related to school, supernatural events;
- at the age of 9-11, the social fear or the one related to school performance appears.

As stated by Hiller, Kagan and Schulkin (1995), it is found that to some extent fear is a normal emotional experience of children, having an important part in regulating their interactions with the environment. We cannot evaluate the whole range of temperamental manifestations at all ages, because both the aspect of reactivity (primary emotions, arousal) and that of self-regulation (attentional processes) have a staggered onset in time.

Rothbart, Chew and Gartstein (2001) propose the following ontogenetic evolution (through behavioral measurements, using tools, laboratory measurements or physiological assessments):

- in the newborn, the temperamental characteristics that can be detected are: irritability, alertness, soothing ability and activity level. Moreover, researchers show that predictions of future temperament and attachment relationships can be made from these dimensions;
- between 1 and 3 months, in addition to the stabilization of previous indices, smile or laughter appear as expressions of positive emotionality, emotion of anger/frustration, and motor reactions are increasingly related to emotional states;
- between 4 and 8 months, fear differs from irritability. As there is the possibility of manipulating objects (with a part in further cognitive development), it is possible to assess the tendency to approach to which is added the development of the ability to direct attention;
- between 9 and 12 months, fear develops, modulating the reaction of approaching objects or people. At the same time, the frustration reaction can be differentiated from the fear reaction (they

have different motor behavioral patterns – motor movements, respectively behavioral inhibition).

16.3 PERSON-CENTERED APPROACH

Also within the temperament, the person-centered approaches take into account not the variables, but the personality traits, as well as the correlations between them at individual level, drawing personality profiles.

From the point of view of the person-centered approach, there are two dimensions of personality: Ego control and Ego flexibility.

Ego control refers to the tendency to “contain” and express emotional and motivational impulses, while ego flexibility refers to the tendency to respond flexibly to environmental requirements in general and stressful situations in particular.

From the point of view of the two dimensions, at the level of temperament, there are three types of personalities:

- resilient personality (flexible) with the ability to quickly restructure the response, depending on the situation and with resistance to potentially stressful agents;
- over-controlled personality, with the ability to inhibit emotions and strong control of motivational impulses;
- sub-controlled personality, with low monitoring and control of emotional and motivational impulses.

Studying the correlations between the three personality types (in terms of control and flexibility related to the temperamental picture) and the Big Five factors, research shows that (Griffin, 2004):

- resilient personality scores above average in terms of emotional stability;
- on the whole, in all five scales, the resilient personality gives answers that betray a greater tendency towards social desirability;
- super-controlled personality records low scores in extraversion and emotional stability;
- sub-controlled personality has low scores in terms of agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Other research (Colby, James and Hart, 1998) has concluded that:

- male subjects belonging to the sub-controlled personality have a lower level of mental development (operationalized by I.Q.), lower academic performance and a higher frequency of delinquent acts compared to male subjects belonging to the other two personality types;

- three personality types are identified at the age of 7 studied in connection with the development of social skills at the age of 15; thus, resilients have, on average, a weaker ability to concentrate than over- and under-controlled subjects; super-controlled subjects have higher scores on the “social withdrawal” variable and lower self-esteem scores compared to the two types, and sub-controlled subjects have higher scores on aggression compared to the other two types, as well as a self-esteem above average.

16.4 CONCLUSIONS

Following the research focused on the variable and the person, at the level of temperamental dimensions, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- interpersonal temperamental differences take into account three aspects, namely activism, emotionality and attentional adjustment;
- there are 9 units of temperament analysis capable of inducing interpersonal differences, namely activism, rhythmicity, approach-avoidance system, avoidance, adaptability, threshold, reaction intensity, type of emotionality, distractibility and persistence in tasks (Chess and Thomas, 1991);
- according to the model of Buss and Plomin (1975), the interpersonal differences in temperamental manifestations are situated at four levels, namely emotionality, activism, sociability and impulsivity;
- according to the model of Rothbart and Bates (1998), temperament has two major dimensions, namely reactivity and self-regulation;
- in temperament theories, the person-centered approach describes three types of personalities, namely resilient, sub-controlled and over-controlled personality;
- resilient personality is characterized by flexibility, capacity for behavioral restructuring, emotional stability, social desirability;
- super-controlled personality is characterized by the tendency to inhibit reactions and emotional expressions, has low scores on extraversion and emotional stability, the tendency to social withdrawal and low self-esteem;
- sub-controlled personality is characterized by low control of motivational impulses and emotional reactions, low level of agreeableness and conscientiousness, aggressive tendencies, self-esteem above average.

CHAPTER 17

PERSONALITY COGNITIVE LEVEL. DIFFERENTIAL ASPECTS

17.1 RATIONAL TYPE VERSUS INTUITIVE TYPE

Cognitive-experiential theory (Epstein, Pacini, Denes-Raj and Heier, 1996) is one of the most relevant theoretical models that explain interpersonal differences in heuristic reasoning. The central assumption of this theory is that people process information through two interacting systems – the rational system and the experiential system that operate according to different principles.

The rational modality has an analytical character, substantiated verbally (it can be easily verbalized), conscious and which is in relation to the formal rules of logic.

The experiential system operates automatically and preconsciously, having an intuitive, associative and holistic character. This system represents its events in the form of physical individuals, takes into account the past emotional experience, assuming a quick evaluation of the information. Human resolute behavior is influenced by both systems – rational and intuitive – these being constituted as a continuum, people occupying a certain position between the two poles. The manifestation of the experiential system is more evident in situations where people face experiences of emotional significance or in those cases where our need to present ourselves as rational beings is stimulated (Epstein, 1997).

By linking rational versus intuitive mode, on the one hand, and errors that may occur in reasoning and decision-making, we can say that heuristic reasoning is “saturated” in the intuitive, autonomous, fast-paced system of information processing, producing a rapid generalization, of properties

from one individual to all members of the category (representativeness error), or by framing the problem in a certain way (framing effect). Epstein, Kahn, Tverski are just some of the researchers who use the study of heuristic procedures in order to decipher the principles of operation of the experiential, intuitive system.

Thus, unlike most literature that attributes heuristics to limited human capacity to process information, rational-experiential theory incorporates heuristics into an organized experiential system. Some people mostly use the intuitive-experiential system when processing information and reasoning, while others use the rational-analytical system, both systems influencing cognitive and resolving behavior.

The results of experimental research indicate that the use of heuristics is moderated by motivation and the ability to mobilize cognitive effort, results that emphasize once again that heuristics function as abbreviations that preserve cognitive effort (Wosnitza and Beltman, 2012).

The tendency to use the rational system less frequently and less the experiential one is related to a normative response, which takes into account formal rules, while the tendency to mobilize predominantly intuitive, automatic and faster processing system is in connection with heuristic judgments. Epstein, Donovan, and Denes-Raj (1999) state that once the experiential system is activated by presenting certain indicators in the field of the problem, it tends to influence information processing.

17.2 KNOWLEDGE NEED INTERPERSONAL DIFFERENCES

Also in the first level of cognition, a concept that has been researched for a long time in recent decades is that of the need for knowledge. Cacioppo and Petty (1982), reviewing the literature that aimed to define the notion of need for knowledge, refer to this notion as the tendency to engage in difficult or complex cognitive activities.

By conceptualizing man as an information processing system, a considerable number of researches have succeeded in clarifying the connotation of notions, such as reasoning, decision-making, problem solving in different contexts and under different conditions.

Starting from these conceptual delimitations, Cohn (1995, p. 290) refers to the need for knowledge as “the need to structure relevant situations in meaningful and integrated ways of information, as well as the need to make the experiential world comprehensive and reasonable.” When we fail

in the behavior of structuring situations, we experience tension and a sense of deprivation which, in turn, stimulates us to initiate behaviors that aim to increase the comprehensiveness of existence and the world in general.

According to Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) theory, people with a high level of knowledge seek, acquire, and reflect on information in order to make sense of stimuli, relationships, and events compared to people with a low level of knowledge who to achieve a coherent structure of the world, resort to social comparison strategies.

The need for knowledge is a theoretical construct that has been operationalized and related to other aspects of personality. Thus, the need for knowledge is related to tolerance of ambiguity (Shaffer and Hendrick, 1974), dogmatism (Fletcher, Danikwies, Fernandez, Peterson, & Reeder, 1986), self-monitoring (Miller et al., 1991), and preference for order, structure, and predictability (Petty and Jarvis, 1996).

Also, the greater the need for knowledge, the lower the tendency to ignore, avoid and distort information. Other research has shown that the need for knowledge is positively correlated with the tendency to generate complex attributions to human behavior, the ability to focus on tasks, curiosity and objectivity (Olson, 1984).

The influence of the need for knowledge on the activity of information processing was also assessed, with studies showing that people with behavioral cognitive impairment update more of the information they have encapsulated, paying more attention to the quality of information available in the arguments. which they bring, generate a greater number of solving strategies in arithmetic and anagram problems (Dornic et al., 1991; Baugh & Mason, 1986).

Although the number of research aimed at elucidating the concept of the need for knowledge is large, there are few studies devoted to investigating the need for knowledge in the context of solving a complex or poorly defined problem. Studying the involvement of the need for knowledge in solving a complex or contradictory problematic situation is absolutely necessary, given that the environment in which we live is becoming more complex, more dynamic and sometimes irrational.

People with a high level of need for knowledge mobilize more cognitively and more attentively, getting involved in solving complex situations and developing meaningful interpretations, this fact providing them with support in the decision-making process. If people are able to issue a large

and varied number of resolution possibilities, it means that they also have the ability to extract more information. Therefore, solving complex problems is related to the nature of information-processing behavior, in terms of the amount and diversity of information. Quantity refers to the number of significant units of information extracted from the context of the problem, while diversity refers to the different types of information extracted.

17.3 COMPETENCE GENDER DIFFERENCES

Gender issues refer to all fundamental and applied research aimed at highlighting the differences between men and women at various psychological and behavioral levels.

In terms of competency levels, the most numerous and controversial studies have addressed gender differences in intelligence, both in terms of general ability and specific aptitude.

Most societies and cultures attribute certain characteristics to the two genders differently, thus giving rise to gender stereotypes. These essentially refer to the association of the male figure with traits such as aggression, self-control, competitiveness, decision-making independence, while the female figure is associated with attributes such as sensitivity, emotionality, dependence, subjectivity.

Research shows that the media significantly influences the modification or preservation of gender stereotypes in the general public (Rubie-Davies et al., 2013).

Conducting a content analysis of media material, Taylor and Lee (1994) show that:

- men are presented in a variety of social parts, while women are associated mainly with domestic parts;
- men are presented as active, assertive, expert or leaders compared to women, less active, dependent and more influential.

Despite gender stereotypes fueled by the media, current scientific research shows that there are significant male-female differences, namely:

- in terms of aggression, men have higher rates than women, especially in the case of physical and less verbal aggression (Hyde, 1984; Wilkowski, Hartung, Crowe, Chai, & Christopher, 2012);
- conformity is stronger in women than in men, but these differences are much smaller than those “attested” by stereotypes (Eagly, Chrvala, 1986);

- at the level of nonverbal communication (both as initiation and as understanding, decoding of nonverbal messages), women are superior to men, regardless of age (Galsworthy, Plomin, Dionne and Dale, 2000);
- at the LOC (locus of control) level, women are more likely to make situational assignments for success or failure compared to men (Sherman, Higgs, & Williams, 1997).

In this context, of promoting different male-female social images, it was natural for researchers to focus on a sensitive point from immemorial time, namely the study of gender differences in intelligence.

Comparing the performance of men and women in the fields of social and cultural life, the male-female non-equivalences seem justified: men are much more interested in the exact sciences, they are promoted in those areas of activity that require creative work, while women have a propensity to the humanities, social sciences, achieving performance in routine jobs. The question that arose was whether these differences were the effect of the existence of power structures and social stratifications or whether they were based on innate natural factors. The answer is not certain, because stereotypes, through “attack” on self-image and role expectations, can become a reality.

Raising the issue of real differences in intellectual capacity between men and women and based on relevant scientific studies and research, Maccoby and Jacklin (1972, in Ilut, 2000, p. 180) reach the following conclusions:

- there are no significant differences between the sexes in terms of general intelligence (IQ);
- it is not true that girls perform better in reproductive learning and in simple repetitive tasks, and boys in activities that involve a high level of cognitive processes;
- studies show significant differences in favor of girls in terms of verbal skills;
- boys have superior skills in mathematical calculus and visual-spatial representations.

Recent research, however, refutes the last two previous findings, showing that with the advancement of knowledge and changes in society, male-female differences in intellectual performance and thinking styles are insignificant (for example, gender differences in verbal skills have disappeared,

and the superior performance of male subjects in mathematical calculus is relevant only at the level of gifted young people).

17.4 SOCIAL COMPETENCE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The components of social skills refer to assertiveness, cooperation, seeking social support, understanding nonverbal messages, empathy, solving and understanding problems of a social kind, self-presentation, etc. It has been shown that all social skills play a very important part in both social life and mental health, as well as in professional success. Social skills are positively correlated with intelligence and extraversion and negatively correlated with neuroticism and anxiety.

Research conducted in order to study social skills shows their effects on several levels:

- On a personal level – social skills have beneficial effects on self-realization, happiness and social adjustment. It is shown that people who have difficulty finding social support (low social competence) are generally pessimistic, internalized, hostile and intolerant; the most socially appreciated people are those who smile, look more closely at each other and get closer (Custrini and Feldman, 1989), find common ground, talk about pleasant things and have a sense of humor (Yip and Martin, 2006). Tamir (2009) shows that extroverts are happier than introverts, in part because they are more assertive and cooperative, send more positive nonverbal cues, and have less suspicion.
- Professionally – social skills were studied in conjunction with leadership, showing that they refer to the ability to create a structure, the ability to attract the attention of group members, democratic and persuasive leadership style (Seal, Royce-Davis, Miguel and Andrews-Brown, 2014).

PART NINE

PERSONALITY, COGNITION AND EMOTION

CHAPTER 18

PERSONALITY, COGNITION AND EMOTION

18.1 AUTOMATIC AND CONTROLLED INFORMATION PROCESSING

Studies in the field of cognitive, social, developmental and personality psychology converge towards the idea that there are two ways in which we process information: an automatic, spontaneous, non-reflexive, involuntary processing and a discursive, reflexive, intentional and controlled processing (Strack & Deutsch, 2004).

There are some characteristics of automatic processing: it is fast, non-intentional; there is the spontaneous activation of some well-learned responses, developed through repeated activations of associations in memory; knowledge results from repeated experiences; it claims a minimal effort and cognitive resources; automatic processing efficiency is affected to a small extent by a distracting stimulus; there is an automatic activation of the response in the presence of stimuli; the uncontrollability of the activation of associative links; it is structured by preconscious similarity and contiguity (Sternberg, 1994).

The characteristics of reflexive processing refer to the fact that it is slow, intentional, flexible and structured by language and logic; knowledge results from fewer experiences; it has motivational support; it requires considerable effort and cognitive resources; it is more easily disturbed and it is useful in decision-making and problem solving (Epstein, 1998).

Research shows that the two ways of processing information have different purposes. Thus, from the perspective of evolutionary psychology, the cognitive system should “negotiate” these two opposing requests that

are based on two different processing of the available information: a request to acquire some quick behavioral responses (especially in situations where control over external situations is reduced) and the demand to acquire analytical and reflexive behavioral responses (especially in situations where control over external situations is greater) (LeDoux, 1994).

The results of research in the area of social cognition show that the main applications of the two types of information processing concern the development of the stereotypes, interpersonal evaluation (for example, the first impression), recognition of emotions and the behavioral control. At the level of these aspects, significant differences were highlighted between the automatic and reflexive way of processing information (Lee & Harris, 2013).

The studies led by Schwartz (1990) and Clore (2001) show that people in a negative mood process information more deliberately and elaborate “local” judgments, being persuaded rather by strong arguments, while people in a positive mood process information automatically and elaborate “global” judgments. Gender studies that aimed to identify and measure gender differences related to the preferences in information processing lead to interesting results. Recording brain arousal in an emotion recognition task, the researchers show that men process less automatically and more analytically the information related to emotion recognition compared to women, because in this type of task there was a more pronounced brain activity in the prefrontal lobe in the case of men, respectively in the limbic system, in the case of women (Damasio, 1994; Hall, 2003).

In another research conducted by Bruce and Young (1986, 1998, 2001) on the normal population, they started from the following research questions:

- (a). what information do we preferentially use when recognizing faces?
- (b). what functional components are responsible for generating this information?
- (c). what type of information is used in the recognition of familiar people?

The authors came to the conclusion that people use 6 types of information (codes) useful in recognizing human faces. *Pictorial codes* consider the integration of successive visual fixations into a static image; they contain details related to brightness, texture, posture and general expression. These codes themselves do not make it possible to recognize faces, but rather perform a primary processing of information. *Structural codes* capture aspects of the structure that make it possible to differentiate

one face from another. Structural codes, unlike pictorial ones, will facilitate the recognition of a familiar face in the conditions where certain elements change (angle, expression, etc.). They capture the configuration rather than the distinct features. Also, certain areas of the face provide more information in establishing identity than others. Structural codes are stored, and when they overlap with visual information, recognition occurs. *Visually derived semantic codes* help relate facial indicators to a certain person or identity. There is therefore a secondary processing of the visual information that allows the recognition of a particular identity. The semantic codes used in the recognition of familiar faces act faster than in the case of unfamiliar faces. However, these do not manage to activate the total information about a person, but only aspects such as gender or age, because they depend on the physical features of the perceived face. *Semantic identity codes* also assume a secondary processing of visual information that allows a more comprehensive description of the person and act more deeply than the visually derived codes and, unlike these, are accompanied by a sense of familiarity. *The name codes* contain the information that allows the association of facial features with a particular name. We can have a semantic identity code, but not a name code – it is not the same recognition that we have when we see a written name and associate it with the person, because in this case, the written code acts as an input, while in face recognition, it acts as an output. Finally, the *expression codes* allow the inference of information, starting from the facial features, regarding the emotional state of the person (happy/unhappy; angry/calm, etc.).

Related to the notion of control in relation to the two types of information processing, Ortony & Revelle (2005) show that there are three levels of control: reactive, routine (fast, unreflective processing) and reflexive (deliberate processing). Each has associated affects (*what I feel*), cognitions (*what I know, what I believe*), motivations (*what I need*) and behaviors (*how I act* based on what I know, what I feel and what I need).

18.2 THEORIES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COGNITION AND EMOTION

In personality theories, there has been a long and intense debate on the relationship between cognition and emotion, personality theorists trying to formulate an answer to the question of whether cognition is the trigger of emotion or emotion commands the cognition. Below, we review some of the central positions that influenced this debate.

Arnold's perspective

From Arnold's perspective, emotion arises from the cognitive evaluation of the stimulus, and the experience of any emotion comprises three components: cognition (what I think about the stimulus/situation), somatic disturbances (what I feel organically) and the impulse to action (what I do). Any perceived stimulus automatically undergoes a cognitive evaluation process which assumes that the interpretation of the stimulus according to previous experiences stored in memory will set certain expectations. The cognitive evaluation of the stimuli will thus command a particular, specific emotion that will accompany three types of reactions: what we evaluate as good will lead to an *approach reaction*, what we evaluate as bad will lead to a *rejection reaction*, and what we rate as indifferent will be associated with a *neutral reaction*.

Lazarus' perspective

Lazarus starts from the premise that there is a fundamental human need to give meaning to what we live. Giving a psychological meaning to an event requires information processing, i.e. a cognitive evaluation of the stimuli that will produce the emotional response (emotion). This, in turn, determines the activation of an action plan. Therefore, the model proposed by Lazarus frames the relationship between cognition and emotion as having three elements: the subjective meaning of the event, the emotional response associated with this meaning and the action plan. Lazarus also emphasizes the idea that the cognitive evaluation of the stimulus can be conscious, deliberate, analytical, but also subconscious, automatic. Another significant point in Lazarus' conceptualization refers to the relationship between culture and emotion, the author showing that culture influences emotion, by the way we perceive emotional stimuli, by learning emotional expressions and by behavioral rituals.

Frija's perspective

Frija, referring to the complex relationship between emotion and cognition, introduces a new dimension in thinking about this relationship: besides the automatic versus reflexive evaluation of a stimulus, people are also involved in a primary versus secondary evaluation. Regarding the first component, automatic versus reflexive evaluation, the author claims that the emotion results, in the first phase, from an automatic processing of the

stimulus, and after that, there are reflexive cognitive processes. Simultaneously, a primary evaluation takes place when people judge the emotional significance of the event in order to then judge the resulting emotion.

Oatley and Johnson-Laird's perspective

These researchers who approach the relationship between cognition and emotion in the area of personality show that emotion works as an alarm signal that a certain situation requires control. These control signals associated with emotions allow a rapid answer to the situation and also allow the system to withstand the change in the situation. These alarm systems are associated with 5 basic emotions: happiness (the plan continues), sadness (the search for a new plan), fear (escaping the situation), anger (persevering in the situation) and disgust (rejection).

Parkinson's perspective

Parkinson starts from the question of whether the cognitive evaluation process always and in any situation precedes the emotional reaction, taking as an example the smile as an emotional expression. The author considers that this emotional expression can be seen as a reaction to the evaluation of an interpersonal situation, but also as an antecedent of a subsequent cognitive evaluation of the situation. His study shows that many emotions begin as interpersonal messages, actually serving social purposes, concluding that any cognitive evaluation becomes part of an emotional experience rather than its cause.

Zajonc's perspective

Like Parkinson, Zajonc casts the seed of scientific doubt on the correctness of the question that started the research on the relationship between cognition and emotion, if it is put in the most appropriate terms. The researcher states that: „*it is possible that we can like something or be afraid of it before we know precisely what it is and perhaps even without knowing what it is*” (p. 154). From this perspective, emotion is not a post-cognitive reaction, it does not appear after complex evaluations of stimuli, but it is the one that determines the way of processing, the way we understand reality and events. Thus, cognition and emotion should be viewed as independent systems, being related to partially independent neurological systems.

As main conclusions of the cognition-emotion debate, we can say that:

- the emotional response is the result of the cognitive evaluation of the significance of some objects/situations/events for the person's well-being;
- this assessment can be automatic, non-intentional or reflexive, intentional;
- the way the person interprets the situation at a given event is crucial to the type and intensity of the emotion displayed;
- the emotional response does not always come after a cognitive processing of the stimulus, but before it.

18.3 PERSONALITY AND SPECIFIC EMOTIONS

Starting from Izard's research (1993, 1998), recent cross-sectional and longitudinal studies highlight some important roles of emotions in building personality: emotions have a motivational role, mobilizing the body to overcome the obstacle and reach the goal; emotion organizes perception, cognition, and behavior; the relationship between emotion and behavior develops early and remains relatively stable; emotional development contributes to personality development; personality structure influences the way we live and we express emotions. The studies differentiate between 6 fundamental emotions that we address below, emphasizing their specific characteristics.

Anger

Anger is one of the primary emotions with the potential to affect interpersonal relationships. Most studies show that anger is associated with hostility and aggression, thus emphasizing its negative effect. Other research, however, reveals the positive effect of anger that prepares the body for attack or defense. Anger is one of the first emotions developed in childhood, associated with frustration, has strongly socially standardized expressions and has a regulatory role in the space of interpersonal relationships. From the evolutionary perspective, anger has biological support, being associated with the aggressive drive and is psychologically constructed being linked to the correction of a perceived mistake and sociocultural being associated with socially accepted standards of conduct (Averill, 2009). Thus, anger has significant social functions, physiologically and psychologically

regulates the process of self-defense, regulates interpersonal behaviors, and develops very early in childhood, being linked to physical limitations or with restriction of activities that produce pleasure.

Joy

Referring to the research that addresses positive and negative emotions, Strongman said that: *„because of the personal and social impact of negative emotions, people are more concerned with how to control these emotions or reduce their impact than with how could maintain a positive emotion’* (2007, p. 124). Research shows that joy is related to 3 systems – biological, psychological and social –, is linked to the optimal functioning of behavioral systems and is experienced individually, each person having a particular tendency to experience this emotion.

Sadness

Empirically studying sadness as a primary emotion, researchers show that it is more „pure” than other emotions, is less stressful, is related to loss and focuses attention on the Self, being an indicator that it needs help. Unlike anger, sadness has an intrapersonal rather than interpersonal connotation and, unlike fear, sadness can not be anticipated.

Disgust

The studies of Ekman and Jones (2012) show that disgust is related to the rejection of what can contaminate us physically or psychologically. This emotion presents the highest degree of automaticity of the response (automatic information processing) and differs from contempt, the latter being associated with a feeling of superiority (Tomkins, 1991). Disgust is associated with moral and aesthetic judgments, and although it appears to be a universal emotion, there is no empirical evidence that it is innate.

Jealousy and envy

Sanders (2014) linked envy with the feeling of dissatisfaction that comes from the process of social comparison, while jealousy has a pronounced character of ambiguity. Although in the lay theories the two emotions overlap most of the time, some authors differentiate them. Thus, jealousy

is the reaction to the threat of losing a significant other's affection and directing it to someone else, while envy is the reaction to the desire to have something that someone else has. The two emotions are also differentiated according to the psychological constructs with which they are associated, jealousy being related to suspicion, rejection, hostility and fear, and envy being linked to inferiority, dissatisfaction, self-criticism. Research shows that both emotions are related to social distance: envy increases the lower the degree of closeness, while jealousy increases the higher the degree of closeness.

DICTIONARY

- Functionalist approach – a system of theoretical constructs that treat personality in terms of its adaptive functionality
- Systemic approach – the view that personality is a hypercomplex, organized, structured, probabilistic and relatively stable bio-psycho-socio-cultural system
- Activity – apud Strelau, is associated with the energy level of behavior that varies in intensity and frequency, depending on different tasks
- Adaptability – speed and ease of adaptation to the social environment (family, school)
- Alienation – the feeling of alienation of the person from their own self
- Anima – the feminine aspect encountered in the male unconscious
- Animus – the masculine aspect of the female unconscious
- Basal anxiety – the feeling of isolation, of dependence resulting from unresolved interpersonal conflicts
- Archetype – ancestral, primordial images of the experience of the species acting as organized principles, reactions, triggering the same reactions in the members of a nation
- Arousal – the general level of cortical excitability
- Assertiveness – free support of opinions, taking responsibility for its personal and social effects
- Self-efficacy – the person's belief that he/she can organize and execute a certain course of the action or that he/she can achieve certain results in a specific task
- Autonomy – the child's ability to develop his/her own control over interpersonal relationships
- Phenomenal field – represents the totality of the unique experiences of the person who cannot be known directly
- Search for sensations – quality specific to the extravert structure
- Correlation coefficient – measures the relationship between two sets of numbers, being the mathematical expression of evaluating the relationship between different personality variables
- Inferiority compensation – directly or indirectly, refers to overcoming the feeling of inferiority, with superior results
- Skills – refers to the ability of a person to achieve above average results in certain tasks

- Inferiority complex – is installed when the person is convinced that whatever he/she does will not overcome the inferiority
- Superiority complex – is supported by the actions of the person who thinks he/she is superior to others, without having an objective basis of this belief
- Cognitive complexity – the diversity of the system of representations that the person has about himself/herself and others
- Social conditionality – considered in relation to the E/I dimension of the personality, refers to the potential of the human individual to learn certain social behaviors
- Conflict – the main motivational force, defined as the effect of the existence of two fundamental opposite attitudes towards a person
- Congruence/incongruity of the Ego – refers to the distance between the ideal and real plan of the Ego
- Temporal consistency – refers to the fact that a behavior is constant over time, in a certain situation
- Family constellation – refers to the number of family members and the order of their birth, being considered a predictive aspect in the evolution of personality
- Personal construct – how the person perceives, understands, predicts and interprets reality
- Corollaries of personality – include a series of statements about the structure and development of personality
- Creativity – the ability to combine, recombine and transform the world, with the meaning of adapting to new conditions and orienting towards the future and possibly
- Field dependence/independence – manifestation, at the level of the perceptual sphere, of a major dimension of the person's functionality, an aspect that extends in the sphere of social behavior and interpersonal relations
- Description of personality – aims to identify the constituent elements of the personality system refers to the conceptualization of behavior as an effect of the interaction between personality and environment, behavior acting on the latter aspects
- Personality development – refers to the explanatory mechanisms of formation and changes in personality evolution
- Epigenetic diagram – development of personality aspects, until the constitution of a functional whole
- Personality dimension – suggests that an individual's personality is placed at a certain point on a continuum bounded by two extremes
- Personality dynamics – aims to identify processes and mechanisms by which the personality finds its expression in a behavior, focusing on motivational aspects
- Eclectic – means the combination of ideas and methods from different theoretical and applied areas
- Collective efficiency – refers to the confidence of a group in the performance of a behavior or a performance

- Negative emotionality – refers to the emotional intensity, frequency and intensity of emotional expressiveness
- Empathy – the person's ability to transpose into the cognitive, affective and volitional state of another person
- Heritability – the proportion of variation of a trait in the population, determined by interpersonal differences due to the genetic basis
- Ideal ego – includes the physical and psychological aspects of the person, as he/she would like to be
- Real self – includes the real physical and psychological aspects of the person, as it is in reality
- Self knowledge – the result of the development of mental processes, functions, conditions and activities
- Connoisseur Ego – developed on the basis of Knowledge Ego, refers to the awareness of one's own structure and functionality
- Avoidance of sensations – quality specific to the introverted structure
- Expectation – in Bandura's conception, has the sense of anticipating a behavior and emotional state related to this anticipation
- Extrapunitive/intropunitive – refers to the tendency of some people to project/introvert guilt
- Extraversion – general orientation of energy outwards
- Personality factor – descriptive element of personality located, as a degree of generality, between trait and type, having predictive value on behavior
- Surface factor – is a set of variables and relationships between them that describe the person's behavior, giving rise to variable behaviors, depending on the situation
- Dispositional factor – personality factor that suffers from the influence of genetic inheritance
- Source factor – personality descriptor that expresses personal behavioral pattern
- Ergic factors – predominantly innate motivational forces
- Metaergic factors – predominantly acquired motivational forces
- Personality factor – explanatory entity in the description of personality, result of statistical correlations between scores of different personality traits; as a quantitative description and as a degree of generality, it lies between type and feature
- Fidelity – the quality of a test to lead to similar results in case of repeated applications
- Strength of the nervous system – is defined as the strength of the process of nervous excitation
- Thinking and feeling – two alternative ways to make value judgments that will form the basis of decision-making
- Generativeness – developing the interest in the formation and orientation of future generations, fulfilling the creative potential
- Identity – awareness of one's own abilities and limits, of the continuity of the Ego

- Negative identity – taking on socially undesirable parts
- Idiodynamics – a concept introduced by Rosensweig to emphasize research in the field of personality that focuses on biographical aspects and interpretation of personal experiences
- Idiographic – quality attached to research aimed at studying individual characteristics
- Basic confidence – involves child safety feeling, depending on the quality of the parental model and sensory stimulation
- Detection – the process of exploring and reintegrating unconscious potentials in the Self, having a meaning from general to particular, from undifferentiated to differentiated
- Social inhibition – refers to the tendency to stimulate or inhibit activity in unique social situations
- Initiative – the positive pole of the third stage, with the significance of exploring the environment
- Instinct – stereotypical behavior, automatically triggered by significant stimuli, aiming for a very precise purpose
- Integrity – the ability to accept successes and failures, the feeling of acceptance of the end
- Crystallized intelligence – correlates especially with convergent thinking and mediates performance in a certain field
- Fluid intelligence – the ability to acquire knowledge and skills that mediate performance in any field of activity
- Intimacy – the ability to merge psychologically with another person, while maintaining self-identity
- Introversion and extraversion – the fundamental dimension of personality, which signify the major direction of energy orientation
- Introversion – general inward energy orientation
- Observational learning – the process by which new responses are acquired or existing responses are modified, as a result of observing the behavior of others and its consequences
- Internal/external locus of control – quality given to persons who attribute the causes of personal behavior or the other to internal or external factors
- Defensive mechanisms – the mechanisms by which the ego defends itself against unacceptable intrapsychic content
- Personality metaphor – Kelly's analogy between personal experiences and the experiences of the scientist
- Metamotivation (initial meaning) – refers to the need fulfillment of human potential
- Metamotivation (subsequent meaning) – motivation resulting from awareness of the reasons for personal behavior or another person, as well as the attitude of the individual towards them

- Mobility of the nervous system – refers to the ability to switch from excitation to inhibition
- Power-based model – is represented by models that control the reward
- Status-based model – is represented by models that receive rewards or social recognition
- Modeling – the strategy of producing personality changes, with effects on personal behaviors
- Predictability model of social behavior – is developed by Mischel to demonstrate the link between traits and behavior, based on the principle of temporal consistency
- Denial of reality – defense mechanism whose function is to deny everything that is not accepted by the Self
- Neuroticism – factor described in Eysenck's theory, constituting the dimension of emotional stability/instability
- Nomothetic – quality attached to research aimed at studying the group of subjects, based on interindividual comparisons
- Paradox of consistency – refers to the fact that, although we perceive a person's behavior as constant in different situations, research shows that this behavior varies depending on the situation
- Persona – aspect of the ego that adapts to the world, social requirements
- Personality – dynamic psychophysical organization system that determines the unique adaptation of the individual to the environment
- Aggressive personality – interpersonal orientation, based on the need for dominance and power
- A-type personality – has as characteristics the need for dominance, control, competitiveness, being exposed to cardiovascular diseases
- B-type personality – is characterized by addiction, emotional control, low level of competitiveness, tendency to self-knowledge
- Detached personality – interpersonal orientation, based on the need for intimacy and isolation
- Updated personality – in Maslow's description, is the person characterized by realistic perception, spontaneity, creativity, etc.
- Compliant personality – interpersonal orientation, based on the need for affiliation and dependence
- Interpersonal personality – the personality of the individual as perceived by other members of the group, depending on its kind and structure, status and parts of its members
- Pyramid of needs – how organization and structuring of needs, containing 5 levels
- Fundamental postulate – states that the human personality, through the system of personal constructs, satisfies the fundamental need of the human individual to anticipate the development of subsequent events

- Threshold – concerns the level of stimulation necessary to obtain a response to different sensory stimuli
- Principle of opposites – wherever a unilateral direction of conscious life dominates, an opposite, opposite unconscious position will form over time
- Principle of emergence – refers to the functioning of needs within the pyramid structure, according to which the need appears only after the need for the immediately preceding level is met
- Epigenetic principle – is the basis of any growth process that involves the existence of a general plan from which certain parts are differentiated, each having an upward evolution, in a certain time, until the moment they develop, to form a functional whole
- Principle of secondarity – the principle according to which attitude is secondary to feeling, and this is secondary to instinctual forces
- Retention processes – refers to the storage of observed data, to be updated when the situation requires it
- Motivational processes – all internal stimuli that energize, guide and regulate conduct
- Proprium – unity and integration of biological, psychological, social and cultural aspects
- Prototype – typical example of a category, rendering the general and essential characteristics of a situation
- Usual answers – repetitive actions of the subject in similar situations
- Specific answers – the subject's preferences to act in a certain way
- Rationalization – technique to reduce anxiety by which the person explains his/her own behavior in a logical, rational, socially accepted manner
- Reactivity – is a stable pattern of response to a stimulus that affects the person
- REP test – the repertoire checklist of part constructs, developed by Kelly, in order to evaluate the system of personal constructs
- Motor reproduction – refers to updating the actions and acts of the model observed when the subject is in a similar situation
- Rhythmicity – refers to the temporal regularity of biological functions
- Mental health – inner state of freedom, in which individual abilities are available to us, in their fullness activity, development of perseverance in certain tasks, continuity in work
- Diligence – inclination towards an activity, development of perseverance in certain tasks, continuity in work
- Feeling – fundamental dynamic structure, based on a subjective attitude
- Feeling of inferiority – natural feeling at childhood, is later induced by comparative analysis with other people, being accompanied by decreased confidence and self-esteem

- Feeling of superiority – is associated with the person's desire to have a very good performance in a certain field of activity
- Feeling of insecurity – a feeling associated with the imminent changes in the way of representing reality
- Sensation and intuition – two complementary ways to extract information about reality
- Social sensitivity – the ability of the human individual to correctly perceive and interpret interpersonal relationships
- Syntality – group personality, highlighting intergroup differences in terms of their attitude towards reality
- Self-regulation and planning system – central variable in Mischel's theory, with reference to the individual's ability to regulate, plan and control his/her own conduct
- Developmental stage – a distinct period in the development of the personality, a cut in its ontogenetic evolution
- State of preparation – the process of maturation that influences the body's reaction to various events
- Cognitive style – refers to an individual's personal way of perceiving, thinking, memorizing and, in general, to process information the real and the ideal self
- Encoding strategies – refers to the way in which the human individual encodes information about reality
- Positive unconditional support – is an important factor in the development of personality which consists in providing emotional support, regardless of the person's behavior
- Q sorting technique – the technique used by Rogers which consists in sorting a series of cards that have inscribed various statements about personality
- Temperament – according to Strelau, is a set of relatively stable features, observable through the energy level of behavior and by temporal patterns of reaction
- Update tendency – is a natural tendency that refers to the growth and development of personality potentials
- Improvement tendency – the natural tendency of the human individual to overcome the feeling of inferiority
- Personality type – theoretical construct of high generality, with descriptive value, bringing individuals together based on similarities
- Trait – relatively stable structure, with the ability to functionally equate stimuli and initiate forms of adaptive behavior
- Cardinal trait – structure that dominates the personality and life of the individual axiologically orienting the existence
- Central trait – descriptive and explanatory structure of personality that determines most of the person's behaviors

- Personality trait – relatively stable structure denoting the psychological characteristics of a person, with an explanatory part in behavioral consistency, differentiating individuals
- Secondary trait – descriptive personality unit, responsible for a very small number of individual behaviors, with a low degree of generality and consistency
- Need – motivational structure signaling an imbalance, tension generator
- Need for growth – is equivalent to the need for self-realization
- Overbearing need – the need that becomes predominant at some point in the personality structure
- Deficit needs – are represented by the first 4 levels of the pyramid
- Shadow – the complex of feelings, ideas, desires that are forbidden to develop, being considered the source of moral conflict
- Construct validation/invalidation – refers to the confirmation/refutation of personal predictions about the development of a behavior or event
- Validity – the quality of a test to measure exactly what it aims
- Heuristic value – the ability of a theory to give birth to new ideas, to open new research perspectives
- Cognitive variables – include cognitive aspects (information processing) that vary from person to person and that explain the different behavior, in the same situation, of different people

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