



Department of Open & Distance Learning
Punjabi University, Patiala

Class : M.A. I (Education)

Semester : 2

Paper : II (Psychological Characteristics and Abilities)

Unit : II

Medium : English

Lesson No.

- 2.1 : Personality and its theories
- 2.2 : Big Five Model of Personality
- 2.3 : Personality Assessment
- 2.4 : Well Being
- 2.5 : Defense Mechanisms

Department website : www.pbidde.org

**PERSONALITY : CONCEPT, DEVELOPMENT, ERIKSON'S THEORY OF
PERSONALITY AND ALLPORT'S TRAIT THEORY**

Structure:

- 2.1.1 Introduction
- 2.1.2 Objectives
- 2.1.3 Concept of Personality
 - 2.1.3.1 View points regarding Personality
 - 2.1.3.2 Definitions of Personality
 - 2.1.3.3 Characteristics of Personality
- 2.1.4 Development of Personality
 - 2.1.4.1 Genetic factors
 - 2.1.4.2 Environmental factors
 - 2.1.4.3 Psychological factors
- 2.1.5 Erikson's theory of Personality
- 2.1.6 Allpot's Trait theory of Personality
- 2.1.7 Functional Autonomy
- 2.1.8 Summary
- 2.1.9 Suggested Questions
- 2.1.10 Suggested Readings and Web Sources

2.1.1 Introduction :

We all know something about personality as all of us have a unique personality. This is the most fascinating topic we have in the field of psychology. In our daily life the comments like, 'He has a poor personality', or 'Look at that young man, what a fine personality he has', are quite common. Remarks like this make us believe that personality is a thing or quality that is possessed by all of us and we can paste labels such as fine, good or poor on it on the basis of the physical make-up, manner of walking, talking, dressing and most of other similar characteristics of individuals. But personality is much more than that. It not only includes physical appearance but also is determined by chemique and environmental influences, which also includes cultural influences. In this chapter we will also discuss Allpot's Traity theory.

2.1.2 Objectives :

After going through this lesson you will be able to:

- (i) Define personality.
- (ii) Understand the concept of personality.
- (iii) Explain various factors related with the development of personality.
- (iv) Differentiate between various stages of personality development given by Erikson.
- (v) Understand the trait theory personality development given by Allport's.

2.1.3 Concept of Personality :

The modern aim of education is the wholesome balanced or harmonious development of personality of the individual. The term personality has been derived from the Latin word "Persona", that was associated with Greek theatre in ancient times. Persona was meant for a 'MASK' which the Greek actors commonly used to wear before their faces when they worked on the stage. In our country, actors in Ram Lila and Krishna Lila use masks when they enact the role of a particular character from the epics. In this sense, personality means the **individual as seen by others.**

According to the **concept of mask**, personality was thought to be the effect and influence which the individual wearing a mask, left on the audience. Even today, for a layman, personality means **the effect which an individual leaves on other people.** Precisely, we can say that the mask or persona of the actor implied a cover for the real person behind it. Plato's idealistic philosophy believed that personality is a mere façade for some substance.

2.1.3.1 View points regarding Personality :

1. Personality as a stimulus or Sociological view : Some psychologists define personality in terms of its social stimulus value. How an individual affects other persons with whom he comes in contact, whether he is impressive or repulsive or he has dominating or submissive personality. Personality from this point of view, becomes identical to reputation and impression, mostly in terms of physical appearance, clothing, conversation and etiquette.

2. Philosophical View : According to this view personality is ideal of perfection. It is self-realization.

3. Bio-Physical View: According to this view personality is what a man is within himself and external behaviour provides a clue to what is within the individual. So personality is what actually is within the individual.

4. Psychoanalytic View: Freud is of the view that there are three major constituents of personality.

- (i) Id: Id is immoral, illogical & unconscious. It is the sum total of natural and general tendencies that cannot be satisfied in the society.

- (ii) Ego: Ego is social self. It is the sum total of consciousness, will power, intelligence and reasoning. It has relationship with id as well as with super ego.
- (iii) Super Ego : It is known as moral self. It is the higher and ideal part of the personality. Its function is to warn the ego about its defects and wrong actions.

5. Psychological View : According to this view personality is the sum total of physical, mental, emotional, social and temperamental make-up of the individual. It is the essence of one's instincts, feelings, emotions, sentiments, thoughts, ideals, attitudes, ptitudes, interests, intelligence, experience, habits, perception, imagination and memory and various ways of behaviour.

2.1.3.2 Definitions of Personality :

Many attempts have been made to define personality. Let us discuss some of them which are more important:

- (i) **Guilford** defines personality, "An individual's personality, then is his unique pattern of traits. A trait is any distinguishable relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another."
- (ii) **Eysenck** defines, "Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment."
- (iii) **Allport** defines, "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to this environment"

From the above discussion it is clear that there is no agreement on a single definition of personality. But still, there are some common characteristics, one is that personality is unique and it is the product of its own functioning, second, what we do today depends on our accumulated experiences of the past and third is that there is need to understand the meaning of individual differences. So, personality is which makes individuals unique. It is only through the study of personality that the relevant differences among individuals can be made clear.

2.1.3.3 Characteristics of Personality :

In the light of above definitions and discussion we can derive the following characteristics of personality:

- (i) Personality is what one is.
- (ii) Personality of each individual is unique and dynamic.
- (iii) Personality functions as unified whole.
- (iv) Personality is continually adjustment itself to environment.
- (v) Personality is self-consciousness.
- (vi) Personality is the product of both heredity and environment.

2.1.4 Development of Personality :

As we know that Personality is not fixed and permanent, it follows that heredity plays very small role in its development. It is rather the day-by-day experiences of the individual, the kinds of environment in which he was developed and his self-concept are responsible for his personality development. Here we will discuss them in three heads, viz. Genetic Factors, Environmental Factors, and Psychological Factors.

2.1.4.1 Genetic Factors - Genetic factors have individualistic or personal effect. That is why these factors are also called as personal factors. These are as follows:

(i) Physique and General Health: The outer appearance, structure, height, weight, complexion, and general health of the individual influence the development of personality.

(ii) Gender Difference: Personality development also depends upon sex differences. India and Islamic countries are the example where there are more social restrictions on girls as compared to boys, due to this inferiority complexes can be seen in girls' personality. But in the countries where these gender differences are less, girls have a well developed personality.

(iii) Role of Endocrine Glands: As a part of the genetic system, endocrine glands such as thyroid, pituitary, pancreas, gonads and adrenal glands pour hormones directly into the blood stream. If these secretions are not available within the body in proper proportion, there appear marked deviations in intelligence, emotional control, growth process etc. So the states of abnormality are produced as a result of imbalance of hormones.

Thyroid is another vital factor. Thyroid deficiency leads to sluggishness and irritable nature. On account of lack of gonadal hormones, one may develop abnormal sexual behaviour.

2.1.4.2 Environmental Factors :

Environmental influences stand in sharp contrast with genetic factors. We cannot say with certainty as to which of the two is superior. But we can say certainly that an individual is the product of both heredity and environment. Environment comprises family or homes, neighbourhood, school, community, culture and traditions, socio-economic status and so on. All these components can jointly influence the personality make-up of the individual.

(a) Family/Home: Family is the most important factor which shapes the personality traits of an individual. The first environment the child moves in is his home. The positive behavioural patterns of elders in the family help in developing positive behaviour patterns in the child. It is alleged that negative infantile experiences as taking infant into orphanages and foster homes etc. lead to progressive intellectual decline, poor social adjustment and similar other behaviour problems.

Family morale: One major dimension of family life is general moral pattern including good relation between parents and satisfaction with each other. A low morale home does not present a good model for the child imitation. Stott in (1939) : conclude one of his research as follows :

- (i) Children coming from homes where good morale patterns dominated were better adjusted, more independent and more satisfactorily related to their parents than were the average adolescents of the group.
- (ii) Those coming from homes showing family discord pattern were, generally poor adjusted in their social environment.

Economic Factors: This factor also influences the personality development. Poverty of parents and lack of money to fulfill the legitimate needs of children leads directly to certain kind of frustrations.

(b) Role of School : School plays an important role in moulding the personality of children because a significant part of a child's life is spent in school between the ages of 6 and 18 years. Here he continues the process of liking and disliking, confronting and rebelling, acquiring a conception of the world and himself.

In school, teachers' behaviour plays significant role for the child's development. The school poses new problems to be solved, new taboos to be accepted into the super-ego and new models for imitation and identification, all of which contribute their share in moulding personality.

(c) Cultural Environment: Every society is characterized by its cultural heritage which is transmitted from generation to generation in the form of social heredity. Personality of an individual is gradually shaped by the culture, he is born in. What the people think or do and feel constitute culture of a society. It is the physical way of life social institutions and psychology of the people fused together. Biological inheritance is same in human beings all over the world but it is the difference in their cultural conditions which develops distinctive personality characteristics in the individuals of different cultural groups. We can easily identify people reared in different cultures by personality patterns they possess English, American, African and Indian can be identified by their cultural backgrounds.

(d) The Neighbourhood: Out from the home, the child steps into the immediate neighbourhood. The neighbourhood is ripe with positive as well as negative influences which affect the development of child's personality, gangs and peer group play vital role in this regard. It is for the parents to take care and caution against the anti-social elements in the neighbourhood.

2.1.4.3 Psychological Factors :

Some of the psychological factors affect the personality development to a greater extent. Some important psychological factors are motivation, character,

acquired interests, intellectual capacities, aptitudes and attitudes etc.

2.1.5 Erikson's theory of Personality :

Erikson believes that the personality of an individual forms through a series of interrelated stages. The ego progresses through these stages. No doubt all these ego stages exist in the beginning in some form, each has a critical period of development.

Erikson visualizes personality development as a series of turning points. These turning points, he describes as a series of dichotomies of desirable qualities and dangers. In the development of personality it is not necessary that only positive qualities emerge. The dangerous traits may also be there. The difficulties in development arise only when positive quality is outweighed by the negative.

Stages of Psycho-social Development. The following are the stages of development as given by Erikson:

- 1. Trust Versus Mistrust (birth to 1 year):** The basic psychosocial attitude which infants have to learn is to trust their world. In case the parents meet the needs of the infant and are able to communicate genuine affection children learn to find their world as trustworthy. On the other hand if there is no affection for them and they are not cared for, the children approach their world with suspicion and mistrust.
- 2. Autonomy Versus Shame and Doubt (2 to 3 years) :** If the parents encourage the children to do what they are capable of doing at their own pace and in their own way under their judicious supervision they develop a sense of autonomy. In case the children are forced into doing things and they are made to feel ashamed they develop doubts' about their ability to deal with the environment.
- 3. Initiative Versus Guilt (4 to 10 years) :** If children are given freedom to explore and experiment tendencies towards initiative develop. In case children are restricted guilt feelings develop.
- 4. Industry Versus Inferiority (6 to 11 years) :** If the child gets encouragement to do things industry resulted. On the other hand, if the child's efforts are unsuccessful or they are derided, inferiority results.
- 5. Identify Vs. Role Confusion (12 to 18.years) :** If adolescents succeed in integrating roles in different situations so that they can perceive the continuity of their self in their experiences, identity develops. In case they are unable to establish a sense of stability in various aspects of their lives, role confusion results.
- 6. Intimacy Vs. Isolation (young adulthood) :** The young is eager and willing to fuse his identity with others. He is ready for intimacy. The dangers which occur at this stage are that intimate competitive and combative relations are experienced with and against the same people which may lead to isolation.

7. Generativity Vs. Stagnation (middle age) : "Generativity is primarily the concern of establishing and guiding the next generation." Those who are not able to engage in this process become stagnated.

8. Integrity Vs. Despair (old age) : Integrity means "the acceptance of one's one and only life cycle has something that had to be and that, by necessity, permitted of no substitutions." "Despair expresses the feeling that the time is now short too short for the attempt to start another life and to try out alternate roads to integrity.

Implications of Erikson's Theory : The preschool children should be permitted to engage themselves in considerable free experimentation so that the development of autonomy is encouraged in them. At kindergarten stage self-initiated activity must be given maximum importance. To minimize feelings of guilt the parents and teachers of four and five-year old should try to limit or divert jealousy aroused by siblings or peers.

At primary and elementary grades children are at the stage of industry Vs. inferiority. Competition must be avoided otherwise there may develop inferiority feeling among those who fail to compete successfully.

Secondary school pupils are at identity Vs. role confusion stage. "Each student is in search for a sense of identity. The teachers should encourage identity by helping pupils accept their personal appearances, by urging them to select short-term goals if delayed career choices seem too threatening and by showing them that you recognize them as persons of worth."

The adolescence is a period when there may be role confusion because the adolescents do not have any clear conception of appropriate types of behaviour that others will react to favourably. Sex roles are particularly important because they establish a pattern of many types of behaviour. Occupational choice also is a major, decision leading to a sense of identity.

In later adolescence or young adulthood the crises of intimacy versus isolation arises. In case the earlier crises are weathered successfully the individuals will enter this crises trusting others, feelings a sense of autonomy, being willing to take initiative, having high self-esteem and confidence in their abilities. In contrast, individuals who have had problems in previous stages all or most of the above qualities will be absent. They will still be searching for their identities they will fail to establish intimate relationship, even if good opportunities should come along.

2.1.6 Allport's Trait Theory of Personality Development :

Gordon W. Allport (1897-1967) was the first theorist who by rejecting the notion of a relatively limited number of personality types adopted the trait approach for the description of highly individualized personalities.

G.W. Allport is one of the most outstanding trait psychologists. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists. He has conceived that traits have a real and vital existence.

Traits, according to Allport, are the basic units of personality. Each of us develops a unique set of such organised tendencies termed as traits in the course of our continuous and gradual development. Allport distinguished three types of traits namely, cardinal traits, central traits and secondary traits.

Cardinal Traits are the primary traits so dominant in one's personal disposition that they colour virtually every aspect of one's behaviour and attributes. These traits, if found in an individual, are limited in number to just one or two. For example, if person has humorousness as cardinal trait, he will bring a sense of humour into almost all situations irrespective of its actual demands. In fact, such cardinal traits although very few in number, overrule other traits and thus drift and whole personality of the individual along with them.

Central traits represent these few characteristic tendencies, which can be ordinarily used to describe a person, e.g., honesty, kindness, submissiveness, etc. According to Allport, for knowing on individual's personality, we need to know only five to ten such central traits.

Secondary traits are not as dominant as the cardinal or central traits. They appear in only relatively small range of situations and are not considered strong enough to be regarded as integral parts of one's personality.

Cardinal traits are thus central to the description of one's personality. These traits combined with a few central traits form the core of characteristics or traits responsible for giving uniqueness to one's personality. The other remaining traits, not so generalized and consistent may also be found in other people and may thus be categorized as common traits. These traits are the ones we may have in common with other people. Thus the trait theory propounded by Allport emphasized that an individual differs from each other but also has common traits with others at least within the limits of cultural norms.

In order to find out how many traits are responsible for defining personality. Allport and one of his colleagues, Odbert (1936) analysed about 18,000 terms taken from a dictionary that could be used by people to describe each other and they finally came up with a total of 4541 psychological traits for describing human behaviour.

In this way, Allport focused on these large number of behavioural traits to describe personality instead of explaining it like other developmental and psychoanalytical theorists. To him personality was the dynamic organisation of all the behavioural traits that an individual possessed and it was that organisation which could be considered responsible for his behaviour in a particular situation.

A final aspect of Allport's trait theory is his concept of functional autonomy. This refers to the idea that a person may begin to act in a certain way because of one or more 'outside reason' and then continue that behaviour even when the original reason no longer exists. Thus certain personality characteristics become autonomous despite their origins in childhood.

2.1.7 Functional Autonomy

Functional autonomy clearly means that a **given form of behaviour** may become an end or goal in itself despite the fact that it may have been originally adopted for some other reasons the original motives are lost. What was formerly a mean to an end has now become an end in itself. In other words, the original reason for behaviour is missing, yet the behaviour persists. This is the essence of functional autonomy.

Motivation is always contemporary.

1. The life of modern Athens is continuous with the life of the ancient city, but in no sense depends upon it for its present 'go'.
2. The life of a tree is continuous with that of its seed, but the seed no longer sustains and nourishes the full-grown tree. Earlier purposes lead into later purposes, but are abandoned in the later's favour.
3. An ex-sailor has a craving for the sea. The sailor may have first acquired his love for the sea as an incident in his struggle to earn a living. The sea was secondary reinforcement for his hunger drive. But now the ex-sailor is perhaps a wealthy banker; the original motive is destroyed and yet the hunger for the sea persists and even increases.
4. Similarly hard work of a carpenter, once a means to an end, becomes an end in itself.
5. A student who first undertook a field of study did so merely to please his parents or because I was required. But now the original motives are no longer functioning, still he continues in that field for the sake of knowledge or for life.

Thus, a motive, which was instrument in carrying out a work initially, becomes a habit subsequently. In other words the activity that later became motivational was at first instrumental to some other end. What was once extrinsic and instrumental becomes intrinsic and impelling. The activity once served a drive or some simple need; it now serves itself, or in a larger sense, serves the self-image of the person.

Functional autonomy has been acknowledged by many writers.

1. Many years ago **F. Brentano** called it a well known psychological law that "what at first was desired merely as a means to something also comes at last from habit to be desired for its own sake."

2. Similarly, **R.S. Woodworth** said, "The fundamental drive towards a certain end may be hunger, sex pugnacity or what not, but once the activity is started, the means to the end becomes an object of interest on its own accounts."

Allport says that human purposes are not limited by a strict list of drives or instincts, but that they change in time, with varying conditions and keep pace with one's course of becoming. This view is definitely an advance over the earlier theories of unchanging energies. Allport's view is that motivation is conscious and contemporary and changing in nature. Thus motives undergo a change of functions.

The young man who once wanted to become a politician because of his early father fixation or identification may become interested in politics for its own sake as a means of carrying out his own style of being, as a way of actualising his own potentialities. Personality like every other living thing changes as it grows. And since motives are the dynamics of personality we must expect motives also to grow, and to change.

What educational implications can be derived from the short and simple account of functional autonomy of motivation ? The doctrine of functional autonomy of motives implies that the

1. Teacher should provide motivation at the initial stage to inculcate good habits in children, such as punctuality, neatness and honesty.
2. Once these habits are sustained for some time they would quite become autonomic in course of time. In other words, extrinsic motivation should be provided for learning desirable behaviours, but ultimately the task of the teachers should be to encourage intrinsic motivation.

However, his theory has been criticised on the following grounds :

1. The theory does not give clear and specific consideration to a study of the pattern of growth and development from conception till the end of life as done by the other theorists.
2. His belief and assertion that personality is not a continuum between childhood and adulthood holds no ground as one's present cannot be delinked from one's past or future.
3. In the opinion of Pervin (1984), the division of traits into cardinal, central and secondary is somewhat confusing. He devised the idea of uniquenesses of one's personality but did little research to establish the existence and utility of specific traits concepts.

2.1.8 Summary

We have discussed various viewpoints of various psychologists regarding the concept of personality. We have also discussed various genetic

environmental and psychological factors which influence the development of personality.

Erikson a Harvard University Psychologist holds that in a personality development there are eight critical periods or stages spread over the whole life of the individual and at each stage there is positive and negative learning. Positive learning accounts for development of healthy personalities and negative learning results in diseased personality development. Every successive stage is influenced by all the proceeding stages. Our effort should be to promote positive learning and avoid as much as possible negative learning.

2.1.9 Suggested Questions :

1. Discuss Erikson's theory of Personality.
2. What do you understand by functional Autonomy.
3. Enlist the role of various factors in development of personality.

2.1.10 Suggested Readings and Web Sources:

1. Advanced Educational Psychology : S.S. Chauhan
2. Basic Ideas in Educational Psychology : J.C. Aggarwal

Big Five Model of Personality

Structure

- 2.2.1 Objectives
- 2.2.2 Introductoion
- 2.2.3 Difference between Big Five, Five-Factor Model & Five-Factor Theory
- 2.2.4 The Big Five model
 - 2.2.4.1 Factor1: Openness
 - 2.2.4.2 Factor 2: Conscientiousness
 - 2.2.4.3 Factor 3: Extraversion
 - 2.2.4.4 Factor 4: Agreeableness
 - 2.2.4.5 Factor 5: Neuroticism
- 2.2.5 Overview of Big Five
- 2.2.6 Ways to measure Big Five
- 2.2.7 Methodological Issues
- 2.2.8 Theoretical Status
- 2.2.9 Limited Scope
- 2.2.10 Summary
- 2.2.11 Short answer text questions
- 2.2.12 Suggested Books

2.2.1 Objectives of the Lesson:

1. To become familiar with the model to the study of personality.
2. To examine, in depth, specific traits of personality.
3. To become familiar with a specific set of criteria which can be used to evaluate any trait of personality
4. To investigate individual differences, that is, how people can differ from one another.

2.2.2 Introduction

Personality is possibly the most important part of what makes us individuals. It's said that no two people look exactly alike; the same can be said about personality; no two personalities are exactly alike. For hundreds of years theorists have tried to figure out our vast human personalities into groups defined by certain characteristics we all have in common. The nature of personality is really a

unique system of defining how one expresses themselves through emotions and actions. Everyone's personality is made up of a unique pattern of traits; these special traits impact how we think, feel and react on an everyday basis.

Personality researchers have proposed that there are five basic dimensions of personality. **The "Big Five" factors** are five broad domains of personality which have been scientifically discovered to define human personality (Goldberg, 1993). The term "Big Five" was coined by Lew Goldberg. The five factor models of personality focus upon those behaviors that we express while dealing with people, changing circumstances and our environment.

Evidence of this theory has been growing over the past 50 years. The Five Factor Model of personality traits was first presented by the president of the American Psychological Association, **L.L. Thurstone**, in 1933, later expanded upon by D. W. Fiske (1949) and other researchers including **Norman** (1967), **Smith** (1967), **Goldberg (1981)**, and **McCrae & Costa (1987)**. Over three or four decades of research, these five broad factors were gradually discovered and defined by several independent sets of researchers. While there is a significant body of literature supporting this five-factor model of personality, researchers don't always agree the exact labels of each dimension.

This description is also known as the **Five Factor Model (FFM)**. Some researchers have used the label **Five-Factor Model** instead of "Big Five." Each factor is actually a cluster of more specific traits that are known to be statistically correlated. There is the most disagreement about the specifics of the trait of Openness.

2.2.3 Difference between the terms Big Five, Five-Factor Model, and Five-Factor Theory

The **Big Five** are, collectively, taxonomy of personality traits: a coordinate system that maps which traits go together. The Big Five are an empirically based phenomenon, not a theory of personality. The Big Five factors were discovered through a statistical procedure called factor analysis, which was used to analyze how various personality traits are correlated in humans. The original derivations relied heavily on American and Western European samples, and researchers are still examining the extent to which the Big Five structure generalizes across cultures.

Some researchers use the label **Five-Factor Model** instead of "Big Five." In scientific usage, the word "model" can refer either to a descriptive framework of what has been observed, or to a theoretical explanation of causes and consequences. The Five-Factor Model (i.e., Big Five) is a model in the descriptive sense only. The term "Big Five" was coined by Lew Goldberg and was originally associated with studies of personality traits used in natural language. The term "Five-Factor Model" has been more commonly associated with studies of traits using personality

questionnaires. The two research traditions yielded largely consonant models (in fact, this is one of the strengths of the Big Five/Five-Factor Model as a common taxonomy of personality traits), and in current practice the terms are often used interchangeably. A subtle but sometimes important area of disagreement between the lexical and questionnaire approaches is over the definition and interpretation of the fifth factor, called Intellect/Imagination by many lexical researchers and Openness to Experience by many questionnaire researchers.

Five-Factor Theory, formulated by **Robert (Jeff) McCrae** and **Paul Costa**, is an explanatory account of the role of the Big Five factors in personality. Five-Factor Theory includes a number of propositions about the nature, origins, and developmental course of personality traits and about the relation of traits to many of the other personality variables. Five-Factor Theory presents a biological account of personality traits, in which learning and experience play little if any part in influencing the Big Five.

2.2.4 The Big Five Model

The Big Five model is considered to be one of the most comprehensive, empirical, data-driven research findings in the history of personality psychology. The "Big Five" personality traits are -- Openness, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism (OCEAN, or CANOE if rearranged). The Neuroticism factor is sometimes referred to as Emotional Stability.

2.2.4.1 Factor1: Openness (O): Do you open for change?

Openness is a general appreciation for art, unusual ideas, curiosity, and imagination. This trait distinguishes people who are more imaginative from those who are down-to-earth. However, these are considered close to change when they avoid new experiments and follow rules and regulations very strictly.

Higher Degree in 'O': People who are more open tend to be more creative, more likely to be open to new and different ideas, and more in-touch with their feelings. They love adventures and try new things; they're insightful and imaginative. Creativity adds spice to their life; People with this Big Five Personality Trait are often risk takers. They qualify to be counted as original, creative and curious. They believe that change is more than essential for social evolution and love revolutions. They enjoy complexities of things and strive to find out their solutions. They can handle new systems, technologies and tools with great ease. They are considered suitable for the careers where a lot of creativity, novelty and originality are involved.

Lower Degree in 'O': The five factor model of personality qualifies such persons as resistant to change. They are traditional and love peaceful environment, secure jobs and serene family life. They spend a lot of time on

details and can execute plans very well. However, they are not good planner. Their focus on details may cause them to ignore big picture. They accept change only when there is no way out. They are generally more analytical and see imagination and art as things that are a waste of time. The careers where rules and regulations are to be followed very strictly are considered suitable for these people. **They can prove a good judge, accountant and auditor. No one can be better financial manager than them.**

Sample Openness items

- " I have a rich vocabulary
- " I have a vivid imagination.
- " I have excellent ideas.
- " I spend time reflecting on things.
- " I use difficult words.
- " I am not interested in abstractions. (reversed)
- " I do not have a good imagination. (reversed)
- " I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (reversed)

2.2.4.2 Factor 2: Conscientiousness(C): How do you take your work?

Conscientiousness is a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement. This trait shows a preference for planned rather than spontaneous behavior. Conscientious individuals achieve high levels of success through purposeful planning and persistence. They are also regarded by others as responsible and reliable. Teachers would generally describe conscientious students as the responsible students.

Higher Degree in 'C': The five factor model of personality considers you an organized, focused and timely achiever of your goals. You plan things and follow that route strictly. You are not easy to be distracted. However, you tend to be workaholic. You are self-disciplined. You are considered confident, dutiful and reliable. You often prove a strong executive in any organization.

Lower Degree in 'C': The five factor model of personality considers you careless, relaxed and unorganized. You don't plan things and pursue your goals with a flexible approach. Some day you work a lot and other day you go on vacations. You are spontaneous. However, you are not considered good for projects where deadlines are to be followed.

Sample Conscientiousness items

- " I am always prepared.
- " I am exacting in my work.
- " I follow a schedule.
- " I get chores done right away.
- " I like order.

- " I pay attention to details.
- " I leave my belongings around. (reversed)
- " I make a mess of things. (reversed)
- " I often forget to put things back in their proper place. (reversed)
- " I shirk my duties. (reversed)

2.2.4.3 Factor 3: Extraversion (E): Do you love gatherings or prefer solitude?

Extraversion is the tendency to seek out the company and stimulation of others. They tend to be enthusiastic, action-oriented people, who love excitement. In groups they like to talk and draw attention to themselves. Introverts lack the energy and activity level of extraverts. They tend to be quiet and low-key and not very involved in the social world. Introverts shouldn't be confused with depression or shyness; they simply lack the need for external stimulation that extraverts crave.

Higher Degree in 'E': The five factor model considers you social, friendlier and talkative. You are often assertive and energetic. You can do many tasks successfully at a time. You prefer to lead others. You are charismatic. However, you rely upon others without knowing them very well. **You are considered fit for politics, sales and public related careers.**

Lower Degree in 'E': You are considered private, serious and skeptic. You don't rely on others easily. You keep your secrets to your self. You are often quiet. You prefer environment where you can work alone. **Production management, natural sciences and art related careers are considered suitable for you.**

Sample Extroversion items

- * I am the life of the party.
- * I don't mind being the center of attention.
- * I feel comfortable around people.
- * I start conversations.
- * I talk to a lot of different people at parties.
- * I am quiet around strangers. (reversed)
- * I don't like to draw attention to myself. (reversed)
- * I don't talk a lot. (reversed)
- * I have little to say. (reversed)

2.2.4.4 Factor 4: Agreeableness (A): How do you react to others' opinions?

Agreeableness is the tendency to be compassionate and cooperative with others. The trait reflects individual differences for social harmony. Agreeable individuals, as the name suggests, generally get along with others. They generally have an optimistic view of human nature.

Higher Degree in 'A': The five factor model of personality considers you

as good natured, sympathetic and forgiving. You are considered as tolerant, agreeable and courteous. You prove an excellent team member. You strive to bring harmony amongst your mates. You are friendlier, approachable and appealing. You can ignore your own needs for others'. However, you are not a good leader. You prefer to work in background. You keep your opinions to yourself to avoid conflict. You are easily influenced. But you are a born social reformer. You can prove an excellent teacher. The psychology is one of the best fields for you.

Lower Degree in 'A': Five factor model of personality considers you as critical, analytical, non-cooperative, hostile and tough. You are expressive in your opinions and don't hide your reactions. You want your efforts and achievements to be acknowledged. However, you may not prove a good team leader. Extreme degrees qualify you as a rude, callous and self-centered person. Your love for power can lead you to be an autocrat. Disagreeable individuals place self-interest above all else. They are not very concerned with others' well-being. They tend to be skeptical of people's motives and of human nature which can make them suspicious, unfriendly, and uncooperative. You are considered suitable for those careers where you are given freedom to exercise your will. **You are a born leader. Military leadership, public administration and management are the best career dimensions for you.**

Sample Agreeableness items

- " I am interested in people.
- " I feel others' emotions.
- " I have a soft heart.
- " I make people feel at ease.
- " I sympathize with others' feelings.
- " I take time out for others.
- " I am not interested in other people's problems. (reversed)
- " I am not really interested in others. (reversed)
- " I feel little concern for others. (reversed)
- " I insult people. (reversed)
- " I like being isolated. (reversed)

2.2.4.5 Factor 5: Neuroticism: How do you handle depression?

Neuroticism is the tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anger, depression, or anxiety. Those who score high in neuroticism are highly reactive in stressful situations. They are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening or minor situations as too difficult or as impossible.

Higher Degree in 'N': The five factor model considers you nervous, unstable and vulnerable to negative emotionality. You are never satisfied with your life. You

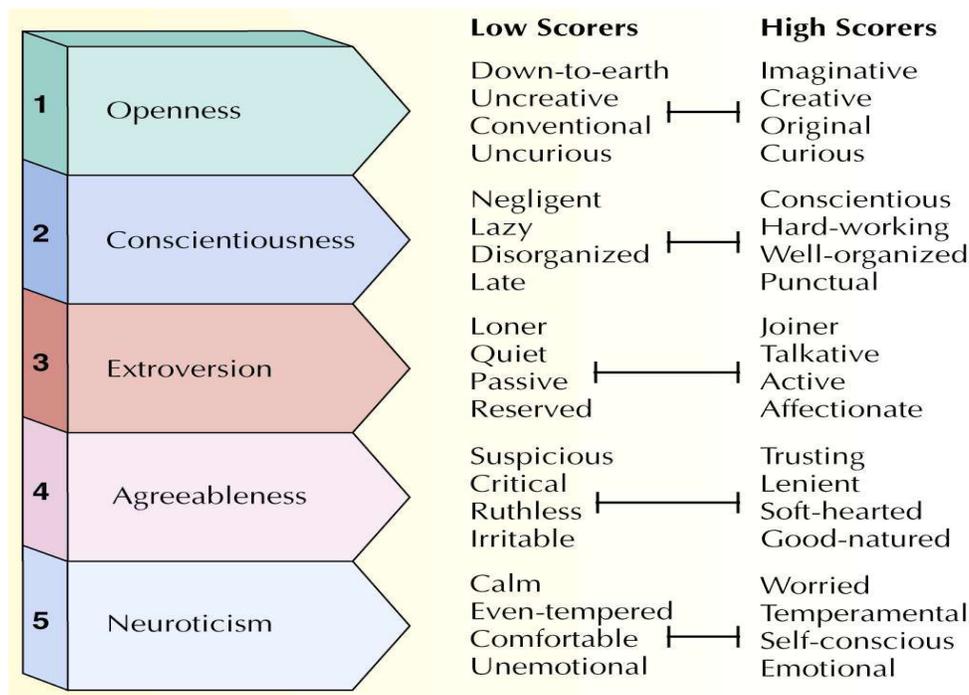
are inflamed easily. You are reactive and often fail to recover from depression shock easily. **You always feel a need for stability. In extreme cases, you may be advised clinical treatment.** You have pessimistic approach to life.

Lower Degree in 'N': The five factor model of personality considers you emotionally stable, strong nerved and composed person. You are often calm and optimist. You recover from depression periods very easily. **You are a valuable candidate for careers in air traffic, controllers and airline pilots, finance management and engineering.**

Sample Neuroticism items

- " I am easily disturbed.
- " I change my mood a lot.
- " I get irritated easily.
- " I get stressed out easily.
- " I get upset easily.
- " I have frequent mood swings.
- " I often feel blue.
- " I worry about things.
- " I am relaxed most of the time. (reversed)
- " I seldom feel blue. (reversed)

2.2.5 Overview of Big Five



Some exponents of the five factor model say that degree of different factors change with situation. However, many believe that your degree of intensity in any given factor remains constant. The entire career screening exercise follows the hypothesis that psychometrics can skim up the best candidates who shall perform the same way in future.

Unfortunately there is no evidence yet to prove this hypothesis. It is also not proved yet that the people who are rejected with the help of psychometrics can never succeed in those specific careers. Admittedly, these five factors include most of the behavioral dimensions. But behaviors have always been subject to improvement. The clinical treatment of extreme 'N' type can decrease the intensity.

In a learning environment, either extreme is generally considered negative, however usually people get more concerned when their child doesn't want to play with other kids. There is nothing wrong with not needing lots of time with other people but it is important to not let a child isolate. In school it is important that the pressures that come along with social lives don't get in the way with learning.

2.2.6 What are ways of measuring the Big Five?

The big five inventory (BFI) is not only option for measuring the Big Five...There are other options available like The International Personality Item Pool, developed and maintained by Lew Goldberg , NEO PI-R and NEO-FFI scales. The NEO PI-R is a 240-item inventory developed by Paul Costa and Jeff McCrae. It measures not only the Big Five, but also six "facets" (subordinate dimensions) of each of the Big Five. The NEO PI-R is a commercial product, controlled by a for-profit corporation that expects people to get permission and, in many cases, pay to use it. Costa and McCrae have also created the NEO-FFI, a 60-item truncated version of the NEO PI-R that only measures the five factors. The NEO-FFI is also commercially controlled. Ten Item Personality Inventory recently developed by Sam Gosling, Jason Rentfrow and Bill Swann can also be used.

If you want items that are single adjectives, rather than full sentences (like the NEO) or short phrases (like the BFI and IPIP), you have several options. For starters, there is Lew Goldberg's set of 100 trait-descriptive adjectives (published in Psychological Assessment, 1992). Gerard Saucier reduced this set to 40 Big Five mini-markers that have excellent reliability and validity (Journal of Personality Assessment, 1994). More recently, Saucier has developed new trait marker sets that maximize the Orthogonality of the factors (Journal of Research in Personality, 2002). Saucier's mini-markers are in the public domain.

2.2.7 Methodological issues

The methodology used to identify the dimensional structure of personality traits, factor analysis, is often challenged for not having a universally-recognized

basis for choosing among solutions with different numbers of factors. That is, a five factor solution depends on some degree of interpretation by the analyst. A larger number of factors may, in fact, underlie these five factors. This has led to disputes about the "true" number of factors. Big Five proponents have responded that although other solutions may be viable in a single dataset, only the five factor structure consistently replicates across different studies.

A methodological criticism often directed at the Big Five is that much of the evidence relies on self report questionnaires; self report bias and falsification of responses is impossible to deal with completely. This becomes especially important when considering why scores may differ between individuals or groups of people - differences in scores may represent genuine underlying personality differences, or they may simply be an artifact of the way the subjects answered the questions. The five factor structure has been replicated in peer reports. However, many of the substantive findings rely on self-reports.

2.2.8 Theoretical status

A frequent criticism is that the Big Five is not based on any underlying theory; it is merely an empirical finding that certain descriptors cluster together under factor analysis. While this does not mean that these five factors don't exist, the underlying causes behind them are unknown. Sensation seeking and cheerfulness are not linked to Extraversion because of an underlying theory; this relationship is an empirical finding to be explained. Several overarching theoretical models have been proposed to cover all of the Big Five, such as Five-Factor Theory and Social Investment Theory. Temperament Theory may prove to provide a theoretical foundation for the Big Five, and provide a longitudinal (life-span) model in which the Big Five could be grounded.

2.2.9 Limited scope

One common criticism is that the Big Five does not explain all of human personality. Some psychologists have dissented from the model precisely because they feel it neglects other domains of personality, such as Religiosity, Manipulativeness/Machiavellianism, Honesty, Thriftiness, Conservativeness, Masculinity/Femininity, Snobbishness, Sense of humor, Identity, Self-concept, and Motivation. Correlations have been found between some of these variables and the Big Five, such as the inverse relationship between political conservatism and Openness, although variation in these traits is not well explained by the Five Factors themselves. McAdams has called the Big Five a "psychology of the stranger," because they refer to traits that are relatively easy to observe in a stranger; other aspects of personality that are more privately held or more context-dependent are excluded from the Big Five.

In many studies, the five factors are not fully orthogonal to one another;

that is, the five factors are not independent. Negative correlations often appear between Neuroticism and Extraversion, for instance, indicating that those who are more prone to experiencing negative emotions tend to be less talkative and outgoing. Orthogonality is viewed as desirable by some researchers because it minimizes redundancy between the dimensions. This is particularly important when the goal of a study is to provide a comprehensive description of personality with as few variables as possible.

2.2.10 Summary

Much research has been conducted on the Big Five. This has resulted in both criticism and support for the model. Critics argue that there are limitations to the scope of Big Five as an explanatory or predictive theory. It can be concluded that these dimensions represent broad areas of personality. Research has demonstrated that these groupings of characteristics tend to occur together in many people. For example, individuals who are sociable tend to be talkative. However, these traits do not always occur together. Personality is a complex and varied and each person may display behaviors across several of these dimensions.

2.2.11 Short answer text questions

- Q-1) What is Big Five Model?
- Q-2) Differentiate between openness and agreeableness.
- Q-3) How u can measure five factors of personality?
- Q-4) How will you define a person with low score on Neuroticism?
- Q-5) Discuss the methodological issues of this model.

2.2.12 Suggested Books and Web Sources

- 1) Corsini, R.J. & Morselia, R.J. Personality Theories; Research & Assessment
- 2) Morgan, C.T. & King, R.A. (1987). Introduction to Psychology.
- 3) Friedman, H.S. & Schustack, M.W. (2004). Personality: Classical Theories & Modern Research

Personality Assessment- Approaches, Techniques and their Limitations

Structure :

- 2.3.1 Objectives
- 2.3.2 Introduction
- 2.3.3 Self Reporting Personality Inventories
 - 2.3.3.1 Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)
 - 2.3.3.2 The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS)
 - 2.3.3.3 The 16-Personality Factors Questionnaire (16 PF)
 - 2.3.3.4 Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI)
 - 2.3.3.5 Evaluation of Self-Reporting Inventories
- 2.3.4 Interview
 - 2.3.4.1 Types of Interview
 - 2.3.4.2 Interview Procedure
 - 2.3.4.3 Merits and Limitations of Interview
- 2.3.5 Rating Scales
 - 2.3.5.1 Types of Rating Scales
 - 2.3.5.2 Limitations
 - 2.3.5.3 Suggestions for Improving Rating
- 2.3.6 Sociometry
 - 2.3.6.1 Steps in Designing of Sociometric Test
 - 2.3.6.2 Tabulation and Analysis of Data
 - 2.3.6.3 Uses of Sociometry
- 2.3.7 Projective Techniques
 - 2.3.7.1 What is Projection?
 - 2.3.7.2 Classification of Projective Techniques
 - 2.3.7.3 Evaluation of Projective Tests
- 2.3.8 Summary
- 2.3.9 Questions for Self-Evaluation
- 2.3.10 Suggested Questions and Web Sources
- 2.3.11 Suggested Books

2.3.1 Objectives :

After going through this lesson, you will be able to :

1. State the meaning of self reporting personality inventories?

2. Describe the role of interview in personality assessment.
3. Describe the role of rating scales for personality assessment.
4. Justify the role of sociometry for personality assessment.
5. Describe the role of projective techniques for personality assessment.

2.3.2 Introduction :

For long, psychologists have battled to develop a sound technique of assessing personality. This may be due to the fact that personality is a complex construct which is difficult to understand. We may peep into a chink here or chink there but the total grasp of personality always eludes us and other difficulty is that our estimate of personality may not remain stable, because personality is ever-growing and developing.

Another difficulty is that in personality assessment it may be one person who is trying to evaluate another person. And this makes the evaluation biased or subjective in one way or the other. Still another difficulty is that a human being is an intelligent organism who may employ many ways to evade being evaluated by others. Even if he co-operates willingly and with the best intentions, he may be unable to tell about his unconscious motivations that reflect his personality. Thus, measure of personality cannot be as accurate as those of intelligence or of psychomotor abilities. Each has its merits and limitations. Personality is too complex an entirety to permit easy assessment.

The lesson attempts to outline various approaches to personality appraisal, to point out the main features, strengths and weaknesses of these approaches and to suggest ways to overcome these weaknesses. Mainly, the lesson discusses the techniques to self-reporting inventories, interview, rating scales, sociometry, and projective tests.

2.3.3 Self Reporting Personality Inventories :

Self-reporting personality inventory is a list of questions and statements in which the subjects answer by indicating whether the statements are true of them or not. Here we shall mention some of the best known inventories. We shall give examples of the type of items listed in them and mention the specific behaviour they are said to tap.

2.3.3.1 Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) :

The MMPI was developed by S.R. Hathaway and J.C. Mckinley. It is one of the most popular self-reporting personality inventory. And, as word multiphasic implies, it measure personality in a comprehensive way. The MMPI consists of 50 statements to which the subject has to respond as 'true' false or cannot say. The MMPI was developed on the basis of contrasted groups, which means the comparison of selected groups of distributed

individuals and normal subjects. First publication of the MMPI provided nine clinical scales and later on one more scale was added. The scales are given below :

1. **(Hs) - Hypochondriasis** - a scale of excessive physical complaints. Sample item : I am easily awakened by noise.
2. **(D) Depression** - a scale reflecting worthlessness-lack of self-esteem, and a pessimistic view of life.
3. **(Hy) - Hysteria** - a scale representing somatic complaints and denial difficulties. Sample Item : I get made easily and then get over it soon.
4. **(Pd) Psychopathic deviant** - a scale measuring shallowness in interpersonal relationships, a disregard for social conventions, and inability to profit from past experience, e.g. What other think of me does not bother me.
5. **(MF) - Masculinity-Femininity** - a scale on which scores for men reflect cultural and aesthetic interests, passivity, and emotionality while for women, high scores identify vigorous, active and masculine females. Sample items - I very much like hunting.
6. **(Pa) - Paranoia** - a scale sampling delusions and self-referent item of a psychotic nature. High scores reveal extreme suspiciousness and sensitivity in interpersonal relationship. Sample item : *I am sure that I am being talked about.
7. **(Pt) - Psycho asthenia** - scale designed to detect phobia or compulsive concern with high scores suggesting ruminative behaviour, rituals and emphasis on morality. Sample item : I easily become impatient with people.
8. **(Sc) - Schizophrenia** - a scale designed to detect unusual thinking, delusions, hallucinations, withdrawal, and evidence of disorientation are indicated by high scores. Sample item : Someone has control over my mind.
9. **(Ma) - Hapomania** - a scale indicating excessive activity, elation flight of ideas, and excitability. Sample items : When I get bored, I like to stir up some excitement.
10. **(Si) - Soical Introversion** - scale on which high scores indicate a tendency towards introversion, while low scores show extraversion.

The MMPI also provides several keys which indicate whether the test is valid or not. These control keys include :

- (a) ? - Cannot Say Scale - This Scale indicates the number of unanswered questions, which, if quite many render the test invalid.

- (b) **L-Lie Scale** - This scale is based on items that reflect tendency to give socially desirable answers rather than ones, and a high score indicates, faking in positive direction.
- (c) **F-Validity Scale** - This scale consists of 64 items that are rarely answered in the appropriate directions by normal individuals. A high score means that the test is invalid because of carelessness in answering, or deliberate malingering.
- (d) **C-Correction Scale** - This is a measure of test taking attitudes and a high score indicates personal defensiveness, while a low score indicates faking by revealing personal defects.

Many clinicians feel that the usefulness of the MMPI is increased by profile analysis of different combinations, of high and low scores. These combinations, or profiles of score have proved to be more valuable than of the single score. A schizophrenic patient, for example, may not get a higher score on the scale (Schizophrenia) than an experienced clinician can have useful knowledge about him for analyzing this profile.

2.3.3.2 The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) :

The Edwards personal preference Schedule (EPPS) was constructed by A.L. Edwards to measure personality variable drawn from Murray's list of manifest needs. Whereas the MMPI is a personality Inventory designed to measure motivational dispositions. The fifteen needs measured by the 15 scales of the EPPS are given below :

1. **Achievement** - Need to overcome obstacles and succeed for the sake of success.
2. **Deference** - Need to admire superior people.
3. **Order** - Need to arrange and organise things.
4. **Exhibition** - Need to make an impression.
5. **Autonomy** - Need to result domination upon one's way of life.
6. **Affiliation** - Need to form friendships and be part of groups.
7. **Intracception** - Need to analyse one's own motives.
8. **Succorance** - Need to seek aid and nurturance to be protected and aided.
9. **Dominance** - Need to influence and control others and to lead.
10. **Nurturance** - Need to nourish, to protect others.
11. **Change** - Need to know new different things.
12. **Endurance** - Need to persist till the end of job.
13. **Hetero-sexuality** - Need to interact with opposite sex.
8. **Abasement** - Need to be dominated by others to comply.
15. **Aggression** - Need to attach contrary points of view.

Edwards the author of the EPPS, was very much concerned with what he terms the social desirability factor in personality assessment. The EPPS was constructed an attempt to eliminate "social desirability (faking)" as an influence in personality test scores. To do so, a force choice format in item construction was used. This requires the subject to choose between alternatives carefully matched on the basis of a prior determination of their social desirability. An example of such an item is given below :

I feel depressed when I fail at something.

I feel nervous when I give a talk before a group.

Another check on the truthfulness of the subjects' responses is the provision for an index of Respondent Consistency. For this, 15 pairs of statements are repeated in identical form in the body of the Schedule.

Still one more check on the validity of the subjects' answers is a provision for a Profile Stability score of the subject. This is obtained by finding correlation between the subject's scores and odd and even item of the 15 items.

The EPPS is reported to have one-week test-retest reliability coefficient of .74 to .88 for the 156 items. This means that subjects scored fairly consistently on all the scales on two occasions of testing separated by a gap of one week.

2.3.3.3 The 16-Personality Factors Questionnaire (16 PF) :

The 16-Personality Factors Questionnaire was constructed by R.B. Cattell. It is a test designed to give representative picture of the whole personality sphere. The test was established through factor analysis a complicated statistical procedure, and yields scores on sixteen relatively independent source traits. It differs in its content from both MMPI, which is designed to measure pathological trends, and the EPPS, which is designed to measure motivational dispositions.

Description :

The 16 PF has parallel adult forms each of which has 187 items, a short form and two forms for adults with below average intelligence. This makes it suitable for many practical applications as well as for research. There are children's versions also which do not measure exactly the same set of factors. These ranges from four to six years of age in the pre-school Personality Quiz, from six to eight years in the Early School Personality Quiz, from eight to twelve years in Children's Personality Questionnaire, and from twelve to sixteen years in the High School Personality Questionnaire.

Reliability and Validity :

The scales on the 16 PF appear to have adequate, though not very high reliability. However, there is a considerable evidence for the validity of these tests, despite the low reliability in the large number of researches, which show that the Catell's personality questionnaires really taps all the personality dimensions along which people can differ. One review had described the test as follows : No other test covers such a wide range of personality dimensions and never before were the dimensions so meticulously determined.

Test Variables :

The 16 PF dimensions are all bipolar in nature, one pole being on the high scoring end of the scale and the other on the low scoring end. The 16 factors, low score description and high score descriptions are given below :

Factors	Low Score Description	High Score Description

A	Reserved	Outgoing
B	Less Intelligent	More Intelligent
C	Emotional	Mature
D	Humble	Assertive
E	Sober	Happy-Go-Lucky
F	Casual	Conscientious
G	Timid	Venturesome
H	Tough-minded	Tender-minded
I	Trusting	Suspicious
J	Practical	Imaginative
K	Fornight	Shrewd
L	Confident	Insecure
Q1	Conservative	Experimenting
Q2	Dependent	Self-Sufficient
Q3	Lawless	Controlled
Q4	Relaxed	Tense

It can be seen that 16 PF variables cover a wide range of behaviours.

Types of Items :

The 16 PF Questionnaire contains 187 items. Each item is a statement, such as 'I have been let down by my friends', which is to be responded to in terms of three possible answers yes, occasionally, no. The subject is instructed to give the first 'natural' answer as it comes to him. The response of the subject is objectively scored by hand or by IBM machine. For easy interpretation, the subject's scores are plotted on a profile sheet.

2.3.3.4 Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) :

The British equivalent of the 16 PF test in this EPI (The PEN Test) developed by H.J. Eysenck at the Maudsley Hospital, London. There is a junior version of the scale of the JEP meant for Persons from about eight to sixteen years of age. An updated version of the EPI is the PEN test.

The Scales :

The EPI contains three types of scales, E, N, and P tapping extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. The PEN test also contains P items.

The E scale measure extra-version which is equivalent to outwards looking; cheerful sociable, noisy, impulsive.

The N scale measure psychotic, like being psychotics noted for the lack of contact with reality which is seen in complete thought disorder and a variety of delusions.

There is also an L scale to identify the persons who are giving the socially desirable answers rather than the true answers.

Test Items :

The EPI has items which have questions with a yes/no response format. Typical items are :

Do you often long for excitement ?	Yes	No
Are you usually care - free ?	Yes	No
Do you sometimes gossip ?	Yes	No
Do you worry about your health ?	Yes	No

The items are keyed to one or the other score of the inventory and are scored accordingly.

Reliability and Validity :

According to Eysenck, we do not need sixteen factors, as in Cattell 16 PF Questionnaire to account for personality differences. Personality differences could be understood in terms of subject's scores of the two independent extraversion and neuroticism plus the psychoticism factors for a particular abnormal group. Technically, from the point of view of reliability and evidence for validity, and ease of administration, the EPI and PEN tests are good practical instruments. However, as compared to 16 personality factors of Cattell, the restriction of two factors plus one factor for the specially abnormal group, limits the usefulness of Eysenck's test. In the words of Paul Kline, the PEN is undoubtedly a fine research instrument for investigation of personality. For practical use other than screening of possible neurotics or psychotics, the three dimensions do not contain enough information.

2.3.3.5 Evaluation of Self-reporting Inventories :

The best source of information is an individual himself. An individual is in a uniquely excellent position to give a view of himself to which no one else has any access. The self-report inventories have this major advantage. But they have a number of limitations as well, particularly the following :

(1) Subject's Ability to Read : The inventories greatly depend upon subject's ability to read the questions and also to understand them the way the tester intended them to. The amount of reading is sometimes so large that the slow reader may have trouble in getting through them.

(2) Problem of Understanding the Language : There is the problem of understanding the question as well as the meaning of the response modes or styles. The same question, say for example, "Do you make friends easily" may be understood and interpreted differently as companionship, to others just pleasant interaction without emotional overtones, and to still others, something in-between, similarly, a response requiring such words, as always never, seldom etc. are likely to be interpreted according to what the subject means by these words.

(3) Subject's Willingness to Reveal : The utility of the inventories largely depends upon whether the subject is willing to reveal, to disclose himself frankly. He may rather distort his response deliberately. He may 'fake good' to appear in favourable light. He may also 'fake bad' in order to appear in unfavourable light. He may be careless and casual in his responses. Or he may be just defensive and endorse 'cannot say' or in between responses.

To overcome these problems, it is necessary to establish cooperative relationship with the subject. Also some inventories, like the Edwards Personal Preferences Schedule, provide for forced-choice response format so that the subject is made to choose from all socially desirable or all socially undesirable items. Some inventories, like the MMPI provide for special keys like Lie-score, F-score, etc. to check and verify the genuineness of a subject's responses.

(4) Subject's Self-understanding : Another important thing about the usefulness of the inventories depends upon whether the subject has self-understanding and insight into his own feelings and tendencies. Obviously the question of unconscious feelings and motives as well as what of maturity enter the picture here.

(5) Lack of Clear Evidence of Validity : From the point of view of the evidence of validity the self-reporting inventories do show moderate level of concurrent validity in that the scores correspond with the clinical judgement made independently. But the results are used to predict the future success of the subject either in school on the job, or in his personal life.

The conclusion, as to the practical value of the self-reporting inventories is that they should be used as an adjunct to move intensive psychological services like counselling. Not much useful purpose is served by administering a personality inventory and then passing the result to the teacher.

Short in text questions :

Note : Write answers in the space given below :

1. What do you mean by Self Reporting Personality Inventories.
2. Discuss the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS).

2.3.4 Interview :

Interview is a face-to-face situation in which the subject is encouraged to talk freely or express himself. Technically, the interview is defined as a "face-to-face" verbal inter-change in which one person, the interviewer, attempts to elicit information or expression of opinion or belief from another person. It is one of the most simple and widely used technique of personality assessment. It is the cheapest mean of evaluating individual's personality.

2.3.4.1 Types of Interview :

There are at least two major types of interview commonly used in assessing the personality of an individual. One of them is called the unstructured, and the other is structured interviews. The former is conducted in a free style without following and previously fixed type of questions to be asked. The later proceeds according to a pre-determined schedule of questions.

(a) Unstructured Interview

The unstructured interview aims at assessing the personality of the individual without the aid of any previously decided set questions. This type of interview is greatly flexible and adaptable. The interviewer can direct the interview in any manner that seems most appropriate to him. In addition, he can make full use of his institution and insight in this final judgement of the subject's personality.

(b) Structured Interview

In order to reduce the subjectivity of the unstructured interview, the interview procedure is structured. It is done so in the sense that the interview is conducted according to a prepared set of questions, and areas of inquiry to be covered. The phrasing and the sequences or order in which the questions are to be put are clearly decided before hand. There are specific questions in each area of inquiry say, interpersonal relations, family, or

personal feelings to which the interviewer seeks answers.

Interpretation of answers elicited from the subjects during the interview is usually done at two levels of increasing depth. At one level, they are analysed at the face value of what the subject says. At another level, the analysis is aimed at what seems to underline or is concealed behind the manifest content of the responses.

2.3.4.2 Interview Procedure :

There are three steps or phases of interview. They are *The Opening*, *The Body and the Closing*.

The Opening of interview aims at establishing rapport or a relationship of mutual trust and respect between the interviewer and the subject. The rapport once established has to be maintained throughout the interview. Rather, its level may have to be raised or lifted higher before some highly private information is sought.

The Body of the interview is a phase when interviewer secures the fact and information he needs in order to judge the subject. Here the questions should be clearly put. The interviewer should not interpret subject in the middle of a statement or when the latter is trying to search the appropriate words. The interviewer should normally withhold expressions of his approval or disapproval of what the subject says. He may, however, ask questions to probe into the meaning of the subject's statements about his attitudes, feelings, and interest. If the subject disagrees too much from the main point, he should be gently brought back on the track. Sometimes, however, shifts in conversations, or talking in a circle, on the part of the subject, are very significant and revealing about his personality.

The Closing is a difficult phase of interview. It should, however, be such that it gives the subject a feeling of satisfaction.

The interview data should be recorded in the form of brief and salient points during the course of the interview. Detailed notes may be developed immediately after the closing of the interview.

2.3.4.3 Merits and Limitations of Interview :

The interview clearly represents an important technique for studying the personality of a subject. It is well said that "If you want to know about a person's private experiences, perhaps the most direct method is to ask the person himself."

In addition, the interview **provides vividness** of direct personal contact. It gives the **opportunity of observing** the physical characteristics of the subject, his dress, his voice quality and stylistic expressive side of his behaviour such as his body language, manner of speaking, speed of reactions,

behaviour of eyes.

On the other hand, there are some difficulties, involved in its use. While face-to-face situation provides transparency of its own, it **is source of bias** as well. Thus, the interviewer's appearance, manner, style, expectations and habits in recording data, may all be the source of bias. Such factors lead to different interviewer eliciting different information. Personality and background of various interviewers may cause the same information being interpreted differently. All this leads to lower the reliability of the interview. However, these shortcomings can be overcome to a great extent if the interviewers are properly trained and the interview situations are properly structured.

2.3.5 Rating Scales :

An important source of knowing an individual's personality is found in the impression he makes upon other. Such impressions are obtained through rating scales and sociometric method. The rating of the person by another is a very old practice. The rating scales represent a refinement upon the common practice of giving letters of recommendation. For the assessment of a subject, rating scales are given to teachers, counsellors, peers, parents and others who have had sufficient knowledge of the subject.

Rating is a term applied to expression of opinion of judgement regarding some situation, object or character. Rating scale is a device used to situations that occur in saying agree rather than merely being present or absent as in a check list, which is simple list to trust for the presence or absence of an element. Rating scales are involved to evaluate a single trait. A rating scale is so designed as to facilitate appraisal of a number traits or characteristics within some quantitative scale of values. The purpose is to quantify judgements. A rating scale includes four things.

- (1) The phenomenon to be rated.
- (2) The continuum along which the phenomenon is to be rated.
- (3) The subject about whom the phenomenon is to be rated.
- (4) The rater.

Rating scale is a method for systematizing the expression of opinion concerning a trait. Therefore, for developing a rating scale, the first thing is to determine the specific quality or trait that is to be rated. And second thing is to provide a scale of values to this quality or trait. As instance, we might think that a teacher has to rate a student's popularity. First, he clearly defines the terms of popularity and establishes its operational or observable instances. Second, he assigns a range of numbers of other points like letters of the alphabet, adjective or description that are to represent levels or degree

of presence of their trait.

2.3.5.1 Types of Rating Scales :

Mainly, three types of rating scales are used in educational situations:

(a) Descriptive Rating Scale : This scale will take the following form.

How will you judge the individual's Poise ?

1	2	3	4	5
Nervous and ill at ease	Easily upset	Average poise	Sure of himself	Composed

It is clear that in the above case a number of descriptive phrases are given from which the rater selects the one that is most applicable to the individual. He records it by a check mark.

(b) The Graphic Rating Scale : This type of scale has descriptive phrases printed horizontally at various points along the length of the scale, such as :

Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good

Here again, the rater has to place to mark on the appropriate point of the scale.

(c) The Numerical Rating Scale : Here the numbers, instead of descriptive phrases are given along the scale and rather has to check the appropriate number. These numbers may be 1 to 7 depending on how many points the scale has.

The rating scales may be of any types, but purpose is the same to transform the qualitative things into quantitative terms.

2.3.5.2 Limitations :

1. There is a common tendency to avoid extremes in rating. Inferior persons are rated higher and very superior lower.
2. There is a danger of misinterpretation of the trait or quality being rated if it is not very clearly defined in operational terms or in how it appears in observable behaviour.
3. There is a tendency in the raters to give favourable rating known as generosity error.
4. Units on the scale are not equal on all points along the continuum.
5. Personal bias or prejudice of the rater enters into the rating causing him to exaggerate certain features and minimise others.
6. There is a likelihood of inadequacy or error in observation especially when the rater is new.
7. The ratings also suffer from halo effect. This refers to general tendency to rate in terms of over all impression without differentiating specific

aspects.

8. In rating only overt aspects of behaviour can be judged. The covert aspects of the individual like feelings of insecurity or tension can only be inferred rather vaguely from the overt behaviour.
9. There is an evidence to show that one tends to rate higher a person of one's own sex on desirable traits and lower undesirable traits. Also men interviewer are more generous than women in their rating.

2.3.5.3 Suggestions for Improving Rating :

Jane Warters suggests the following measures to improve rating :

- (i) Make your judgements independently without consulting other.
- (ii) Rate all students on one trait, then all of them on the next trait, and so on (instead of rating one student on all the traits and then rating the next student on all the traits and so on)
- (iii) Do not guess about a trait about which you do not know.
- (iv) Rate on the basis of actual observation.
- (v) Try to be honest as far as possible. Avoid prestige factors. The reliability of rating can be increased if :
 - (a) all the items to be rated are clearly defined.
 - (b) there is more than one rater.

2.3.6 Sociometry :

A popular method used in assessing personality is Sociometry. Sociometry is a method of social mapping to indicate the relationships-attraction and rejection among members of a social groups. Through this method we can measure the extent of an individual's popularity or unpopularity in his peer group.

The originator of Sociometry was J.L. Moreno. This method is easy to develop, simple to use, and speedy to analyze. Here the group members are simply asked to choose partners or companions for a specific situation or activity that is real to them.

2.3.6.1 Steps in Designing of Sociometric Test :

There are four main steps which are as following :

- (i) Selection of the situations or sociometric criterion for exercising choice of choices. This should be real to the members and not some hypothetical or artificial situation. The number of criteria used is often more than one. When it is desired to discover a member's general standing in-group, several criteria are necessary.
- (ii) Determination of a number of choices to be used. The choices can be more in number. Several choices are useful when the purpose is to identify how vastly affinitive a member is in group. However, more than choices in a group of younger people and more than five in an older group are difficult to make. Analysis too becomes uneconomical with

- large number of choices.
- (iii) Framing of questions to be asked : Questions asked from the members should be unambiguous and direct. For example :
- (1) With whom would you like to work ?
 - (2) With whom would you like to sit ?
 - (3) Whom would you like to have in your hobby group ?
- (iv) Development of direction and format of the test : Directions about the number of choices and how they are to be made should be clear-cut. The test format should contain the names of all members of group. The instruction should contain a promise of confidentiality.

2.3.6.2 Tabulation and Analysis of Data :

Once the choices are obtained, they are tabulated in the form of the two fold sociomatrix. This shows the number and direction of choice *given* and *received* by each member of the group. The sociomatrix information is then displayed pictorially in the form of a sociogram which reveals pattern of attraction and rejection in the group and the position of a particular members in the whole group.

2.3.6.3 Uses of Sociometry :

A number of studies have shown that sociometry method is helpful in identifying pupils who are socially isolated-children who appear to function on the fringe of social groups. On the other hand, leader or popular children can also be identified. Another social pattern that often appear is the cliques and minority groups. Analysing the results of sociometry in terms of cross sex choices can also prove fruitful. Such analysis furnishes clues as to the degree of interaction between boys and girls in the various activities of the school. By a careful study of the social structure in class, a teacher gains valuable knowledge not only of the social structure of her class but also of the behaviour of individual students.

Short in text questions :

1. Types of Interview.
2. Meaning of Rating Scales.

2.3.7 Projective Techniques :

A type of personality technique in which the subject reveals (projects) himself through his imaginative production is a projective technique. They are unstructured, ambiguous and required the subject to reveal himself by responding imaginatively to ambiguous stimuli. For instance, we may show a subject a series of irregularly shaped inkblots and ask him to describe what the blots suggest to him. Since the inkblots are relatively unstructured and ambiguous stimuli, an inkblot test is a projective test. There are many

techniques.

2.3.7.1 What is Projection ?

Projection is an unconscious process whereby the individual attributes certain thoughts, attitudes, wishes, emotions or characteristics to subjects in the environment or to other persons. It is believed that projective techniques have originated from Freudian theory of projection. Freud defined projection as a defence mechanism of the ego. The idea is that when our ego is threatened by some unacceptable drive or motive. We project that drive or motive on some one else. But it is doubtful if projective techniques involve Freudian projection in strict sense of the term. They only provide a medium through which a subject express his personality structure. Several projective techniques have been devised to elicit subjects responses that reveal his personality dynamics feelings, values, motives, characteristics modes of adjustment and complexes.

The fundamental assumption behind all projective techniques is that given an unstructured and ambiguous stimulus to describe, every individual would project his own thoughts, feelings, and desires to the stimulus in unstructured and ambiguous manner, it provides scope for almost unlimited variety of answers. A special feature of the projective techniques is that they provide disguised testing procedures. The subject is rarely aware of the real purpose. He feels that he is only engaging unimaginate or fantasy behaviour. Again the emphasis is on global approach in interpretation of the results. Personality is assessed as a whole.

2.3.7.2 Classification of Projective Techniques :

Anastasi has classified various projective techniques in terms of mode of response as under :

- 1. Associative Techniques :** Here the subject responds to a stimulus by giving the first response, image or percept that occurs to him, as in Rorschach Test.
- 2. Constructive Procedures :** They require the subject to create or construct a story, as in Thematic Apperception Test (TAT).
- 3. Completion Tests :** Here the subject completes sentences or stories.
- 4. Choice or Ordering Devices :** These call for rearrangement of pictures, or figures.
- 5. Expressive Methods :** Here the subject is asked to draw. This differs from construction procedures in that the subject's style or method, as well as the finished product is evaluated.

However, because of space limitation, we shall confine our discussion to two well-known projective techniques : the Rorschach Inkblot Test and the

Thematic Apperception Test (TAT).

(A) Rorschach Inkblot Test :

Rorschach Inkblot Test was first developed in 1921 by the Swiss Psychiatrist **Hermann Rorschach** after extensive research on mental patients. The basic material is ten inkblots which are seemingly patterns produced by putting blots of ink on a piece of paper and the folding the paper. But these are not ordinary inkblots. These blots have been standardised after trying them to thousands of patients in mental hospitals.

Material :

Material is simple. There are ten cards having inkblots some of which contains shades of grey and black. Others contain many hues as under :

- (i) Five cards contain blots of black and grey.
- (ii) Two cards contain additional touches of bright and red.
- (iii) Three cards combine many hues.

Procedure :

The subject is seated comfortably with his back towards the psychologists. Proper rapport is established and maintained. The cards are presented to the subject, one at a time and in a specified order. The psychologist incidentally puts such question "People see all sort of different things in these cards, what do you see ?" The subject is given a much time as desired for each card. He is permitted to move the card in any way and look at it from any angle. Instructions are kept to the minimum possible. The psychologist however keeps accurate record of time between presentation of each card and the first response to it. He also records any significant behaviour during testing like evidences of being upset. After presenting the ten cards, the tester questions the subject systematically and seeks further classifications, if any.

Interpretation :

Scoring and interpretation of Rorschach responses or protocols is a highly technical job. Several scoring procedures have been developed by Klopfer and Beak. Only a brief outline of the scheme has been mentioned as under :

Interpretation of responses includes :

- (i) Location, or seeing of the whole blot (coded W's), large details (called D's) small usual detail (called d's), unusual detail (called (Dd), and the white spaces (called S).
- (ii) Determinants, or seeing of form (F), colour (C), shading (K), movement (Mor) combination of these.

- (iii) Content, or whether the subject sees plant, animals, humans, landscape, man-made objects, anatomy, sex etc.
- (iv) Original and Populars, or whether a response is commonly given (popular) or is uncommon (original).

The meanings of these various categories are given below :

The location responses are used mainly in evaluating intellectual aspects of personality. Thus, a large percentage of whole responses shows higher intellectual capacity.

The form responses indicate the subject's control over this intellectual processes and behaviour.

The subject's response two-colour in the blots is said to indicate his impulsive life and emotional relationship to environment.

The shading responses are indicated as being related to anxiety, depressed attitudes the feelings of inferiority.

The movement score is said to be an evidence of the riches of one's imaginative life.

The content of the Rorschach responses indicates subject's maturity or immaturity, feeling of inadequacy, interests, obsessions and compulsions.

The original and novel responses are taken as evidence of subject's level of creativity.

It is, however, the interrelationship of the subject's responses with each of the scoring categories and among the several categories, and the rational among them that are more important. Some of the relationships investigated are : the ratio of whole to large details and to minute details; extent to which form is used over colour or shading; relationship between colour and movement responses; percentage of original responses etc. It is through such relationships and integrations of results from various parts that a final description of the individual's personality is obtained.

(B) Thematic Apperception Test :

Murray and his colleagues at the Harvard University Clinic first devised this in 1935, but it was published in their book '**Exploration in Personality**' in 1938. The test requires the subject to interpret by telling an imaginative story about each of them. The tester says to the subject. "The subject is specially structured to tell us what is happening in the picture, what led to the scene and what should be the outcome. The pictures are vague and undefined which permit many interpretations. The responses are directed by past experiences, conflicts and wishes. The subject unconsciously projects himself into the scene by way of fantasy and identifies himself with the characters.

2.3.7.3 Evaluation of Projective Test :

What are the projective tests good for ? Specifications of standardised psychometric tests cannot be applied to projective test while evaluating them adequate normative data are lacking, especially in regard to normal population. As to the reliability the inter-sector reliability is fairly high. Validity to these tests has been established through the method of making blind diagnosis from test records alone, without knowing the subject and without comparing it with the report of the one who knows the subject well. Another way in which the projective test have shown their validity is their fairly good success in screening or detecting abnormal or neurotic subjects in general population.

Nevertheless the current trend in psychological practice has not put much premium on the case of the projective techniques or test. They have breadth of coverage and give a wide range of information about the subject. But they are most dependable for precise type of information. In view of this, the projective techniques are not being increasingly used as interviewing aids by skilled clinicians rather than as tests in their own right. They provide the clinician useful information in arriving at his final clinical judgement of a case when he combines this information with the data obtained through other sources like interviews, tests responses, or other behaviour reflected by the individual. In this respect, the projective techniques suggest further exploration or hypothesis about the individual for subsequent verification.

Projective techniques are fairly fool proof in the sense that the subject gives self-conscious response, not giving as to what his response may mean, there is no scope for giving us powers which reflect essentially favourable view of his personality. Thus these tests may difficult to score and still more difficult to interpret.

2.3.8 Summary :

We have discussed personality inventories, interview, rating scales, sociometry and projective tests. The personality inventories are self-rating devices which consist of approximately 100 to 500 questions as statements to which the subject responds. There are a number of personality inventories, some of which attempt to measure just limited traits and some attempt to appraise a large number of traits. We have discussed commonly used inventories. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory was designed to measure pathological trends of a person. Responses on this test are scored according to the correspondence between the answers given by a subject and those given by patients under different kinds of psychological

disturbances. It has ten scales and four special control keys. The 'Edward Personal Preferences Schedule' (EPPS) was designed to measure motivational dispositions of normal persons, drawn from Murray's list of psychogenic needs a set of 15 needs measured by 15 scales of the EPPS. It has a set of special checks to verify the truthfulness of the subjects. These include forced-choice items format, index of respondent consistency, and stability index. 16 PF test yields scores on sixteen relatively independent sources traits or factors. Each factor is given two names, one for high score and another for low score.

The Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) has three scales, to measure 'E' or Extraversion 'N' or Neuroticism, 'L' or lies on the socially desirable answers. The pen test which is an updated version EPI, has in addition to P scale to measure psychoticism.

Interview is a face-to-face verbal interchange in which one person elicits information from another person. There are two main varieties of interview :

- (a) Unstructured (b) Structured

The psychologists also use Rating Scales to assess personality. A rating scale is a device by which a rater records his judgment of another person on the trait specified the scale. Various types of errors in rating are the halo effect, generosity error, logical error etc. These errors can be controlled by having experienced and trained raters.

Sociometry is also used in assessment of personality. It is method of social mapping to indicate the relationship of attraction and rejection among members of social group. The steps involved in the use of this method are determination of :

1. Realistic Sociometric Criterion
2. Number of choices
3. Development of Direction and Format of Test.

Projective Tests make the subject reveal (project) himself through his imaginative productions. These tests present to subject relatively unstructured and ambiguous stimuli to which he responds imaginatively in doing so, he reveals his personality especially the unconscious ones. Two commonly used projective tests are :

- (A) RORSCHACH INKBLLOT TEST
- (B) THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST (TAT)

The Rorschach utilizes inkblots, black and white, coloured and mixed whereas TAT utilizes a series of pictures showing vaguely drawn pictures.

Projective tests allow the psychologists to have a global or holistic view of the subject's personality. But they have some limitations, as far as their

reliability and validity are concerned.

2.3.9 Questions for Self-Evaluation :

- | | | |
|----|--|--------|
| 1. | Self Reporting Personality Inventories is a Projective Technique. | Yes/No |
| 2. | Self Reporting Personality Inventories and Edward Personality Preference Schedule are the two names for the same tool. | Yes/No |
| 3. | 16 Personality factor questionnaire are quite reliable and valid tools. | Yes/No |
| 4. | Interview cannot be made an unbiased tool. | Yes/No |
| 5. | Rating Scales are the best tools of personality evaluation. | Yes/No |
| 6. | Sociometry has nothing to do with personality evaluation. | Yes/No |
| 7. | Any body can administer and evaluate projective techniques. | Yes/No |

Answer Key :

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|
| (1) | No | (2) | No | (3) | Yes | (4) | Yes | (5) | No |
| (6) | No | (7) | No. | | | | | | |

2.3.10 Suggested Questions and Web Sources :

1. Write about the MMPI, the EPPS; and the 16 PF under the following heads.
(a) Purpose (b) Description of Scales (c) Types of Items
2. What are the limitations of Self-Reporting Inventories ?
3. Distinguish between Unstructured and Structured Interview.
4. Describe the materials, procedure for admission and interpretation of the Rorschach Test, and the TAT.
5. Take any acquaintance of yours and rate his self-confidence on a 5 point Graphic Scale.
6. Define Projective Techniques ? Give illustrations of different kinds of Projective Techniques. In what ways are they useful in assessing an individual's personality.
7. What is a Rating Scale ? Give illustrations of different kinds of Rating Scales. Discuss the sources of Error Rating and suggest ways and means to control them.

Web Sources :

1. www.answer.com
2. www.google.co.in
3. books.google.co.in
4. www.ehow.com

2.3.11 Suggested Books :

1. Anastasi, A. : Psychological Testing N.Y. : Macmillan Publishing Co., 1968. Chs. 18-21.
2. Cronbach, Lee. J. : Essentials of Psychological Testing N.Y. Harper, 1970, Chapters 8-17.
3. Chauhan, S.S. : Advanced Educational Psychology, Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 1984.
4. Kakkar, S.B. : Advanced Educational Psychology, Oxford & IBH, New Delhi, 1992, pp.322-335.
5. Sodhi, T.S. and Harinder Kaur Sodhi : Educational Psychology, Bawa Publications, Patiala, 2010.

Well-being: Concept, Indicator and Implications**Structure**

- 2.4.1 Introduction
- 2.4.2 Objectives
- 2.4.3 Concept of Well-being
- 2.4.4 Importance of Well-being
- 2.4.5 Indicators
- 2.4.6 Factors that influence well-being
- 2.4.7 Implications
- 2.4.8 Summary
- 2.4.9 Questions
- 2.4.10 Suggested Books and Web Sources

2.4.1 Introduction

Well-being is the subjective feeling of contentment, happiness, satisfaction with life's experiences and one's role in the world of work and sense of achievement. So, one can increase life satisfaction with optimism by enhancing well-being in different aspects of life. Well-being increases productivity in different walks of life, hence students can gain a lot after comprehension of this aspect.

2.4.2 Objectives

After going through this lesson, students will be able to understand:

- Meaning of well-being
- Types of well-being according to different aspects of development
- Need and importance of well-being
- Different factors affecting well-being of a person in positive as well as negative directions
- Application of methods of enhancing one's well-being

2.4.3 Concept of well-being

Well-being is a comprehensive concept which involves physical, psychological, social and economic betterment so that it enhances overall quality of life. We can add environmental richness and equilibrium to be necessary to qualify any situation where well-being of people can be ensured. Keys (2002) defined well-being as the quality of life of an individual or other social unit. Healthy living goes beyond eating a balanced diet and doing regular exercise. It reflects the mental, emotional and social aspects of an individual's life. Well-being is the satisfaction of our needs which is the

primary cause for our search for knowledge. To satisfy our needs we need to interact with nature and society. Satisfaction of needs is the means of well-being which culminates in self-determination.

Campbell (1987) describes well-being as one's happiness, confidence, physical condition and general outlook on life. It is about feeling good and taking care of one's self responsibilities. The concept of well-being is most commonly used in philosophy and it is usually related to health to describe what is ultimately perceived as good for a person. A basic proposition of concerning the determinants of psychological well-being was advanced by Jadhoda (1958) who suggested that the existence of well-being is a function of experience which is another important aspects of life, such as family, community and work. Thomson (2007) categorised well-being as objective well-being and subjective well-being. Objective well-being is achieved if a large amount of lists are available to the individual. Subjective well-being is achieved if an individual feels positive about their life.

Diener (1998) defined subjective well-being as people's evaluation of their own lives that are both affective and cognitive. Cognitive well-being is developed through assessing one's interactions with the environment. Welfare economics ultimately deals with cognitive concepts such as well-being, happiness, and satisfaction. These relate to notions such as aspirations and needs, contentment and disappointment. There are different levels of affect on well-being: high negative affect is represented by anxiety and low negative affect is represented by calmness and relaxation; high positive affect is represented by a state of pleasant arousal enthusiasm and low positive affect is represented by a state of unpleasantness. Well-being is the dynamic process that gives people a sense of how their lives are going, through the interaction between their circumstances, activities and psychological resources or mental capital. People experience about subjective well-being when they feel many pleasant and few unpleasant emotions and when they are satisfied with their lives. As people throughout the world, fulfil more of their basic material needs, it is likely that subjective well-being becomes even more valued goal than subjective well-being. Diener et al. (1999) suggested that subjective well-being is a broad category of phenomena that includes people's emotional responses, domain satisfaction and global judgments of life satisfaction. It is concerned with how and why people experience their lives in positive ways, including both cognitive judgement and affective reactions. Veenhoven (1991) studied that income was a better predictor of subjective well being in poor countries than rich ones. Headey (1989) made a dynamic account of relation among personality, life events, and subjective well being. Subjective well-being encompasses self-assessed life satisfaction and happiness, which may apply generally or more specifically to particular aspects of individuals' lives. Psychological well-being concerns an individual's potential and encompasses

self-esteem and self-efficacy. People who do well in education are those who tend to be happy and mentally resilient in the first place and that attaining educational qualifications. Psychological well-being is linked with existential challenges of life. It has six dimensions: self acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth. Andrews (1991) found that women in the west scored significantly higher than men on psychological well-being. Witmer and Sweeney (1992) stated that psychological well-being includes majority of characteristics of the healthy person; a sense of worth; a sense of control; realistic beliefs; spontaneity and emotional responsiveness; intelligent stimulation, problem solving, creativity and a sense of humour.

Travis (1978) described wellness as an attitude about one's process of self-care involving understanding of basic emotional and physical needs and the kind of habits and life style necessary to meet these needs. Larson (1978) described well being as most strongly related to health, followed by socio-economic factors and degree of social interaction for different individuals. Campbell and Rodgess (1976) defined well-being as cognitive component of life satisfaction which was seen as the complement of happiness, that is more affective dimension of positive functioning. Edward (1995) observed that teachers who had a positive sense of self and psychological well-being were more willing to attend to work.

Ryff (1995) put forth a multi dimensional model of well being which include dimensions of self acceptance, positive relations with others. According to Archer and Gage (1987) well-being is the process and state of quest for maximum human functioning which involves the body, mind and spirit. Melamed (2000) stated that well-being in popular terminology is also known as wellness. wellness is a dimension of attitude, behaviour, thoughts and feelings, which can enhance a subjective sense of well-being and influence the individual attention to self care and compliance with medical regiments. Ellen (2006) proposed a model of global health promotion bases on well-being. The study based on literature and empirical slate, found commonness between well-being and global health.

2.4.4 Importance of Wellbeing

Feelings of wellbeing are fundamental to the overall health of an individual, enabling them to successfully overcome difficulties and achieve what they want out of their life. Past experiences, attitudes and outlook can impact wellbeing. Children with learning and developmental disorders may experience considerably more stress than normal children and this can impact both their health and wellbeing. The same can be said for the parents and careers of such children, who have to try and help them overcome their daily issues as well as prepare them to prepare for their future. A child's wellbeing will be affected by the wellbeing of their parents so it is essential that parents take time for themselves in this respect. It is interesting to notice

people's reactions when you tell them you are going to talk about their well-being. And yet, of course, there is nothing more seriously important as happiness and wellbeing. Psychologists, who traditionally studied mental illness and dysfunction, have recently become interested in positive psychology just as physicians who once emphasized illness have recently recognized the value of studying wellness. Inherent in this new field of study is the emphasis on our own ability to make wise choices, and use our strengths to become the best.

Emotional wellbeing and optimism are not just candy to the soul and brain, to be sought only after a healthy meal of hard work and stress. Most of us are not surprised to find out that these positive qualities predict future marital satisfaction and divorce. However, many might be surprised to find out that they also predict longevity. In experiment after experiment, emotional health and happiness are major predictors of physical health and length of life, with optimists living eight to nine years longer than pessimists. Research indicates that individuals who have high emotional well-being are more productive, learn more, and earn more money. They do better in every walk of life. When we talk about well-being, we are not only speaking of being joyful, although this is part of wellbeing. Seligman describes five separate qualities to wellbeing: Positive Emotion, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning and Achievement. He uses the acronym PERMA to describe wellbeing. Each of these qualities can be independently developed and each may be valued differently by different individuals. These qualities constitute a set of positive emotional skills and attitudes that can lead children to higher levels of achievement and success in different dimensions of life, better physical health, better relationships, more resilience against depression and anxiety, and even better conduct.

The first of these positive emotions, is the joyful feeling we experience inside when we interact with ourselves: the laughing feeling we have when someone tells a good joke, the sense of awe we feel when we sit on a mountain top and gaze out over a beautiful vista, the rush of pride we feel when we find we win any competition, or even just the joy of savoring smooth, cold ice cream. Seligman's second element of wellbeing is Engagement. This is the feeling we get when we are "one with the music," lost in time doing whatever it is that we do well. The third element of PERMA is relationships. This is the ability to form and keep deep friendships as well as the ability to negotiate social situations. The fourth element is a sense of connection and purpose related to something bigger than oneself. Such things as religious activities, social or community service, justice, patriotism and political affiliation serve this purpose. The last element is achievement. This entails a sense of mastery over a skill or over a subject, the self-esteem boost that occurs when one has done or learned something well. In order to achieve, however, kids have to develop grit or perseverance. Real achievement entails struggle and struggle entails some

disappointments. Children and adults who are achievers are those who have the courage to try the first time and, if they don't succeed, to try again. People base their own well-being in relation to their environment and the lives of others around them. Well-being is also subjective to how one feels other people in their environment view them, whether that be in a positive or negative view. Well-being is also subjective to pleasure and whether or not basic human needs are fulfilled, although one's needs and wants are never fully satisfied. The quality of life of an individual and a society is dependent on the amount of happiness and pleasure, as well as human health. Well-being refers to how people experience the [quality of their lives](#) and includes both [emotional](#) reactions and cognitive judgments. Psychologists have defined happiness as a combination of life satisfaction and the relative frequency of positive and negative [affect](#). Well-being therefore encompasses [moods](#) and emotions as well as evaluations of one's satisfaction with general and specific areas of one's life.

2.4.5 Indicators

The National Accounts of Well-being indicators represent a working model of measures which governments can use to monitor the well-being of their citizens. The indicators have been laid down in [European Social Survey](#) (2007). This is the most comprehensive and detailed international survey of well-being ever undertaken. The resulting survey dataset was used to develop an indicator set around two headline measures of [personal well-being](#) and [social well-being](#) : the two crucial aspects of what people experience in their lives. The seven main components of personal and social well-being are also the elements used to create national [Well-being Profiles](#). Personal Well-being: emotional well-being (positive feelings, absence of negative feelings), satisfying life, vitality, resilience (self-esteem, optimism) and positive functioning (competence, autonomy, engagement, meaning and purpose). Social Well-being: supportive relationships, trust and belonging.

In addition, the personal well-being and social well-being indicators can be brought together in different ways to form versions of a [combined well-being indicator](#). There is no sole determinant of individual well-being, but in general, well-being is dependent upon good health, positive social relationships, and availability and access to basic resources. Numerous studies have examined the associations between determinants of individual and national levels of well-being. Many of these studies have used different measures of well-being e.g. life satisfaction, positive affect, psychological well-being and different methodologies resulting in occasional inconsistent findings related to well-being and its predictors. In general, life satisfaction is dependent more closely on the availability of basic needs being met as well as access to modern conveniences. Pleasant emotions are more closely associated with having supportive relationships.

2.4.6 Factors that influence well-being

Every aspect of one's life influences individual's state of wellbeing. Researchers investigating happiness have found the following factors enhance a person's well being:

- Happy intimate social relationships
- Enjoyable and satisfying career
- Enough money
- Regular exercise
- Nutritional diet
- Sufficient sleep
- Spiritual or religious beliefs
- Spend time on fun activities
- Enhancement of self-esteem
- Defined goals in realistic terms
- Good adjustment
- Applying creativity in routine works
- Develop and maintain strong relationships with family and friends.
- Make regular time available for social contact.
- Try to do work that you find enjoyable and rewarding, rather than just working for the best pay.
- Try to be optimistic and enjoy every minute of the day.
- Routine visit to a professional counsellor.

2.4.7 Implications

Well-being increases contentment of every mind, thereby, increasing horizons of knowledge. Well-being gives clear vision to individuals. And results in developing thought provoking ideas. When we understand the concept of well-being and its relationship with other attributes of life then we can increase happiness, optimism and ebullieny in our life. Our education system has responsibility to enhance well-being among students through curricular and co-curricular aspects. If well-being is established in kids at a young age then it is more likely to play a part in their life as they get older. It has been experienced that children with higher levels of emotional, behavioural and social well-being, on average, have higher levels of academic achievement and are more engaged in school. Children with high emotional well-being make more progress in primary school and are more engaged in secondary school. Children with better attention skills experience greater progress in the school. Those who are engaged in less troublesome behaviour also make more progress and are more engaged in education. Children having positive friendships are more engaged in schools. As children move through the school system, emotional and

behavioural wellbeing become more important in explaining school engagement, while demographic and other characteristics become less important.

Well-being integrates mental health (mind) and physical health (body) resulting in more holistic approaches to disease prevention and health promotion. Well-being is a valid population outcome measure beyond morbidity, mortality, and economic status that tells us how people perceive their life is going from their own perspective. Well-being is an outcome that is meaningful to the public. Advances in psychology, neuroscience, and measurement theory suggest that well-being can be measured with some degree of accuracy. Results from cross-sectional, longitudinal and experimental studies find that well-being is associated with:

- Self-perceived health.
- Longevity.
- Healthy behaviors.
- Mental and physical illness.
- Social connectedness.
- Productivity.
- Factors in the physical and social environment.

Well-being can provide a common metric that can help policy makers shape and compare the effects of different policies. Measuring, tracking and promoting well-being can be useful for multiple stakeholders involved in disease prevention and health promotion.

Well-being is associated with numerous health, job, family, and economically related benefits. For example, higher levels of well-being are associated with decreased risk of disease, illness, and injury; better immune functioning; speedier recovery; and increased longevity. Individuals with high levels of well-being are more productive at work and are more likely to contribute to their communities. Although a substantial proportion of the variance in well-being can be attributed to heritable factors, environmental factors play an equally if not more important role.

2.4.8 Summary

Every aspect of one's life influences the state of well-being. Some people believe that wealth is a fast track to happiness. Yet various international studies have shown that it is the quality of our personal relationships, not the size of our bank balances, which has the greatest effect on our state of wellbeing. Keeping track of a population's wellbeing helps governments to decide on particular policies. Well-being has different dimensions as social, emotional and mental. Different psychologists defined well-being differently. Well-being is a state of happiness, contentment, cheerfulness in one's life. Everyone should be aware of it. We should take serious notion towards developing our well-being in positive directions for leading a balanced life. Someone who has good well-being adapts to changes, copes with stress, has a

positive self-concept, has the ability to love and care for others and can act independently to meet one's own needs. The development of mind and the body are linked. If we improve our physical health, we will automatically experience greater mental and emotional well-being. For example, exercise not only strengthens our heart and lungs, but also releases endorphins, powerful chemicals that energize us and lift our mood. Hence, everyone should gather wallowing jiffs in life to enhance well-being and lead a balanced life.

2.4.9 Questions

- 1 Define well-being. Give its importance with suitable examples.
- 2 Discuss the concept of well-being in present scenario.
- 3 Elaborate the implications of well-being and suggest some measures to improve one's well-being.
- 4 Discuss relationship of education and well-being in your own words.

2.4.10 Suggested Books and Web Sources

Dandapani, S. (2004) Advanced Educational Psychology, Anmol Publications Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.

Diener, E. (1997) Educational Psychology, New Delhi: Prentice Hall.

Robert A. Baron (2012) Psychology, Dorling Kindersley, New Delhi.

Woolfolk, A. (2006) Educational Psychology, Pearson Education, Inc., New Delhi.

Defence Mechanisms : The Concept and Criteria of Abnormality and Normality

Structure :

- 2.5.1 Objectives
- 2.5.2 Introduction
- 2.5.3 The Concept of Abnormality and Normality
- 2.5.4 Criteria of Abnormality
 - 2.5.4.1 Statistical Criteria
 - 2.5.4.2 Social Criteria
 - 2.5.4.3 Personal Distress Criteria
 - 2.5.4.4 Legal Criteria
 - 2.5.4.5 Miscellaneous Criteria
 - 2.5.4.6 Bizarreness
 - 2.5.4.7 Inability to Cope
 - 2.5.4.8 Psychological Health as a Yardstick for Abnormality
- 2.5.5 Defence Mechanisms
 - 2.5.5.1 Compensation
 - 2.5.5.2 Rationalization
 - 2.5.5.3 Identification
 - 2.5.5.4 Seculsiveness
 - 2.5.5.5 Fantasy
 - 2.5.5.6 Repression
 - 2.5.5.7 Projection
 - 2.5.5.8 Regression
 - 2.5.5.9 Reaction Formation
 - 2.5.5.10 Displacement
 - 2.5.5.11 Denial
 - 2.5.5.12 Sublimation
- 2.5.6 Summary
- 2.5.7 Objective Type Questions
- 2.5.8 Suggested Questions and Web Sources
- 2.5.9 Suggested Readings

2.5.1 Objectives :

After going through this lesson, the students will be able to explain :

1. the concept of abnormality.
2. the criteria of abnormality?
3. the role of psychological health as yardstick for abnormality
4. the concept of defence mechanisms.
5. the role of defence mechanisms to restore normalcy.

2.5.2 Introduction :

Modern man's path to happiness is not an easy one. It is beset by seemingly endless personal and social problems. Periodic break down of the economic machinery as well as automation and other technological innovations have taken their toll in the millions of victims of unemployment and dislocation. The human population explosion is creating difficult political and social problems and tension. Caste/racial discrimination, with its unreasoned feelings of superiority, hatred, and resentment, hurts both the individual and the community. Broken homes leave emotional scars upon parents and children alike. Excessive competition, conflicting pressure groups, impersonal bureaucracy, rapid social change, and the ever present threat of various other changes in the society further aggravate modern man's anxieties.

In most cases the symptoms we see merely hinder the best potential adjustment of the individual, he worried along and solves his problems after a great effort. So normality involves the ability to cope with one's personal problems in such a way which is both socially acceptable and personally satisfying. But in many cases the stress of modern life proves abnormal and normal behaviour may be of great value in bettering individual adjustment and in reducing the great toll of misery and lost productivity which maladjustment and mental illness are exacting in our modern society.

2.5.3 The Concept of Abnormality and Normality :

Until recent time everyone considered mental abnormality uncommon and terrible. When it was not considered terrible, it was often considered comic or amusing further more, every recently the insane, the mentally deficient and the criminal were regarded to form a special group below the normal group, just as particularly, the gifted were considered to form a special group above the normal group. The mechanisms underlying the delusions of the insane and the creation of the genius were not the same as the mechanism governing the behaviour of the rest of us. Even today in popular thinking there are three distinct 'types' of humans, the unfortunate insane and delinquents, the geniuses and the normals. In addition to above, in popular thinking there is no continuity", between these groups and border line cases. An individual is either definitely "normal" or definitely a "genius" or definitely "insane" (abnormal). The normal behaviour was the result of normal causes, those driven insane were being avenged by God for their sins or were suffering through heredity for the sins of their forefathers and those who became geniuses were the recipients of divine

inspiration. This viewpoint, which in one form or another was Universal, was held until about one hundred years ago even by men of science, and by laymen as well.

There are **three reasons** why such a viewpoint remains so widespread. In the **first place**, until about one hundred years ago it was the prevalent theory held among even learned men. Before science, natural events which were difficult to explain were accounted for on theological grounds. In the **second place**, there was a social stigma in connection with insanity. Abnormality was considered possession by the devil or the result of sinning. It was also believed to be due to faulty heredity. In the **third place**, personality was looked on as constant phenomenon (unchangeable), bestowed by God or by personal heredity again, in more advanced circles.

It is psychologically much easier to give up the belief than personality is a constant, unchangeable, which is God-given entity. Thus, the popular viz., that both the insane and the genius are completely distinct from the normal must be abandoned for the viewpoint of modern psychology, which sees personality traits as distributed on a continuum. To repeat from above abnormal psychological phenomena are simply exaggerations (i.e., over developments or under developments) or disguised (i.e. perverted developments) of the normal psychological phenomena. This view has several important methodological implications.

In the **first** place, it overcomes the trichotomy, abnormal, normal and genius. What we previously considered abnormal, that is away from the normal and different from the normal, represent simply exaggerations or disguised developments of normal thinking, feeling, willing and acting. In **second** place, we consider that these abnormal mental phenomena have natural causes and obey the same laws as do the normal mental phenomena. Thus abnormal mental phenomena are not caused by **supernatural forces** like “Punishment by God”, or “possession by the devil” or, on the other hand, by “spiritual inspiration” but by ordinary psychological laws. In the third place, we believe that just as normal thinking, willing and doing leads to economical or adaptive results, so does that or mentally ill if we considered the history and the present situation.

Thus **abnormal phenomena differ from the normal in degree and not in kind**. This modern theoretical viewpoint is of the greatest importance. There are three reasons for its importance, one theoretical, one practical and one cultural. From the standpoint of psychological theory, if it is true that abnormal mental phenomena are simple exaggerations of perversions of the normal phenomena. The second reason is practical. If abnormality differs from normality in degree rather than in kind, when we understand how this degree differences is brought about, the possibility arises of reversing the process. Until very recently the person who had “lost his mind” was usually considered as lost forever. At the present time many so called “insanities” are curable, so that the individual returns to a completely normal life, and others who are not yet curable are subject to what we call “social recovery”. By social recovery is meant that the individual

viewpoint removes both insanity and genius from the realm of the mystic. If it is possible to speak of human progress at all, progress must be defined in terms of the increase in man's scientific and rational control over nature.

It will be worth while, however, to point out the nature of these reasons. We believed that personality traits and other personal characteristics are distributed along the curve of normal probability for both theoretical and empirical reasons.

The older concept of the abnormal was taken to mean a special and distinctive group of phenomena which could be distinguished from the normal. Modern Psychopathology theoretically can make no such distinction. With this much knowledge, the word abnormal means "away from the normal," it implies deviation from some clearly defined norms. Or in case of normal behaviour in all sphere constructive and socially acceptable. Where as in the case of abnormal behaviour is socially unacceptable in both motor and cognitive sphere. There is a harmonious balance in ego, superego, In and outside reality. Ego powerless or weak against in and break with reality (Freud).

In the case of physical illness, the norm is the structural and functional integrity of the body and the boundary lies between normality and abnormality and pathology can usually be clearly delineated by medical science. On the psychological level, however, we have no "ideal model" of man to use as a base of comparison, nor are we entirely clear as to just what behaviour is or is not normal. As a consequence, the problem of defining abnormal behaviour has proved to be the most difficult one. But, in the modern words, abnormal behaviour is believed to be a natural phenomena with natural cause like, anxiety, tension stress and pressures. Further, as research evidence has accumulated it has become increasingly clear that both biological and psychological as well as sociological factors are involved in the origins of many psychological disorders (abnormality). Some disorders are solely, biological in origin (Such as those caused by brain injuries, and some are solely, psychological in origin (depression). Many other disorders appear to involve both kinds of causes. Inherited disposition raises certain kinds of problems; abnormal amount of specific neurotransmitter substance has tendencies to react automatically to stress in an abnormal way these are of the biological factors believed to be partially responsible for a variety of psychological disorders. The psychological factors involved in the same disorders include stress, abnormal social learning, ineffective coping strategies and inadequate social support. Apparently, the biological, sociological and psychological factors work together to determine whether a person will experience psychological problems (abnormality). However, for practical purpose we must still set up certain criteria to divide the insane from the same, the feeble-minded from the normal, abnormal and from the normal and the antisocial from the socially adjusted.

2.5.4 Criteria of Abnormality :**2.5.4.1 Statistical Criteria :**

Normality, in statistical terms, is what is usual or average. Abnormality by this definition, is whatever falls outside the usual or average. This definition has a certain appeal since it requires no value judgements about behaviour. To establish whether a characteristic is normal or abnormal, the psychologist or psychiatrist simply counts cases, stipulates the normal range, and classifies accordingly. The only assumption necessary for this definition is that the behaviour in question distributes itself symmetrically along the familiar normal, or bell-shaped curve.

2.5.4.2 Social Criteria :

Abnormality cannot be judged outside the societal context because it is within it that standards of behavioural normality are defined: how one should behave in school or society in the company of elders, youngsters and peer groups, when to cry and when to laugh, what to wear on various occasions, what behaviour is appropriate under which circumstances. In short, society prescribes certain standards of normality, and one is judged abnormal to the degree that he or she is unable to unwilling to adhere to these standards.

2.5.4.3 Personal Distress Criteria :

Most people diagnosed as abnormal by clinicians are also hurting subjectively. They generally experience interpersonal problems, many physical aches and pains insomnia, nausea, loss of appetite, headaches, and sometimes paralysis and such emotional symptoms as fear of failure, worry, hypochondria, depression and agitation.

2.5.4.4 Legal Criteria :

Forensic or legal definitions of abnormality are by far the most unsatisfactory. From a legal standard a defendant is judged insane or abnormal if the defendant's reasoning can be shown in a court of law to have been so impaired as to prevent the defendant's knowing what he/she was doing or distinguishing between rights and wrong.

2.5.4.5 Miscellaneous Criteria:

Society also used several other standards for judging abnormality. Some of these focus on the unusualness of the behaviour in question, and others are related to research needs of mental health professionals.

2.5.4.6 Bizarreness :

Reactions that show extreme deviations from recognized norms are called bizarre. This term, usually reserved to describe the more unusual, outlandish, or irrational behaviour of some mentally ill persons, is essentially an application of the statistical criterion and includes the grimacing and grotesque gestures and actions of some patients as they react to their delusions, illusions and hallucinations. These

behaviours are easily identified and are seen only in severely disturbed individuals, such as aggressive behaviour (fighting, temper tantrums, defiance, disobedience, destruction of property, non-cooperative and resistive behaviour, irritability, attention seeking, inattentiveness, distractibility, tenseness, shyness, seclusiveness, lack of friends, depression, feeling of inferiority, low self-confidence, hypersensitivity, lack of adaptive skill, daydreaming, absentmindedness, low initiative inability to complete tasks, having “bad” companions stealing in the company of others belonging to a gang, showing loyalty to delinquent friends, being truant from home or school and many other (Dreger et.al; 1964, Achenback, 1978, 1985; and Quarry 1979).

2.5.4.7 Inability to cope :

Most people pride themselves on their ability to manage their own affairs and to cope with the complexities of contemporarily living. Although the community at large tolerates minor inability to manage or cope, with it prescribed custodial care for members it considers “incompetent” assigns them guardians or commits them to mental hospitals.

Researcher’s Definitions (Criteria) : Scott, 1958 listed the following criteria of abnormality

- (i) Exposure to psychiatric treatment
- (ii) Social maladjustment.
- (iii) Psychiatric diagnosis.

(iv) Objective testing, Among these the most frequently used criteria of abnormality (mental illness) is exposure to psychiatric treatment.

2.5.4.8 Psychological Health as a Yardstick for Abnormality :

Jahods, 1958; Maslow 1970; Seoben 1957 have tried to complete the picture by studying and defining healthy and unhealthy behaviour.

The above discussed criterion are not complete in itself. Every criterion has advantages and disadvantages to judge and explain abnormality, if we analyse critically. Thus in view of the above facts and knowledge regarding criteria, we shall continue to define psychopathology or abnormality, as any behaviour of a person that is detrimental to that person’s health, growth and functioning or deviate from the existing norms of the group/society, of which he/she is a member.

Short in text questions :

1. Concept of Abnormality.
2. Criteria of Abnormality (any three).

2.5.5 Defence Mechanisms :

We generally observe a method of common adjustment in the behaviour of all people. They are used by the most normal people also. No one need to be alarmed when he/she finds that the methods/mechanisms are also the basis of some of the most bizarre symptoms of the serious mental disorders, in which they occur in exaggerated form. All people have a tendency to blame their shortcomings or others;

that is normal. It is an extreme when persons with delusions believe that their families or associates are conspiring against them which is abnormal. Thus, a knowledge of these common adjustment mechanisms is essential so an understanding of both normal and abnormal behaviour.

In a culture that place or area premium on competitive achievement or recreations adjustment mechanisms are needed to cope with feelings of failure, inferiority and misuse of power. Several mechanisms that serve this purpose are often grouped together as defence mechanisms, since they tend to defend an individual against a recognition of his inadequacies.

We will discuss here the following defence mechanisms:

(1) Compensation, (2) Rationalization, (3) Identification, (4) Seclusiveness, (5) Fantasy, (6) Repression, (7) Projection, (8) Regression, (9) Reaction formation, (10) Displacement (11) Denial and (12) Sublimation.

2.5.5.1 Compensation :

The most common of the defence mechanisms consists of an excessive policy of a characteristic, or an over emphasis of it, so as to balance or conceal a deficiency is called **compensation**. The most obvious forms of compensation are found in childhood. Because of their lack of size and strength, their great dependence on others and their constant frustration by adults and children have especially strong needs for compensatory adjustment. Normally they achieve this end by aggressive play and noisy rough house, and by the inevitable testing, taunting and quarrelling that children do among themselves. In certain circumstances they steal, destroy property etc. These maladjustments differ from normal compensatory behaviour only in degree. Adults also have their normal compensations that help them to relieve the doldrum of ordinary existence. They include hobbies, sports, card playing, gossip and such other activities that balance frustrations. Parents seek compensation through the accomplishments of their children expecting very high achievements from them.

2.5.5.2 Rationalization :

It is a defence mechanism in which persons justify their behaviour by giving socially acceptable reasons for it with the effect of concealing motives and impulses that they have learnt to regard as inferior or shameful. To deceive himself with a sense of virtue and to evade, the recognition of his own antisocial tendencies, the rationalization invents “good” reasons to explain and justify his conduct. These are his rationalizations. For example, a boy who is late for school finds many excuses. Perhaps the clock was slow, or breakfast late or school clock was fast. A boy who fails in examination, would say, teacher was not good, parents had not purchased the books asked for or examiner had not properly evaluated the answer-books. Indeed, almost all human beings make use of this mechanism every day. Their unpleasant task is not completed because more urgent matters have to be pursued. A job is done

poorly because the right tools were not available. Due to its common use, ordinary rationalization cannot be regarded as a serious maladjustment but delusions of persecution is very serious and abnormal. The severity of student's adjustment be recognised and accounted for the abnormality.

2.5.5.3 Identification :

It is adjustive satisfaction which one gained through the accomplishment of other persons and of social groups. In using this mechanism an individual is said to identify himself with the person or institution through which he fulfills his needs. A simple and almost universal type of identification is seen in the relationship of a child to his parents. The child due to his own helplessness, adopts the parent's achievements as his own. The child takes pride in the parent's status or strength, and adjusts to his own and vice-versa.

Other identification develop outside the family group and act adjustment to individual social thwartings. By hero worship, children, adolescents and others identify themselves with popular public figures, imitate their characteristics and enjoy their accomplishments. On the whole, the mechanisms of identifications is constructive, with many values and few harmful effects. Harm comes when the parent identifying himself with the child, puts pressure on the child to achieve what is impossible for him.

2.5.5.4 Seculsiveness (Withdrawal) :

It means that a person may employ to cope with his difficulties is to run away from them. Withdrawing, timid or seclusive behaviour is very direct evidence of a fearful response to social situations. It is an incomplete adjustment, because it provides no satisfaction for the person continuing social fears or needs. It is an attitude of self condemnation and anxiety. A habitually seclusive person is difficult to readjust, because he has not acquired the minor skills in dealing with people that most persons use in their social contacts.

2.5.5.5 Fantasy :

Fantasy or daydreaming is both an escape and a compensatory mechanism. Released from the bounds or reality, a person can imagine any of the satisfactions that he does not attain more directly, including vocational success, money and possessions, sex satisfactions, intellectual brilliance, physical strength and beauty and all the other goals towards which he strives. Every one daydreams it is evident that this is a universal source of adjustive satisfaction. The principal fault of daydreaming is the amount of time that is consumes. But because of its common occurrence, daydreaming cannot be considered as a pathological condition and no one should worry about the fact that he daydreams. It has positive value in invention, literature and art.

2.5.5.6 Repression :

Thoughts and impulses that are in conflict with the social values of an individual

are unpleasant and troublesome. Satisfying these rejected motives, or even thinking may adjust by inhibiting his responses to these needs and by keeping himself away from every remembering their existence. This substitute adjustment is known as repression. Repression merely keeps motives from being recognized and satisfied. They may still continue as tensions which are either partially reduced by other substitute mechanisms or remain to serve as a basis for value anxiety. Repression, like the other mechanisms, is found in the behaviour of quite normal people as well as of the seriously maladjusted. The chief danger in repression is that it hampers your re-education.

2.5.5.7 Projection :

It often leads to seeing one's own inferior impulses in other people. As an awkward person sees and criticizes awkwardness in others. Doing so has an adjustive values similar to that of rationalization, for it boosts up his self-esteem by emphasizing that others are worse than he. This kind of adjustment usually includes aspects of two mechanisms; it is rationalization in that it excuses failure, but it is also projection in attributing self-aggression to the external world.

2.5.5.8 Regression :

It is another form of escape from difficulties to revert to solutions that were satisfying at an earlier period of personal development. Its clearest manifestations are seen in the behaviour of your children. When thwarted, they tend to regress to obviously infantile responses. A two-three-year-old who no longer gets his parents undivided attention because of a new baby in the family may revert to crawling instead of walking or many demand that he be fed by hand. An example is the psychological invalid, who takes to bed in order to escape a need for adjustment, demanding that others care for all his needs. Regression is even more striking in the serious mental disorders of the withdrawing types, in which a patient may long remain mute and unresponsive to adjustive demands. In the second sense, all maladjustments are somewhat regressive in that they retreats from the intricate adaptations required in dealing effectively with reality.

2.5.5.9 Reaction Formation :

It is sometimes possible to conceal an impulse from ourselves by giving strong expression to its opposite. Such mechanism is called reaction formation. The mother of an unwanted child may feel guilty for not liking her child, and so turns overprotective and overindulgent towards the child in order to assure herself that she is a 'good' mother. Through the mechanism of reaction formation, she conceals the real impulse. Concealing an impulse or a motive by giving strong expression to its opposite is the mechanism of reaction formation.

2.5.5.10 Displacement :

It occurs when a person prevents aggression, not as its real object who seems

to be threatening-but at a harmless scapegoat. In simple way this is called “taking it out on someone else”

2.5.5.11 Denial :

A refusal to acknowledge the truth, is closely related to repressing, but denial is a more willful and less unconscious behaviour. The function of denial is usually to avoid.

2.5.5.12 Sublimation :

It is a substitute response, that is socially acceptable and does not interfere appreciably with the satisfaction of other motives. Aggressive responses to thwarting are sublimated into interests in participant and spectator sports, especially those requiring physical force such as boxing or football. Thwarted needs to “mother” people and to have them dependent may be sublimated into work in child welfare or social welfare. Most well-balanced adjustments are direct responses to motives. There is some experimental evidence that achievement is not usually due to sublimation. For example, it is often assumed the creativeness in the arts is a sublimation of sex motives. If this were true, the need for sexual gratification would be lessened in creative individuals. But this is not so, artists sex needs are normal as in other persons.

It appears that defence mechanisms, through self-deceptions are normal ways of adjusting to a situation that threatens our self-esteem and are used by all individuals without any hesitation. These help us in overcoming that situation and maintain our normality.

2.5.6 Summary :

The older, but still popular, concept of abnormality as being uncommon, terrible, a thing apart from normality has been replaced by the newer or scientific view which considers abnormal phenomena as exaggeration or perversions of normal mental phenomena, subject to the same laws, and as having meaning and significance in terms of total situation. Abnormality depends upon the time, place and situation. This modern viewpoint is important for theoretical, practical and culture reasons. The traditional definitions of abnormality as deviation from a normal standard of behaviour are based on prevalent social values. Those values are not being taken for granted to the extent they were and even the idea of scientific objectivity has given way to a recognition that what science sees is largely a function of scientific models (criterion), when always fail to fit some of the phenomena that might be observed.

Statistical criteria of abnormality, as long as they are content free, treat deviation in either direction as undesirable, but some unusual behaviour, such as extremely high intelligence, is desirable. Cultural criteria are subject to the criticism that a culture may have undesirable norms. Personal distress may be a useful criticism when a person's problems are mild, but those who are most troubled are least aware that they are troubled. Psychological health as a standard (instead or

normality) avoids the tendency to make mediocrity the ideal but requires a change in perception that may be beyond many people. For these reason we continue to define abnormal behaviour as behaviour that interferes with one's health growth of functioning as per prevailing norms of society.

Defence mechanisms are patterns of behaviour people develop towards unpleasant or troublesome situations or anxiety for adjustment. A person often continues to use a defence mechanisms whenever threatening situation arises or could not face or cope with realities or anxiety threatens, even though the defence mechanisms sometimes regenerates the anxiety. Compensation consists of an characteristic or an over excessive display of an over emphasis or it, so as to balance the deficiency. Rationalization in which persons justify their behaviour by giving socially acceptable reasons for it. Identification is adjustive satisfaction when one gained through the accomplishment of other persons and of social groups Seclusiveness or withdrawal means that a persons may employ to cope with his difficulties to run away from them. Fantasy or day dreaming is both an escape and a compensatory mechanism. In it released from the bounds of reality, a person can imagine any of the satisfactions, that does not attain more directly or is an escape into wish fulfilling dreams. Repression is a pushing out or walling off from consciousness of threatening thoughts, feelings not acceptable in oneself. Repression is another form of escape from difficulties, trevent to solutions is the replacement of an unacceptable behaviour by its exact opposite, usually exaggerated in intensity. Displacement is the deflection of aggressive impulsive away from their real but dangerous or powerful object towards someone weaker. Denial is a refusal face unpleasant realities. Whereas sublimation is a substitute response that is socially acceptable and does not interfere with the satisfaction of other motives. In short, defence mechanisms are helpful modes of adjustment for all normal people. Used to an extreme, these may make one abnormal.

2.5.7 Questions for Self-Evaluation :

- | | | |
|----|--|--------|
| 1. | Abnormal students cannot be located. | Yes/No |
| 2. | There is no criteria of Abnormality. | Yes/No |
| 3. | Compensation mechanism can cure nobody. | Yes/No |
| 4. | Sublimation is a technique of defence mechanism. | Yes/No |
| 5. | Projection is nothing but to deceive oneself. | Yes/No |
| 6. | Displacement is called taking it out on someone else. | Yes/No |
| 7. | Fantasy has positive value in invention, literature and art. | Yes/No |
| 8. | Regression is a technique of defence mechanism. | Yes/No |

Answer Key :

(1)	No	(2)	No	(3)	No	(4)	Yes
(5)	No	(6)	Yes	(7)	Yes	(8)	Yes

2.5.8 Suggested Questions and Web Sources :

1. What do you understand by Abnormality and Normality? Discuss in detail.
2. Define “ Abnormality” and discuss criterion to judge abnormal behaviour.
3. What do you mean by “Defence Mechanism? Enlist mostly used defence mechanisms and discuss any one most acceptable.
4. Discuss critically rationalization, repression and day-dreaming as defence mechanisms in terms of their merits and demerits.
5. Name defence mechanism which is most acceptable or dangerous. Give examples from school situations to support your answer.
6. What do you understand by “Sublimation” as defence mechanism. Discuss its merits and demerits in detail.

Web Sources :

1. books.google.co.in.
2. www.ehow.com.
3. en.wikipedia.org.

2.5.9 Suggested Readings :

1. Arthur I Gates, Arthur T. Gersild, T. R. Mc. Connell, Robert C. Challman; “*Educational Psychology*”, New York: The Mac Millan Company, 1955.
2. Coleman, James, C. Butcher, James, N; and Carson Robert, C; “Abnormal Psychology and Modern Life” London : Scott. Foreman and Company, Glenview ILinois, 1988.
3. Seligman, M.E.P. : *Helplessness on Depression, Development and Death*, San Francisco : W.H. Freeman, 1975.
4. Maslow, H.A. and Mittelmann, B;-*Principles of Abnormal Psychology, the Dynamics of Psychic Illness*, New York : Harper and Row, 1951.
5. Butcher, J.N. : *Abnormal Psychology*, Calif; Wordsworth, 1971.
6. Sodhi, T.S. and Harinder Kaur Sodhi : *Educational Psychology*, Bawa Publications, Patiala 2010.