

CHAPTER 2 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

The Nature of Personality (APA Goal 1)

- Clarify the meaning of personality and personality traits
- Describe the five-factor model of personality and relations between the Big Five and life outcomes

Psychodynamic Perspectives (APA Goal 1)

- Explain Freud's view of personality structure and the role of conflict and anxiety
- Identify key defense mechanisms, and outline Freud's view of development
- Summarize the psychodynamic theories proposed by Jung and Adler
- Evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the psychodynamic approach to personality.

Behavioral Perspectives (APA Goals 1, 4)

- Describe Pavlov's classical conditioning and its contribution to understanding personality.
- Discuss how Skinner's principles of operant conditioning can be applied to personality development.
- Describe Bandura's social cognitive theory and his concept of self-efficacy.
- Evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of behavioral theories of personality.

Humanistic Perspectives (APA Goal 1)

- Describe the forces that gave rise to humanism, and articulate Roger's views on the self-concept
- Describe Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and summarize his findings on self-actualizing persons.
- Evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of humanistic theories of personality.

Biological Perspectives (APA Goal 1)

- Outline Eysenck's views on personality, and summarize behavioral genetics research on personality.
- Summarize neuroscience and evolutionary research on personality.
- Evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of biological theories of personality.

A Contemporary Empirical Approach (APA Goal 1)

- Describe the traits of sensation seeking and narcissism
- Explain the chief concepts and hypotheses of terror management theory

Culture and Personality (APA Goal 8)

- Discuss whether the five-factor model has any relevance in non-Western cultures.
- Explain how researchers have found both cross-cultural similarities and disparities in personality.

Application: Assessing Your Personality (APA Goals 2, 3, 4)

- Explain the concepts of standardization, test norms, reliability, and validity.
- Discuss the value and the limitations of self-report inventories and projective tests.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. The Nature of Personality

A. What is personality?

1. Consistency of behavior across situations lies at the core of the concept of personality
2. Distinctiveness of behavior is also central to the concept of personality
3. *Personality*: an individual's unique constellation of consistent behavioral traits

B. What are personality traits?

1. *Personality trait*: a durable disposition to behave in a particular way in a variety of situations (e.g., honest, dependable, moody)
2. Most trait theories assume that some traits are more basic than others
3. In *factor analysis*, correlations among many variables are analyzed to identify closely related clusters of variables

C. The five-factor model of personality

1. Developed by McCrae and Costa
2. Vast majority of personality traits derive from just five higher-order traits
 - a. Extraversion
 - b. Neuroticism
 - c. Openness to experience
 - d. Agreeableness
 - e. Conscientiousness
3. There may be relations between the Big Five traits and socioeconomic status
4. There are correlations between the Big Five traits and life outcomes
 - a. Grades
 - b. Career success
 - c. Likelihood of divorce
 - d. Illness and mortality
5. Critics of the five-factor model maintain that more than five traits are necessary to account for the variation in human personality
6. Other critics argue for a simpler three-factor model

II. Psychodynamic Perspectives

A. *Psychodynamic theories*: all the diverse theories descended from the work of Sigmund Freud, which focus on unconscious mental forces

B. Freud's psychoanalytic theory

1. Freud's background
 - a. Born in 1856; grew up in middle-class Jewish home in Vienna, Austria
 - b. Was trained as a physician specializing in neurology
 - c. Eventually devoted himself to treatment of mental disorders using psychoanalysis, which he developed
2. Controversial arguments
 - a. Unconscious forces govern human behavior
 - b. Childhood strongly determines adult personality
 - c. Personality shaped by coping with sexual urges
3. Structure of personality

- a. *Id*: the primitive, instinctive component of personality that operates according to the pleasure principle
 - 1) Id houses the biological urges that energize our behavior
 - 2) Operates according to the *pleasure principle*, which demands immediate gratification of its urges
 - 3) *Primary process thinking*: primitive, illogical, irrational, and fantasy oriented
 - b. *Ego*: the decision-making component of personality that operates according to the reality principle
 - 1) Mediates between the id and the norms of the external, social world
 - 2) Operates according to the reality principle, which seeks to delay gratification of the id's urges until appropriate outlets and situations can be found
 - 3) Engages in *secondary process thinking*, which is relatively rational and oriented toward problem-solving
 - c. *Superego*: the moral component of personality that incorporates social standards about what represents right and wrong
4. Three components distributed across three levels of awareness
 - a. *Conscious* consists of whatever one is aware of at a particular point in time
 - b. *Preconscious* contains material just beneath the surface of awareness that can be easily retrieved
 - c. *Unconscious* contains thoughts, memories, and desires that are well below the surface of conscious awareness but that nonetheless exert great influence on one's behavior
 5. Conflict and defense mechanisms
 - a. Internal conflicts between id, ego, and superego
 - b. Conflicts centering on sexual and aggressive urges are particularly influential
 - 1) Much confusion results from these drives
 - 2) Sexual and aggressive drives are thwarted more regularly than other biological urges
 - c. Efforts to alleviate anxiety involve use of *defense mechanisms*, which are largely unconscious reactions that protect a person from painful emotions such as anxiety and guilt
 - 1) *Rationalization* involves creating false but plausible excuses to justify unacceptable behavior
 - 2) *Repression* involves keeping distressing thoughts and feelings buried in the unconscious
 - a) The most basic and widely used defense mechanism
 - b) A form of "motivated forgetting"
 - 3) *Projection* involves attributing one's own thoughts, feelings, or motives to another
 - 4) *Displacement* involves diverting emotional feelings (usually anger) from their original source to a substitute target
 - 5) *Reaction formation* involves behaving in a way that is exactly the opposite of one's true feelings
 - 6) *Regression* involves a reversion to immature patterns of behavior
 - 7) *Identification* involves bolstering self-esteem by forming an imaginary or real alliance with some person or group
 6. Development: psychosexual stages
 - a. Freud suggested that the foundation of one's personality is established by the age of five

- b. *Psychosexual stages*: developmental periods with a characteristic sexual focus that leave their mark on adult personality
 - c. *Fixation*: a failure to move forward from one stage to another as expected
 - 1) Caused by excessive gratification or excessive frustration of needs at a particular stage
 - 2) Generally leads to an overemphasis on the psychosexual needs that were prominent during the fixated stage
 - d. Five psychosexual stages
 - 1) *Oral stage*
 - a) Usually encompasses first year of life
 - b) Source of erotic stimulation is mouth
 - c) Crucial event involves weaning
 - d) Fixation could form basis for obsessive eating or smoking later in life
 - 2) *Anal stage*
 - a) Begins in second year
 - b) Erotic pleasure focuses on bowel movements
 - c) Crucial event involves toilet training
 - d) Fixation may lead to hostility to mother, women in general
 - 3) *Phallic stage*
 - a) Begins around age four
 - b) Genitals become focus of child's erotic energy
 - c) Marked by occurrence of *Oedipal complex*, in which children manifest erotically tinged desires for their other-gender parent, accompanied by feelings of hostility toward their same-gender parent
 - d) Successful resolution requires identification with same-gender parent
 - 4) *Latency stage*
 - a) Occurs from about age six through puberty
 - b) Child's sexuality is suppressed, becomes "latent"
 - 5) *Genital stage*
 - a) Begins with advent of puberty
 - b) Sexual urges reappear and focus on genitals
 - c) Sexual energy is normally channeled toward peers of other sex
- C. Jung's analytical psychology
- 1. Like Freud, Jung emphasized unconscious determinants of personality
 - 2. Unlike Freud, suggested that the unconscious consists of two layers
 - a. Personal unconscious
 - 1) Essentially the same as Freud's version of the unconscious
 - 2) Contains material not within one's conscious awareness
 - b. *Collective unconscious*: a storehouse of latent memory traces inherited from people's ancestral past that is shared with the entire human race
 - 1) Jung called these memories *archetypes*, which are emotionally charged images and thought forms that have universal meaning
 - 2) Jung's ideas about collective unconscious had little impact on mainstream psychology, but instead more impact on other fields
- D. Alfred Adler's individual psychology
- 1. Suggested that foremost human drive is not sexuality, but a striving for superiority
 - 2. Suggested that everyone has to work to overcome some feelings of inferiority

- a. *Compensation* involves efforts to overcome imagined or real inferiorities by developing one's abilities
 - b. Inferiority feeling can become excessive, resulting in an inferiority complex: exaggerated feelings of weakness and inadequacy
 - 1) Can distort the normal process of striving for superiority
 - 2) Some people engage in overcompensation in order to conceal, even from themselves, their feelings of inferiority
- E. Evaluating psychodynamic perspectives
- 1. Yielded some new insights
 - a. Unconscious forces can influence behavior
 - b. Internal conflict often plays a key role in generating psychological distress
 - c. Early childhood experiences can exert considerable influence over adult personality
 - d. People do rely on defense mechanisms to reduce unpleasant emotions
 - 2. Have been criticized on several grounds
 - a. Poor testability
 - b. Unrepresentative samples
 - c. Inadequate evidence
 - d. Sexism

III. Behavioral Perspectives

- A. *Behaviorism*: a theoretical orientation based on the premise that scientific psychology should study observable behavior
- 1. John B. Watson was major force in development of behaviorism
 - 2. Personality as a collection of response tendencies that are tied to various stimulus situations
 - 3. Behaviorists have focused on personality development rather than structure
- B. Pavlov's classical conditioning
- 1. *Classical conditioning*: a type of learning in which a neutral stimulus acquires the capacity to evoke a response that was originally evoked by another stimulus
 - 2. The conditioned reflex
 - a. Unconditioned bonds
 - 1) *Unconditioned stimulus*(UCS): a stimulus that evokes an unconditioned response without previous conditioning
 - 2) *Unconditioned response*(UCR): an unlearned reaction to an unconditioned stimulus that occurs without previous conditioning
 - b. Conditioned bonds
 - 1) *Conditioned stimulus*(CS): a previously neutral stimulus that has acquired the capacity to evoke a conditioned response through conditioning
 - 2) *Conditioned response* (CR): a learned reaction to a conditioned stimulus that occurs because of previous conditioning
 - 3. Classical conditioning in everyday life
 - a. Contributes to the acquisition of emotional responses, such as anxieties, fears, and phobias
 - b. Also appears to account for more realistic and moderate anxiety
 - c. Stimulus-response bond does not necessarily last indefinitely

- 1) *Extinction*: the gradual weakening and disappearance of a conditioned response tendency
 - 2) Time it takes to extinguish a conditioned response depends on variety of factors
- C. Skinner's operant conditioning
1. *Operant conditioning*: a form of learning in which voluntary responses come to be controlled by their consequences
 2. The power of reinforcement
 - a. *Positive reinforcement* occurs when a response is strengthened (increases in frequency) because it is followed by the arrival of a (presumably) pleasant stimulus
 - 1) Roughly synonymous with concept of reward
 - 2) Motivates much of our everyday behavior
 - 3) Behaviors that are reinforced regularly tend to become an integral element of personality
 - b. *Negative reinforcement* occurs when a response is strengthened (increased in frequency) because it is followed by the removal of a (presumably) unpleasant stimulus
 - 1) Negative reinforcement is reinforcement (i.e., it strengthens a response)
 - 2) Plays major role in the development of avoidance tendencies
 3. Extinction and punishment
 - a. *Extinction* occurs when a previously reinforced response stops producing positive consequences
 - b. *Punishment* occurs when a response is weakened (decreases in frequency) because it is followed by the arrival of a (presumably) unpleasant stimulus
 - 1) Concept is often confusing to students
 - a) Mixed up with negative reinforcement
 - b) May be viewed as only a disciplinary procedure
 - 2) Patterns of behavior that lead to punishment tend to be weakened
 - 3) According to Skinner, conditioning is a "mechanical" process that occurs without conscious participation
- D. Bandura's social cognitive theory
1. Emphasizes the role of cognition in learned behaviors
 - a. A less "mechanical" model of human behavior
 - b. Maintains that people actively seek out and process information about their environment
 2. Observational learning
 - a. *Observational learning* occurs when an organism's responding is influenced by the observation of others, who are called models
 - b. Behavior is changed through indirect learning and requires
 - 1) Paying attention to model's behavior
 - 2) Understanding the consequences of the behavior
 - 3) Storing the information in memory
 - c. Some models are more influential than others
 - 1) People one likes or respects
 - 2) People who are perceived as attractive or powerful
 - 3) Model is viewed as similar to the individual
 - 4) Model's behavior leads to positive outcomes

3. Self-efficacy
 - a. *Self-efficacy*: one's belief about one's ability to perform behaviors that should lead to expected outcomes
 - b. Perceptions of self-efficacy correlate with various outcomes including reduced procrastination, more effective weight-loss efforts, higher academic performance, and greater resistance to stress, among many others
- E. Evaluating behavioral perspectives
 1. Positive aspects
 - a. Rooted in empirical research rather than clinical intuition
 - b. Provided account of why people are only moderately consistent in their behavior
 2. Criticisms
 - a. Dilution of the behavioral approach
 - b. Overdependence on animal research

IV. Humanistic Perspectives

- A. *Humanism*: a theoretical orientation that emphasizes the unique qualities of humans, especially their free will and their potential for personal growth
 1. Emerged in 1950s as a backlash against behavioral and psychodynamic theories
 2. Takes a relatively optimistic view of human nature
 - a. Human nature includes an innate drive toward personal growth
 - b. Individuals have free will; they are not pawns of their environment
 - c. People are conscious and rational beings who are not dominated by unconscious, irrational needs, and conflicts
- B. Rogers' person-centered theory
 1. The self and its development
 - a. *Self-concept*: a collection of beliefs about one's own nature, unique qualities, and typical behavior
 - b. *Incongruence*: the disparity between one's self-concept and one's actual experience
 - 1) Childhood experiences may promote congruence or incongruence
 - 2) Unconditional love from parents fosters congruence and conditional love fosters incongruence
 2. Anxiety and defense
 - a. Experiences that threaten one's self-concept are the principal cause of anxiety
 - b. People behave defensively to ward off this anxiety and protect their self-concept
 - c. Psychological health is rooted in a congruent self-concept
- C. Maslow's theory of self-actualization
 1. *Hierarchy of needs*: a systematic arrangement of needs, according to priority, in which basic needs must be met before less basic needs are aroused
 - a. Usually portrayed as a pyramid
 - b. Satisfaction of one level of needs activates needs at the next level
 - c. Main "growth need" is *self-actualization*: the need to fulfill one's potential; it is the highest need in Maslow's motivational hierarchy
 2. Kenrick and colleagues argue for reworking the upper levels of Maslow's hierarchy
 3. The healthy personality (self-actualizing persons)
 - a. Accurately tuned in to reality

- b. At peace with themselves
- c. Open, spontaneous, appreciative
- d. Enjoy rewarding relationships
- e. Not dependent on approval, not uncomfortable with solitude
- f. Thrive on their work
- g. Enjoy sense of humor
- h. Enjoy peak experiences
- i. Balanced personality

D. Evaluating humanistic perspectives

1. Positive aspects
 - a. Emphasis on subjective personal factors (e.g., beliefs, expectations) in personality
 - b. Made self-concept an important construct in psychology
 - c. Foundation for emergence of positive psychology movement
2. Criticisms
 - a. Poor testability
 - b. Unrealistically view of human nature
 - c. Inadequate evidence

V. Biological Perspectives

A. Eysenck's theory

1. Suggests that personality is a function of genetic differences in "conditionability"
2. Views personality structure as hierarchy of traits
3. Special interest in explaining variations in extraversion-introversion
 - a. Proposed that introverts tend to have higher levels of physiological arousal than extraverts
 - b. Higher arousal motivates introverts to avoid social situations

B. Recent evidence in behavioral genetics

1. Support for genetic influence on personality provided by *twin studies*, in which researchers assess hereditary influence by comparing the resemblance of identical twins and fraternal twins on a trait; *heritability ratios* are used to estimate the proportion of trait variability in a population that is determined by variations in genetic inheritance
 - a. Accumulating evidence suggests that heredity is a key factor shaping personality
 - b. Skeptics suggest that identical twins tend to be raised more similarly than fraternal twins
2. Results of the Minnesota study indicate that genetic inheritance accounts for at least 50% of the variation among people in personality
3. Genetic mapping techniques are finding associations between specific genes and aspects of behavior

C. The Neuroscience of Personality

1. Behavioral regularities that reflect personality may have their roots in brain variations
2. Such research has focused primarily on the Big Five traits

- D. The evolutionary approach to personality
 1. *Evolutionary psychology* examines behavioral processes in terms of their adaptive value for members of a species over the course of many generations
 2. Suggests that natural selection has favored certain traits over the course of human history
 3. David Buss argues that Big Five personality traits are fundamental dimensions of personality because they have had significant adaptive implications
 4. Daniel Nettle argues that the traits themselves are products of evolution

- E. Evaluating biological perspectives
 1. Recent studies have provided convincing evidence that biological factors help shape personality
 2. Criticisms
 - a. Problems with estimates of hereditary influence
 - b. Problems with the *hindsight bias*, the common tendency to mold one's interpretation of the past to fit how events actually turned out

VI. Contemporary Empirical Approaches to Personality

- A. Sensation Seeking: Life in the Fast Lane
 1. *Sensation seeking* is a generalized preference for high or low levels of sensory stimulation
 2. It is measured along a continuum with many people falling in the middle
 3. Incompatibility in sensation seeking places a strain on intimate relationships
 4. High levels are associated with elevated risk-taking behavior

- B. Renewed interest in narcissism
 1. *Narcissism* is a personality trait marked by an inflated sense of importance, a need for attention and admiration, a sense of entitlement, and a tendency to exploit others
 2. In 1980 the APA included narcissistic personality disorder in its diagnostic system
 3. Narcissists have highly positive but threatened self-concepts, self-aggrandize, and are more likely to cheat
 4. Levels of this personality trait have increased in recent generations

- C. Terror management theory
 1. Human awareness of death and the self-preservation instinct creates the potential for anxiety, alarm, and terror when people think about their mortality
 2. Cultural worldviews diminish anxiety by providing answers to universal questions: Why am I here? What is the meaning of life?
 3. Self-esteem is the feeling that one is a valuable contributor to a meaningful universe, serving as a terror management function
 4. Reminding people of their mortality (mortality salience) leads to increased self-esteem as an anxiety buffer
 5. Increased mortality salience leads people to work harder at defending their cultural worldview
 6. Terror management theory may be applied to various topics
 - a. Excessive materialism
 - b. Appeal of fame and admiration of celebrities

VII. Culture and Personality

- A. Are there connections between culture and personality?
- B. Generally, continuity has been apparent in cross-cultural comparisons of the trait structure of personality
- C. Some cross-cultural variability is seen when researchers compare the average trait scores of samples from various cultural groups
- D. People's beliefs about national character, which often fuel cultural prejudices, turn out to be profoundly inaccurate stereotypes when systematically investigated by researchers

VIII. Application: Assessing Your Personality

- A. Key concepts in psychological testing
 - 1. *Psychological test*: a standardized measure of a sample of a person's behavior
 - a. Scores from psychological tests should always be interpreted cautiously
 - b. Two broad categories of psychological tests
 - 1) Mental ability tests (e.g., intelligence tests, aptitude tests)
 - 2) Personality tests measure various aspects of personality (e.g., motives, interests, and values)
 - 2. Standardization and norms
 - a. *Standardization*: the uniform procedures used to administer and score a test
 - b. *Test norms* provide information about where a score on a psychological test ranks in relation to other scores on that test
 - 3. Reliability and validity
 - a. *Reliability* refers to the measurement consistency of a test
 - b. *Validity* refers to the ability of a test to measure what it was designed to measure
- B. Self-report inventories
 - 1. *Self-report inventories* are personality scales that ask individuals to answer a series of questions about their characteristic behavior
 - 2. Generally consist of statements to which you respond by indicating whether or not they apply to you
 - 3. Deliberate deception, social desirability bias, can be problems with these tests
- C. Projective tests
 - 1. *Projective tests* ask people to respond to vague, ambiguous stimuli in ways that may reveal the respondents' needs, feelings, and personality traits
 - 2. Proponents suggest that tests have two main strengths
 - a. Nature of tests makes it difficult for subjects to engage in intentional deception
 - b. Indirect approach may make them sensitive to unconscious features of personality
 - 3. Scientific evidence on projective tests is unimpressive
 - a. Inconsistent scoring, low reliability, inadequate test norms, cultural bias, and e. poor validity estimates
 - b. May be susceptible to some types of deception

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. To what extent do you think that our behavior is largely influenced by desires and urges of which we are unaware?
2. You are now aware that psychology is a *science*, committed to the empirical study of behavior. Do you think it's possible to apply this scientific approach to the study of unconscious desires and urges, as postulated by Freud's theory of personality?
3. Of the defense mechanisms described in the chapter, which do you appear to use the most? Does this seem to be conscious or unconscious on your part?
4. Use classical conditioning (and its stimuli and responses) to explain why most people don't like the typical smell of a dental office or hospital.
5. Use classical conditioning (and its stimuli and responses) to explain why an advertisement might include stimuli that are completely irrelevant to the product being sold (e.g., a magazine ad for car parts includes an attractive woman in a bikini, a TV commercial for potato chips features a popular comedian).
6. Which of your own mild anxieties or fears, if any, do you think might have developed as a result of classical conditioning?
7. What types of things are best learned via observational learning? When is directly experiencing operant conditioning (reinforcement and punishment) more appropriate?
8. What level of Maslow's hierarchy do you think most people in our society are concerned with satisfying? How might this compare with individuals in other societies?
9. Do you know of individuals whom you would consider to be self-actualized? Describe the qualities of these people that reflect their achievement of this state.
10. What are things you have done today to meet various needs within Maslow's hierarchy? Which needs have gone unsatisfied?
11. Even within the same family, children do not have the same experiences. How was your family experience different from that of your sibling(s) based on gender, birth order, or temperamental differences between the children?
12. Which theoretical orientation (psychodynamic, behavioral, humanistic, biological) do you think does the best job of explaining personality? Why?

DEMONSTRATIONS AND ACTIVITIES

The Biography Book Review (APA Goals 1, 4): Have students write a book review of a biography of one of the personality theorists discussed in class. You could suggest to the students that they pay particular attention to events and experiences in the individual's life that seem to be reflected in some aspect of his theory. This concordance between the individual's experiences and his theoretical perspective can serve as the basis for a brief oral presentation to the class.

The Difference Between Self and Personality (APA Goal 9): Jane Einhorn (1985) described a straightforward exercise to help students make the distinction between the two concepts of self and personality. For this exercise, have your students identify their favorite color, song, flower, smell, scene, person, and food. After they complete the list, have them go back and indicate for each choice whether it reflected their self or their personality.

According to Einhorn, the word "scene" is generally the most likely to reflect the self. For example, among her students a peaceful ocean scene was frequently listed, as if in its peace and seclusion we are alone with our "selves." Of the other terms, favorite food was generally selected as a key to personality rather than self. Favorite person seemed to reflect both personality and self, and the other terms were evenly divided between self and personality.

As part of the exercise, Einhorn had her students provide their own written definitions of "self" and "personality." Having completed the list of favorite items and identified the concept with which each item was associated, the students seemed better able to distinguish between the two concepts. Students' definitions of self included "my real sense of being" and "everything that is close and significant to me." Their definitions of personality included "how you act and what you reveal" and "capable of change and more outward."

As an additional step, students were asked to go back to the original list and indicate which answers their best friend was likely to know about and which the best friend probably would not know about. A typical response to this request was, "My personality can be picked up by an acquaintance, only my best friend knows the real me."

Einhorn, J. (1985). Teaching personality: Discovering the difference between self and personality. *Teaching of Psychology, 12*, 101-102.

Popular Archetypes (APA Goal 1): A fun way to help students grasp the idea of archetypes is to encourage them to find some in popular culture. Suggest some categories based on mythological characters: The King, the Strongman, the Hero, the Trickster, the Female Warrior, the Love Goddess, the Jester, etc. Encourage them to use either fictional characters or the actors and celebrities who portray those characters (the lines do blur to a certain extent). Some suggestions to get your students started would be Arnold Schwarzenegger for the Strongman or Adam Sandler for the Jester. Once they have named a few examples on their own, it makes a great deal of sense to them.

Illustrating Defense Mechanisms (APA Goal 1): To help students in sorting through the various defense mechanisms introduced in this chapter, this exercise will encourage students to think of examples of each. To guide this process, give the students (either as a whole class or in small groups) a situation in which a person might develop anxiety or internal mental conflict. Then ask the students to provide an example of each defense mechanism related to that one situation. Possible situations and one set of examples are listed below:

A person who believes that stealing is wrong just walked out of a store without paying for a candy bar.

A person who is married is attracted to his next-door neighbor.

A student who sees herself as honest just cheated on a math test.

A person who is trying to lose weight just ate a large ice cream sundae.

Examples for, “A person who is trying to lose weight just ate a large ice cream sundae.”

Rationalization: The person thinks, well, it was a special occasion, so it doesn't really count. Plus there were peanuts on the sundae, and nuts are healthy. Chocolate is good for you also because it has special nutrients.

Repression: In recording her food log for the day, she “forgets” to include the ice cream.

Projection: She looks at her friend and thinks that *he* eats too much and should really lose some weight; *he* makes poor food decisions.

Displacement: Rather than feeling guilty or anxious about eating ice cream, she starts to worry about whether she should have donated more money to a charity that contacted her last week.

Reactionformation: The next day she denies eating the whole ice cream sundae, instead saying that she really only ate a few bites and was disgusted with it and refused to eat the rest.

Regression: Feeling bad about eating the large ice cream sundae, she resorts to comforting herself by watching a DVD of her favorite childhood cartoons.

Identification: The lapsed dieter begins to admire her thin friend and decides to copy some of her eating and exercise habits.

Classically Conditioned Behavior (APA Goal 1): Mark Vernoy (1987) described a compelling demonstration of a classically conditioned response that occurs when a needle pierces, but does not pop, a balloon. For this demonstration, you need several balloons and a large needle (the larger the better; Vernoy recommends a large magician's needle). After handing out several inflated balloons in class, you will walk around popping them with the needle. Notice that the students flinch as you pop the balloons and then begin to flinch as you approach the balloons with the needle. The needle serves as the neutral stimulus (although it may already be a CS when associated with balloons) that becomes a CS through its repeated pairings with the UCS, the noise made when the balloons pop. After conditioning the class to the noise, pick up a balloon and pierce it without popping it. You can do this (believe it or not) by inserting the needle at one of the spots where there is little tension on the balloon - at the nipple or near the knot. Note that the students flinch as you put the needle near and on the balloon.

This demonstration can be used as a springboard for a discussion of other everyday examples of classical conditioning. If the students have difficulty thinking of examples themselves, you can prime them by asking if particular smells remind them of someone or something, or if they have an aversion to a particular smell or taste.

Classically Conditioning Students in Class (APA Goal 1): Sparrow and Fernald (1989) described a technique for classically conditioning students during a class session. They built a "conditioner" that consisted of a light with a dimmer switch, a siren, and a buzzer (details are included in their article), but basically the same demonstration can be done using a light with a dimmer switch and a compressed-air horn. (APA Goal 1).

Sparrow and Fernald use four steps to condition a class:

1. Illuminate the light at a middle range on the dimmer switch. The light serves as the originally neutral stimulus, and students should show no discernible response to it.
2. Sound the horn or siren several times. This stimulus should be sufficiently loud to evoke a startle response in the students. Thus, the sound serves as the UCS to elicit the UCR (startle response).
3. Pair the light with the sound about 10 times (CS paired with UCS).
4. Demonstrate a CR by presenting the light alone several times. Students should show a small startle response, assuming they have been conditioned.

Sparrow and Fernald suggested diagramming these four steps for the class after the demonstration, using the appropriate terms and actual stimuli, to ensure that students make the association between the demonstration and the conditioning process.

Identifying the Elements of Classical Conditioning (APA Goal 1): Students can benefit from practice in identifying the various elements of classical conditioning. Handout 2.1 provides an exercise in this area. Before beginning this exercise, be sure to review the elements of classical conditioning. Remind the students that the neutral stimulus always becomes the conditioned stimulus, and that the unconditioned and conditioned responses are generally the same or similar. If you are using this exercise in class and some students finish early, encourage them to create their own examples of classical conditioning and identify the components. (APA Goal 1)

ANSWERS to Handout 2.1 (*correct wording may vary*)

- 1a. thunder and lightening
- 1b. heavy hail, wind, rain
- 1c. afraid
- 1d. thunder and lightning
- 1e. afraid

- 2a. BRISCO
- 2b. humor (funny men & silly tricks)
- 2c. pleasant response
- 2d. BRISCO
- 2e. pleasant response (to BRISCO)

- 3a. image of hamburger
- 3b. food/hamburger
- 3c. stomach churns and produces acid
- 3d. image of hamburger
- 3e. stomach churns and produces acid

- 4a. police cars and lights
- 4b. being questioned and receiving a ticket
- 4c. feeling nervous
- 4d. police cars and lights
- 4e. feeling a little bit nervous

- 5a-e. answers will vary

Distinguishing Between Negative Reinforcement and Punishment (APA Goal 1): Negative reinforcement is a far-too-prevalent mechanism that drives human interactions; for optimal adjustment, it is helpful to build students' skills at recognizing it so that they can avoid using it or being influenced by it, and they can replace it with something more constructive. Handout 2.2 provides practice at both. Encourage the students to identify whether what is being described in each example is negative reinforcement or punishment. After they have provided a correct response, encourage them (for all examples) to supply a strategy based on positive reinforcement or social learning to replace the negative reinforcement or punishment-based strategy.

ANSWERS to Handout 2.2:

- 1) Negative reinforcement – Brother says, “I’ll whine until you give in.” (And when you give in to him, you have positively reinforced his whining.)
- 2) Punishment – “Don’t get any more tickets!”
- 3) Negative reinforcement – “I won’t stop nagging until you clean!”
- 4) Punishment – “No more pranks!”
- 5) Negative reinforcement – “I’ll keep bugging you until you go to see them.”
- 6) Punishment – “Don’t ride your bike or board without your helmet again.”
- 7) Negative reinforcement – “I won’t stop the awful music until you tell me what he said.”

Exploring Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (APA Goals 1, 9): Using Handout 2.3, have students reflect on their own responses to the levels within Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Follow-up discussion may be structured around the following questions:

For each level of need, ask students to share one or two examples.

Using student examples as a starting point, discuss how, although we all share the same basic needs, the way that we actually fulfill these needs varies widely.

Explore whether a single experience (e.g., eating a meal) might satisfy needs at various levels within the hierarchy.

Poll the class to determine, on average, which levels of needs seem to be generally satisfied, and which the students are more actively working to fulfill.

Do students agree that the needs at one level need to be at least somewhat satisfied before one moves on to the higher level needs?

Students' Peak Experiences: A Written Exercise (APA Goal 9): James Polyson (1985) described an exercise in which students describe their own peak experiences (i.e., profound emotional highs) as a way to help them understand Maslow's construct. The exercise is based in part on the fact that in his own research on the peak experience phenomenon, Maslow used the written comments of college students to develop a composite picture of the experience.

For this exercise, have your students describe, in writing, a peak experience, including where they were at the time of the experience, what they were doing, how they felt during and after the experience, and what the experience meant to them.

Although peak experiences tend to be associated with self-actualizers, this exercise can demonstrate how difficult it is to clearly define humanistic terms such as "peak experience" and "self-actualization."

Polyson, J.A. (1985). Students' peak experiences: A written exercise. *Teaching of Psychology*, 12, 211-213.

Somatotyping: Bogus Personality Theory (APA Goal 3): During the second quarter of the 20th century, a psychologist named William Sheldon devoted a great deal of time and effort to creating and validating a system of personality theory based on body shape (Zimbardo&Gerrig, 1996). He actually produced a statistical validation of the theory. Including a discussion of this outdated personality theory can reinforce not only the slipperiness of the whole concept of personality but also that ideas that seem intuitively obvious may be very inaccurate.

In fact, Sheldon's personality theory was given serious treatment in personality psychology textbooks until the last quarter of the 20th century. If you are not familiar with the theory, Sheldon called it "somatotyping" and he related three basic body shapes to three personality categories:

Muscular, athletic, lean – mesomorphs – active, bold, adventurous people

Soft, round, fleshy, wide – endomorphs – easy going, jolly

Thin, frail, small – ectomorphs – anxious, introverted

He devoted years to studying the correlation between the types and personalities using Ivy League college students and actually found a small positive correlation between the body types and the proposed sets of personality characteristics. If you present this information not too long before or after the social perception and cognition module, it will probably be easy to get the students to make a connection and realize that that small positive correlation was just as likely to be due to the effects of stereotyping and social expectations as to any stable personality pattern in people due to body type.

Presenting this material helps students to see both the danger of relying on intuition in science and serves as an example of how psychology, being a science, is revised by the continuous process of evaluation of theory through the examination of evidence. You can also revisit this exercise and themes related to personality to the material covered in Chapter 6.

Zimbardo P.G. &Gerrig, R.J. (1996).*Psychology and Life*: New York: NY Harper Collins College Publishers.

A Class-Designed Personality Assessment Measure (APA Goal 2): Lucy Benjamin (1983, 1987) described an exercise in which students create their own personality test. This is a good exercise for illustrating some important points about personality assessment and for encouraging class involvement. After discussing the construct of personality and the difficulty psychologists have in measuring it, have students call out terms that they think are part of the personality construct as you write them on the board. Once 20-30 terms have been recorded, tell the class that they will design their own personality test based on eight major personality traits (or whatever number is convenient). After the terms have been selected, divide the class into as many small groups as you have terms. Assign each group a term. If you have a large class, you could have two groups per term. Give the groups about 10 minutes to write two test items they believe assess the particular trait they were assigned. To create uniformity, you should probably specify that all items must be true/false; then you can give sample questions for a term that was not selected.

Each group should record their items and give them to you so that they can be compiled into a "personality inventory." After the inventory is formulated (preferably by the next class meeting), have each student administer the test to two other students, one male and one female. Once these

data have been collected, you can provide the class with a summary, including percentages for each answer by gender.

Benjamin suggests several interesting discussion questions that arise from this activity, two of which are as follows: 1) Are there gender differences for any items? If so, why? 2) Are there any bad items on the inventory? How can you tell? ("Bad" items are those that almost everyone answers the same way.)

Benjamin, L.T., Jr. (1983). A class exercise in personality and psychological assessment. *Teaching of Psychology, 10*, 94-95.

Benjamin, L.T., Jr. (1987). Personality and personality assessment. In V.P. Makosky, L.G. Whittemore, & A.M. Rogers (Eds.), *Activities Handbook for the Teaching of Psychology: Vol. 2* (pp. 169-171). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

The Power of Bogus Personality Assessments (APA Goal 3): Ulrich, Stachnik, and Stainton (1963) and Snyder and Larson (1972) found that students tend to endorse a general "personality description" generated specifically for them when it comes from a credible source such as their professor, a psychologist, or a graduate student in a laboratory. The catch is that all students are given identical descriptions. You can use this technique to illustrate how much faith people put in the results of psychological tests and how easily accepted such results are.

There are a number of ways you can "assess" students' personalities for this demonstration. One approach is to devise your own BPI (Bogus Personality Inventory) by developing a number of statements such as "I enjoy eating crunchy foods," or "I occasionally dream that I can fly." Then ask the students to indicate, by responding "yes" or "no," whether the statement applies to them. Another approach is to have the students draw pictures of themselves, houses, or other objects.

At the class meeting following the "assessment," distribute personality profiles that have supposedly been personalized for each student, although in reality they are identical. The profile should be one or two paragraphs containing the kinds of general statements that are often found in horoscopes. Statements that include two differing tendencies, such as "You can be assertive when it is important to do so, but you generally prefer to analyze a situation before acting," are particularly effective (see Ulrich, Stachnik, & Stainton, 1963 for additional examples). It helps if the profile form appears to be computerized and as official as possible; inserting each student's name on his or her form is probably the most effective strategy. Ask the students to rate their profiles as excellent, good, average, poor, or very poor, and determine how many ratings fall into each category.

Afterward, debrief the class about your use of deception and its purpose. This activity is generally quite compelling; seeing that (typically) large numbers of people will rate the same personality profile as accurately depicting their personality tends to be an eye-opening experience for students. The activity can also lead to an interesting discussion about the ethics of assessment and research using deception.

Snyder, C.R., & Larson, G.R. (1972). A further look at student acceptance of general personality interpretations. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 38*, 384-388.

Ulrich, R.E., Stachnik, T.J., & Stainton, N.R. (1963). Student acceptance of generalized personality interpretations. *Psychological Reports, 13*, 831-834.

Observational Learning in Practice (APA Goals 1, 9). About one week before you plan to discuss observational learning in class, assign your students to choose a behavior that they will attempt to learn by observing another person engaging successfully in that behavior. (You might structure this as a required activity, optional, or for a small amount of extra credit.) Encourage them to select a specific behavior, such as learning to do a particular computer task, playing a certain video game, learning a particular technique related to a sport, hobby, or such. Emphasize to the students that they should attempt to master the behavior through observation and imitation only, not through asking questions or using other ways of gathering information or feedback. Students should jot down notes about this experience for later discussion. When you then cover observational learning in class, draw on the students' recent learning experiences to broaden and enliven the discussion. Some guiding questions might include the following:

What type of behavior did you attempt to learn through observation? How appropriate was the match between the type of behavior and this type of learning?

Was it difficult to stick with purely observational learning and not to gather information from other sources?

When you had problems learning via observation, where did the difficulties seem to be? In paying attention to the other person's behavior? In understanding the consequences of the behavior? In storing the information in your memory? In having the ability to imitate the behavior?

What types of tasks do you think are best learned through observational learning?

How did this experience compare to your more natural or spontaneous observation and imitation of role models in real life?

Self-Assessment: Sensation Seeking Scale (APA Goal 9): This survey is found in the Personal Explorations Workbook. With this exercise, students will explore their level of sensation seeking, or need for a high level of stimulation, according to the scale developed by Zuckerman.

Self-Reflection: Who Are You? (APA Goal 9): This exercise is found in the Personal Explorations Workbook. After students select the 20 traits that best describe them, you might want to discuss the role of response sets (e.g., social desirability) in self-report measures of personality and how easy it might be for an individual to *consciously* complete a personality test in a way that would convey a positive (and possibly false) assessment. You could then discuss how a trained psychologist could tell if a person was deliberately providing information that was inaccurate.

VIDEOS

Discovering the Human Brain: New Pathways to Neuroscience. This video follows the development of the field of neuroscience from its reliance on information gathered by studying brain injuries and autopsies to more recent insights discovered with electronic microscopes, EEG equipment, PET scans, and MRI machines. Insight Media, 2006, 30 minutes.

History of Psychology 1: Mind, Self, and Soul. This program traces the development of ideas about the mind, self, and soul from ancient dualist philosophies in India, China, and Greece; through the Middle Ages; to psychology's scientific foundations in the 19th century. Introduces important classical, Renaissance, humanist, and scientific thinkers. Insight Media, 2006, 30 minutes.

History of Psychology 2: Freud, Jung, and Psychoanalysis. This program examines the work of such figures as Helmholtz, Wundt, James, and Munsterberg. The program also discusses subspecialties in psychology and introduces the theories of Freud, Jung, and Adler. Insight Media, 2006, 30 minutes.

History of Psychology 3: Ethics, Logic, and Truth. This program outlines the history of modern psychology with emphasis on the role of behaviorists and humanists. Topics also include experimental, behavioral, Gestalt, social, personality, humanistic, and cognitive psychologies; neuroscience; and psychopharmacology. Insight Media, 2006, 30 minutes.

How Does the Brain Work? In four episodes, this NOVA series tackles the question of how the brain works. PBS, 2011, 60 minutes.

In Search of the Soul. This program explores how Jung developed his pagan vision of reality, and how he attempted to reconcile science and religion. Topics discussed include the collective unconscious, the dual personality, and the detachment of humans from their individual "stories" as a cause of mental illness. BBC, 31 minutes.

The Interpretation of Dreams. Contemporary commentary on *The Interpretation of Dreams*, the concepts it contains, and the growing movement to reject them. Biographical details, dramatizations of Freud at work, and archival footage and photos add a personal dimension, Discovery University Production, 1996, 52 minutes.

Pavlov: The Conditioned Reflex. This documentary describes Pavlov's early research, including rare footage of him at work in his laboratory. Films for the Humanities and Sciences, 25 minutes.

The Power of Introverts. In a culture where being social and outgoing are prized above all else, it can be difficult, even shameful, to be an introvert. But, as Susan Cain argues in this talk, introverts bring extraordinary talents and abilities to the world, and should be encouraged and celebrated. TED DVD on Demand, 2012, 19 minutes.

Secret Life of the Brain. This series tells the story of the human brain and its mapping through a mix of personal histories, expert commentary, and animation. PBS, 2001, 300 minutes (5 episodes).

Understanding: The Power of Genes. This program examines the degree to which humans are genetically programmed with traits and abilities. It probes similarities in identical twins, discusses biotechnology, and explores the nature versus nurture debate in light of modern technological advances. Discovery Enterprises, 2005, 55 minutes.

What Are Dreams? What are dreams, and why do we have them? NOVA joins the leading dream researchers as they embark on a variety of neurological and psychological experiments to investigate the world of sleep and dreams. PBS, 2009, 60 minutes.

Young Doctor Freud. This documentary traces the early life of Freud from his birth in 1856 to the publication of his landmark book, *The Interpretation of Dreams*, in 1900, and follows Freud's research and his examines his theories, which shape contemporary notions of identity, memory, childhood, and sexuality. PBS, 2002, 120 minutes.

CENGAGE LEARNING VIDEOS

Personality Traits. Psychology: Research in Action Videos (Volume I). This video provides an examination and explanation of Rodolfo Mendoza-Denton's person in the situation model of personality. 5 minutes.

HELPFUL WEBSITES

Association for Humanistic Psychology. This site contains various resources provided by the AHP, "the voice of ordinary people with an extraordinary vision for a more conscious and humane global society". <http://www.ahpweb.org/>

The Big Five Personality Test. This site provides a 48-question version of the Big Five personality inventory. Results in the form of a five-factor profile are provided immediately online. <http://www.outofservice.com/>

Great Ideas in Personality. This website includes links to comprehensive information on all of the major theories discussed in this chapter, and then some. <http://www.personalityresearch.org>

The Jung Page. This site is general resource page of information about Carl Jung and his version of psychoanalysis. It includes a glossary of Jungian terminology. <http://www.cgjungpage.org/>

National Human Genome Research Institute. This website includes information for educators and students about genetics and the Human Genome Project. <http://www.genome.gov/>

Oak Ridge National Library. This searchable website includes information and documents about the Human Genome Project. <http://www.ornl.gov/>

Personality and Consciousness. This site contains comprehensive information on major personality theories and theorists. It includes Dr. Boyd Spencer's (Department of Psychology, Eastern Illinois University) detailed outlines. <http://pandc.ca>

Personality Pedagogy. This wiki is sponsored by a grant from the Association for Psychological Science (APS) Fund for Teaching and Public Understanding of Psychological Science. It includes an array of resources for the teaching of personality psychology.

<http://personalitypedagogy.arcadia.edu/>

The Personality Project. This site provides links to various resources in contemporary personality psychology. <http://www.personality-project.org/>

Personality Test Center. This site includes online personality inventories for the five factor model as well as others. <http://www.personalitytest.net/>

Personality Theories. This site contains a personality theories text written by Dr. C. George Boeree from the Department of Psychology at Shippensburg University.

<http://www.ship.edu/~cgboeree/perscontents.html>

Queendom: The Land of Tests. This popular website includes an array of self-report personality inventories. The reliability and validity of these tests varies widely, providing a rich opportunity for guiding students through the process of critical thinking about such testing and results.

<http://www.queendom.com/>

Sigmund Freud Archives. These archives are a collection of Freud's papers, correspondence, and photos. <http://www.freudarchives.org/>

Social Psychology Network: Personality Psychology Links. This page features links by psychology an abundant and comprehensive list area including for personality psychology, which has some great sites on personality assessment. <http://www.socialpsychology.org/>

Terror Management Theory. This website includes research materials, links, and a publications listing on the topic of terror management theory. <http://www.tmt.missouri.edu/>