

PERSONALITY THEORIES

Definitions of Personality

While there are many different theories of personality, the first step is to understand exactly what is meant by the term *personality*. The word personality itself stems from the Latin word *persona*, which referred to a theatrical mask worn by performers in order to either project different roles or disguise their identities.

A brief definition would be that personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviors that make a person unique. In addition to this, personality arises from within the individual and remains fairly consistent throughout life

Personality is the sum of behaviors and mental characteristics (cognition, emotions and senses) that are distinctive of an individual. Distinctive style of thoughts, behaviors and feeling that make each human being unique individual.

Personality is a reasonable stable pattern of emotions, motives and behavior that characterize a persons' adaptation to life.

TRAIT

Consistent pattern of behavior (more or less) that distinguishes a person, the person possessing the characteristic would be likely to display in relevant circumstances shyness, honesty, tidiness or stupidity.

A trait is an element of personality that is relatively stable throughout the lifespan and across contexts. In other words, a trait is a consistent element of self that makes that person who he is. Traits are the general tendencies you'd list if you were asked to describe yourself or someone else.

BIG FIVE

Fundamental dimensions that are believed to be the core traits of personality.

The "big five" are broad categories of personality traits. While there is a significant body of literature supporting this five-factor model of personality, researchers don't always agree on the exact labels for each dimension. However, these five categories are usually described as follows:

1. **Extroversion:** This trait includes characteristics such as excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness and high amounts of emotional expressiveness.
2. **Agreeableness:** This personality dimension includes attributes such as trust, kindness, affection, and other prosocial behaviors.
3. **Conscientiousness:** Common features of this dimension include high levels of thoughtfulness, with good impulse control and goal-directed behaviors. Those high in conscientiousness tend to be organized and mindful of details.
4. **Neuroticism:** Individuals high in this trait tend to experience emotional instability, anxiety, moodiness, irritability, and sadness.
5. **Openness:** This trait features characteristics such as imagination and insight, and those high in this trait also tend to have a broad range of interests. Open to experience and are intellectuals.

It is important to note that each of the five personality factors represents a range between two extremes. For example, extraversion represents a continuum between extreme extraversion and extreme introversion. In the real world, most people lie somewhere in between the two polar ends of each dimension.

Consider, for instance, someone who is high in Intellect and high in Extraversion. This person would be both sociable and creative. But the combination of high Extraversion and high Intellect reveals the more subtle characteristic of being witty or humorous. In contrast, suppose someone is high in Intellect but low in Extraversion. The combination of these two characteristics reveals the quality of being reflective.

Because people can be high or low on each of the Big Five dimensions, when we combine the different possible combinations, we end up with 45 personality facets from Big Five personality scores.

Personality Traits are simply:

- Actions
- Attitudes
- Behaviors you possess

POSITIVE personality traits

- Adventurous
- Conscientious
- Dependable
- Fair
- Fearless

THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Theories of personality are a bit confusing area. We find ourselves asking who is right. Much of what personality involves are things that are not accessible to us. Our own inner thoughts and feelings. But it also involves our instincts and unconscious motives that are not available to us as well. We all have pretty direct access to our own thought and feelings and have plenty of experience dealing with people but we should not mistake familiarity with knowledge. Much of what we think we know turns out to be prejudice and biases we have picked up over the years.

There are numerous different theories which attempt to explain some aspect or other of personality. No theory can claim to offer a really comprehensive explanation of personality. They are hard to organize in a simple way because different ones address different aspect and theories which are clearly contrasting with each other in some important respect can be similar in others. Integration of theories is a must, if we want to be able to understand how the psychological structure of an individual is put together, how it works and how it falls apart.

Study of personality seeks the answer to certain key questions like the origins and differences among people. Why, when several people encounter the same situation, they do not react alike?. Why something which is terrifying for one is enjoyable for the other? The answer is simple. They have different personalities. Then again, why and how these differences develop?

To be able to answer these entire why's and how's, psychologists have developed different personality theories. Although the aim is the same, some have stressed the influence of an early life experiences and childhood conflicts, while some stresses the influence of people's biological makeup and some stressed on the influence of learning. Other than the origin of differences among people, consistency of differences is also considered. Questions like, are personality traits persistent in different situations or do the situation determine the response? Is age a factor in the change of personality?

In search to find the answers to why individuals behave the way they do, 5 major theories of personality developed.

- 1- Psychoanalytic theory
- 2- Trait theory
- 3- Behavioral approach
- 4- Evolutionary/biological approach

PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY OF PERSONALITY

SIGMUND FREUD

Psychoanalysis began as a conceptual system designed to explain certain types of psychopathology. It later developed into a technique of treatment and finally expanded to a theory of personality of both normal and disturbed individuals.

Basic assumptions of Freud's personality theory;

- 1- Topographical model
- 2- Structural Model
- 3- Instincts
- 4- Personality dynamics)motivating factors
- 5- Psychosexual stages of development

TOPOGRAPHICAL MODEL of psychic life.

According to Freud, there are 3 levels of consciousness that organize personality.

- 1 -The conscious
- 2-The preconscious
- 3- The unconscious

Freud used this mental map of mind to describe the degree to which mental events such as thoughts and fantasies vary in accessibility of awareness.

THE CONSCIOUS: All the sensations and experiences of which we are aware of at any given moment. Thoughts, feelings, perceptions and memories are in consciousness, and they are regulated by external cues. The conscious represents a small and limited aspect of personality.

THE PRECONSCIOUS: Available memories. All experiences that is not conscious at the moment but which can readily be called upon into awareness either spontaneously or with minimum effort. The preconscious bridges and safeguards the unconscious and conscious.

THE UNCONSCIOUS: The really significant aspects of human behavior is shaped and directed by impulses and drives totally outside the realm of awareness. Unconscious material may be expressed in disguised or symbolized form. So psychoanalysis emphasizes on the interpretation of fantasies and dreams for deeper understanding of the unconscious processes underlying behavior.

TYPES OF ANXIETY

Based on the source of the threat to the ego, there are 3 types of anxiety.

1-Realistic or objective: (external threat)

Emotional responses to threats and or perception of real dangers in external environment. It helps to assure self preservation i.e.: war, earthquake, epidemic, rape or assault. Ego is under threat which a person is unable to prevent. Leads to PTSD. Perception is one of the main factors which affect the degree of the person anxiety.

2- Neurotic anxiety: (internal threat)

It is an emotional threat that ID impulses will become conscious. Caused by the fear that EGO will be unable to control the ID instincts (sexual or aggressive nature)

Neurotic anxiety is initially experienced as a realistic anxiety since punishment did originally derive from external force. When the instinctual impulses of ID threaten to break through the EGO controls, Neurotic anxiety occurs. It is the struggle between ID-EGO.

3- Moral Anxiety:

When the EGO is threatened by the SUPEREGO by punishment. It occurs whenever the ID strives towards active expression on immoral thoughts or acts and the SUPEREGO responds with feeling of shame, guilt and self condemnation.

It directs behavior into activities that are acceptable to the individual's conscience. Development of moral anxiety leads to social anxiety like exclusion from peer groups and memberships.

Defense Mechanisms

1. Denial

Denial is the refusal to accept reality or fact, acting as if a painful event, thought or feeling did not exist. It is considered one of the most primitive of the defense mechanisms because it is characteristic of early childhood development. Many people use denial in their everyday lives to avoid dealing with painful feelings or areas of their life they don't wish to admit. For instance, a person who is a functioning alcoholic will often simply deny they have a drinking problem, pointing to how well they function in their job and relationships.

2. Regression

Regression is the reversion to an earlier stage of development in the face of unacceptable thoughts or impulses. For an example an adolescent who is overwhelmed with fear, anger and growing sexual impulses might become clingy and start exhibiting earlier childhood behaviors he has long since overcome, such as bedwetting. An adult may regress when under a great deal of stress, refusing to leave their bed and engage in normal, everyday activities.

3. Acting Out

Acting Out is performing an extreme behavior in order to express thoughts or feelings the person feels incapable of otherwise expressing. Instead of saying, "I'm angry with you," a person who acts out may instead throw a book at the person, or punch a hole through a wall. When a person acts out, it can act as a pressure release, and often helps the individual feel calmer and peaceful once again. For instance, a child's temper tantrum. Self-injury may also be a form of acting-out, expressing in physical pain what one cannot stand to feel emotionally.

4. Dissociation

Dissociation is when a person loses track of time and/or person, and instead finds another representation of their self in order to continue in the moment. A person who dissociates often loses track of time or themselves and their usual thought processes and memories. People who have a history of any kind of childhood abuse often suffer from some form of dissociation. In extreme cases, dissociation can lead to a person believing they have multiple selves (multiple personality disorder). A person who dissociates can "disconnect" from the real world for a time, and live in a different world that is not cluttered with thoughts, feelings or memories that are unbearable.

ERIK ERIKSON

PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPEMENT (EGO- PSYCHOLOGY)

Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality in psychology. Much like Sigmund Freud, he focuses on the development and functions of the EGO. Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud's theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson's theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan. He stresses the idea that any psychological phenomenon must be understood in terms of reciprocal interplay of biological, behavioral, experimental and social factors.

One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory is the development of **ego identity**. Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experiences and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others.

Identity contains all of the beliefs, ideals, and values that help shape and guide a person's behavior. The formation of identity is something that begins in childhood and becomes particularly important during adolescence, but it is a process that continues throughout life. Our personal identity gives each of us an integrated and cohesive sense of self that endures and continues to grow as we age.

In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence motivates behaviors and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which is sometimes referred to as **ego strength** or **ego quality**. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

In each stage, Erikson believed people experience a **conflict** that serves as a turning point in development. In Erikson's view, these conflicts are centered on either developing a psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. During these times, the potential for personal growth is high, but so is the potential for failure.

HENRY MURRAY

Personal background

Henry Murray was born into a wealthy family in New York in 1893. In "Perspectives on Personality" (Carver and Scheier p. 100), noted that "he got on well with his father but had a poor relationship with his mother", resulting in a deep-seated feeling of depression. It is hypothesized that the disruption of this relationship led Murray to be especially aware of people's needs and their importance as underlying determinants of behavior.

A turning point occurred in Murray's life at the age of 30, after seven years of marriage, he met and fell in love with Christiana Morgan but experienced serious conflict as he did not want to leave his wife, Josephine. This raised his awareness of conflicting needs, the pressure that can result, and the links to motivation.

NEED THEORY of personality

Studies internal motivational forces that guide and direct human activities.

He believed that the anatomic center of personality is the BRAIN site of our emotions.

NEED theory is modification of Freud's theory. Murrey emphasizes heavily on conscious motivational forces. Unlike Freud, Murrey gives much weight to conscious as well as unconscious motives. (Similar to ego psy.)

PERSONALITY for MURRAY

Personality is a hypothetical entity, rather than a physical substance. Personality is not the brain itself but the hypothetical structure of the mind. Personality is completely dependent on brain processes.

Brain	+	Mind
Physiological brain percepts		gives name/meaning to the emotion

One always has a personality since one always has a brain and personality represents a process of development from birth to death. He believed that the personality integrates and directs the person's behavior.

5 PLEASURABLE CONDITIONS & COMPLEXES

- 1-Secure, passive and dependent existence within the womb. Claustal complex
- 2-Enjoyment of sucking good nourishment from breast or bottle. Oral complex
- 3-Enjoyment of pleasurable sensation accompanying defecation: Anal complex
- 4- Pleasant sense accompanying urination. Urethral complex
- 5-Pleasurable excitation that arise from genital pleasure. Castration complex

4 sets of determinants contribute to molding personality.

- 1-Constitutional: Persons total makeup. Sex, age, color, disabilities.....
- 2-Group Membership: Ethnic group, race, religion, socioeconomic status
Contributes to personality. Membership carries with itself an exposure to a particular social environment and value system.
- 3- Role: Culture prescribes roles necessary to group life and personality formation is bound up with these roles ascribes to them as well as those that they select.
- 4- Situational: Made up by day to day experiences of the individual. Include things that have happened 1000 times as well as those that happened only once. Interpersonal contacts of brief duration, friendships with a particular individual or divorced parent.

T. A. T.

Thematic Apperception Test

Method of exploring unconscious thoughts and fantasies. Projective technique. Consists of series of pictures that subject is asked to make a story. Done in 3 tenses. What do you think had happened in the past, what is happening now, what will happen in the future. Like how do you think the story will end. It is used in clinical diagnosis as well as in motivational research.

CARL JUNG

Jung, like Freud based his personality theory on the assumption of conscious and unconscious but unlike Freud he strongly asserted that the most important portion of the unconscious springs not from personal experiences of the individual but from the distant past of human existence, a concept Jung called the collective unconscious.

He divides the psyche into 3 parts

1-Ego

2-Personal unconscious

3-Collective unconscious

1- EGO

The conscious mind. According to Jung, conscious images are those that are sensed by the ego, whereas unconscious elements have no relationship with the ego. His notion of ego is more restrictive than Freud. He saw the ego as the center of consciousness, but not the core of personality. Ego must be completed by the more comprehensive self, the center of personality that is largely unconscious. Healthy individuals are in contact with their conscious world, but also they allow themselves to experience their unconscious self.

2- PERSONAL UNCONCIOUS

It contains repressed infantile memories and impulses, forgotten events and experiences originally perceived below the threshold of our consciousness. It is made of our individual experiences and is therefore unique to each of us. Some images can be recalled easily, some remembered with difficulty, and others are beyond the reach of consciousness which have been suppressed for some reason. Not the instincts like Freud included.

3- COLLECTIVE UNCONCIOUS

In contrast to the personal unconscious, which results from individual experiences, the collective unconscious has roots in the ancestral past of the entire species. Jung's most controversial concept. The contents of the collective

ALFRED ADLER'S "INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY"

BIOGRAPHICAL

Adler couldn't walk until 4 years old due to rickets. He was hit by a car at age 5. Skinny, weak, sickly, and tormented by his older brothers he felt small, unattractive, and rejected by his mother. He idolized his father who was successful, wealthy merchant. He always felt like he was in competition with his older brother and was jealous of him.

He worked hard to overcome his handicaps and inferiorities and became very outgoing and social. He could make friends easily with everyone from all groups in the multicultural neighborhood where he grew up.

Like Freud he was affected by events surrounding World War 1. After viewing the horrors of war he suggested that social interest and compassion could be the cornerstone of human motivation and not aggression deriving from libido.

INTRODUCTION TO ADLERIAN THEORY

Adler evolved a basically simple and parsimonious theory. To him people are born with weak, inferior bodies- a condition that leads to feeling of inferiority and consequent dependence on other people. Therefore, a feeling of unity with others (social interests) is inherent in people and the ultimate standard for psychological health.

The main tenets of Adlerian theory:

1-The dynamic force behind people's behavior is the striving for success or superiority.

2-People's subjective perceptions shape their behavior and personality

3-Personality is unified and self consistent

4-The value of all human activities must be seen from the viewpoint of social interests

5-The self-consistent personality structure develops into a person's style of life

6-Style of life is molded by people's creative power

1-STRIVING FOR SUPERIORITY (OR PERFECTION)

Adler reduced all motivation to a single drive. Striving for success or superiority.

The basic dynamic force between all human activities

Individual psychology holds that everyone begins life with physical deficiency that activate feelings of inferiority. Feelings that motivate a person for personal superiority or success.

The meaning of superiority changed through the years. Later it came to mean perfection, completion, or overcoming. Like self-realization.

Throughout a person's life, Adler believed, he or she is motivated by the need to overcome the sense of inferiority and strive for ever higher levels of development.

When an inability to overcome inferiority feelings heightens and intensifies inferiority complex sets in.

THE FINAL GOAL

People strive towards a final goal of either personal superiority or the goal of success for all humankind. In either case the final goal is fictional and has no objective existence. But the final goal has great significance because it unifies personality and shapes all behavior.

Each people have the power to create a personalized fictional goal provided by heredity or environment. However the goal is neither genetically nor environmentally determined. By the time children reach the age of 4-5 their creative powers have developed to the point that they can set their final goal.

STRIVING FORCE as compensation

Because infants are born small, incomplete and weak they feel inferior and powerless. To compensate for this deficiency, they set fictional goal to be big, complete and strong. The final goal reduces the pain of inferiority feelings and directs a person to either superiority or success. Even infants have an innate drive towards growth, completion or success but it must be developed. Adler describes two avenues of striving.

1-Striving for personal superiority

KAREN HORNEY (summery)

* Culture and childhood experiences shape human personality.

Culture, kinship. Achievement, difficult childhood, safety needs

*Basic Hostility

We need favorable conditions for growth. Like warm and loving environment. But these should not be overly permissive. Balances genuine love+ healthy discipline = sense of safety, satisfaction and growth of real self.

If a parent is unable or unwilling to love their child, because of their own neurotic needs, they often dominate, neglect, overprotective, reject or overindulge on their children. In this case the need for safety and satisfaction is not satisfied and the child develops BASIC HOSTILITY towards parents. Because children often cannot show this hostility to their parents they repress it. This repression leads to feeling of insecurity which is called BASIC ANXIETY (feelings of isolation, helplessness) in a potentially hostile world.

Interwoven: Hostile impulses are----- source of Basic Anxiety

Basic Anxiety contributes -----to hostile feelings.

Basic anxiety is not neurosis but helps to its development.

Because BA is constant and needs no particular stimuli like test taking or making a presentation, it affects the relationships with everyone and leads to an unhealthy ways of coping with people or problems.

*Protective mechanisms neurotics use against BA

4 defenses are used against Anxiety to protect yourself in this hostile world.

1-Affection: Search for true love. If you cannot find it, you purchase it, compile with someone, became materialistic or seek sexual flavors.

2-Submissiveness: They submit to people or institutions, religion to gain affection.

3-Power, prestige, possession: Power: dominate others

Prestige: Protection from humiliation and tendency to humiliate others

Possession: Buffer against poverty and destitution. Tendency to deprive others.

4-Withdrawal: Protect themselves by developing independence or emotional detachment. So cannot be hurt by others.

ERICH FROMM

BIOGRAPHY and OVERVIEW

His basic thesis is that modern-day people have been torn away from their prehistoric union with nature and also with one another, yet they have the power of reasoning foresight and imagination. This combination of lack of animal instincts and presence of rational thoughts makes humans the freaks of the universe. Self awareness contributes to the feelings of loneliness, isolation and homelessness. To escape from these feelings, people strive to become reunited with nature and their fellow human beings.

FROMM developed a theory of personality that emphasizes the influence of sociobiological factors, history, economics and class structure. His humanistic psychoanalysis assumes that humanity's separation from the natural world has produced feelings of loneliness and isolation, a condition called basic anxiety. His humanistic theory looks at people from a historical and cultural perspective rather than a strictly psychological one. It is less concerned with the individual and more concerned with those characteristics common to the culture.

FROMM takes an evolutionary view of humanity. When humans emerged as a separate species in animal evolution, they lost most of their animal instincts but gained "an increase in brain development that permitted self awareness, imagination, planning and doubt". This combination of weak instincts and highly developed brain makes humans distinct from all other animals.

HUMAN NEEDS

As animals humans are motivated by such physiological needs as hunger, sex and safety; but they can never resolve their human dilemma by satisfying these animal needs. Only the distinctive human needs can move people toward a union with the natural world. These **existential** needs have emerged during the evolution of human culture, growing out of their attempts to find an answer to their existence and to avoid becoming insane. Indeed, FROMM contended that one important difference between mentally healthy individuals and neurotic or insane ones is that healthy people find answers to their existence – answers that more completely correspond to their total human needs.

In addition to physiological or animal needs, people are motivated by five distinctively human needs – relatedness, transcendence, rootedness, a sense of identity and a frame of orientation.

1. Relatedness

The first human or existential need. The relatedness is the drive for union with another person or other persons. FROMM postulated three basic ways in which a person may relate to the world: (1) Submission, (2) Power and (3) Love. A person can submit to another, to a group, or to an institution in order to become one with the world. Submissive people search for relationship with domineering people, power seekers, welcome submissive partners and they establish a symbiotic relationship. People in symbiotic relationships are drawn to one another not by love but by a desperate need for relatedness, a need that can never be completely satisfied by such partnership. Underlying the union are unconscious feelings of hostility. FROMM believed that love is the only roots by which a person can become united with the world and at the same time achieve individuality and integrity. He defined love as a “union with somebody, or something outside oneself under the condition of retaining the separateness and integrity of one’s own self”. Love involves sharing and communion with another, yet it allows a person the freedom to be unique and separate. It enables a person to satisfy the need for relatedness without surrendering integrity and independence. In love, two people become one yet remain two.

2. Transcendence

Like other animals human are thrown into the world without their consent or will and then removed from it again without their consent or will. But unlike other animals, human beings are driven by the need of transcendence, defined as the urge to rise above a passive and accidental existence and into “the realm of purposefulness and freedom”. Just as relatedness can be pursued through either productive or non-productive methods, transcendence can be sought through either positive or negative approaches. People can be transcendent their passive nature by either creating life or by destroying it.

3. Rootedness

The third existential need is for rootedness or the need to establish roots or to feel at home again in the world. When humans evolved as a separate species, they lost their home in the natural world. At the same time, their capacity for thought enabled them to realize that they were without a home, without roots. The consequent feelings of isolation and helplessness became unbearable. Rootedness too can be sought in either

GORDON ALLPORT

BIOGRAPHY and OVERVIEW

Born on 1897 in Indiana. He was the fourth and the youngest son of his family. His father had engaged in number of business ventures before becoming a physician at about Gordon's birth. Lacking adequate facilities, Dr. Allport turned his household into a miniature hospital. Both patients and nurses were living in the same home, and a clean and sterile atmosphere prevailed.

At the age of 22, Allport visited Vienna. During his visit, he penned a note to Freud asking for an appointment. When he visited Freud, he realized that he had nothing to say that would interest Freud. Searching his mind for some incident, he remembered seeing a small boy on the tramp car while travelling to Freud's home. The little boy of about 4 years old displayed an obvious dirt phobia, constantly complaining to his well dressed mother about the filthy conditions on the car. Freud listened silently to his story and then asked to his young visitor if he was in reality talking about himself. Feeling guilty and embarrassed he managed to change the subject. Allport claimed that he chose this particular incident to get Freud's reaction to a dirt phobia in a child so young. He was not after a professional consultation. It was this encounter that sparked his interest in personality theory. Back in USA, he began to wonder if there might be room for another approach to personality other than psychoanalysis and learning theories, but also one that adopted a more humanistic stance.

More than any other personality theorist, he emphasized the uniqueness of the individual. He believed that attempts to describe people in terms of general traits rob them of their unique individuality. For this reason he objected trait theory saying that one person's stubbornness is different from any other person's stubbornness and the manner in which one person's stubbornness interacts with his or her extraversion and creativity cannot be duplicated by no other individual.

He called the study of individual morphogenic science. Morphogenic methods are those that gather data on single individual, whereas nomothetic methods used by most psychologists gather data on groups of people.

Allport's approach to personality theory

ABRAHAM H. MASLOW (summary)

BIOGRAPHY

Maslow had perhaps the most lonely and miserable childhood in all the personality theorists. Born in New York, he spent his unhappy childhood in Brooklyn. He was the oldest of seven children of his family. As a child, his life was filled with intense feelings of shyness, inferiority and depression.

Maslow was not especially close to either parents, but he tolerated his often absent father, a Russian-Jewish immigrant who made a living preparing barrels. Towards his mother, however, he felt hatred and deep seated animosity; not only during his childhood, but until the day she died. Despite several years of psychoanalysis, he never overcomes the intense hatred and refused to attend to her funeral. He wrote on his diary: ‘What I reacted against or totally hated and rejected was not only her physical appearance, but also her values and world view, her stinginess, her total selfishness, her lack of love for anyone else in the world, even her own husband and children, her assumption that anyone was wrong who disgraced her, her lack of concern for her grandchildren, her lack of friends, her sloppiness and dirtiness, her lack of family feelings for her own parents and siblings. I have always wondered where my humanism, ethical stress, kindness, love, friendship and all the rest came from. I knew certainly the direct consequence of having no mother-love, but the whole thrust of my life philosophy and all my research and theorizing also has its roots in a hatred for and revulsion against everything she stood for’.

Maslow’s personal life was filled with pain both physical and psychological. He was often in poor physical health suffering from a series of ailments, including chronic heart problems. He fell in love with his cousin when he was young and being a very shy boy he could not disclose his feeling to her until one day he got help from another cousin. He loved the girl so desperately and he needed love so desperately that he found it very hard to concentrate on school until the day he found out that the girl loves him as well. From that time on his life became meaningful and reached to his potential. He began with the assumption that the people are free to shape their own lives and they are motivated by a desire to achieve self-actualization. According to Maslow, a self-actualized person finds fulfillment in doing the best that he or she is capable of , not in competition with others but in an effort to become ‘ the best me I can be’.

ALBERT BANDURAS

Overview of Social Cognitive theory

Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory takes chance encounters and fortuitous events seriously, even while recognizing that these meetings and events do not invariably alter one's life path. How we react to an expected meeting or event is usually more powerful than the event itself.

Social cognitive theory rests on several basic assumptions.

1-Plasticity: The outstanding characteristic of humans. Humans have the flexibility to learn a variety of behaviors in diverse situations. People can and do learn through direct experiences like Skinner said but he places much more emphasis on vicarious learning, that is learning by observing others. Bandura also stresses the idea that reinforcement can be vicarious; people can be reinforced by observing another person receive reward. This indirect reinforcement accounts for a good bit of human learning.

2-Triadic reciprocal causation: The model includes behavioral, environment and personal factors, people have the capacity to regulate their lives. Humans can transform transitory events into relatively consistent ways of evaluating and regulating their social and cultural environments. Without this capacity, people would merely react to sensory experiences and would lack the capacity to anticipate events, create new ideas, or use internal standards to evaluate present experiences; two important environmental forces in the triadic model are chance encounters and fortuitous events.

3-Agenic perspective: Humans have the capacity to exercise control over the nature and quality of their lives. People are the producers as well as products of social systems.

4-Internal-External factors: People regulate their conduct through both internal and external factors. External factors include people's physical and social environments, whereas internal factors include self-observation, judgmental process and self-reaction.

5-Moral Agency: When people find themselves in morally ambiguous situations, they typically attempt to regulate their behavior through moral agency, which includes redefining the behavior, disregarding or distorting the consequences of their behavior, dehumanizing or blaming the victims of their behavior, and displacing or diffusing responsibility for their actions.

LEARNING

One of the basic assumptions of Bandura's social cognitive theory is that humans are quite flexible and capable of learning a multitude of attitudes, skills and behaviors and that a good bit of those leanings are a result of vicarious experiences. Although people can and do learn from direct experience, much of what they learn is acquired through observing others.

Bandura believes that new behaviors are acquired through two major kinds of learning: observational learning and enactive learning.

1-Observational learning

Bandura believed that observation allows people to learn without performing any behavior. People observe natural phenomena, plants, animals, waterfalls, the motion of moon and stars, and so forth; but especially important to social cognitive theory is the assumption that they learn through observing the behavior of other people. He differs from Skinner in his belief that reinforcement is not essential for learning. Although reinforcement facilitates learning, Bandura says that it is not a necessary condition for it. People can learn, by observing models being reinforced.

Learning is facilitated by observing appropriate activity, properly coding these events for representation in memory, actually performing the behavior and being sufficiently motivated.

Bandura believes that observational learning is much more efficient than learning through direct experience. By observing other people, humans are spared countless responses that might be followed by punishment or by no reinforcement.

Modeling

The core of observational learning is modeling. Learning through modeling involves adding and subtracting from the observed behavior and generalizing from one observation to another. Modeling involves cognitive processes and is not simply mimicry or imitation. Several factors determine whether a person will learn from a model in any particular situation.

- a. The characteristics of the model are important. People are more likely to model high-status people rather than low-status, competent individuals rather than unskilled or incompetent ones, and powerful people rather than impotent ones.

S.F. SKINNER

Behaviorism

Behavioral psychology is one of the major subjects studied in almost every introductory psychology course. The behaviorist influence was stronger during the middle half of the 20th century than it is today, but behavioral concepts and theories remain important in fields such as education and psychotherapy. Both classical conditioning and operant conditioning are central to behaviorism. The central idea of behaviorism is that all actions are acquired through conditioning processes.

Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is a process that involves creating an association between a naturally existing stimulus and a previously neutral one. Imagine a dog that salivates when it sees food. The food is the naturally occurring stimulus. If you started to ring a bell every time you presented the dog with food, an association would be formed between the food and the bell. Eventually the bell alone, becomes the conditioned stimulus, would come to evoke the salivating response. Ivan Pavlov first discovered classical conditioning as well as the famous Little Albert experiment, which demonstrated the powerful effects of conditioning.

SKINNER -Operant Conditioning

Skinner was an experimental psychologist at Harvard when he developed behaviorism as a position in learning. Skinner uses the consequences of a behavior to explain why the behavior continues or fades.

Skinner believes that behavior that is followed by reinforcement (positive or negative) has an increased probability of reoccurrence. Behavior followed by extinction or punishment has a decreased probability of re-occurrence.

Operant conditioning utilizes reinforcement and punishment to create associations between behaviors and the consequences for those behaviors.

For example, imagine that a school teacher punishes a student for talking out of turn by not letting the student go outside for recess. As a result, the student forms an association between the behavior (talking out of turn) and the consequence (not being able to go outside for recess). As a result, the problematic behavior decreases.

Since learning is implied by a change in behavior, first the desired behavioral change is decided and then the consequences are manipulated to alter the probability of the behavior recurring. Through proper use of shaping the development of new behaviors can be promoted.

Operant conditioning focuses on using either reinforcement or punishment to increase or decrease a behavior. Through this process, an association is formed between the behavior and the consequences for that behavior. For example, imagine that a trainer is trying to teach a dog to fetch a ball. When the dog successfully chases and picks up the ball, the dog receives praise as a reward. When the animal fails to retrieve the ball, the trainer withholds the praise. Eventually, the dog forms an association between his behavior of fetching the ball and receiving the desired reward.

Consequence	Definition	Example
Receive reinforcer (positive reinforcement)	A behavior is followed by the presentation of a positive stimulus, thus the behavior increases.	Giving students a gold star for completing work on time
Remove unpleasant stimulus (negative reinforcement)	A behavior is followed by the removal of an unpleasant stimulus, thus the behavior increases.	Putting on sunglasses to remove the glare of the sun; allowing students to quit working problems that don't interest them if they follow classroom rules about arriving on time
Receive unpleasant stimulus (punishment)	A behavior is followed by the presentation of an unpleasant stimulus, thus the behavior decreases at least temporarily.	Spanking a child who misbehaves; assigning additional homework problems to a student who is disruptive
Withhold pleasant stimulus (extinction)	A behavior is followed by the withholding or removal of a positive stimulus, thus the behavior decreases.	Not allowing a student to go out on the playground when he has not completed his work as scheduled

Shaping, Reinforcement, Schedules of Reinforcement

Operant conditioning can be viewed as a process of action and consequence. Shaping is the conditioning paradigm of an experiment. The form of the experiment in successive trials is gradually changed to elicit a desired target behavior. This is accomplished through reinforcement, or reward.