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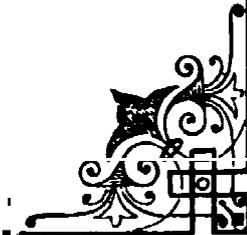
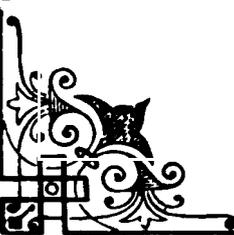
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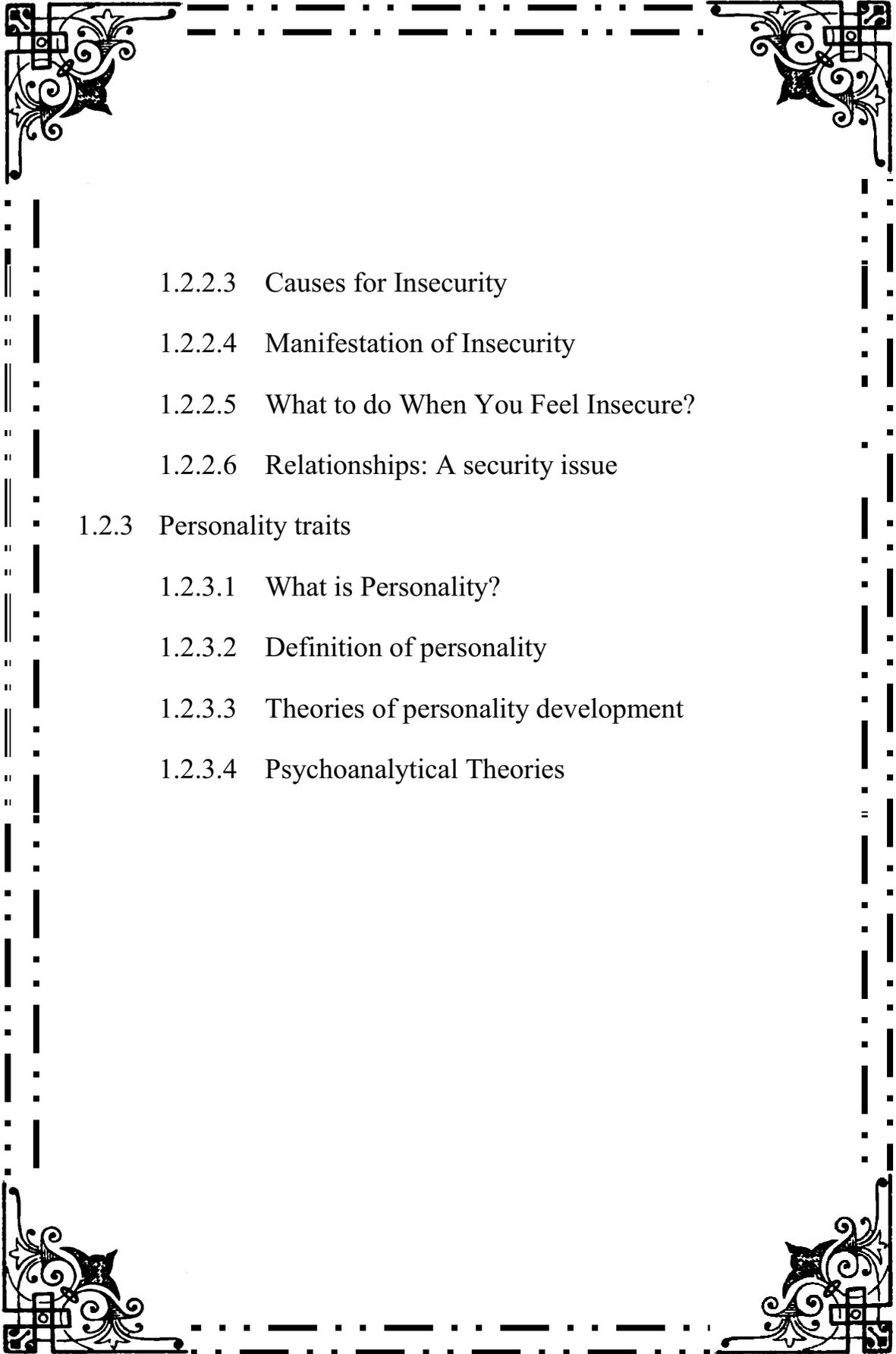
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# **CHAPTER-1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1. Introduction**

#### **1.1 General Introduction**

Man has started many efforts to understand his inner as well as outer environment in surrounding with origin of mankind. He has initiated many activities to pass the daytime. Man is best and well developed among all organism today because of these constructive activities and his brain only. Man passed from different state of his life and he plays different – different role according to surrounding environmental conditions. He tries to get peace by playing these roles. Man takes education in today's developing world to get good job and to settle economically in his life. Man, in his student life (teen-age), try to get education in different educational institute to construct his career. People preferred to get admission in well developed and well known schools and colleges for better education. Mostly these types of colleges are situated in urban area rather than in rural area. Student feels stress in the new environment of schools or colleges dued to economical as well as social differences in students and professors. He also feels insecurity because of the uncertainty of job placement.

Aforementioned psychological factors are studied here with respect to Hindu and Muslim communities, Arts and Sciences college students, girls and boys. Girls and boys fell many psychological problems during their college life and they develop Insecurity and aggression consequently. The personality traits of Hindu and Muslim communities are also studied to get better understanding about their mentalities.

In this study, we extensively investigate three psychological terms Aggression, Insecurity and Personality traits of Hindu and Muslim communities, Arts and Sciences college students, girls and boys.

## **1.2 Present study included following three ‘Definitions’**

### **1.2.1 Aggression**

#### **1.2.1.1 What is Aggression?**

‘The phenomenon in which one harms other to get joy’ - “**The psychology of Aggression buss (1961)**”. Aggression, in its broadest sense, is behavior, or a disposition, that is forceful, hostile or attacking. It may occur either in retaliation or without provocation. In narrower definitions that are used in social sciences and behavioral sciences, aggression is an intention to cause harm or an act intended to increase relative social dominance. Predatory or defensive behavior between members of different species may not be considered aggression in the same sense. Aggression can take a variety of forms and can be physical or be communicated verbally or non-verbally. Aggression differs from what is commonly called assertiveness, although the terms are often used interchangeably among laypeople, e.g. an aggressive salesperson

#### **1.2.1.2 Types of Aggression**

Two broad categories of aggression are commonly distinguished. One includes affective (emotional) and hostile or retaliatory aggression, and the other includes instrumental, goal-oriented or predatory aggression. Data on violence from a range of disciplines lend some support to a distinction between affective and predatory aggression. However, some researchers question the usefulness of a hostile vs instrumental distinction in humans, despite its ubiquity in research, because most real-life cases involve mixed motives and interacting causes.

A number of classifications and dimensions of aggression have been suggested. These depend on such things as whether the aggression is verbal or physical; whether or not it involves relational aggression such as covert bullying and social manipulation; whether harm to others is intended or not; whether it is carried out actively or expressed passively; and whether the aggression is aimed directly or indirectly. Classification may also encompass aggression-related emotions (e.g. anger) and mental states (e.g. impulsivity, hostility). Aggression may occur in response to non-social as well as social factors, and can have a close relationship with stress coping style. Aggression may be displayed in order to intimidate.

The operative definition of aggression may be affected by moral or political views. Examples are the axiomatic moral view called the non-aggression principle and the political rules governing the behavior of one country toward another. Likewise in competitive sports, or in the workplace, some forms of aggression may be sanctioned and others not.

### **1.2.1.3 Interaction and Evolution of animals with respect to Aggression**

Ethologists study aggression as it relates to the interaction and evolution of animals in natural settings. In such settings aggression can involve bodily contact such as biting, hitting or pushing, but most conflicts are settled by threat displays and intimidating thrusts that cause no physical harm. This form of aggression may include the display of body size, antlers, claws or teeth; stereotyped signals including facial expressions; vocalizations such as bird song; the release of chemicals; and changes in coloration. The term agonistic behaviour is sometimes used to refer to these forms of behavior.

Most ethologists believe that aggression confers biological advantages. Aggression may help an animal secure territory, including resources such as food and water. Aggression between males often occurs to secure mating opportunities, and results in selection of the healthier/more vigorous animal. Aggression may also occur for self-protection or to protect offspring. Aggression between groups of animals may also confer advantage; for example, hostile behavior may force a population of animals into a new territory, where the need to adapt to a new environment may lead to an increase in genetic flexibility.

#### **1.2.1.4 Aggression between Groups**

The most apparent type of interspecific aggression is that observed in the interaction between a predator and its prey. However, according to many researchers, predation is not aggression. A cat does not hiss or arch its back when pursuing a rat, and the active areas in its hypothalamus resemble those that reflect hunger rather than those that reflect aggression. However, others refer to this behavior as predatory aggression, and point out cases that resemble hostile behavior, such as mouse-killing by rats. In aggressive mimicry a predator has the appearance of a harmless organism or object attractive to the prey; when the prey approaches, the predator attacks.

An animal defending against a predator may engage in either "fight or flight" in response to predator attack or threat of attack, depending on its estimate of the predator's strength relative to its own. Alternative defenses include a range of antipredator adaptations, including alarm signals.

Aggression between groups is determined partly by willingness to fight, which depends on a number of factors including numerical advantage, distance from home territories, how often the groups encounter each other, competitive abilities, differences in body size, and whose territory

is being invaded. Also, an individual is more likely to become aggressive if other aggressive group members are nearby. One particular phenomenon – the formation of coordinated coalitions that raid neighbouring territories to kill conspecifics – has only been documented in two species in the animal kingdom: 'common' chimpanzees and humans.

### **1.2.1.5 Evolutionary aspect of Aggression**

Like many behaviors, aggression can be examined in terms of its ability to help an animal survive and reproduce, or alternatively to risk survival and reproduction. This cost-benefit analysis can be looked at in terms of evolution. There are profound differences in the extent of acceptance of a biological or evolutionary basis for human aggression, however.

Aggression can involve violence that may be adaptive under certain circumstances in terms of natural selection. This is most obviously the case in terms of attacking prey to obtain food, or in anti-predatory defense. It may also be the case in competition between members of the same species or subgroup, if the average reward (e.g. status, access to resources, protection of self or kin) outweighs average costs (e.g. injury, exclusion from the group, death). There are some hypotheses of specific adaptations for violence in humans under certain circumstances, including for homicide, but it is often unclear what behaviors may have been selected for and what may have been a byproduct, as in the case of collective violence.

Although aggressive encounters are ubiquitous in the animal kingdom, with often high stakes, most are resolved through posturing, displays and trials of strength. Game theory is used to understand how such behaviors might spread by natural selection within a population, and potentially become 'Evolutionary Stable Strategies'. An initial model of resolution of conflicts is the Hawk-Dove game; others include the Sequential

assessment model and the Energetic war of attrition. These try to understand not just one-off encounters but protracted stand-offs, and mainly differ in the criteria by which an individual decides to give up rather than risk loss and harm in physical conflict (such as through estimates of Resource holding potential).

#### **1.2.1.6 Aggression with respect to Gender**

There are multiple theories that seek to explain findings that males and females of the same species can have differing aggressive behaviors. However the conditions under which women and men differ in aggressiveness are not well understood.[35] In general, sexual dimorphism can be attributed to greater intraspecific competition in one sex, either between rivals for access to mates and/or to be chosen by mates. This may stem from the other gender being constrained by providing greater parental investment, in terms of factors such as gamete production, gestation, lactation, or upbringing of young. Although there is much variation in species generally the more physically aggressive sex is the male, particularly in mammals. In species where parental care by both sexes is required there tends to be less of a difference. When the female can leave the male to care for the offspring, then females may be the larger and more physically aggressive. Competitiveness despite parental investment has also been observed in some species. A related factor is the rate at which males and females are able to mate again after producing offspring, and the basic principles of sexual selection are also influenced by ecological factors affecting the ways or extent to which one sex can compete for the other. The role of such factors in human evolution is controversial. The pattern of male and female aggression is argued to be consistent with evolved sexually-selected behavioral differences, while alternative or complimentary views

emphasize conventional social roles stemming from physical evolved differences. Aggression in women may have evolved to be, on average, less physically dangerous and more covert or indirect. However, there are critiques for using animal behavior to explain human behavior. Especially in the application of evolutionary explanations to contemporary human behavior, including differences between the genders.

In general, much research has suggested that males use more physical aggression than females, while females use more verbal aggression. Children interact with, and are aggressive toward, both same- and other-gender peers. There are more recent findings that show that differences in male and female aggression appear at about two years of age, though the differences in aggression are more consistent in middle-aged children and adolescence. Tremblay, Japel and Pérusse (1999) asserted that physically aggressive behaviors such as kicking, biting and hitting are age-typical expressions of innate and spontaneous reactions to biological drives such as anger, hunger, and affiliation. Girls' relational aggression, meaning non-physical or indirect, tends to increase after age two while physical aggression decreases. There was no significant difference in aggression between males and females before two years of age. A possible explanation for this could be that girls develop language skills more quickly than boys therefore they have better ways of verbalizing their wants and needs. They are more likely to use communication when trying to retrieve a toy with the words "Ask nicely" or "Say please."

Many studies have found differences in the types of aggression used by males and females, at least in children and adolescents. Females between the ages of 10 and 14, around puberty age, show a more extreme rate of relational aggression compared to boys. These findings are true for Western society, but are not true of all cultures. In countries such as

Kenya it has been found that young boys and girls have very similar rates of physical aggression. It has been found that girls are more likely than boys to use reactive aggression and then retract, but boys are more likely to increase rather than to retract their aggression after their first reaction. Studies show girls' aggressive tactics included gossip, ostracism, breaking confidences, and criticism of a victim's clothing, appearance, or personality, whereas boys engage in aggression that involves a direct physical and/or verbal assault. This could be due to the fact that girls' frontal lobes develop earlier than boys, allowing them to self-restrain.

One factor that shows insignificant differences between male and female aggression is in sports. In sports, the rate of aggression in both contact and non-contact sports is relatively equal. Since the establishment of Title IX, female sports have increased in competitiveness and importance, which could contribute to the evening of aggression and the "need to win" attitude between both sexes. Among sex differences found in adult sports were that females have a higher scale of indirect hostility while men have a higher scale of assault. Another difference found is that men have up to 20 times higher levels of testosterone than women.

Some studies suggest that romantic involvement in adolescence decreases aggression in males and females, but decreases at a higher rate in females. Females will seem more desirable to their mate if they fit in with society and females that are aggressive do not usually fit well in society, they can often be viewed as antisocial. Female aggression is not considered the norm in society and going against the norm can sometimes prevent one from getting a mate. However, studies have shown that an increasing number of women are getting arrested for domestic violence charges. In many states, women now account for a quarter to a third of all domestic violence arrests, up from less than 10 percent a decade ago. The new statistics reflect a reality

documented in research: women are perpetrators as well as victims of family violence. However, another equally possible explanation is a case of improved diagnostics: it has become more acceptable for men to report female domestic violence to the authorities while at the same time actual female domestic violence has not increased at all. This can be the case when men have become less ashamed of reporting female violence against them, therefore an increasing number of women are arrested, although the actual number of violent women remains the same.

Also, males in competitive sports are often advised by their coaches not to be in intimate relationships based on the premises that they become more docile and less aggressive during an athletic event. The circumstances in which males and females experience aggression are also different. A study showed that social anxiety and stress was positively correlated with aggression in males, meaning as stress and social anxiety increases so does aggression. Furthermore, a male with higher social skills has a lower rate of aggressive behavior than a male with lower social skills. In females, higher rates of aggression were only correlated with higher rates of stress. Other than biological factors that contribute to aggression there are physical factors as well.

Regarding sexual dimorphism, humans fall into an intermediate group with moderate sex differences in body size but relatively large testes. This is a typical pattern of primates where several males and females live together in a group and the male faces an intermediate amount of challenges from other males compared to exclusive polygyny and monogamy but frequent sperm competition. Evolutionary psychology and sociobiology have also discussed and produced theories for some specific forms of male aggression such as sociobiological theories of rape and theories regarding the Cinderella effect.

Gender is a factor that plays a role in both human and animal aggression. Males are historically believed to be generally more physically aggressive than females from an early age, and men commit the vast majority of murders (Buss 2005). This is one of the most robust and reliable behavioral sex differences, and it has been found across many different age groups and cultures. However, some empirical studies have found the discrepancy in male and female aggression to be more pronounced in childhood and the gender difference in adults to be modest. Still, there is evidence that males are quicker to aggression (Frey et al. 2003) and more likely than females to express their aggression physically. When considering indirect forms of non-violent aggression, such as relational aggression and social rejection, some scientists argue that females can be quite aggressive although female aggression is rarely expressed physically.

Studies show, that females in general have better control over their emotions in comparison to males. Also, males are more likely to retaliate when provoked to gain recognition; females are less likely to retaliate in a violent way because they are shielded by moral sense. Although females are less likely to initiate physical violence, they can express aggression by using a variety of non-physical means. Exactly which method women use to express aggression is something that varies from culture to culture. On Bellona Island, a culture based on male dominance and physical violence, women tend to get into conflicts with other women more frequently than with men. When in conflict with males, instead of using physical means, they make up songs mocking the man, which spread across the island and humiliate him. If a woman wanted to kill a man, she would either convince her male relatives to kill him or hire an assassin. Although these two methods involve physical violence, both are

forms of indirect aggression, since the aggressor herself avoids getting directly involved or putting herself in immediate physical danger. See also the sections on testosterone and evolutionary explanations for gender differences above.

### **1.2.1.7 Aggression with respect to Culture**

Culture is a factor that plays a role in aggression. Tribal or band societies existing before or outside of modern states have sometimes been depicted as peaceful 'noble savages' or alternatively as brutish 'beasts'. The Kung Bushmen were described as 'The Harmless People' in a popular work by Elizabeth Marshall Thomas in 1958, while Lawrence Keeley's 1996 *War Before Civilization* suggested that regular warfare without modern technology was conducted by most groups throughout human history, including most Native American tribes. Studies of hunter-gatherers show a range of different societies. In general, aggression, conflict and violence sometimes occur, but direct confrontation is generally avoided and conflict is socially managed by a variety of verbal and non-verbal methods. Different rates of aggression or violence, currently or in the past, within or between groups, have been linked to the structuring of societies and environmental conditions influencing factors such as resource or property acquisition, land and subsistence techniques, and population change.

Analyzing aggression culturally or politically is complicated by the fact that the label 'aggressive' can itself be used as a way of asserting a judgement from a particular point of view. Whether a coercive or violent method of social control is perceived as aggression – or as legitimate versus illegitimate aggression – depends on the position of the relevant parties in relation to the social order of their culture. This in turn can relate to factors such as: norms for coordinating actions and dividing

resources; what is considered self-defense or provocation; attitudes towards 'outsiders', attitudes towards specific groups such as women, the disabled or the lower status; the availability of alternative conflict resolution strategies; trade interdependence and collective security pacts; fears and impulses; and ultimate goals regarding material and social outcomes.

Cross-cultural research has found differences in attitudes towards aggression in different cultures. In one questionnaire study of university students, in addition to men overall justifying some types of aggression more than women, USA respondents justified defensive physical aggression more readily than Japanese or Spanish respondents, whereas Japanese students preferred direct verbal aggression (but not indirect) more than their American and Spanish counterparts. Within American culture, southern men were shown in a study on university students to be more affected and to respond more aggressively than northerners when randomly insulted after being bumped into, which was theoretically related to a traditional culture of honor in the Southern United States. A similar sociological concept that may be applied in different cultures is 'face'. Other cultural themes sometimes applied to the study of aggression include individualistic versus collectivist styles, which may relate, for example, to whether disputes are responded to with open competition or by accommodating and avoiding conflicts. Other comparisons made in relation to aggression or war include democratic versus authoritarian political systems and egalitarian versus stratified societies. The economic system known as capitalism has been viewed by some as reliant on the leveraging of human competitiveness and aggression in pursuit of resources and trade, which has been considered in both positive and negative terms. Attitudes about

the social acceptability of particular acts or targets of aggression are also important factors. This can be highly controversial, as for example in disputes between religions or nation states, for example in regard to the Arab–Israeli conflict.

### **1.2.1.8 Aggression in Children**

The frequency of physical aggression in humans peaks at around 2–3 years of age. It then declines gradually on average. These observations suggest that physical aggression is not only a learned behavior but that development provides opportunities for the learning and biological development of self-regulation. However, a small subset of children fail to acquire all the necessary self-regulatory abilities and tend to show atypical levels of physical aggression across development. These may be at risk for later violent behavior or, conversely, lack of aggression that may be considered necessary within society. Some findings suggest that early aggression does not necessarily lead to aggression later on, however, although the course through early childhood is an important predictor of outcomes in middle childhood. In addition, physical aggression that continues is likely occurring in the context of family adversity, including socioeconomic factors. Moreover, 'opposition' and 'status violations' in childhood appear to be more strongly linked to social problems in adulthood than simply aggressive antisocial behavior. Social learning through interactions in early childhood has been seen as a building block for levels of aggression which play a crucial role in the development of peer relationships in middle childhood. Overall, an interplay of biological, social and environmental factors can be considered.

### **What is typically expected of children?**

Young children preparing to enter kindergarten need to develop the socially important skill of being assertive. Examples of assertiveness include asking others for information, initiating conversation, or being able to respond to peer pressure.

In contrast, some young children use aggressive behavior, such as hitting or biting, as a form of communication.

Aggressive behavior can impede learning as a skill deficit, while assertive behavior can facilitate learning. However, with young children, aggressive behavior is developmentally appropriate and can lead to opportunities of building conflict resolution and communication skills.

By school age, children should learn more socially appropriate forms of communicating such as expressing themselves through verbal or written language; if they have not, this behavior may signify a disability or developmental delay

### **What triggers aggressive behavior in children?**

- Physical fear of others
- Family difficulties
- Learning, neurological, or conduct/behavior disorders
- Psychological trauma
- Corporal punishment such as spanking increases subsequent aggression in children.

The Bobo doll experiment was conducted by Albert Bandura in 1961. In this work, Bandura found that children exposed to an aggressive adult model acted more aggressively than those who were exposed to a nonaggressive adult model. This experiment suggests that anyone who

comes in contact with and interacts with children can have an impact on the way they react and handle situations.

### **Summary points from recommendations by national associations**

- American Academy of Pediatrics (2011): "The best way to prevent aggressive behavior is to give your child a stable, secure home life with firm, loving discipline and full-time supervision during the toddler and preschool years. Everyone who cares for your child should be a good role model and agree on the rules he's expected to observe as well as the response to use if he disobeys."
- National Association of School Psychologists (2008): "Proactive aggression is typically reasoned, unemotional, and focused on acquiring some goal. For example, a bully wants peer approval and victim submission, and gang members want status and control. In contrast, reactive aggression is frequently highly emotional and is often the result of biased or deficient cognitive processing on the part of the student."

#### **1.2.1.9 Situational factor that affection Aggression behavior**

There has been some links between those prone to violence and their alcohol use. Those who are prone to violence and use alcohol are more likely to carry out violent acts. Alcohol impairs judgment, making people much less cautious than they usually are (MacDonald et al. 1996). It also disrupts the way information is processed (Bushman 1993, 1997; Bushman & Cooper 1990). Pain and discomfort also increase aggression. Even the simple act of placing one's hands in hot water can cause an aggressive response. Hot temperatures have been implicated as a factor in a number of studies. One study completed in the midst of the civil rights movement found that riots were more likely on hotter days than cooler

ones (Carlsmith& Anderson 1979). Students were found to be more aggressive and irritable after taking a test in a hot classroom (Anderson et al. 1996, Rule, et al. 1987). Drivers in cars without air conditioning were also found to be more likely to honk their horns (Kenrick& MacFarlane 1986), which is used as a measure of aggression and has shown links to other factors such as generic symbols of aggression or the visibility of other drivers.

Frustration is another major cause of aggression. The Frustration aggression theory states that aggression increases if a person feels that he or she is being blocked from achieving a goal (Aronson et al. 2005). One study found that the closeness to the goal makes a difference. The study examined people waiting in line and concluded that the 2nd person was more aggressive than the 12th one when someone cut in line (Harris 1974). Unexpected frustration may be another factor. In a separate study to demonstrate how unexpected frustration leads to increased aggression, Kulik& Brown (1979) selected a group of students as volunteers to make calls for charity donations. One group was told that the people they would call would be generous and the collection would be very successful. The other group was given no expectations. The group that expected success was more upset when no one was pledging than the group who did not expect success (everyone actually had horrible success). This research suggests that when an expectation does not materialize (successful collections), unexpected frustration arises which increases aggression.

There is some evidence to suggest that the presence of violent objects such as a gun can trigger aggression. In a study done by Leonard Berkowitz and Anthony Le Page (1967), college students were made angry and then left in the presence of a gun or badminton racket. They were then led to believe they were delivering electric shocks to another

student, as in the Milgram experiment. Those who had been in the presence of the gun administered more shocks. It is possible that a violence-related stimulus increases the likelihood of aggressive cognitions by activating the semantic network.

A new proposal links military experience to anger and aggression, developing aggressive reactions and investigating these effects on those possessing the traits of a serial killer. Castle and Hensley state, "The military provides the social context where servicemen learn aggression, violence, and murder." Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is also a serious issue in the military, also believed to sometimes lead to aggression in soldiers who are suffering from what they witnessed in battle. They come back to the civilian world and may still be haunted by flashbacks and nightmares, causing severe stress. In addition, it has been claimed that in the rare minority who are claimed to be inclined toward serial killing, violent impulses may be reinforced and refined in war, possibly creating more effective murderers.

#### **1.2.1.10 Aggression - As a positive adaptation theory**

Some recent scholarship has questioned traditional psychological conceptualizations of aggression as universally negative. Most traditional psychological definitions of aggression focus on the harm to the recipient of the aggression, implying this is the intent of the aggressor; however this may not always be the case. From this alternate view, although the recipient may or may not be harmed, the perceived intent is to increase the status of the aggressor, not necessarily to harm the recipient. Such scholars contend that traditional definitions of aggression have no validity.

From this view, rather than concepts such as assertiveness, aggression, violence and criminal violence existing as distinct constructs, they exist instead along a continuum with moderate levels of aggression being most

adaptive. Such scholars do not consider this a trivial difference, noting that many traditional researchers' aggression measurements may measure outcomes lower down in the continuum, at levels which are adaptive, yet they generalize their findings to non-adaptive levels of aggression, thus losing precision.

#### **1.2.1.11 Fear (survival)-induced pre-emptive Aggression**

According to philosopher and neuroscientist Nayef Al-Rodhan, “fear(survival)-induced pre-emptive aggression” is a human reaction to injustices that are perceived to threaten survival. It is often the root of the unthinkable brutality and injustice perpetuated by human beings. It may occur at any time, even in situations that appear to be calm and under control. Where there is injustice that is perceived as posing a threat to survival, “fear(survival)-induced pre-emptive aggression” will result in individuals taking whatever action necessary to be free from that threat.

Nayef Al-Rodhan argues that humans’ strong tendency towards “fear (survival)-induced pre-emptive aggression” means that situations of anarchy or near anarchy should be prevented at all costs. This is because anarchy provokes fear, which in turn results in aggression, brutality, and injustice. Even in non-anarchic situations, survival instincts and fear can be very powerful forces, and they may be incited instantaneously. “Fear(survival)-induced pre-emptive aggression” is one of the key factors that may push naturally amoral humans to behave in immoral ways. Knowing this, Al-Rodhan maintains that we must prepare for the circumstances that may arise from humans’ aggressive behavior. According to Al-Rodhan, the risk of this aggression and its ensuing brutality should be minimized through confidence-building measures and policies that promote inclusiveness and prevent anarchy.

## **1.2.2 Insecurity**

### **1.2.2.1 What is Insecurity**

**‘Insecurity is a lack of self-worth, a doubt and uncertainty, and feeling of not measuring up to society's standards’.** It is often subconscious, and is thought to drive afflicted individuals to overcompensate, resulting either in spectacular achievement or extreme antisocial behaviour. The term was coined to indicate a lack of covert self esteem. For many, it is developed through a combination of genetic personality characteristics and personal experiences.

Research on the psychological consequences of Insecurity is reviewed, showing that insecurity reduces psychological well-being and satisfaction, and increases psychosomatic complaints and physical strains. Next, three additional research questions are addressed, since these questions did not receive much attention in previous research.

### **1.2.2.2 Classification of insecurity:**

Classical Adlerian psychology makes a distinction between primary and secondary inferiority feelings.

- A primary inferiority feeling is said to be rooted in the young child's original experience of weakness, helplessness and dependency. It can then be intensified by comparisons to siblings, romantic partners, and adults.
- A secondary inferiority feeling relates to an adult's experience of being unable to reach a subconscious, fictional final goal of subjective security and success to compensate for the inferiority feelings. The perceived distance from that goal would lead to a negative/depressed feeling that could then prompt the recall of the original inferiority feeling; this composite of inferiority feelings could be experienced as

overwhelming. The goal invented to relieve the original, primary feeling of inferiority which actually causes the secondary feeling of inferiority is the "catch-22" of this dilemma. This vicious circle is common in neurotic lifestyles.

Feeling insecure is often viewed as being inferior to another person, but this is not always the case in the Adlerian view. One often feels incompetent to perform a task, such as a test in school.

According to general psychology Insecurity is divided in main eight sub-classes.

1. Future Context Insecurity
  2. Study Context Insecurity
  3. Survival Context Insecurity
  4. Family Context Insecurity
  5. Self Context Insecurity
  6. Peer Group Context Insecurity
  7. School Context Insecurity
  8. Exam Context Insecurity
- “Man is social animal”- this is very old and true saying, describes relationship between man and their surrounding social components\environment. Man strikes with many state of mind during their whole life while interacting with social components. One such state of mind is Inferiority complex. When man does not get social and emotional support from his family as well as from social environment, gradually he develops Inferiority complex in his mind. And this Inferiority complex gradually develops in to

‘Insecurity’. Insecurity means “The Inferiority complex created due to the external factors/catalysis of surrounding environment”.

- The word ‘SCHOOL’ is derived from Greek word ‘SCHOLA’. ‘SCHOLA’ means sort of meeting where people get together and discuss on some pre-decided topics. The interaction of thoughts of different types of mind was occurred. Such types of interaction were cause deposition of either inferiority or superiority complexes in people’s mind. It is categorized as man verses man interaction. It is inferiority complex created by biotic factor. When man does not satisfy his basic requirements during study, he gradually develops Inferiority complex in his mind. And this Inferiority complex gradually develops in to ‘Insecurity’.
- “SURVIVAL OF THE FITTEST”- this is very popular principle of Charls Darwin. It describes interaction between man and man as well as men and nature. Man strikes with many hurdles during their whole life while interacting with biotic and abiotic components of his surroundings. Due to these types of interaction, he faces many state of his own mind. One of these state is Inferiority complex. When man does not get his basic requirements, he gradually develops Inferiority complex in his mind. And this Inferiority complex gradually develops in to ‘Insecurity’. Insecurity means “The Inferiority complex created due to the external factors/catalysis of surrounding environment”. There are main three types of Insecurity: Social Insecurity, Psychological Insecurity and Ecological Insecurity
- ‘*Man should live in group having some relation with one another*’- above stated sentence was the dream of saint ‘Manu’. He had done many efforts to established manners and family system in life style

of old ancient man, we called him '*Adi-manav*'. Then after man started to live in group and was known as '*Family*'. With the array of time family system developed more and more and today's well mannered family system is consequence of the same. But everything has two sides like coin, one is positive side and another is negative side. As 'family system' grows up, it also develops some negative impact on man's mind. The Inferiority complex created due to the family system is classified as 'Family context Insecurity'.

### **1.2.2.3 Causes of Insecurity**

Insecurity occurs when the feelings of inferiority are intensified in the individual through discouragement or failure. Those who are at risk for developing a complex include people who: show signs of low self-esteem or self-worth, are of different ethnicity, have low socioeconomic status, or have a history of depression symptoms. Children reared in households who were constantly criticized or did not live up to parents expectations may also develop this. Many times there are warning signs to someone who may be more prone to developing Insecurity. For example, someone who is prone to attention and approval seeking behaviours may be more susceptible. Often, it is difficult to place an exact cause to the development of Insecurity. Race, gender, sexual orientation, social class, mental health, physical appearance, or any character that is not within society's normative dominant traits can contribute to this.

### **1.2.2.4 Manifestations of Insecurity**

When Insecurity is in full effect, it may impact the performance of the individual as well as impact the individual's self-esteem. Unconscious psychological and emotional processes can disrupt students' cognitive learning, and negatively "charged" feeling-toned memory associations

can derail the learning process. Hutt found that math can become associated with a psychological Insecurity, low motivation and self-efficacy, poor self-directed learning strategies, and feeling unsafe or anxious. Widely researched, but often not talked about specifically in this area is the concept of self-esteem and that people can feel good about their abilities and have self-esteem in areas where they feel competent and might not hold such personal esteem in other areas of their life. In essence, self-esteem can also be context-driven. Thus, the theory that someone has an overarching Insecurity is a bit outdated. In the mental health treatment population, this characteristic is shown in patients with many disorders such as certain types of schizophrenia, mood disorders, and personality disorders. Moritz found the people suffering from paranoid schizophrenia used their delusions as a defense mechanism against low implicit self esteem.

### **1.2.2.5 What to do When You Feel Insecure?**

#### **(A) Emotional insecurity**

Abraham Maslow describes an insecure person as a person who "perceives the world as a threatening jungle and most human beings as dangerous and selfish; feels a rejected and isolated person, anxious and hostile; is generally pessimistic and unhappy; shows signs of tension and conflict, tends to turn inward; is troubled by guilt-feelings, has one or another disturbance of self-esteem; tends to be neurotic; and is generally selfish and egocentric." (Maslow, 1942, pp 35). He viewed in every insecure person a continual, never dying, longing for security. Alegre (2008).

A person who is insecure lacks confidence in their own value, and one or more of their capabilities, lacks trust in themselves or others, or has fears that a present positive state is temporary, and will let them down and cause them loss or distress by "going wrong" in the future. This is a

common trait, which only differs in degree between people. This is not to be confused with humility, which involves recognizing one's shortcomings but still maintaining a healthy dose of self-confidence. Insecurity is not an objective evaluation of one's ability but an emotional interpretation, as two people with the same capabilities may have entirely different levels of insecurity.

Insecurity may contribute to the development of shyness, paranoia and social withdrawal, or alternatively it may encourage compensatory behaviors such as arrogance, aggression, or bullying, in some cases.

The fact that the majority of human beings are emotionally vulnerable, and have the capacity to be hurt, implies that emotional insecurity could merely be a difference in awareness.

Insecurity has many effects in a person's life. There are several levels of it. It nearly always causes some degree of isolation as a typically insecure person withdraws from people to some extent. The greater the insecurity, the higher the degree of isolation becomes. Insecurity is often rooted in a person's childhood years. Like offense and bitterness, it grows in layered fashion, often becoming an immobilizing force that sets a limiting factor in the person's life. Insecurity robs by degrees; the degree to which it is entrenched equals the degree of power it has in the person's life. As insecurity can be distressing and feel threatening to the psyche, it can often be accompanied by a controlling personality type or avoidance, as psychological defense mechanisms.

Insecurity can be overcome. It takes time, patience and a gradual realization that one's own worth is purely a matter of perspective (or subjective opinion of oneself), and so while it may be true that insecurity can follow from concerns relating to objective reality, this is by no means

a necessity, but more a tendency.<sup>[citation needed]</sup> The first of Erikson's stages of psychosocial development details the challenge of finding security and learning to trust oneself and one's environment.

### **(B) Brain chemistry**

To a certain extent, emotional security is a function of brain chemistry: some people are naturally predisposed to feel less happy, and to be more adversely affected by natural events, for example in the case of hypothyroidism. Certain medications, such as SSRI's or even stimulants, are often prescribed to address such natural deficiencies. The side-effects of these medications, however, in many cases can negate their positive effects, for example when certain anti-depressants make it difficult or impossible to experience orgasm by making the brain incapable of cutting off the flow of certain hormones usually associated with positive emotions but necessary to suddenly block for short periods of time in order for orgasm to occur. It is also said that such medications blunt both 'the highs and the lows,' sapping, for some people, a valuable, inspiring energy from life. However, weighing the pros against the cons of such situations is something different for each individual, and in many cases the dangers of *naturally low emotional security* may be worse than the side-effects of the appropriate medication, especially such as when a person is suicidal.

### **(C) Philosophies**

There are many philosophies which understand emotional security to be a product of *outlook*. Such ideologies would advocate that there are safer steps than medicine one can take in order to increase one's emotional security. These options may range from self-help programs, substance abuse treatment programs, and psycho therapy to physical exercise and spiritual or religious devotion. While emotionally insecure

people may feel lethargic, sometimes their best option is to increase their endorphins through exercise; while they may be afraid of rejection, this may lead to unhealthy loneliness, which the only way to overcome is to risk rejection by trying to make acquaintances. Practices such as yoga and Buddhism advocate abstinence from mind-altering substances; yoga is a physical, mental, and spiritual practice or discipline for achieving clarity of mind and security of attitude through training and disciplining the body,<sup>[1]</sup> while Buddhism is in essence a practice designed to address suffering.

Philosophers of existentialism deal with issues relating to emotional insecurity quite frequently, focusing on the individual's spiritual condition in the world, existentialism being a more emotionally and psychologically oriented philosophy than other more rationalist schools. Søren Kierkegaard dealt with emotions such as anxiety, dread, and despair, pointing to the role they can play in bringing about life-changing transformation.

#### **1.2.2.6 Relationships: A security issue**

When we enter an intimate relationship we can feel very emotionally vulnerable; especially if we have felt let down or hurt in previous relationships.

Will they reject me?

Have I done something to upset them?

When we become anxious about anything, we start looking for signs of things 'going wrong' (nervous flyers look out for signs that the aircraft is in trouble). And, of course, we usually find what we're looking for, even if it isn't really there at all.

We perform constant monitoring: "Do they look fed up? Why did they say that? Who's this other person they've mentioned? Should I feel threatened? Are they less attentive? Why did they pause after I suggested we meet up?" All this is exhausting.

Emma said she had often felt inadequate and "not good enough" to be with her current partner. She couldn't possibly understand what he could see in her.

She also told me she had ended many previous relationships because of her insecurity. "It felt easier for me to end it before they did!" Walking away rather than risk the pain of feeling abandoned can seem the easiest thing to do. But we all need the comforts and support that intimacy can bring us. So what can you do if insecurity is blighting your relationships?

### **1) Stop confusing imagination with reality**

Making stuff up and then believing it is a sure-fire way to self-torment.

The insecure flyer will hear the normal mechanism of the air conditioning and twist it within their imagination to signify impending doom via crash and burn. They'll imagine the bored look on an air steward's face to be barely concealed terror because, "He must know something we don't!" The over-imaginative flyer may even fantasize the sound of the landing gear coming down is an engine falling from the plane. They scare themselves by assuming what they imagine represents reality.

There are normal 'mechanisms' to any relationship. There are ebbs and flows and mood changes, moments of intimacy and closeness and comfortable spaces. These ebbs and flows are normal. Wanting to be absolutely close and intimate all the time is like wanting an aeroplane to never make a sound or a movement.

## **2) Avoid the Certainty Trap**

Overcoming relationship insecurity is partly about becoming less controlling. This may sound strange, but feeling that: "This relationship must be exactly as I think it should be!" is a form of over-control. A sign of insecurity in relationships is when the desire for certainty becomes too strong.

Having to know whether your partner really loves you, having to know this or having to know that puts a lot of unnecessary strain and tension into the relationship. The fact is, we all have to live with uncertainty. Insecure people can still feel insecure even when they are told they are loved. Wanting what is not possible (complete and utter certainty in all and everything forever) is not possible because imagination can still make up doubts. So stop looking for certainty where it doesn't apply.

Self-assurance comes from starting to relax with uncertainty. Wanting to know for certain that someone will be with you forever prevents you enjoying the here and now. Nothing in life is certain.

## **3) Give the relationship room to breathe**

When you plant a seed in the ground, you need to give it access to sunlight, water, and air; you need to give it space to develop. Your relationship needs room to breathe. Schedule in some 'separate time' and just see it for what it is. The developing flower needing space to grow isn't a sign that it is heading for collapse.

## **4) Stop 'mind reading'**

Constantly wondering what your partner is thinking is a quick route to anxiety. If they say one thing don't assume they mean another. If they say nothing don't assume that their silence is significant, either.

Many men relax by not talking. Constantly wondering and asking what someone is thinking is a dead end because even if they do tell, will you believe them anyway?

'Mind reading' happens when we assume we know what someone is thinking when we don't. When you stop doing it, you really begin to respect someone's privacy because everyone deserves the right to have space to think their own thoughts. Constantly asking, "What are you thinking?" can make someone want to withdraw further.

#### **5) Stop comparing current relationships to past ones**

Have you ever taken an instant disliking/liking to someone merely because they reminded you of someone else who you disliked/liked? Some people do this with whole relationships. Because they were in a relationship with someone who was abusive, very critical or dishonest, or who left them, they respond to a new partner defensively or angrily when, in fact, the new partner is not really like the old one at all.

The extreme form of this 'sloppy comparison' can lead to destructive over-generalizations such as, "All men are lying bastards!" or "All women are promiscuous money grabbers!"

If you suspect you have been making faulty unfair comparisons between your current partner and a former one, then write a list of all the destructive traits of your former partner. Write next to this list all the ways your current partner is different and review this list regularly. This will help you to stop assuming that the future has to be like the past.

#### **6) For security: Seek self-assurance**

Rather than always looking to the other person to make you feel secure in your relationship, get into the habit of reassuring yourself. Start to challenge your own fears and imaginings rather than just accepting them.

Ask yourself: "Hold on a second. What real evidence is there for this fear?" At the same time you can focus on the thought: "Okay, nothing in this life is certain and I can live with that. And even if this relationship did end, I'm strong enough to go through it and ride it and will have learnt things from it." We all need to go with the flow in relationships. What we fear will be 'the end of the world' if it happens never really is.

Sit down, close your eyes, and strongly imagine feeling relaxed and secure around your partner. This will train your brain to feel that "whatever happens, I'll be okay." Or let me do this exercise for you by clicking on this free audio session below:

And finally...

#### **7) Focus on the good**

Relationships are meant to be fun (at least some of the time). Insecure people look for signs of what's not working. I want you to look for signs of what is.

Doing this will get you and your partner feeling naturally more positive.

No meaningful relationship will always totally work all the time. Being too black or white about relationships spells trouble. There are always some difficulties, but keep focussing on what is good.

This doesn't mean that you have to accept anyone who will accept you, even if they are obviously not right for you. But it does mean that if there are occasional problems, you don't have to 'throw the baby out with the bathwater' and become so destructive that the relationship ends or so clingy that your partner ends it for you.

Emma learned to relax and enjoy her relationship. She stopped feeling she had to control what her partner thought or did and her new laidback attitude made it easier for their love to genuinely blossom.

A good relationship is there for you to enjoy together, to share resources and develop together in healthy ways. If someone really does treat you badly or lies and cheats, then feeling insecure is a natural and justified response. However, if you're actually in a generally good relationship, then follow these tips because what you have is precious.

But possibly not as precious as the knowledge that whatever happens, you can relax because you'll be okay.

Overcoming Insecurity and Low Self Esteem

### **1.2.3 Personality Traits**

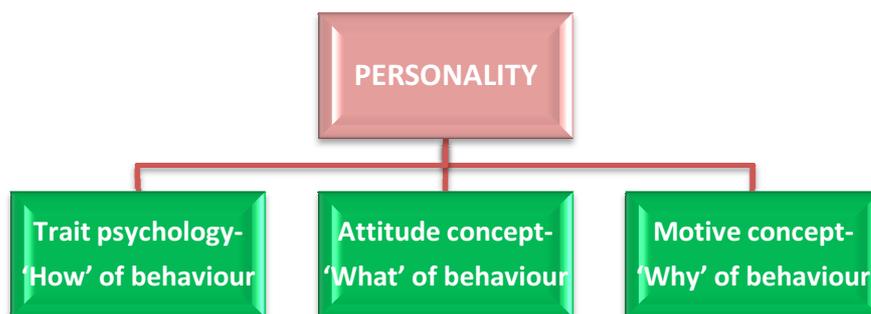
#### **1.2.3.1 What is Personality?**

The word personality is freely used by people in their conversations. But the speakers do not always have a clear idea of the term personality. Personality often means different thing to different people. When a Lyman says, Naman's has a good personality. It may mean Naman's physical appearance is good, or he dresses well, or he can easily impress other, or he has a strong character. Thus the speakers as well as the listener are vague about the meaning of personality. People may not know the exact meaning of the term personality and et they use the word frequently, because personality is something which interests each one of us. You want to know yourself. You want to under people with whom you deal. You want to develop insight in to the make up of the people who influence your culture. You want to enable your self to predict the behaviour of others and be more effective in the roles you are playing. All these require an insight in to your own personality and in to the personalities of others.

- **The scientific study of personality:**

The romantic notions of the word personality can not give such an insight. On the contrary such notions are misleading. What we therefore, needs is the scientific understanding of the term personality. Any scientific study involves precise definition of the term, systematic observations, careful analysis, objective and unbiased interpretation. Psychologists have tried to study personality along these lines. Let us now describe the various attempts made at the scientific study of personality.

- All personality psychologists are data collector.
- Data are collected facts, observation or numerical values.
- The three basic methods for examining issues related to personality assessment and research are:
  1. Case study method
  2. The experimental method
  3. The correlation method.



### **1.2.3.2 Definition of personality:**

Personality is a very abstract word and it has several aspects. Moreover, philosophical, theological, juristic, sociological and psychological meanings are also attached to the word personality. Because of this

personality has been defined in the several different ways. Each of these definitions shows a trend of thinking and emphasizes some aspect of personality. Before we arrived at a comprehensive definition let us go through some of the definitions.

*“It is the responses made by others to the individual stimulus that define his personality. In other words individual’s personality is what the others feel about him or what impression he creates on others”* — **M.A.May**

**N.L.Munn** defines *personality as the most characteristic integration of an individual’s structure, modes of behaviour, interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and aptitudes, especially when considered from the stand point of adjustment in social situations. This definitions emphasizes the way in which the individual adjustments himself to a given situation.*

*“Personality is the individual characteristic reaction to social stimuli and the quality of his adaptation to the social features of his environment.”* — **FloyedAllport**

These definitions are neither precise nor comprehensive. What are their limitations? May’s definitions considered the stimulus value of personality. Such definitions are not scientific because an individual has a different stimulus value for each of his fellow beings. Moreover, if we follow this definition, the personality of all individuals can not be measured because different people evaluate him in different ways, depending on the impressions they get of him. FloyedAllport’s definition combines stimulus value and responses. But the difficulty such S-R definitions are that they tend to emphasize superficial aspects of personality. The substance of personality or inner personality is left out.

Munn considers personality from the view point of responses. Here personality means everything that an individual does. Such definitions are too broad and are not precise enough to be used for a scientific study.

Gorden W Allport takes into consideration the intervening variables while defining personality. According to him, personality is the dynamic organization within the individuals of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.

This definition emphasizes all the important aspects of personality. A careful analysis of the definition would enable us to form a scientific conception of the term personality. Let us therefore examine each portion of the definition:

### **Dynamic Organization.**

Human personality is an organized system. Organization also implies disorganization. A disorganized personality is called abnormal. The organization is called because it is constantly changing and evolving. It is active organization. It is motivational and self regulating.

### **Psychological Systems.**

Psychological systems include habits, attitudes, sentiments and the other dispositions known as traits. Psychophysical also means that personality is both mental as well as neural.

### **Determine.**

Personality is not the same as behaviour or activity. It is what lies within the individuals. Personality is something and does something.

### **Unique.**

Every person adjusts himself to the situation in his own unique way.

## **Adjustment.**

Survival depends on adjustment and personality is a mode of survival. Adjustment may be to the physical world as well as to the imagined or ideal world. It involves mastery as well as passive adoption. Human adjustment is not merely reactive adoption, but it is spontaneous, creative behaviour towards the environment. Adjustment also implies maladjustment.

## **Environment.**

Environment is a broad term which includes geographical environment as well as the behavioral environment.

### **1.2.3.3 Theories of personality development:**

Early childhood experiences play a very crucial role in shaping the adult personality. There are various theories which explain the way in which adult personality is shaped.

#### **Erickson's Theory:**

According to Erikson, personality develops through eight stages. If these stages are successfully handled, positive learning takes place. If the individual does not come through them satisfactorily the result would be negative learning. Of course, these eight stages are by no means watertight compartments.

	<b>Stage</b>	<b>Positive</b>	<b>Negative</b>
1.	Early infancy	Trust	Mistrust
2.	Late infancy	Autonomy	Shame
3.	Early childhood	Initiative	Guilt
4.	Middle childhood	Competence	Inferiority
5.	Adolescence	Identity	Confusion
6.	Early adulthood	Intimacy	Isolation
7.	Middle adulthood	Generativity	Stagnation
8.	Late adulthood	Self acceptance	Despair

Erikson considered all these states as stages in self discovery. By passing through this stage the individual builds up a picture of himself. By the end of the adolescence, according to Erikson individual's personality is basically formed.

**Gorden W Allport's theory:**

According to Allport the individual is a number of persons at first. As a result of development he becomes one whole person. Thus co-ordination is the sign of a mature personality. When integration is reached the individual becomes an effective person in the community. The mature personality has the following qualities:

1. An extended sense of self: this enables the individual to go beyond the self-centredness of childhood.
2. A warm relationship with others: this enables him to love them for their own sakes.
3. Emotional security: This enables him to face the problems and fear of daily life.
4. Self insight: This enables him to laugh at himself without loss of self esteem.
5. A realistic orientation towards the world: This enables him to judge people and things to take necessary decisions.
6. A unifying philosophy of life: This enables him to interpret life's purpose, to set long-term goals and to involve standards of behaviour.

**Freud's Theory:**

Freud and other psychoanalysts have carried out extensive studies of the relation between childhood experiences and adult personality. A brief summary of their observations is given below.

According to the psychoanalyst the infant passes through several stages. In these stages he seeks pleasure through different mechanisms. Heredity and maturation play a greater role in this process, than does learning. The following are the stages of development.

- i. The infantile passive stage
- ii. The oral sucking stage
- iii. The oral sadistic stage
- iv. The anal stage
- v. The phallic phase
- vi. The latency phase
- vii. The genital phase

▪ **Personality style:**

We have seen how the individual develops a series of percepts and responses. These are not related. There is unity and internal consistency. Personalities develop according to a uniform pattern. At the same time personality has uniqueness of the individual's personality are not two opposite phenomena. A discussion of personal style will make this clear. Personal style includes perceptual styles and response styles.

▪ **Perceptual style:**

Each individual has his own way of perceiving. George Klein has observed that individual's develop characteristic ways of dealing with material presented to the sense. In other words, individual differences are found in way of perceiving.

- **Leveling and Sharpening:-**

The individual come across a particular object on several occasion. This sometimes results in stimulus generalization. So, when he perceives a similar object, he gives out the same response. This is called leveling. Levelers ignore change in the stimulus. They don't notice the difference.

On the other hand there are individuals who notice difference. They are quick to perceive change in the stimulus. They become aware of the fine nuances of an object. There are called sharpeners.

- **Intolerance of instability and ambiguity: -**

Klein has also found that some individuals fail to perceive motion. He calls this resistance to instability Frenkel-Brunswik found two types of perceptual styles among the subjects of the study. Some of them perceived people as all good or all bad they were intolerant of ambiguity.

- **Field analytical and field dependent:-**

The gestalt psychologist found that some individual are more analytical in their perceiving while the others are more synthetic the field analytical style of perceiving notice the figure and tends to ignore the ground. Fields dependent perceiving is colored by the back-ground.

- **Response style:-**

Studies of personality show evidence of certain kinds of response consistence. Some response style are simple while the others are complex let us discuss different types of response style.

- **Stability and labile of movement:-**

Some individuals are the stable types and give precise and regular responses. While the others are labile type whose responses show variations in type and strength?

- **Discharge types:-**

Different individuals may give out the same response but they differ in the manner of responding. Their models of expression may be different.

**Freeman** describes the following four discharge style:

- 1) **Active motor discharge type:** some individual's behavior has remarkable use of muscles. Such people act with relatively little thought or verbalization.
- 2) **Vocal-Discharge type:** in this type of response language is used as mechanism. The individual talk much, which sometimes helps adjustment.
- 3) **Somatic discharge type:** This type of response is closely related to the bodily system. If the individual is tense it affects his stomach, heart and blood-circulating. It is in this sense that people say worry is a cause of ulcer.
- 4) **Ideomotor discharge type:** The main characteristic of this type of response is fantasy and day-dreaming.

- **Variations in tension level:-**

This response style is similar to Freeman's somatic discharge type. Some individuals remain generally relaxed when they have to act. They gather quick energy, respond and calm down again.

- **Graphic response style:-**

Studies carried out by Allport and Veron reveal three factors of response style. Some people make expensive gestures. Their movements occupy a large space. This is called Aerial group factor. The second factor is centrifugal factor. Individuals having this response style make movements toward or away from the body.

▪ **Temps in response style:-**

Some individuals show speed in response. Their responses are quick and impulsive while the others are slow and cautious in their responses. Their response pattern is inhibited.

▪ **Complex response style: -**

So far we have discussed response style from the view point of variability, expensiveness and tempo. There are simple elements. The individual may have a characteristic way of relating to his environment and to other people.

▪ **Conformist response style: -**

Some individuals have a tendency to agree with statements and persons this is called conformity. It is found that some individuals readily say yes or accept suggestions made to them.

▪ **Deviant response style: -**

Some individuals have a tendency to depart from the set pattern. Their responses are a typical or deviant.

● **Personality theories: A brief introduction.**

Psychoanalytical Theories : Sigmund Freud, C.G.Jung, Alfred Adler.

Neo-analytic Theories : Karen Horney, Murry, Erich Fromm.

Humanistic Theories : Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, Gardner Murfy.

Nomothetic Theories : H.J.Eysenck, R.B.Cattell, Superman, G.W. Allport.

Organismic Theories : Kurt Goldstine, William Sheldon.

Field theories: : Harry Sullivan, Curt Lewin.

S-R Theories: : Dollard and Miller.

We have discussed the process of personality development and the factor which influence this process. We will not try to understand what actually

goes on in the mental life of the individual while his personality is being formed. Various theories have been advanced to explain this. These theories can be grouped under the following heads: Psychoanalytical theories, Neo analytical theories, Humanistic theories, nomothetic theories, Organismic theories, Field theories and S-R theories.

#### **1.2.3.4 Psychoanalytical Theories:**

##### **Sigmund Freud:-**

Freud is considered to be the founding father of psychoanalysis. He tried to understand the process of personality development by exploring the unconscious as well as the conscious mind. He pointed out that the unconscious is very powerful and it determines most of human behaviour. While studying nervous disorders in some patients he discovered that human behaviour as a source much deeper than the conscious mind. It is this source which provides the motivational energy for all mental activity.

In 1922, Freud proposed a new division of mind into three systems: the id, the ego and the super ego.

##### **The Id:**

This is the amount of mental energy which the child inherits. At birth the mind consist only of the id. The id is in the form of irrational drives. It's only of is to satisfy the basic, animalistic needs. The child is, therefore, more of an animal and less of a person.

The id consists of instincts. These instincts fall into two groups: Eros instincts and Thanatos instincts, the Eros instincts are the drives directed towards self preservation (fight, hunger etc.) and towards preservation of the species (the sex drive). The thanaton instincts are the death wish. They take the form of aggression which may be directed outside towards others or inside towards the self.

### **The Ego:**

In course of time, part of the id being to learn to be rational. This part separates itself from the rest of the id. It is called the ego. With the emergence of ego, the socialization of the child beings. This happens from the second year of life. We have seen how the id obeys the pleasure principle. The ego functions according to the reality principle. The ego processes are called secondary processes. When the id allows surplus energy to the ego the result is pursuit. But the id always remains ready to stop the supply of energy to the ego and to re-assert itself.

### **The Super Ego:**

When the child reaches the age of about six, part of the ego separates itself and forms the super ego. The ego learns about reality from the other people. It receives the moral view of the adults. These views are sometimes based on wrong beliefs and prejudice of the adults. Therefore the ego can not accept them. A part of the ego breaks away to deal with this kind of situation and it is called super-ego. The individual obeys the super-ego and strives towards the ideal self.

### **C.G.Jung:-**

Freud put a great emphasis on man's basic, animalistic drives. He considered these drives to be the only innate motivating force behind human behaviour, Jung accepts the existence of these drives but he explains that over and above his animalistic urges. Man is motivated by a drive towards self-discovery. The person explores his own unconscious through thoughts, dreams and memories and come to know more about him self. Personality is whole at birth, and breaks into conflicting systems only in the face of adverse experiences. Self discovery is only a search for the wholeness with which we are born. When the person finds this wholeness with which we are born, he becomes individuated. The individuated man has all the qualities of a mature personality.

### **Alfred Adler:-**

Adler's theory has several common points with that of Jung, but he puts more stress upon the extraverted side of man. Man is motivated, over and above his basic needs and his self discovery drive, by social drives. He has a great desire to interact with another people. He learns from other people how to understand and control himself. Man has a creative self at birth. This enables him to understand the world, and to seek new experiences and to create a life style from these experiences. The person's life style determines his reactions to the reality. Life style contains complexes. Complexes are associations of ideas and feelings that the person has about people and things.

### **Non-analytic Theories:**

#### **Karen Horney:-**

Horney was dissatisfied with orthodox psychoanalysis. She accepted the framework of Freudian theory but departed from it on several point.

She does not accept Freud's concept of penis envy as the determining factor in the psychology of women. Conflict in a woman is not the result of her jealousy of the male. According to Horney, feminine psychology is based on lack of confidence and an overemphasis of the love relationship. Oedipus complex is not a sexual-aggressive conflict between the child and its parents, but an anxiety growing out of rejection, overprotection and punishment. Narcissism is not really self-love but self-inflation and over evaluation owing to feeling of insecurity.

#### **Murry:-**

Murray's views on the nature of personality have been influenced by psychoanalytic theory. He defines personality as the governing organ of the body; and institution, which from birth to death, is ceaselessly

engaged in transformative functional operations. Murry also describes the id as the repository of primitive impulses; but he also insists that the id includes impulses which are acceptable to the self and society. Thus the id is not wholly wicked and asocial. In the same way the ego is not entirely an inhibitor and repressor. The super ego is an internalized sub-system which acts within the individual to regulate his behaviour. Parent's authority figures, peer groups, and literary and mythological figures are the sources which influence the super ego. Murry also mentions the ego-ideal which consist of an idealized picture of the self.

### **Erich Fromm:**

According to Fromm the basic conditions of man's existence has two aspects: the animal aspects and the human aspects. As animal, man has certain psychological needs which must be satisfied. As a human being, he possesses reason, self, awareness, and imagination. The understanding of man's psyche must be based on the analysis of men's need stemming from the conditions of his existence.

### **Humanistic Theory:**

Humanistic theory of personality has several points of similarities that humanistic theories study man as a person.

### **Abraham Maslow:**

Maslow is considered to be the founder of humanistic psychology. Maslow insists that man should be studied as a person. This means that man is motivated by a number of things over and above the instinctive need proposed by Freud or the needs towards self-discovery or towards social relationships of Jung and Adler. According to Maslow the psychoanalyst miss the essential diversity of man. He stressed the fact that all men are different. The psychologist can suggest only 8 general

framework of motivation, within which each personality will find its own place. Maslow's framework is in the form of a hierarchy is as under:

1. Psychological needs : Food, Sex, Shelter.
2. Safety needs : Protection from neglect
3. Social needs : Social acceptance
4. Ego needs : Self esteem, Status
5. Self-fulfillment needs : Insight, Creativity

**Carl Rogers:**

Rogers does not give much importance to what actually happens in the individual's environment. To him it is more important to more what the individual thinks is happening. Because of this view Rogers is called phenomenologist. According to him each personality is unique and moreover each one of us lives in a unique world. This world is subjective, and is called the individual's phenomenon field. This field has conscious and unconscious factors. The conscious mind deals with experience which can be symbolized and talked about. The unconscious mind deals with those experiences which can not symbolized. When the symbolization is incorrect personality is threatened to Rogers if the person possesses a large number of incorrect symbolizations, he is out of congruence.

**Gardner Murphy:**

According to Murphy, personality is the product of a bipolar process. One pole lies within the body while the other pole is in the outer world. He calls his theory of personality a biosocial approach. The basis of his approach is the field theory.

Murphy mentions the following basic components of personality:

1. Physiological Dispositions.
2. Canalizations.
3. Conditioned Responses
4. Cognitive and Perceptual habits.

**Nomothetic Theories of personality:**

Nomothetic theories try to describe what personality is like. Therefore they are also called descriptive theories.

**H.J.Eysenck:**

Eysenck recognizes two main personality dimensions. These are extraversion-introversion and neuroticism-stability.

Extraversion-introversion: the extravert is a person who is oriented consciously towards the outer world. He easily makes friends. He is fond of physically activities. The introvert is inclined towards inner states of mind. he likes intellectual activities.

Neuroticism-stability: Neuroticism means a proneness to excessive anxiety; stability indicates a relative freedom from anxiety.

**R.B.Cattell:**

Eysenck was criticized for over simplification. Cattell has escaped this criticism he used factor-analysis and revealed the existence of more than two or three dimensions. These fourteen dimensions re as under:

**Factor**

- |                     |   |                  |
|---------------------|---|------------------|
| A Sociable          | - | Reserve          |
| B High intelligence | - | Low intelligence |
| C Stability         | - | Instability      |
| D Excitability      | - | Phlegmatism      |

E Dominance	-	Submissiveness
F Exuberance	-	Sobriety
G Strong superego	-	Weak superego
H Venturesome ness	-	Shyness
I Sensitivity	-	Toughness
J Individuality	-	Group involvement
Q Guilt Proneness	-	Confidence
Q2Self sufficiency	-	Group involvement
Q3Controlled	-	Uncontrolled
Q4Tense	-	Relaxed

**Spearman:**

Spearman introduced the ideal of factor analysis. His main work was in the field of mental abilities. According to him, in any two related test of ability we find two types of factor. First there is a general factor (verbal fluency, general intelligence, Educational level). Second, there is a specific factor (visual memory, spatial perception, specific information). The purpose of factor analysis was to identify general factor.

**G.W.Allport:**

In Allport's definition of personality, we discussed how we consider personality to be dynamic organization. He describes personality in term of traits. Apart from trait he also uses the concepts of conditioned reflex, Habit, attitude, character, temperament and self to describe human behavior. Trait is a generalized and focalized neuropsychec system (peculiar to the individual), with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to initiate and guide consistent forms of

adapted and expressive behavior. Allport makes distinction between individual and common traits.

Character is an ethical concept. Allport describes character as personality evaluated while personality as character devaluated.

Temperament refers to those dispositions that are closely linked to biological or physiological determinants, and which are relatively less modifiable.

### **Organismic Theories:**

Kurt Goldstein's theory is commonly known as Organismic theory. He studied figure-ground relationships in perception. According to him, the primary organization of Organismic functioning is that of figure and ground. A figure is any process that emerges and stands out against a background. It is anything that occupies the centre of attentive awareness. The background not only surrounds the figure but also extends behind it.

According to Goldstein, there are three different kinds of behavior:

**Performances:** These are voluntary, consciously experienced activities.

**Attitudes:** These are feelings, moods and other inner experiences.

**Processes:** These are bodily functions that can be experienced only indirectly.

### **William Sheldon:-**

Sheldon has emphasizes the physical structure of the body as a primary determinant of behaviour. There are three basic types of body-build. Endomorph, Ectomorph, Mesomorph, Each body-build has corresponding personality trait.

Sheldon has also examined the dimensions of temperament. He gives the following components of temperament.

- (1) Viscerotonia,
- (2) Somatotonia and
- (3) Cerebrotonia.

Regarding the development of the individual, Sheldon's main view is that the person is endowed with potentials that set limits upon and mould the possibilities for future growth.

### **Field Theories of Personality:**

Field theories of personality place the individual within a social field. This field contains forces and pressures that pull his personality.

### **Harry Sullivan:**

Sullivan developed one of the earliest field theories. According to him, whenever the child's social environment is changed he experiences a malevolent transformation. This is because he finds himself among people with different forms of behavior and values. The child has to develop new areas of personality to cope with this changed environment. Malevolent transformations are chief causes of anxiety. They also cause personality disturbances.

### **Curt Lewin:-**

It was Curt Lewin who coined the term field theory. Lewin's theory can be described in terms of three layers. The innermost layer and the second layer represent the person (P). The outer layer represents the immediate aspects of the environment (E). The innermost layer is the individual's inner world of thoughts and fantasies. The second layer consists of perceptual and motor faculties with which he makes contact with his external environment. All the space outside represents the foreign hull. Together the three layers are called the person's life space.

The person's psychological problems arise largely from his inability to loco mote easily between the regions. Psychological problems are also caused by the conflicts which arise between the regions.

### **S-R Theories of Personality:**

These theories are associates with behaviorism. Behaviorism claims to be more objective and scientific than Psychoanalysis and Humanistic psychology. Nobody can observe the unconscious at work. Behaviorism, therefore studies the person's behaviour under controlled conditions. Units of behaviour are called responses. Responses consist partly of innate reflexes, but mostly of learnt reactions. Because of this stress on learning, this theory is also called learning theory. Learning theory has two main sub divisions, Classical conditioning and Operant conditioning.

### **Dollard and Miller:-**

Dollard and Miller have emphasized learning and the process of development. They explained personality in terms of drive innate equipment, learning process, social context, and conflict.

**Drive:** - A drive is a stimulus which is strong enough to cause an activity. Drives are of two kinds: (1) primary drives: These are internal stimuli like pain, hunger, thrust and sex. (2) Secondary drives: these are derived or acquired drives.

**Innate equipment:** The child is born with a limited number of specific reflexes. Secondary, he possesses a number of innate hierarchies of responses. This explains reasons preferences on the part of the child.

**The learning Process:** There are four important concepts to understand the learning process:

(a) Drive

- (b) Cue
- (c) Response
- (d) Reinforcement
- (e) The social Context
- (f) Stages of development.

### **1.2.3.5 INTERPRETATION OF THE PRIMARY FACTORS**

Predictions of scores on various criteria and assignment of individuals to various diagnostic clinical groups, can be carried out actuarially, by computation from standard scores, using methods discussed in detail in the *Handbook* and elsewhere. Where no correlations with criteria are known, knowledge of the psychological nature of the factors must guide initial prediction until empirical studies can be done in a particular situation. Moreover, even where correlational, actuarial evidence about a certain criterion is available, it is desirable to add psychological judgment to immediate statistical computations to allow for changes of personality with learning, maturation, etc., or for anticipated changes in life situation.

Each of the primary factors measured by the 16 PF has an alphabetic designation (A through Q4), a technical title (which is given in parentheses in the following descriptions), and a brief, less technical title (given here in boldface), which the practitioner will most commonly use.

The definitions and interpretations of the factors, as given below, are short, non-technical, and, of course, less exact than the more intensive discussions available in the *Handbook* and elsewhere (see *Handbook* References and the list of supplementary references given in Section 8 of this *Manual*). Furthermore, the large number of profiles given in the *Handbook* for well-defined occupational and clinical groups provides

the psychologist with additional insights into the meaning and operation of the factors.

❖ **Capsule Descriptions of the Sixteen Primary Personality Factor**

**FACTOR A**

***Reserved, Detached, Critical, Cool***

**(Sizothymia)**

The person who scores low (sten of 1 to 3) on Factor\*A tends to be stiff, cool, skeptical, and aloof. He likes things rather than people, working alone, and avoiding compromises of viewpoints. He is likely to be precise and "rigid" in his way of doing things and in personal standards, and in many occupations these are desirable traits. He may tend, at times, to be critical, obstructive, or hard.

***Warmhearted, Participating***

**(Affectothymia)**

The person who scores high (sten of 8 to 10) on Factor A tends to be goodnatured, easy-going, emotionally expressive (hence naturally Affectothymia), ready to cooperate, attentive to people, softhearted, kindly, adaptable. He likes occupations dealing with people and socially impressive situations. He readily forms active groups. He is generous in personal relations, less afraid of criticism, better able to remember names of people.

**FACTOR -B**

***Less Intelligent, Concrete-thinking***

**(Lower scholastic mental capacity)**

The person scoring low on Factor B tends to be slow to learn and grasp, dull, given to concrete and literal interpretation. His dullness may be

simply a reflection of low intelligence, or it may represent poor functioning due to psycho pathology.

**More Intelligent, Abstract-thinking,**

**Bright**

**(Higher scholastic mental capacity)**

The person who scores high on Factor B tends to be quick to grasp ideas, a fast learner, intelligent. There is some correlation with level of culture, and some with alertness. High scores contraindicate deterioration of mental functions in pathological conditions.

### **FACTOR C**

*Affected By Feelings, Emotionally Less vs.*

**Stable, Easily Upset**

**(Lower ego strength)**

The person who scores low on Factor C tends to be low in frustration tolerance for unsatisfactory conditions, changeable and plastic, evading necessary reality i demands, neurotically fatigued, fretful, easily emotional and annoyed, active in dissatisfaction, having neurotic symptoms (phobias, sleep disturbances, psychosomatic complaints, etc.). Low Factor C score is common to almost all forms of neurotic and some psychotic disorders.

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Factor C score is common to almost all forms of neurotic and some psychotic disorders.

***Emotionally Stable, Faces Reality, Calm, Mature***

**(Higher ego strength)**

The person who scores high on Factor C tends to be emotionally mature, stable, realistic about life, unruffled, possessing ego strength, better able to maintain solid group morale. Sometimes he may be a person making a resigned adjustment to unsolved emotional problems..

Shrewd clinical observers have pointed out that a good C level sometimes enables a person to achieve effective adjustment despite an underlying psychotic potential.

**FACTOR E**

***Humble, Mild, Accommodating, Conforming (Submissiveness)***

The person who scores low on Factor E tends to give way to others, to be docile, and to conform. He is often dependent, confessing, anxious for obsessional correctness. This passivity is part of many neurotic syndromes.

**vs.**

***Assertive, Independent, Aggressive, Competitive, Stubborn (Dominance)***

The person who scores high on Factor E is assertive, self-assured, and independent-minded. He tends to be austere, a law to himself, hostile or extrapunitive, authoritarian (managing others), and disregards authority.

## FACTOR F

### ***Sober, Prudent, Serious, Taciturn (Des urgency)***

The person who scores low on Factor F tends to be restrained, reticent, introspective. He is sometimes dour, pessimistic, unduly deliberate, and considered smug and primly correct by observers. He tends to be a sober, dependable person.

The person who scores low on Factor F tends to be restrained, reticent, introspective. He is sometimes dour, pessimistic, unduly deliberate, and considered smug and primly correct by observers. He tends to be a sober, dependable person.

### ***vs. Happy-go-lucky, Impulsively Lively, Enthusiastic***

#### **(Surgency)**

The person who scores high on this trait tends to be cheerful, active, talkative, frank, expressive, effervescent, carefree. He is frequently chosen as an elected leader. He may be impulsive and mercurial.

## FACTOR-G

***Expedient, Evades Rules, Feels Few Obligations (Weaker superego strength)*** The person who scores low on Factor G tends to be unsteady in purpose. He is often casual and lacking in effort for group undertakings and cultural demands. His freedom from group influence may lead to anti-social acts, but at times makes him more effective, while his refusal to be bound by rules .causes him to have less somatic upset from stress.

### ***Conscientious, Persevering, Staid, Rule- bound***

#### **(Stronger superego strength)**

The person who scores high on Factor G tends to be exacting in character, dominated by sense of duty, persevering, responsible, planful, "fills the

unforgiving minute." He is usually conscientious and moralistic, and he prefers hard-work- ing people to witty companions. The inner "categorical imperative" of this essential superego (in the psychoanalytic sense) should be distinguished from the superficially similar "social ideal self" of Q.+.

## **FACTOR-H**

### **Shy, Restrained, Diffident, Timid (Threctia)**

The person who scores low on this trait tends to be shy, withdrawing, cautious, retiring, a "wallflower." He usually has inferiority feelings. He tends to be slow and impeded in speech and in expressing himself, dislikes occupations with personal contacts, prefers one or two close friends to large groups, and is not given to keeping in contact with all that is going on around him.

### **Venturesome, Socially-bold, Uninhibited, Spontaneous (Parmia)**

The person who scores high on Factor H is sociable, bold, ready to try new things, spontaneous, and abundant in emotional response. His "thick-skinned- ness" enables him to face wear and tear in dealing with people and grueling emotional situations, without fatigue. However, he can be careless of detail, ignore danger signals, and consume much time talking. He tends to be "pushy" and actively interested in the opposite sex.

## **FACTOR I**

### **Tough-minded, Self-reliant, Realistic,**

### **Sensitive**

### **(Harria)**

The person who scores low on Factor I The person who scores high on Fac"

tends to be practical, realistic, masculine, independent, responsible, but skeptical of subjective, cultural elaborations. He is sometimes unmoved, hard, cynical, smug. He tends to keep a group operating on a practical and realistic "no-nonsense" basis.

**Tender- Minded, Dependent, Over protected, Sensitive (Premia)**

he person who scores high on Fac "tends to be practical, realistic, masculine, independent, responsible, but skeptical of subjective, cultural elaborations. He is sometimes unmoved, hard, cynical, smug. He tends to keep a group operating on a practical and realistic "no-nonsense" basis.

I tends to be tender-minded, day-dreaming, artistic, fastidious, feminine. He sometimes demanding of attention and help, impatient, dependent, impractical. He dislikes crude people and rough occupations. He tends to slow up group performance, and to upset group morale by unrealistic fussiness.

**FACTOR L**

***Trusting, Adaptable, Free of Jealousy, Easy to Get on With (Alaxia)***

The person who scores low on Factor L tends to be free of jealous tendencies, adaptable, cheerful, un-competitive, concerned about other people, a good team worker.

***vs. Suspicious, Self-opinionated, Hard to Fool (Protension)***

The person who scores high on Factor L tends to be mistrusting and doubtful, He is often involved in his own ego, is self-opinionated, and interested in internal, mental life. He is usually deliberate in his actions, unconcerned about other people, a poor team member.

N.B. This factor is *not* necessarily paranoia. In fact, the data on paranoid schizophrenics are not clear as to typical Factor L value to be expected.

## FACTOR M

### ***Practical, Careful, Conventional, Regulated by External Realities, Proper (Praxernia)***

The person who scores low on Factor M tends to be anxious to do the right things, attentive to practical matters, and subject to the dictation of what is obviously possible. He is concerned over detail, able to keep his head in emergencies, but sometimes unimaginative.

### ***Imaginative, Wrapped up in Inner Urgencies, Careless of Practical Matters, Absent-minded (Autia)***

The person who scores high on Factor M tends to be unconventional, unconcerned over everyday matters, Bohemian, self-motivated, imaginatively creative, concerned with "essentials," and oblivious of particular people and physical realities. His inner-directed interests sometimes lead to unrealistic situations accompanied by expressive outbursts. His individuality tends to cause him to be rejected in group activities.

## FACTOR N

### ***Forthright, Natural, Artless, Sentimental (Artlessness)***

The person who scores low on Factor N tends to be unsophisticated, sentimental, and simple. He is sometimes crude and awkward, but easily pleased and content with what comes, and is natural and spontaneous.

### ***Shrewd, Calculating, Worldly, Penetrating (Shrewdness)***

The person who scores high on Factor N tends to be polished, experienced, worldly, shrewd. He is often hardheaded and analytical. He has an intellectual, unsentimental approach to situations, an approach akin to cynicism.

## FACTOR O

### ***Placid, Self-assured, Confident, Serene vs (Untroubled adequacy)***

The person who scores low on Factor O tends to be placid, with unshakable nerve. He has a mature, unanxious confidence in himself and his capacity to deal with things. He is resilient and secure, but to the point of being insensitive of when a group is not going along with him, so that he may evoke antipathies and distrust.

### ***Apprehensive, Worrying, Depressive, Troubled (Guilt proneness)***

The person who scores high on Factor O tends to be depressed, moody, a worrier, full of foreboding, and brooding. He has a childlike tendency to anxiety in difficulties. He does not feel accepted in groups or free to participate. High Factor O score is very common in clinical groups of all types (see *Handbook*).

## FACTOR Q<sub>1</sub>

### ***Conservative, Respecting Established Ideas, Tolerant of Traditional Difficulties (Conservatism)***

The person who scores low on Factor Q<sub>1</sub> is confident in what he has been taught to believe, and accepts the "tried and true," despite inconsistencies, when something else might be better. He is cautious and compromising in regard to new ideas. Thus, he tends to oppose and postpone change, is inclined to go along with tradition, is more conservative in religion and politics, and tends not to be interested in analytical "intellectual" thought.

### ***vs. Experimenting, Critical, Liberal, Analytical, Free-thinking (Radicalism)***

The person who scores high on Factor Q<sub>1</sub> tends to be interested in intellectual matters and has doubts on fundamental issues. He is skeptical

and inquiring regarding ideas, either old or new. He tends to be more well informed, less inclined to moralize, more inclined to experiment in life generally, and more tolerant of inconvenience and change.

***Forthright, Natural, Artless, Sentimental (Artlessness)***

The person who scores low on Factor N tends to be unsophisticated, sentimental, and simple. He is sometimes crude and awkward, but easily pleased and content with what comes, and is natural and spontaneous.

**FACTOR Q<sub>2</sub>**

***Conservative, Respecting Established Ideas, Tolerant of Traditional Difficulties (Conservatism)***

The person who scores low on Factor Q<sub>1</sub> is confident in what he has been taught to believe, and accepts the "tried and true," despite inconsistencies, when something else might be better. He is cautious and compromising in regard to new ideas. Thus, he tends to oppose and postpone change, is inclined to go along with tradition, is more conservative in religion and politics, and tends not to be interested in analytical "intellectual" thought.

***vs. Experimenting, Critical, Liberal, Analytical, Free-thinking (Radicalism)***

The person who scores high on Factor Q<sub>1</sub> tends to be interested in intellectual matters and has doubts on fundamental issues. He is skeptical and inquiring regarding ideas, either old or new. He tends to be more well informed, less inclined to moralize, more inclined to experiment in life generally, and more tolerant of inconvenience and change.

The person who scores high on Factor Q<sub>2</sub>, is temperamentally independent, accustomed to going his own way, making decisions and taking action on his own. He discounts public opinion, but is no

necessarily dominant in his relations with others (see Factor E). He does not dislike people but simply does not need their agreement or support.

### **FACTOR Q<sub>3</sub>**

***Undisciplined Self-conflict, Careless vs of Protocol, Follows Own Urges (Low integration)***

The person who scores low on Factor Q<sub>3</sub> will not be bothered with will control and regard for social demands. He is not overly considerate, careful, or painstaking. He may feel maladjusted, and many maladjustments (especially the affective, but not the paranoid) show

***Controlled, Socially precise, Following Self-image (High self-concept control)***

The person who scores high on Factor Q<sub>3</sub> tends to have strong control of his emotions and general behavior, is inclined to be socially aware and careful, and evidences what is commonly termed "self-respect" and regard for social reputation. He sometimes tends, however, to be obstinate. Effective leaders, and some paranoids, are high on Q<sub>3</sub>.

### **FACTOR Q<sub>4</sub>**

***Relaxed, Tranquil, Torpid, Unfrustrated***

***(Low ergic tension)***

The person who scores low on Factor Q<sub>4</sub> tends to be sedate, relaxed, composed, and satisfied (not frustrated). In some situations, his oversatisfaction can lead to laziness and low performance, in the sense that low motivation produces little trial and error. Conversely, high tension level may disrupt school and work performance.

***Tense, Frustrated, Driven, Overwrought (High ergic tension)***

The person who scores high on Factor Q<sub>1</sub> tends to be tense, excitable, restless, fretful, impatient. He is often fatigued but unable to remain inactive. In group he takes a poor view of the degree of unity, orderliness, and leadership. His frustration represents an excess of stimulated, but undischarged, drive.