Chapter 1

Personality Defined

“Personality is the Set of Psychological Traits… And Mechanisms… Within the Individual… That Are Organized and Relatively Enduring… And that Influence… His or Her Interactions with… and Adaptations to… the Environment.”

Three Levels of Personality Analysis

Human Nature

- How we are “like all others”
- Traits and mechanisms of personality that are typical of our species and possessed by nearly everyone

Individual and Group Differences

- How we are “like some others”
- Individual differences refer to ways in which each person is like some other people (e.g., extraverts, sensations-seekers, high self-esteem persons)
- Group differences refer to ways in which the people of one group differ from people in another group (e.g., cultural differences, age differences)

Individual Uniqueness

- How we are “like no others”
- Individual uniqueness refers to the fact that every individual has personal and unique qualities not shared by any other person in the world
- Individuals can be studied nomothetically or ideographically
  - Nomothetic research involves statistical comparisons of individuals or groups, requiring samples of participants in which to conduct research; applied to identify and learn more about universal human characteristics or dimensions of individual or group differences
  - Ideographic research focuses on a single person, trying to observe general principles that are manifest in a single life over time; often results in case studies or psychological biography of a single person

A Fissure in the Field

- Gap within personality psychology has not yet been successfully bridged—the gap between the human nature level of analysis, and the analysis of individual and group differences
- This translates into a gap between grand theories of personality (human nature level of analysis) and contemporary research in personality (individual and group differences level of analysis)

Grand Historical Theories of Personality

- Attempt to provide universal account of the fundamental psychological processes and characteristics of our species
- Statements about the universal core of human nature lie at the center of grand theories of personality, such as Sigmund Freud’s psychoanalytic theory
Contemporary Research in Personality

- Most current personality research addresses ways in which individuals and groups differ, not human universals.
- Personality psychologists specialize in a particular domain, such as biological aspects of personality or how culture impacts personality.

Bridging the Fissure: The Notion of Domains of Knowledge

- One way to make sense of the vast amount of research in many different areas of personality is to appreciate that this research occurs along several key domains of knowledge.
- Domain of knowledge is a specialty area of science and scholarship, where psychologists have focused on learning about specific and limited aspects of human nature.
- This specialization is reasonable, but we must strive to integrate diverse domains of knowledge to get the “big picture” of personality.

Six Domains of Knowledge About Human Nature

Dispositional Domain

- Deals with ways in which individuals differ from one another and, therefore, cuts across all other domains.
- Focus on number and nature of fundamental dispositions.
- Goal of those working in this domain is to identify and measure the most important ways in which individuals differ from one another.
- Also interested in the origin of individual differences and how these develop over time.

Biological Domain

- Core assumption of biological approaches to personality is that humans are collections of biological systems, and these systems provide building blocks for behavior, thought, and emotion.
- Behavioral genetics of personality.
- Psychophysiology of personality.
- Evolutionary personality psychology.

Intrapsychic Domain

- Deals with mental mechanisms of personality, many of which operate outside conscious awareness.
- Classic and modern versions of Freud’s theory of psychoanalysis, including work on repression, denial, projection, and motives for power, achievement, and affiliation.

Cognitive-Experiential Domain

- Focuses on cognition and subjective experience, such as conscious thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and desires about oneself and others.
  - Self and self-concept.
  - Goals we set and strive to meet.
  - Emotional experiences, in general and over time.

Social and Cultural Domain

- Assumption that personality affects, and is affected by, cultural and social contexts.
- Much work on cultural differences between groups (e.g., in social acceptability of aggression).
- Also much work on individual differences within cultures—how personality plays out in the social sphere, including work on sex differences and gender differences in personality processes, traits, and mechanisms.
- At human nature level of analysis, all humans have common set of concerns they struggle with in the social sphere.
Adjustment Domain

- Personality plays key role in how we cope, adapt, and adjust to events in daily life
- Personality linked with important health outcomes and problems in coping and adjustment

Summary and Evaluation

- Personality research is often informed by personality theory
- Theory has several key purposes
  - Serves as a guide for researchers
  - Organizes known findings
  - Makes predictions about behavior and psychological phenomena that not one has yet documented or observed
- Scientific theories need to be distinguished from beliefs
  - Beliefs are based on leaps of faith, not on reliable facts and systematic observations, whereas theories are based on systematic observations that can be repeated by others to yield similar conclusions

Chapter 2

Sources of Personality Data

Self-Report Data (S-Data)
- Information provided by a person, such as through a survey or interview
- Individuals have access to a wealth of information about themselves that is inaccessible to anyone else
- S-data personality tests
  - Unstructured items—open-ended
  - Structured items—response options provided
- Limitations of S-data
  - People may not respond honestly
  - People may lack accurate self-knowledge

Observer-Report Data (O-Data)
- Information provided by someone else about another person
- Key features of O-data
  - Provide access to information not attainable through other sources
  - Multiple observers can be used to assess a person
- Selecting observers
  - Professional personality assessors
  - People who actually know the target person
    - Often in better position to observe target’s natural behaviors than professional personality assessors
    - Allows for assessment of multiple social personalities
    - Because of relationship to target, however, observer may be biased
- Naturalistic versus artificial observation
  - Naturalistic observation: Observers witness and record events that occur in the normal course of lives of the participants
  - Artificial observation: Occurs in artificial settings or situations
  - Naturalistic observation has the advantage of being able to secure information in realistic context, but at the cost of not being able to control events witnessed
  - Artificial observation has the advantage of controlling conditions and eliciting relevant behavior, but at the cost of sacrificing realism
Test-Data (T-Data)

- Information provided by standardized tests or testing situations
- Idea is to see if different people behave differently in identical situations
- Situation designed to elicit behaviors that serve as indicators of personality
- Elicited behavior “scored” without reliance on inference

Limitations

- Participants might try to guess what trait is being measured and then alter their behavior to create certain impressions
- Difficult to know if participants define testing situation as intended by experimenter
- Researcher might influence how participants behave

Mechanical recording devices

- “Actometer” used to assess children’s activity

Strengths

- Not hampered by biases of human observer
- May be used in naturalistic settings
- Disadvantage: few personality dispositions lend themselves to mechanical assessment

Physiological data

- Includes information about a person’s level of arousal, reactivity to stimuli—potential indicators of personality
- Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI)
- Key benefit is that it is difficult to fake responses
- Disadvantages
  - Often used in artificial laboratory setting
  - Accuracy of recording hinges on whether participant perceives situation as experimenter intended

Projective Techniques

- Person presented with ambiguous stimuli and asked to describe what she sees; assumption is that person “projects” personality onto ambiguous stimuli
- Strengths: May provide useful means for gathering information about wishes, desires, fantasies that a person is not aware of and could not report
- Disadvantages: Difficult to score, uncertain validity, and reliability

Life-Outcome Data (L-Data)

- Information that can be gleaned from events, activities, and outcomes in a person’s life that is available for public scrutiny—e.g., marriage, speeding tickets
- Can serve as important source of “real life” information about personality

Issues in Personality Assessment

- Links among different data sources—when they do and do not exist and how to interpret these linkages
- Fallibility of personality measurement
  - All sources of data have limitations
  - Results that replicate through “triangulation” (across different data sources) are most powerful

Evaluation of Personality Measures

Reliability

- Degree to which measure represents “true” level of trait being measured
- Types of reliability
  - Test-retest reliability: scores at one administration positively correlate with scores at second administration
• Inter-rater reliability: applicable only to observer-based personality measures; ratings provided by one observer correlate with ratings provided by another observer
• Internal consistency reliability: items within test positively correlate

Validity
• Degree to which test measures what it claims to measure
• Types of validity
  • Face validity: whether test appears to measure what it is supposed to measure
  • Predictive or criterion validity: whether test predicts criteria external to the test that it is expected to predict
  • Convergent validity: whether test score correlates with other measures that it should correlate with
  • Discriminant validity: whether test score does not correlate with other measures it should not correlate with
  • Construct validity: subsumes other types of validity; broadest type of validity

Generalizability
• Degree to which measure retains validity across different contexts, including different groups of people and different conditions
• Generalizability subsumes reliability and validity
• Greater generalizability not always better; what is important is to identify empirically contexts in which a measure is and is not applicable

Research Designs in Personality

Experimental Methods
• Used to determine causality—whether one variable causes another
• Two key requirements:
  • Manipulation of variables—experimenter manipulates independent variable and measures effects on dependent variable
  • Ensuring that participants in each experimental condition are equivalent to each other—accomplished through random assignment

Correlational Studies
• Correlation is a statistical procedure for determining whether there is a relationship between two variables
• Designed to identify “what goes with what” in nature, and not designed to identify causal relationships
• Major advantage is that it allows us to identify relationships among variables as they occur naturally
• Correlation coefficient varies from –1 (perfect negative relationships) through 0 (no relationship) to +1 (perfect positive relationship)
• Correlation does not indicate causation
  • Directionality problem
  • Third variable problem

Case Studies
• In-depth examination of the life of one person
• Advantages
  • Can find out about personality in great detail
  • Can give insights into personality that can be used to formulate a more general theory that is tested on a larger sample
• Can provide in-depth knowledge about an outstanding figure, such as a political or religious figure
• Disadvantages
  • Results based on the study of a single person cannot be generalized to others

When to Use Experimental, Correlational, and Case Study Designs
• Each design has strengths and weakness; strength of one is weakness of another
• Which design a researcher uses depends on the research question and the goal of research
• Taken together, three designs provide complementary methods for exploring personality

Summary and Evaluation
• Decisions about data source and research design depend on the purpose of study
• There is no perfect data source
• There is no perfect research design
• But some data sources and some methods are better suited for some purposes than for others

Chapter 3
Introduction
• Trait-descriptive adjectives: Words that describe traits, attributes of a person that are characteristic of a person and perhaps enduring over time
• Three fundamental questions guide those who study traits
  • How should we conceptualize traits?
  • How can we identify which traits are the most important from among the many ways that individuals differ?
  • How can we formulate a comprehensive taxonomy of traits—a system that includes within it all the major traits of personality?

What Is a Trait?: Two Basic Formulations

Traits as Internal Causal Properties
• Traits are presumed to be internal in that individuals carry their desires, needs, and wants from one situation to next
• Desires and needs are presumed to be causal in that they explain behavior of individuals who possess them
• Traits can lie dormant in that capacities are present even when behaviors are not expressed
• Scientific usefulness of viewing traits as causes of behavior lies in ruling out other causes

Traits as Purely Descriptive Summaries
• Traits as descriptive summaries of attributes of a person; no assumption about internality, nor is causality assumed
• Argue that we must first identify and describe important individual differences and subsequently develop casual theories to explain them

The Act Frequency Formulation of Traits—an Illustration of the Descriptive Summary Foundation
• Starts with the notion that traits are categories of acts
• Act Frequency Research Program
  • Act nominations: Designed to identify which acts belong in which trait categories
  • Prototypicality judgements: Involves identifying which acts are most central or prototypical of each trait category
  • Monitoring act performance: Securing information on actual performance of individuals in their daily lives
• Critique of Act Frequency Formulation
Does not specify how much context should be included in the description of the trait-relevant act
- Seems applicable to overt actions, but what about failures to act or covert acts not directly observable?
- May not successfully capture complex traits
- Atheoretical—nothing within approach provides guide to which traits are important or explanation for why individuals differ in frequency of act performance over time

Accomplishments of act frequency formulation
- Helpful in making explicit the behavioral phenomena to which most trait terms refer
- Helpful in identifying behavioral regularities
- Helpful in exploring the meaning of some traits that are difficult to study, such as impulsivity and creativity

Identification of the Most Important Traits

Lexical Approach
- Starts with lexical hypothesis: All important individual differences have become encoded within the natural language over time
- Trait terms are important for people in communicating with others
- Two criteria for identifying important traits
  - Synonym frequency
  - Cross-cultural universality
- Problems and limitations
  - Many traits are ambiguous, metaphorical, obscure, or difficult
  - Personality is conveyed through different parts of speech (not just adjectives), including nouns and adverbs
- Lexical approach is a good starting point for identifying important an individual difference, but should not be the exclusive approach used

Statistical Approach
- Starts with a large, diverse pool of personality items—e.g., trait words or series of questions about behavior, experience, and emotion
- Most researchers using lexical approach turn to statistical approach to distill ratings of trait adjectives into basic categories of traits
- Goal of statistical approach is to identify major dimensions of personality
- Factor analysis
  - Identifies groups of items that covary or go together, but tend not to covary with other groups of items
  - Provides means for determining which personality variables share some property or belong within the same group
  - Useful in reducing the large array of diverse traits into smaller, more useful set of underlying factors
  - Factor loading: Index of how much of a variation in an item is “explained” by a factor
  - Cautionary note: You only get out of factor analysis what you put in; thus, researchers must pay attention to the initial selection items

Theoretical Approach
- Starts with a theory, which then determines which variables are important
- Example: Sociosexual orientation (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991)
- Strengths coincide with strengths of a theory, and weaknesses coincide with the weaknesses of a theory

Evaluating the Approaches for Identifying Important Traits
In practice, many personality researchers use a combination of three approaches:

- Norman (1963) and Goldberg (1990) started with the lexical strategy to identify the first set of variables for inclusion.
- Then used factor analysis to reduce the set to a more manageable number (five).
- This strategy solves two problems central to the science of personality:
  - Problem of identifying key domains of individual differences
  - Problem of describing order or structure that exists among individual differences identified

**Taxonomies of Personality**

**Eysenck’s Hierarchical Model of Personality**

- Model of personality based on traits that Eysenck believed were highly heritable and had psychophysiological foundation.
- Three traits met criteria: Extraversion-Introversion (E), Neuroticism-Emotional Stability (N), Psychoticism (P)
  - Extraversion: High scorers like partiers, have many friends, require people around to talk to, like playing practical jokes on others, display carefree, easy manner, and have a high activity level.
  - Neuroticism: High scorers are worriers, anxious, depressed, have trouble sleeping, experience array of psychosomatic symptoms, and over-reactivity of negative emotions.
  - Psychoticism: High scorers are solitary, lack empathy, often cruel and inhumane, insensitivity to pain and suffering of others, aggressive, penchant for strange and unusual, impulsive, and has antisocial tendencies.

- Hierarchical structure of Eysenck’s System
  - Super traits (P, E, N) at the top
  - Narrower traits at the second level
  - Subsumed by each narrower trait is the third level—habitual acts
  - At the lowest level of the four-tiered hierarchy are specific acts.
  - Hierarchy has the advantage of locating each specific, personality-relevant act within increasingly precise nested system.

- Biological underpinnings—key criteria for “basic” dimensions of personality
  - Heritability: P, E, and N have moderate heritabilities, but so do many other personality traits.
  - Identifiable physiological substrate
    - Extraversion is linked with the central nervous system reactivity
    - Neuroticism is linked with the degree of lability of autonomic nervous system
    - Psychoticism is linked with the testosterone levels and MAO levels, a neurotransmitter inhibitor.

- Limitations
  - Many other personality traits show moderate heritability.
  - Eysenck may have missed important traits.

**Cattell’s Taxonomy: The 16 Personality Factor System**

- Cattell’s goal was to identify and measure the basic units of personality.
- Believed that the true factors of personality should be found across different types of data, such as self-reports and laboratory tests.
- Identified 16 factors.

- Major criticisms
  - Some personality researchers have failed to replicate the 16 factors.
  - Many argue that a smaller number of factors captures important ways in which individuals differ.
Circumplex Taxonomies of Personality

- The Wiggins Circumplex (1979)
  - Wiggins developed measurement scales to assess traits
  - Started with the lexical assumption
  - Argued that trait terms specify different kinds of ways in which individuals differ: Interpersonal, temperament, character, material, attitude, mental, and physical
  - Wiggins was concerned with interpersonal traits and carefully separated these out
  - Defined “interpersonal” as interactions between people involving exchanges
  - Two resources that define social exchange are love and status
  - Dimensions of status and love define axes of Wiggins circumplex
  - Wiggins circumplex has three key advantages
    - Provides an explicit definition of what constitutes “interpersonal” behavior
    - Specifies relationships between each trait and every other trait in the model (adjacency, bipolarity, orthogonality)
    - Alerts investigators to “gaps” in work on interpersonal behavior
  - Key limitation: Interpersonal map is limited to two dimensions—other traits may have important interpersonal consequences

Five-Factor Model

- Five broad factors: Surgency or Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Openness/Intellect
- Originally based on the combination of lexical and statistical approaches
- Big Five taxonomy has achieved a greater degree of consensus than any other trait taxonomy in the history of personality trait psychology
- Empirical evidence for five-factor model of personality
  - Replicable in studies using English language trait words as items
  - Found by more than a dozen researchers using different samples
  - Replicated in every decade for the past half century, suggesting five-factor solution replicable over time
  - Replicated in different languages
  - Replicated using different item formats
- The troublesome fifth factor: Some disagreement remains about the content and replicability of fifth factor
- Empirical correlates of the five factors
- Is the five-factor model comprehensive? Possible omissions include positive evaluation, negative evaluation, masculinity/femininity, religiosity or spirituality, attractiveness, sexuality
- Personality-descriptive nouns

Summary and Evaluation

Chapter 4

Theoretical Issues

Meaningful Differences Between Individuals

- There are meaningful differences between individuals (traits psychology is also called differential psychology)
- People differ in amounts of traits, and differences can be accurately measured
- According to trait psychologists, every personality is the product of a combination of a few basic, primary traits
Consistency Over Time

- Research indicates consistency over time for broad traits
- Although consistent over time, how a trait is manifested in behavior might change over time
- How can there be consistency in a trait if it is known to change with age (e.g., impulsivity)? Focus on the rank order differences between people

Consistency Across Situations

- Trait psychologists traditionally assumed cross-situation consistency
- If situations mainly control how people behave, then the existence or relevance of traits questionable
- Hartshorne and May (1928): Low cross-situation consistency is in honesty, helpfulness, self-control
- Mischel (1968): Personality psychologists should abandon their efforts to explain behavior with traits, focusing instead on situations
- Situationism: If behavior varies across situations, then situational differences and not personality traits determine behavior
- Mischel’s (1968) critique encouraged debate in personality psychology about the importance of traits compared to situations in causing behavior
- Both sides tempered views: Trait psychologists acknowledged the importance of situation, and situationists acknowledged the importance of traits
- Debate led to two lasting changes: Focus on person-situation interaction and practice of aggregation

Person-Situation Interaction

- Two possible explanations for behavior:
  - Behavior is a function of personality traits
  - Behavior is a function of situation
- Integration: Personality and situation interact to produce behavior
  - Differences between people make a difference only under certain circumstances
  - Situational specificity: Certain situations can provoke behavior that is out of character for an individual
  - Strong situation: Situations in which most people react in a similar way (e.g., grief following loss of loved one)
  - When situations are weak or ambiguous, personality has its strongest influence
- Three additional ways in which personality and situation interact to produce behavior
  - Selection: Tendency to choose or select situations in which one finds oneself, as a function of personality
  - Evocation: Certain personality traits may evoke specific responses from others
  - Manipulation: Various means by which people influence the behavior of others; tactics of manipulation vary with personality

Aggregation

- Longer tests are more reliable than shorter ones and are better measures of traits
- Single behavior or occasion may be influenced by extenuating circumstances unrelated to personality
- Aggregation implies that traits are only one influence on behavior
- Aggregation also implies that traits refer to the person’s average level
- Thus, personality psychologists will never be good at predicting single acts or single occasions

Measurement Issues

- Trait approach relies on self-report surveys to measure personality
• Personality psychologists assume that people differ in the amounts of various traits, and so a key measurement issue is determining how much of trait person has
• Traits are often represented as dimensions along which people differ
• Trait psychologists are aware of and address circumstances that affect accuracy, reliability, validity, and utility of self-report trait measures

Carelessness
• Method for detecting such problems is an infrequency scale embedded in test
• Infrequency scale contains items that most people answer in a particular way
• If a participant answers differently than most, this suggests carelessness
• Another method for detecting carelessness is to include duplicate items spaced far apart in the survey—if the person answers the same item differently, this suggests carelessness

Faking on Questionnaires
• “Fake good”: Attempt to appear better off or better adjusted than one is
• “Fake bad”: Attempt to appear worse off or less adjusted than one is
• Method to detect is to devise scale that, if answered in particular way, suggests faking

Response Sets
• Acquiescence: Tendency to agree with items, regardless of content; psychologists counteract by reverse-keying some items
• Extreme responding: Tendency to give endpoint responses
• Social desirability: Tendency to answer items in such a way so that one comes across as socially attractive or likable
  • Two views on social desirability:
    • Represents distortion and should be eliminated or reduced
    • Resolved by (1) measuring and statistically removing, (2) designing surveys that are less susceptible to this response set, or (3) using forced-choice format
    • Valid part of other desirable personality traits, such as agreeableness, and should be studied
    • Self-deceptive optimism versus impression management

A Closer Look: Integrity Testing
• Integrity tests are surveys designed to assess whether a person is generally honest or dishonest; replaced polygraph
• When assessed against the “big five” personality traits, integrity is the combination of high conscientiousness, high agreeableness, and low neuroticism
• Integrity tests can be a valuable addition to other measures used in employment selection

Personality and Prediction
• Whether someone does well in an employment setting may be determined, in part, by whether a person’s personality traits mesh with job requirements
• Personality traits may predict who is likely to do well in particular job, so it makes sense to select people for employment based on measures of traits
• But using tests to select employees has limitations and potential liabilities
• Lawsuits have challenged the use of tests on the grounds ranging from discrimination, to invasion of privacy, to freedom of religion
• Most employers receive overall test scores, however, not the applicant’s answers to specific questions
• In 1978, the EEOC standardized federal guidelines for the use of tests in employment selection
• Two main concerns that the employer must satisfy to use for employment selection
  • Test must predict performance on a specific job or jobs like the one people are being selected for
• Test must not be biased or have “undue impact” on persons from protected groups, such as women and minorities

Personnel selection: Choosing the Right Person for Job as Police Officer
• Personality tests frequently used to screen out “wrong” individuals from a pool of applicants for police officers
• Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)
• California Personality Inventory (CPI)
• 16 Personality Factor (16PF) Questionnaire

Beware of Barnum Statements in Personality Test Interpretations
• Barnum statement: generality that could apply to anyone

Educational selection: The Graduate Record Examination (GRE) and Success in Graduate School
• Most graduate schools require applicants to take the GRE, and most schools use GRE scores to some degree in deciding whom to accept into program
• GRE is an aptitude test, thought to reflect intelligence or the capacity to learn
• Many studies have been conducted to assess the degree to which GRE scores predict success in psychology graduate school
• Meta-analyses reveal that GRE scores do predict success in graduate school, but correlations are only modest (.15 to .40)
• Four arguments for why GRE scores can be useful, even though they only modestly predict success in graduate school
  • Even small increments in predictability above chance can be useful
  • Costs of failing to select the right people into graduate school can be high
  • GRE scores can be useful if used with appropriate criterion (i.e., what want to predict)
    • Criterion problem: Concerns how we define and measure the criterion we want to predict
    • Validity of GRE depends on which criterion used to define success in graduate school—if defined as obtaining Ph.D., GRE scores are valid predictors
  • Research indicates that, without range restriction, correlations between GRE scores and success in graduate school are high, ranging from .30 to .70

A Closer Look: Range Restriction Affects correlation
• When two variables are correlated with each other, the size of correlation depends, in part, on whether each variable spans full range in the sample
• Violation occurs when participants are selected on the basis of one score, and then that score is correlated with another variable on which participants have been measured
• Correlation between two variables will shrink as the range of scores on one (or both) variables is restricted

Selection in Business Settings: The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and Choice of Leaders
• MBTI is most widely used personality assessment device in business settings
• Assesses eight fundamental preferences, which reduce to four scores:
  • Extraverted versus introverted
  • Sensing or intuitive
  • Thinking or feelings
  • Judging or perceiving
• Four scores combined to yield 16 types
• MBTI used widely to select applicants for leadership positions
• But criticism, especially regarding reliability and predictive validity
Summary and Evaluation

- Hallmark of trait perspective is the emphasis on the differences between people
- Traits psychologists assume that people will be relatively constant over time and across situations in behaviors, because of their differences in various traits
- Traits are more likely to influence a person’s behavior when the situation is weak and ambiguous and doesn’t push for conformity from all people
- Personality traits refer to the average tendencies in behavior
- Trait psychologists are interested in the accuracy of measurement
- Interest in measurement and prediction has led trait psychologists to apply these skills to the selection or screening of job applicants and other situations where personality might make a difference

Chapter 5

Conceptual Issues: Personality Development, Stability, Change, and Coherence

What Is Personality Development?

- Personality development: Continuities, consistencies, stabilities in people over time, and the way in which people change over time
- Three key forms of stability
  - Rank order stability: Maintenance of an individual position’s within group
  - Mean level stability: Constancy of level in population
  - Personality coherence: Maintaining rank order relative to others but changing in the manifestations of trait
- Personality change: Two defining qualities
  - Internal: Changes are internal to a person, not changes in the external surrounding
  - Enduring: Changes are enduring over time, not temporary

A Closer Look: A Case of Personal Stability (Ghandi)

Three Levels of Analysis

- Population level: Changes or constancies that apply more or less to everyone
- Group differences level: Changes or constancies that affect different groups differently
  - Sex differences
  - Cultural or ethnic group differences
- Individual difference level: e.g., Can we predict who is at risk for psychological disturbance later in life based in earlier measures of personality?

Personality Stability Over Time

Stability of Temperaments During Infancy

- Temperament: Individual differences that emerge very early in life, are heritable, and involved behaviors are linked with emotionality
- As assessed by caregivers, temperament factors include activity level, smiling and laughter, fear, distress to limitations, soothability, and the duration of orienting
- Research points to the following conclusions
  - Stable individual differences emerge early in life, where they can be assessed by observers
  - For most temperament variables, there are moderate levels of stability over time during the first year of life
  - Stability of temperament is higher over short intervals of time than over long intervals of time
• Level of stability of temperament increases as infants mature

**Stability During Childhood**

- Longitudinal study: Investigation of same group of individuals over time
- Block and Block Longitudinal Study: Study of 100 children assessed at three, four, five, seven, and 11 years
- One study using Block and Block Longitudinal Study: Individual differences in activity level
  - Activity level assessed in two ways: Using actometer and independent assessments of behavior and personality provided by teachers
  - Stability coefficients: Correlations between same measures obtained at two different points in time (test-retest reliability)
  - Validity coefficients: Coefficients between different measures of the same trait at the same time
  - Actometer measurements of activity level had positive validity coefficients with teach measurements of activity level: Thus, activity level in childhood can be validly assessed with measures
  - Activity level measurements are all positively correlated with measures of activity level taken at later ages: Activity level shows moderate stability during childhood
  - Size of correlations decreases as the time interval between different testings increases
- Stability of childhood aggression
  - Individual differences in aggression emerge early in life, by three years
  - Individuals retain rank order stability on aggression over many years
  - Stability coefficients decline as interval between two times of measurement increases

**A Closer Look: Bullies and Whipping Boys from Childhood to Adulthood**

- Bullies in childhood tend to become juvenile delinquents in adolescence and criminal in adulthood

**Rank Order Stability in Adulthood**

- Across different self-report measures of personality, conducted by different investigators, over differing time intervals (3 to 30 years), broad personality traits show moderate to high levels of stability
- Average correlations across traits, scales, and time intervals is about +.65
- Stability also found using spouse-report and peer-report
- Personality consistency tends to increase in stepwise fashion with increasing age—personality appears to become more and more “set in plaster” with age

**Mean Level Stability in Adulthood**

- “Big five” personality factors show a consistent mean level stability over time
- Especially after 50, very little change in the average level
- Small but consistent changes, especially the during 20s
  - Openness, extraversion, neuroticism decline with age until 50
  - Conscientiousness and agreeableness show gradual increase with time

**Personality Change**

**Changes in Self-Esteem from Adolescence to Adulthood**

- Transition from early adolescence to early adulthood appears to be harder on women than on men, in terms of the criterion of self-esteem
- Females tend to decrease in self-esteem, males tend to increase in self-esteem
- Appears to be a coherent set of personality variables linked with changes in self-esteem over time for each sex
A Closer Look: Day-to-Day Changes in Self-Esteem
- Self-esteem variability: Magnitude of short-term changes in ongoing self-esteem
- Self-esteem variability is related to the extent to which one’s self-view can be influenced by events, particularly social events
- Self-esteem variability is an indicator of vulnerability to stressful life events

Flexibility and Impulsivity
- Study of architects: Measured personality twice, with testing separated by 25 years
- Sample as whole showed marked decreases in impulsivity and flexibility with age—suggests that, with age, people tend to become less impulsive and more fixed in ways

Autonomy, Dominance, Leadership, and Ambition
- Longitudinal study of male managerial candidates, first when men were in their 20s and then followed them up periodically over a 20-year span, when men were in their 40s
- Steep decline in ambition—steepest during first eight years, but continued to drop over next 12 years
- Supplementary interviews suggested that men became more realistic about limited possibilities for promotion in a company
- But note that autonomy, leadership motivation, achievement, and dominance increased over time

Sensation Seeking
- Increases with age from childhood to adolescence
- Peaks in late adolescence, around ages 18–20
- Falls more or less continuously with age after the 20s

Femininity
- Mills College Study: Longitudinal study of women from an elite college, examined personality changes between the early 40s and early 50s
- Consistent drop in femininity from the early 40s to early 50s
- Drop was not related to menopause per se
- Perhaps attributable to decreases in the levels of estrogen

Competence
- In Mills study, obtained self-reports of competence for women and their husbands when women were 27 and again at 52
- Women showed a sharp increase in self-assessed competence
- Husbands showed a constant scores across two time periods
- Women’s increased competence did not depend on whether they had children

Independence and Traditional Roles
- In Mills study, women were assessed for independence (self-assurance, resourcefulness, competence, distancing self from others, not bowing to conventional demands of society) at 21 and again at 43
- For divorced mothers, nonmothers, and working mothers, independence increased over time
- Only traditional homemakers show no increase in independence over time
- These results highlight utility of examining sub-groups within a sample

Personality Changes Across Cohorts: Women’s Assertiveness in Response to Changes in Social Status and Roles
- Cohort effects: changes (for example, in personality) over time that are attributable to living in different time periods rather than to “true” change
- Research by Jean Twenge
Personality Coherence Over Time: The Prediction of Socially Relevant Outcomes

- Personality coherence: Predictable changes in manifestations or outcomes of personality factors over time, even if underlying characteristics remain stable

Marital Stability, Marital Satisfaction, and Divorce (Kelly and Conley, 1987)
- Longitudinal study of 300 couples from engagements in 1930s to 1980s
- During first testing session in 1930s, friends rated each participant’s personality on many dimensions
- Three aspects of personality strongly predicted marital dissatisfaction and divorce
  - Husband’s neuroticism
  - Husband’s impulsivity
  - Wife’s Neuroticism

Alcoholism and Emotional Disturbance
- In a longitudinal study of men, high neuroticism predicted the later development of alcoholism and emotional disturbance
- Alcoholic men had lower impulse control scores than men with emotional disturbance

Education, Academic Achievement, and Dropping Out (Kipnis, 1971)
- Among low SAT scorers, there is no link between impulsivity and subsequent GPA
- Among high SAT scorers, high impulsive people had consistently lower GPAs than low impulsive people
- High impulsive people are more likely than low impulsive people to flunk out of college

A Closer Look: Adult Outcomes of Children with Temper Tantrums (Caspi, 1987)
- Longitudinal study spanning 40 years
- Men who, as children, had frequent and severe temper tantrums (relative to those who did not) achieved lower levels of education, lower occupational status at their first job, changed jobs frequently, and had erratic work patterns
- If in the military, men who had temper tantrums as children achieved lower military rank than peers

Prediction of Personality Change
- Can we predict who is likely to change in personality and who is likely to remain the same?
- Caspi and Herbener (1990) studied middle-aged couples over an 11-year period, in 1970 and again in 1981
- Researchers asked: Is the choice of marriage partner a cause of personality stability or change?
- People married to a spouse highly similar to themselves showed most personality stability
- People married to a spouse least similar to themselves showed most personality change

Summary and Evaluation
- Personality development is the study of both the continuities and changes in personality over time
- Strong evidence for personality rank order stability over time
- Personality also changes in predictable ways, sometimes in different ways for men and women
- Personality also shows evidence for coherence over time

Chapter 6

The Human Genome

- Genome refers to the complete set of genes that an organism possesses
• Human genome contains 30,000–80,000 genes on 23 pairs of chromosomes
• Human Genome Project is designed to sequence the entire human genome—i.e., identify the particular sequence of DNA molecules in human species
• But identifying sequence of DNA molecules does not mean identifying the function of each molecule
• Most genes in a human genome are the same for all humans
• Small number of genes are different for different individuals, including genes that indirectly code for physical traits and for personality traits

Controversy About Genes and Personality

• Behavioral geneticists attempt to determine the degree to which individual differences in personality (for example) are caused by genetic and environmental differences
• Highly controversial
  • Ideological concerns
  • Concerns about renewed interest in eugenics
• Modern behavioral geneticists who study personality are typically very careful about addressing implications of work and are sensitive to ideological concerns
• Knowledge is better than ignorance
• In addition, finding that a personality trait has a genetic component does not mean the environment is powerless to modify trait

Goals of Behavioral Genetics

• Determine the percentage of individual differences in a trait that can be attributed to genetic differences and percentage that can be attributed to environmental differences
• Determine the ways in which genes and environment interact and correlate with each other to produce individual differences
• Determine precisely where in the “environment” environmental effects exist—e.g., parental socialization, different teachers to which children are exposed

What Is Heritability?

Overview
• Proportion of observed variance in group of individuals that can be explained or accounted for by genetic variance, OR
• Proportion of phenotypic variance that is attributable to genetic variance
• Environmentality = proportion of observed variance in group of individuals attributable to environmental variance

Misconceptions About Heritability
• Heritability CANNOT be applied to single individual
• Heritability is NOT constant or immutable
• Heritability is NOT a precise statistic

Nature-Nurture Debate Clarified
• No such debate at the individual level
• Influence of genes and of environment is only relevant for the discussion of group-level variation

Behavioral Genetics Methods

Selective Breeding—Studies of Humans’ Best Friend
• Can only occur if a desired trait is heritable
• Selective breeding studies of dogs
• Cannot be ethically conducted with humans

Family Studies
• Correlates the degree of genetic overlap among family members with the degree of similarity in personality trait
• If a trait is highly heritable, family members with greater genetic relatedness should be more similar to one another on the trait than family members who are less closely genetically related
• Problem: Members of a family who share the same genes also usually share the same environment—confounds genetic with environmental influences
• Thus, family studies are never definitive

Twin Studies
• Estimates heritability by gauging whether identical (monozygotic or MZ) twins, who share 100 percent of genes, are more similar than fraternal (dizygotic or DZ) twins, who share only 50 percent of genes
• If MZ twins are more similar than DZ twins, this provides evidence of heritability
• Calculating heritability—many formulas, simple one: Two times difference between correlation (“r”) for MZ twins and DZ twins, or 2 (rMZ – rDZ)
• Two assumptions of the twins method
  • Equal environments assumption
  • Representativeness assumption

Adoption Studies
• Positive correlations on traits between adopted children and adoptive parents provide evidence of environmental influence
• Positive correlations between adopted children and genetic parents provide evidence of genetic influence
• Adoption studies are powerful because they get around the equal environments assumption—genetic and environmental causes are unconfounded
• Assumption that adopted children and their adoptive and genetic parents are representative of the general population—questionable
• Problem of selective placement of adopted children
• Design that combines strengths of twin and adoption studies = twins reared apart

Major Findings from Behavioral Genetic Research

Personality Traits
• Summaries of behavioral genetic data yield heritability estimates for major personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience) of about 20-45 percent
• Sexual orientation
  • Controversial and developing area
  • Current evidence suggests that genes provide modest and indirect influence (via childhood gender nonconformity) on adult sexual orientation

Attitudes and Preferences
• Wide variance in heritability of attitudes
• Some attitudes (e.g., traditionalism) show high heritability (about .60), whereas others show low or no heritability (e.g., beliefs in God, attitudes toward racial integration)
• Not clear why only some attitudes appear to be heritable

Drinking and Smoking
• Behavioral manifestations of personality traits such as sensation seeking, extraversion, neuroticism
• Drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes are stable over time
• Both show evidence of heritability

A Closer Look: Sexual Orientation
• Gender Identity Disorder (GID)

Shared Versus Nonshared Environmental Influences: A Riddle
• Same studies that suggest moderate heritability also provide good evidence of the importance of environmental influences
• Personality characteristics show heritabilities in 30–50 percent range; hence, showing substantial degree of environmentality—50–70 percent
• Two key types of environmental influences
  • Shared: In family environment, features of the environment shared by siblings (e.g., number of books in home)
  • Nonshared: In family environment, features of the environment that differ across siblings (e.g., different friends, different teachers)
• For most personality traits, the environment has major influence, but this influence is primarily in the form of nonshared and not shared variables
• For most personality traits, the shared environment has little impact
• We do not know which nonshared experiences have a key impact on personality

Genes and the Environment

Genotype-Environment Interaction
• Differential response of individuals with different genotypes to the same environments
• For example, task performance of introverts versus extraverts in loud versus noisy conditions
• Individual differences interact with environment to affect performance

Genotype-Environment Correlation
• Differential exposure of individuals with different genotypes to different environments
• Three types of genotype-environment correlations
  • Passive: Parents provide both genes and environment to children, yet children do nothing to obtain that environment
    • Child’s verbal ability and the number of books in home
  • Reactive: Parents (or others) respond to children differently depending on the child’s genotype
    • Baby’s liking for cuddling and the mother’s cuddling behavior
  • Active: Person with particular genotype seeks out a particular environment
    • High sensation seekers expose themselves to risky environments
• Genotype-environment correlations can be positive or negative

Molecular Genetics
• Techniques designed to identify specific genes associated with personality traits
• D4DR—gene located on the short arm of chromosome 11, codes for dopamine receptor
  • Most frequently examined association between D4DR gene and a personality trait involves “novelty seeking”
  • Individuals with the “long repeat” version of D4DR gene are higher on novelty seeking than individuals with the “short repeat” version of gene
  • But several failures to replicate association and, when replicated, association is weak
Behavior Genetics, Science, Politics, and Values

- Findings that some personality traits are heritable seemed to violate prevailing environmentalist view that personality is determined by socialization practices, such as parenting style
- People also worried about political and ideological misuse of behavioral genetics findings
- Much controversy surrounding individual differences in intelligence
- In past decade, attitudes shifted somewhat so that behavioral genetics are fairly mainstream (recent exception is sexual orientation studies)
- Because scientific research can be misused for political and ideological goals, scientists bear special responsibility, but
- Science can be separate from values
- Knowledge is better than operating in ignorance

Summary and Evaluation

- Most compelling evidence for heritability and environmentality of personality comes from findings generated across methods that do not share the same problems and limitations
- Personality variables such as extraversion and neuroticism have moderate heritability, as do drinking, smoking attitudes, and sexual orientation
- These studies suggest that these same variables have moderate to strong environmentality
- Much of the environmental influence is due to nonshared variables—experiences unique to siblings
- Genotype-environment interaction and correlations, as well as the new field of molecular behavior genetic analysis, are promising areas for future work

A Closer Look: The Brain Injury of Phineas Gage

Sheldon’s Physiological Approach to Personality

- Argued that body type determines personality
  - Ectomorph (skinny): Thoughtful, introverted
  - Mesomorph (muscular): Assertive, bold
  - Endomorph (fat): Sociable, fun-loving
- Did not use blind ratings, most later research failed to replicate
- Some work suggesting relationship between body type and job choice
- Physiological personality psychologists today do not focus on global variables such as body type—much more fine-tuned (e.g., heart rate, brain waves)

Physiological Measures Commonly Used in Personality Research

Electrodermal Activity (Skin Conductance)

- Most obtained by electrodes or sensors placed on the skin surface
- Advantage: Noninvasive, no discomfort
- Disadvantage: Movement constrained
- Electrodermal activity (EDA)—due to increased sweat with arousal, skin conductance of electricity increases
  - Can measure responses to various stimuli, including sudden noises, emotionally charged pictures, pain, anxiety, fear, guilt
  - Some people show EDA in the absence of external stimuli—associated with anxiety and neuroticism

Cardiovascular activity

- Blood pressure—measure of, e.g., stress reactivity
- Heart rate—increases with anxiety, fear, arousal, cognitive effort
Cardiac reactivity—greater than normal increase in blood pressure and heart rate when performing task such as backward serial subtraction

- Associated with Type A personality—impatience, competitiveness, hostility
- Cardiac reactivity (and Type A) associated with coronary heart disease

Brain Activity

- Brain spontaneously produces small amounts of electrical activity; can be measured by electrodes on scalp—electroencephalograph (EEG)
- Evoked potential technique—uses EEG, but the participant is given a stimulus and the researcher assess specific brain response to stimulus
- Brain imaging techniques—map structure and function of brain
  - Positron emission tomography (PET)
  - Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI)

Other measures: Biochemical analyses of blood and saliva

Physiologically Based Dimensions of Personality

Extraversion-Introversion

- Measured by Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ)
- High extraversion: Talkative, outgoing, likes meeting new people and going to new places, active, sometimes impulsive, bored easily, hates routine
- Low extraversion: Quiet, withdrawn, prefers being alone or with a few friends to large crowds, prefers routines and schedules, prefers familiar to unexpected
- Eysenck’s theory
  - Introverts have a higher level than extraverts of activity in the brain’s ascending reticular activating system (ARAS)
  - People strive to keep ARAS activity at optimal level—introverts work to decrease it and avoid stimulation; extraverts work to increase it and seek out stimulation
  - Research indicates that introverts and extraverts are NOT at different resting levels, but introverts ARE more reactive to moderate levels of stimulation than extraverts
  - This work led Eysenck to revise his theory—the difference between introverts and extraverts lies in arousability, not in baseline arousal
  - When given a choice, extraverts prefer higher levels of stimulation than introverts
  - Geen (1984): Introverts and extraverts choose different levels of stimulation, but equivalent in arousal under chosen stimulation
  - Introverts and extraverts perform task best under their chosen stimulation level, poor when performing under a stimulation level chosen by other group

Sensitivity to Reward and Punishment

- Personality based on two hypothesized brain systems
- Behavioral Activation System (BAS): Responsive to incentives (cues to reward) and regulates approach behavior
- Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS): Responsive to cues to punishment, frustration, uncertainty, and motivates ceasing, inhibiting, or avoidance behavior
- Active BIS produces anxiety, active BAS produces impulsivity
- Integration with Eysenck’s model: Impulsive = high extraversion, moderate neuroticism; Anxious = moderate introversion, high neuroticism
- According to Gray, impulsive people do not learn well from punishment because of weak BIS; learn better from reward—supported by research

Sensation Seeking

- Tendency to seek out thrilling, exciting activities, take risks, avoid boredom
- Early sensory deprivation research
- Hebb’s theory of optimal level of arousal
- Zuckerman: High sensation seekers are less tolerant of sensory deprivation; require much stimulation to get to optimal level of arousal
- Zuckerman’s Sensation Seeking Scale
- Moderate positive correlation between extraversion and sensation seeking
- Physiological basis for sensation seeking
  - Neurotransmitters—chemicals in nerve cells are responsible for the transmission of nerve impulse from one cell to another
  - Monoamine Oxidase (MAO)—enzyme that maintains a proper level of neurotransmitters
  - Too little MAO = too much neurotransmitter; too much MAO = too little neurotransmitter
  - High sensation seekers have low levels of MAO, producing a need for stimulation to reach the optimal level of arousal

Neurotransmitters and Personality
- Dopamine—associated with pleasure
- Serotonin—associated with depression and other mood disorders
- Norepinepherine—associated with fight or flight response
- Cloninger’s Tridimensional Personality model
  - Novelty seeking—low levels of dopamine
  - Harm avoidance—low levels of serotonin
  - Reward dependence—low levels of norepinepherine

Morningness-Eveningness
- Being a “morning-type” or “evening-type” of person is a stable characteristic
- Due to differences in underlying biological rhythms
- Many biological processes fluctuate around a 24-25 hour cycle—circadian rhythm; e.g., body temperature, endocrine secretion rates
- But wide individual differences are in the circadian rhythm, identified through temporal isolation studies
  - Individuals with shorter circadian rhythms hit peak body temperature and alertness earlier in day, get sleepy earlier, than individuals with longer rhythm
  - Individuals with shorter rhythm tend to be morning persons; individuals with longer rhythms tend to be evening persons
  - Morningness-Eveningness Questionnaire
  - Cross-cultural replication and documentation of stability of characteristic

Brain Asymmetry and Affective Style
- Left and right sides of the brain are specialized, with asymmetry in control of psychological functions
- Using EEG, can measure brain waves, such as alpha wave—an inverse indicator of brain activity
- Left frontal hemisphere is more active than the right when a person is experiencing pleasant emotions; right is more active than left with unpleasant emotions
- Patterns replicated in adults, children, and infants
- Research indicates that the tendency to exhibit asymmetry (favoring left over right, or right over left activation) is a stable individual characteristic
- Dispositionally positive persons show greater left frontal EEG activity; dispositionally negative persons show greater right frontal EEG activity
- Conclusion: Person’s affective lifestyle may have origins in, or be predicted by a pattern of asymmetry in frontal brain activation

Summary and Evaluation
Study of personality can be approached biologically

Two ways to think about how physiological variables are useful in personality theory and research

- Use physiological measures as variables that may be correlated with personality traits
- View physiological events as providing causal substrate for personality trait

Chapter 8

Evolution and Natural Selection

- All humans today come from an unbroken line of ancestors who accomplished two tasks: They survived to reproductive age, and they reproduced
- We carry adaptive mechanisms that led to our ancestors’ success
- Human nature and human personality made up of a collection of evolved mechanisms
- Before Darwin, two features of evolution were recognized: Change over time and apparent adaptation to environment

Natural Selection

- Darwin revolutionized biology by proposing a theory of the process by which adaptations are created and changes take place over time—natural selection
- More offspring produced than can survive and reproduce
- Changes or variants that better enabled an organism to survive and reproduce lead to more descendants
- Descendants inherit variants that led to their ancestors’ success
- Thus, successful variants are selected and unsuccessful variants are weeded out
- Over time, successful variants come to characterize entire species
- Adaptations; inherited solutions to survival and reproductive problems posed by hostile forces of nature

Sexual Selection

- Darwin noticed that many mechanisms seemed to threaten survival, such as the peacock’s elaborate plumage and the stag’s large antlers
- Darwin proposed evolution by sexual selection as solution—these traits evolved because they contributed to an individual’s mating success
- Two forms of sexual selection
  - Intrasexual competition: Members of the same sex compete with each other for sexual access to members of the other sex
  - Intersexual competition: Members of one sex choose a mate based on their preferences for particular qualities in that mate

Genes and Inclusive Fitness

- Gene—packet of DNA inherited by children from parents; smallest discrete unit inherited without being broken up
- Discovery of the gene as a unit of inheritance led to key discovery, that natural selection and sexual selection are different forms of the same process
- Differential gene reproduction—reproductive success relative to others
- Inclusive fitness theory (Hamilton, 1964)
  - Inclusive fitness: personal reproductive success (number of offspring you produce) plus effects you have on the reproduction of your genetic relatives, weighted by genetic relatedness

Products of the Evolutionary Process

Adaptations
Adaptations are the primary products of selection, defined as “reliably developing structure in the organism which, because it meshes with the recurrent structure of the world, causes the solution to an adaptive problem”

Adaptive problem: Anything that impedes survival or reproduction

Hallmark of adaptations are special design, including efficiency, precision, and reliability

Byproducts of Adaptations

- Byproducts are incidental effects of adaptations not properly considered to be adaptations

Noise or Random Variation

- Neutral with respect to selection

Evolutionary Psychology

Premises of Evolutionary Psychology

- Domain-specificity: Adaptations are designed by evolutionary process to solve specialized adaptive problems
- Numerousness: Expectation is that there are many psychological adaptations, because different adaptations are required to solve different adaptive problems
- Functionality: Psychological adaptations are designed to accomplish particular adaptive goals

Empirical Testing of Evolutionary Hypotheses

- Hierarchy of levels of analysis in evolutionary psychology
  - General evolutionary theory
  - Middle-level evolutionary theories
  - Specific hypotheses
  - Specific, testable, falsifiable predictions
- Two modes of conducting empirical research
  - Deductive reasoning approach: “Top down,” theory-driven method
  - Inductive reasoning approach: “Bottom up,” data-driven method
  - Both equally valid modes of conducting research in any area of science, including evolutionary psychology

Human Nature

- Human nature is a product of evolutionary process
- Psychological mechanisms that are successful in helping humans survive and reproduce out-replicate those that are less successful
- Over evolutionary time, successful mechanisms spread through population and come to characterize all humans
- Examples of evolutionary analysis at the level of human nature
  - The Need to Belong
  - Helping and Altruism
  - Universal Emotions

Sex Differences

- Evolutionary psychologists expect that males and females will be the same or similar in all domains where sexes have faced the same or similar adaptive problems
- Expect sex differences in those domains where sexes recurrently faced different adaptive problems
- Examples of differences between men and women that are attributable to recurrently facing different adaptive problems
• Sex Differences in Aggression
• Sex Differences in Jealousy
• Sex Differences in Desire for Sexual Variety
• Sex Differences in Mate Preferences

Individual Differences

• Most challenging and difficult level of analysis for evolutionary psychologists
• Three evolutionary perspectives on individual differences
  • Environmental triggers of individual differences—e.g., father absence directing individuals toward short-term sexual strategy
  • Adaptive self-assessment of heritable individual differences—e.g., individuals who are muscular and large pursue a more aggressive strategy than those who are less muscular and smaller
  • Frequency-dependent strategic individual differences—e.g., short-term and long-term sexual strategies of women are maintained in the population at a frequency where reproductive benefits of strategies are equal

The Big Five and Evolutionarily-Relevant Adaptive Problems

• Big Five personality traits as clusters of key features of “adaptive landscape” of other people
• Human have evolved “difference-detecting mechanisms” designed to notice and remember individual differences that have most relevance for solving social adaptive problems

Limitations of Evolutionary Psychology

• Adaptations are forged over long expanse of evolutionary time, and we cannot go back to determine with certainty what the precise selective forces on humans have been
  • Forced to make inferences
  • But current mechanisms provide windows for viewing the past
  • Learning more about our evolved mechanisms is a tool for overcoming limitation of sparse knowledge of ancestral environments
• Evolutionary scientists have just scratched the surface of understanding the nature, details, and design features of evolved psychological mechanisms
• Modern conditions are undoubtedly different from ancestral conditions in many ways, and so what was adaptive in the past might not be adaptive today
• It is sometimes easy to come up with different and competing evolutionary hypotheses for the same phenomena—true of all science
  • Onus is on the researcher to fashion specific, testable, and falsifiable hypotheses
  • Thus, competing theories can be pitted against each other and data can be the final arbiter
• Evolutionary hypotheses are sometimes accused of being untestable and hence unfalsifiable, but this is no more true than for any other science

Summary and Evaluation

• Selection is key to evolution, or change in a species over time
• Variants that lead to greater genetic replication spread through the population
• Evolutionary psychology has three premises: Adaptations are domain-specific, numerous, and functional
• Evolutionary psychology proceeds through both deductive research approach and inductive research approach
• Evolutionary psychology can be applied to all three levels of personality analysis—human nature, sex differences, individual differences
Evolutionary psychology has several limitations, but this perspective adds a useful set of theoretical tools to the analysis of personality at levels of human nature, sex differences, and individual differences.

Chapter 9

Introduction

- Ross Cheit: A case of recovered memories
- Brief biography of Sigmund Freud

Why is Psychoanalysis Important?

- Continuing influence on modern psychotherapy
- Continuing influence on research topics, including the unconscious and defense mechanisms
- Continuing influence on popular Western culture
- Laid foundation for topics and questions that psychologists still interested in today

Fundamental Assumptions of Psychoanalytic Theory

- Human mind is like a “hydraulic” system, operating by internal pressure
- Personality change occurs with redirection of a person’s psychic energy

Basic Instincts: Sex and Aggression

- Instincts: Strong innate forces that provide all the energy in the psychic system
- Freud’s original theory of instincts was influenced by Darwin’s theory of evolution
- In initial formulation, two instinct classes: Self-preservation instincts, sexual instincts
- In later formulations, Freud collapsed self-preservation and sexual instincts into one, called life instinct (libido); added death instinct (thanatos)
- Although Freud initially argued life and death instincts oppose each other, later he argued they could combine (e.g., in eating)

Unconscious Motivation: Sometimes We Don’t Know Why We Do What We Do

- Unconscious: Part of the mind holding thoughts and memories about which person is unaware; includes unacceptable sexual and aggressive urges, thoughts, and feelings
- Human mind consists of three parts
  - Conscious: Contains thoughts, feelings, and images about which you are presently aware
  - Preconscious: Contains information you are not presently thinking about, but can be easily retrieved and made conscious
  - Unconscious: Largest part of the human mind
- Iceberg metaphor
- Freud argued that unconscious material can take on a life of its own—Freud called this the “motivated unconscious”—material can “leak” into thoughts, feelings, and behaviors
- One of Freud’s most famous students: Carl Gustav Jung
  - Collective unconscious
  - Archetypes

A Closer Look: Subliminal Psychodynamic Activation

Psychic Determinism: Nothing Happens by Chance
Freud argued that nothing happens by accident—instead, there is a reason behind every act, thought, and feeling.

Everything we do, think, say, feel is an expression of our mind—either conscious, preconscious, or unconscious.

Reasons could be discovered if contents of the unconscious could be examined.

Most symptoms of mental illness are caused by unconscious motivations.

To cure psychological symptoms, the unconscious cause must be discovered.

Structure of Personality

- Psychoanalytic personality theory concerns how people cope with their sexual and aggressive instincts within the constraints of civilized society.
- One part of the mind creates these urges, another part has a sense of what society expects, and another part tries to satisfy urges within the bounds of reality and society.
- Mind as a plumbing system, which contains water under pressure.
- Pressure is a metaphor for energy from instincts, which builds up and demands release.
- Regarding this internal pressure, three different schools of plumbing:
  - One plumber (Id) suggests we open up all valves at the slightest pressure.
  - Another (Ego) offers ways to redirect pressure so that the strain is relieved without making a mess.
  - Another (Superego) wants to keep all the valves closed.

Id: Reservoir of Psychic Energy

- Most primitive part of the mind, source of all drives and urges.
- Operates according to the pleasure principle, which is the desire for immediate gratification.
- Functions according to primary process thinking, thinking without logical rules of conscious thought or anchor in reality.
- Wish fulfillment: Something unavailable is conjured up and the image of it is temporarily satisfying.

Ego: Executive of Personality

- Constrains id to reality.
- Develops within first two or three years of life.
- Operates according to reality principle: Ego understands that urges of id are often in conflict with social and physical reality.
- Operates according to secondary process thinking, development and devising of strategies for problem solving and obtaining satisfaction.

Superego: Upholder of Societal Values and Ideals

- Internalizes ideals, values, and moral of society.
- What some refer to as the “conscience.”
- Main tool of the superego in enforcing right and wrong is the emotion of guilt.
- Like id, superego is not bound by reality.

Dynamics of Personality

Types of Anxiety

- Anxiety is an unpleasant state that signals that things are not right and something must be done.
- Signals that control of ego is being threatened by reality, by impulses from id, or by harsh controls exerted by superego.
- Objective anxiety occurs in response to real, external threat to a person.
- Neurotic anxiety occurs when there is direct conflict between id and ego.
- Moral anxiety is caused by conflict between ego and superego.
In all three types of anxiety, the function of ego is to cope with threats and to defend against dangers in order to reduce anxiety.

Ego accomplishes this through the use of defense mechanisms:

- Repression
- Denial
- Displacement
- Rationalization
- Reaction formation
- Projection
- Sublimation

A Closer Look: Empirical Studies of Repression

Psychosexual Stages of Personality Development

- Freud argued that all people pass through a series of stages in personality development
- At each of the first three stages, young children must face and resolve specific conflicts
- Conflicts revolve around ways of obtaining sexual gratification
- Children see sexual gratification at each stage by investing libidinal energy in a specific body part
- If a child fails to resolve a conflict at a particular stage, he or she may get stuck in that stage or become fixated
- Each successive stage represents a more mature mode of obtaining sexual gratification
  - Oral stage (birth to 18 months)
    - Main sources of pleasure and tension reduction are the mouth, lips, and tongue
    - Key conflict is weaning—withdrawal from the breast or bottle
  - Anal stage (18 months to three years)
    - Child obtains pleasure from first expelling feces and then, during toilet training, from retaining feces
    - Many conflicts arise around the child’s ability to achieve self-control
  - Phallic stage (three to five years)
    - Child discovers he has (or that she doesn’t have) a penis
    - Sexual desire directed toward the parent of opposite sex
    - Produces Oedipal and Electra conflicts—unconscious wish to have opposite-sex parent all to self by eliminating the same-sex parent
  - Latency stage (six year to puberty)
    - Little psychological development occurs
    - Focus of child is on learning skills and abilities necessary to succeed as adult
  - Genital stage (puberty through adult life)
    - Libido is focused on the genitals, but not in manner of self-manipulation associated with the phallic stage
    - This stage is not accompanied by specific conflict
    - People reach this stage only if conflicts are resolved at previous stages

Personality and Psychoanalysis

- Psychoanalysis also a method of psychotherapy—a method of deliberately restructuring personality

Making the Unconscious Conscious

- Goal of psychoanalysis is to make the unconscious conscious
- First aim of psychoanalysis is to identify unconscious thoughts and feelings
- Once a patient is aware of this material, the second aim is to enable the person to deal with it realistically and maturely

Techniques for Revealing the Unconscious
Free association
• Dream analysis
• Projective techniques

The Process of Psychoanalysis
• Psychoanalyst offers interpretations of psychodynamic causes of problems
• Through many interpretations, the patient gains “insight”—an understanding of the unconscious source of problems
• But process is difficult and wrought with roadblocks and challenges
  • Patient resistance
  • Patient transference
  • Repetition compulsion

Evaluating Freud’s Contributions
• Psychoanalysis has had major impact on psychology, psychiatry, and Western thought generally
• But many criticisms
  • Freud’s theory is primarily of historical value and does not directly inform much current personality research
  • Freud did not believe in the value of experimentation or hypothesis testing in establishing the validity of psychoanalysis
  • Freud relied on case studies of a select group of wealthy women to generate his theory of human nature
  • Some personality psychologists take issue with Freud’s negative view of human nature

Summary and Evaluation

Chapter 10

The Neo-Analytic Movement
• Although many of Freud’s ideas have not stood the test of time, others have, and have been incorporated into the contemporary version of psychoanalysis
• Today, psychoanalysis is best thought of as a theory containing ideas inspired by Freud, but modified and advanced by others
• Psychoanalysts no longer write much about id, superego, or repressed sexuality, nor do they liken treatment to archaeological expedition in search of forgotten memories
• Instead, psychoanalysts today focus on childhood relationships and adult conflicts with others
• Contemporary psychoanalyst Drew Westen argues that contemporary psychoanalysis is based on five postulates
  • Unconscious plays a large role in life, but is not the ubiquitous influence Freud held it was
  • Behavior reflects compromises in conflict between mental processes
  • Childhood plays an important role in personality development, particularly in shaping adult relationship styles
  • Mental representations of self and others guide interactions with others
  • Personality development involves not just regulating sexual and aggressive feelings, but also moving from an immature socially dependent way of relating to others to a mature independent relationship style

Another Case of Recovered Memories—A Different Outcome (Holly Ramona)
• Courts determined that the recovered memory of alleged sexual abuse was false, encouraged by therapist
Repression and Contemporary Research on Memory

- Memory researcher Elizabeth Loftus argues that we should not conclude that all recovered memories are false, just because some are apparently false.
- Also, we should not assume that all recovered memories are true, just because some are true.
- Loftus argues that we must be aware of processes that contribute to the construction of false memories.
  - Popular press
  - Behavior of some therapists
    - Use of hypnosis
      - Research indicates that hypnosis does not improve memory.
      - In fact, hypnosis may increase memory distortions.
    - Some therapists tell patients that getting better hinges on their ability to recover forgotten memory.
    - Confirmatory bias: Tendency to look only for evidence that confirms belief, and not to look for evidence that disconfirms.
  - Loftus notes that independent corroborating evidence should be sought to substantiate memories of trauma.

A Closer Look: So, You Want to Have a False Memory

- Spreading activation model of memory: Mental elements are stored in memory along with associations to other elements in memory.
- Most modern cognitive psychologists believe that false memories can occur.
- Humans have a constructive memory—i.e., memory influences in various ways what is recalled.
- Research on mistakes of recognition on word lists help us understand dramatic false memories of, e.g., childhood abuse.

Contemporary Views on the Unconscious

- Cognitive unconscious versus motivated unconscious.
- Subliminal perception.
- Priming.
- Research on subliminal perception indicates that unconscious information does not influence people’s motivations.

Ego Psychology

- Shift in focus from id to ego.
- Erik Erikson: Emphasized ego as a powerful and independent part of personality.
  - Ego involved in mastering the environment, achieving goals, establishing identity.
  - Establishing secure identity (sense of self) is a primary function of ego.
  - Difficulty establishing identity produces identity crisis.

Erikson’s Eight Stages of Development

- Erikson argued that personality development occurs throughout life.
- Erikson argued that challenges at each stage were social rather than sexual.
  - Trust Versus Mistrust.
  - Autonomy Versus Shame and Doubt.
  - Initiative Versus Guilt.
  - Industry Versus Inferiority.
  - Identity Versus Role Confusion.
  - Intimacy Versus Isolation.
  - Generativity Versus Stagnation.
Integrity Versus Despair

Karen Horney and a Feminist Interpretation of Psychoanalysis

- Revised theory of penis envy: Penis is a symbol of social power rather than an organ that women actually desire to have
- Highlighted the influence of the culture on personality development
- “Fear of success”: Accounts for gender difference in response to competition and achievement situations

Emphasis on Self and the Notion of Narcissism

- Ego psychology emphasizes the role of identity, which is experienced by a person as a sense of self
- Narcissism: Inflated self-admiration and constant attempts to draw attention to self and keep others focused on self
- Narcissistic paradox: Although the narcissist appears high in self-esteem, he or she has doubts about his or her worth as a person

Object Relations Theory

- Emphasizes social relationships and their origins in childhood
- Assumptions of object relations theory
  - Internal wishes, desires, urges of child not as important as developing relationships with significant others, especially parents
  - Others, particularly the mother, become internalized by the child in the form of mental objects
  - First social attachments that infant develops form prototypes for all future meaningful relationships

Early Childhood Attachment

- Research by Harlow on infant monkeys
- Attachment
- Separation anxiety
- Ainsworth: Strange situation procedure for studying attachment
- Three attachment patterns in infants: Secure, avoidant, and ambivalent
- Bowlby and others: Early attachment experiences and reactions of the infant to parents, especially the mother, form “working models” for later adult relationships
- Working models are internalized in the form of unconscious expectations about relationships

**Adult Relationships**

- Investigation of whether the attachment style developed in childhood is related to adult romantic relationship style
- Hazan and Shaver (1987)—Three relationship styles
  - Secure
  - Avoidant
  - Ambivalent

Parental Divorce: Does It Have an Impact on Children’s Later Relationships?

- Object relations theory predicts that children of divorce will have difficulties forming their own intimate relationships later in life
- Wallerstein and others argue that evidence supports the object relations theory prediction—children of divorce have trouble with adult romantic relationships
- Others argue that the evidence is not clear
Summary and Evaluation

- Material in chapter is designed to give a balanced approach to false memories—while repressed memories can occur, not all are truly cases of forgotten memories
- Contemporary psychoanalysts focus on interpersonal patterns of behavior and accompanying emotions and motivations
- Contemporary psychoanalysts view personality as the result of resolving a series of social crises and an ensuing movement toward more mature forms of relating to others
- Contemporary psychoanalysis is connected to empirical studies

Chapter 11

Introduction

- Motivational psychologists ask, “What drives people to do the things they do?”
- They search for motives that propel people to do what they do
- Motives covered in this chapter view personality as consisting of a few general motives
- These motives operate through conscious or unconscious mental processes that generate intrapsychic influence on behavior

Basic Concepts

- Motive: Internal state that arouses and directs behavior toward a specific object or goal
- Motive is caused by a deficit, a lack of something
- Motives differ from each other in type and amount
- Motives are based on needs: States of tension within a person, and as need is satisfied, tension is reduced
- Motives propel people to perceive, think, and act in ways that serve to satisfy a need
- Motives are part of the Intrapsychic Domain for several reasons
  - Motivational psychologists stress the importance of internal psychological needs and urges that propel people to think, perceive, and act in predictable ways
  - Some motives are thought to operate outside awareness
  - Reliance on projective techniques

Henry Murray’s Theory of Needs

Need

- Need refers to a readiness to respond in a certain way under certain circumstances…It is a noun, which stands for the fact that a certain trend is apt to recur
- Needs organize perception, guiding us to “see” what we want (need) to see
- Needs organize action by compelling a person to do what is necessary to satisfy a need
- Needs refer to states of tension, and satisfying a need reduces tension
- Process of reducing tension that is satisfying and not a tensionless state *per se*
- Murray proposed a list of fundamental human needs
- Each need is associated with a specific desire or intention, particular set of emotions, specific action tendencies, and can be described with trait names
- Each person has a unique hierarchy of needs—individual’s needs can be thought of as existing at a different level of strength
- High levels of some needs interacted with the amounts of various other needs within each person—interaction makes the motive concept dynamic
- Elements in the environment affect a person’s needs

Press: Need-relevant aspects of the environment

- Alpha press: Objective reality
• Beta press: Perceived reality

Apperception: Act of interpreting and perceiving meaning in the environment
• Thematic Apperception Technique (TAT): Ambiguous pictures presented to a participant for interpretation
• Presumption that a person projects current needs into the interpretation of a picture

A Closer Look: TAT and Questionnaire Measures of Motives: Do They Measure Different Aspects of Motives?
• McClelland argues that responses to TAT and questionnaire measures are not correlated because they measure two different types of motivation
• TAT measures implicit motivation—unconscious desires, aspirations, and needs
• Questionnaires measure explicit or self-attributed motivation—reflect a person’s self-awareness of conscious motives
• Implicit motives better predict long-term behavioral trends over time
• Explicit motives better predict responses to immediate, specific situations and to choice behaviors and attitudes

The Big Three Motives: Achievement, Power, Intimacy

Need for Achievement
• People who have a high need for achievement
  • Prefer activities that offer some, but not too much, challenge
  • Enjoy tasks where they are personally responsible for the outcome
  • Prefer tasks where feedback on their performance is available
• Sex differences: Life outcomes and childhood experiences
  • Promoting achievement motivation: Independence training and setting challenging standards for children

Need for Power
• Readiness or preference for having an impact on people
• People with a high need for power are interested in controlling situations and controlling others
• Sex differences: Largest is that men but not women with high need for power perform a variety of impulsive and aggressive behaviors
• Proligate impulsive behaviors (drinking, aggression, sexual exploitation) is less likely to occur if a person has responsibility training
• People with a high need for power do not deal well with frustration and conflict—show strong stress responses, including high blood pressure

Need for Intimacy
• Recurrent preference for or readiness for warm, close, communicative interactions with others
• People with a high (compared to those with low) need for intimacy
  • Spend more time during day thinking about relationships
  • Report more pleasant emotions when around other people
  • Smile, laugh, make more eye contact
  • Start up conversations more frequently and write more letters
• Consistent sex difference: Women, on average, have a higher need for intimacy

Humanistic Tradition: The Motive to Self-Actualize

• Emphasis is on the conscious awareness of needs and choice and personal responsibility
• Approach is a counter-response to psychoanalytic and behavioral traditions, both of which are held that people have little free will in determining their actions
Emphasis is on the human need for growth and realizing one’s full potential
Human nature is positive and life-affirming
Focus on growth instead of deficiency

Maslow’s Contributions
- Hierarchy of needs
  - Lower needs must be satisfied before we can proceed to higher needs
  - Need hierarchy emerges during development, with lower needs emerging earlier in life than higher needs
  - Five need levels: Physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization
- Characteristics of self-actualizing persons: 15 characteristics, including spontaneous, problem centered, affinity for solitude, democratic values, and creativity

Rogers’ Contributions
- Focused on ways to foster and attain self-actualization
- Fully functioning person: Person who is en route toward self-actualization
- All children are born with a need for positive regard
- Many parents and significant others place conditions of worth on when one will receive positive regard-conditional positive regard
- Key to development of unconditional positive self-regard and moving toward self-actualization is the receipt of unconditional positive regard from parents and significant others
- Anxiety results when people get off track in pursuit of self-actualization
- Rogers’ approach to therapy (Client-Centered Therapy) is designed to get a person back on path toward self-actualization
- Three conditions for therapeutic progress
  - Must be an atmosphere of genuine acceptance of the client by the therapist
  - Therapist must express unconditional positive regard for the client
  - Empathic understanding—client must feel that the therapist understands him or her
- Much research on empathy, inspired by Rogers and other humanistic psychologists

Summary and Evaluation

Chapter 12

Introduction
- Cognitive approaches to personality focus on differences in how people process information
- Cognition refers to awareness and thinking as well as to specific mental acts such as perceiving, interpreting, remembering, believing, anticipating
- Three levels of cognition of interest to personality psychologists
  - Perception: Process of imposing order on information received by our sense organs
  - Interpretation: Process of making sense of, or explaining, events in the world
  - Beliefs and desires: Standards and goals people develop for evaluating themselves and others
- Fourth cognitive domain of interest: Intelligence

Personality Revealed Through Perception

Field Dependence-Independence
- Field independent (relative to field dependent) people have the ability to focus on details despite the clutter of background information
- Measures used to assess field-dependence
  - Rod and Frame Test (RFT)
  - Embedded Figures Test (EFT)
- Field dependence-independence and life choices
Education: Field independent people favor natural sciences, math, engineering, whereas field dependent people favor social sciences and education

Interpersonal relations: Field independent people are more interpersonally detached, whereas field dependent people are attentive to social cues, oriented toward other people

Current research on field dependence-independence
- Field independent people are better able to screen out distracting information and focus on a task
- Field-independent students learn more effectively than field dependent students in hypermedia-based instructional environment

Pain Tolerance and Sensation Reducing-Augmenting
- Aneseth Petrie’s reducer-augmenter theory of pain tolerance
  - People with low pain tolerance have a nervous system that is amplified or augmented subjective impact of sensory input
  - People with high pain tolerance have a nervous system that is dampened or reduced effects of sensory information
- Reducers seek strong stimulation, perhaps in order to compensate for lower sensory reactivity
- Reducers may use substances (nicotine, caffeine, alcohol, other drugs) to artificially “lift” their arousal level

Personality Revealed Through Interpretation

Kelly’s Personal Construct Theory
- Human nature: Humans-as-scientists; people attempt to understand, predict, and control events
- Personal constructs: Constructs person uses to interpret and predict events
- Kelly and post-modernism: Post-modernism is an intellectual position grounded in notion that reality is constructed, that every person and every culture has unique version of reality, with none having privilege
- Fundamental Postulate: “a person’s processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events”
- Commonality corollary: If two people have similar construct systems, they will be psychologically similar
- Sociality corollary: To understand a person, must understand how she construes the social world
- Anxiety: Not being able to understand and predict life events
- Assessing personal constructs
  - Repertory Grid Technique, e.g., Role Construct Repertory Test

Locus of Control
- Locus of control describes person’s interpretation of responsibility for events
  - External locus of control: Generalized expectancies that events are outside of one’s control
  - Internal locus of control: Generalized expectancies that reinforcing events are under one’s control, and that one is responsible for major life outcomes
- Rotter’s “expectancy model” of learning behavior
  - Learning depends on the degree to which a person values a reinforcer—its reinforcement value
  - People differ in their expectations for reinforcement—some believe they are in control of outcomes, whereas others do not

Learned Helplessness
Animals (including humans) when subjected to unpleasant and inescapable circumstances, become passive and accepting of a situation, in effect learning to be helpless.

A Closer Look: Reformulated Learned Helplessness; Explanatory Style

- Explanatory style: Tendency that some people have to use certain attributional categories when explaining causes of events
- Three broad categories of attributions
  - External or internal
  - Stable or unstable
  - Global or specific
- Pessimistic explanatory style
  - Emphasizes internal, stable, and global causes for negative events
  - Associated with feelings of helplessness and poor adjustment
- Explanatory style is stable over time

Personality Revealed Through Goals

- People differ in their goals, and these differences reveal and are part of personality
- Different names and approaches for these goals: Personal strivings, current concerns, personal projects, life tasks

Personal Projects Analysis (Little)
- Personal project: Set of relevant actions intended to achieve a goal a person has selected
- Personal Projects Analysis was developed to assess personal projects
- What people believe about their projects (how important they are, how stressful, how much success they are having in achieving their goals) is useful for understanding how personality works in everyday life
- Personality can be manifested in everyday projects people have

Life Tasks, Goals, and Strategies (Cantor)
- Emphasizes the “doing” of personality over the trait approach’s “having” of personality
- Emphasizes active nature of personality
- Personality is what structures a person’s daily life through the selection of goals and desires, that then determine specific strategies that people use
- Life tasks: Personal versions of culturally mandated problem solving goals; problems that people work on in day-to-day lives
- Strategies: Characteristic ways people respond to challenges of making progress on a particular life task
- Three strategies have been studied extensively
  - Social constraint: Taking the lead from other people in social situations
  - Defensive pessimism: Preparing for failure ahead of time; set low expectations for own performance and focus on worst-case outcomes
  - Outcome focus: Reassurance-seeking in particular life task domain
Intelligence

- Achievement versus aptitude views of intelligence
- “g” or general intelligence versus domain-specific intelligences
- Widely accepted definition of intelligence (Gardner, 1983): Application of cognitive skill and knowledge to solve problems, learn, and achieve goals valued by the individual and the culture
- Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences
- Emotional intelligence (Goleman)
  - Traditional measures of intelligence predict school performance, but not outcomes later in life, such as occupational attainment, salary, marital quality
  - Emotion intelligence strongly predicts these life outcomes
  - Emotional intelligence includes a set of five specific abilities
    - Awareness of our own feelings and bodily signals, being able to identify our own emotions, and make distinctions
    - Ability to regulate emotions, especially negative emotions, and to manage stress
    - Ability to control one’s impulses, direct attention and effort, delay gratification, and stay on task toward goals
    - Ability to decode social and emotional cues of others, empathy
    - Ability to influence and guide others without incurring anger, resentment
  - Cultural context of intelligence: We should view intelligence as being those skills valued in particular culture

Summary and Evaluation

Chapter 13

Introduction

- Emotions include three components
  - Associated with distinct subjective feelings or affects
  - Accompanied by bodily changes, mostly in the nervous system
  - Accompanied by distinct action tendencies, or increases in probabilities of certain behaviors
- People differ in emotional reactions, even to the same event, so emotions are useful in making distinctions between persons

Issues in Emotion Research

Emotional States Versus Emotional Traits

- Emotional states: Transitory, depend more on the situation than on a specific person
- Emotional traits: Pattern of emotional reactions that a person consistently experiences across a variety of life situations

Categorical Versus Dimensional Approach to Emotions

- Categorical approach
  - Focus on identifying a small number of primary and distinct emotions
  - Lack of consensus about regarding which emotions are primary
  - Lack of consensus is attributable to different criteria used for defining an emotion as primary
- Dimensional approach
  - Based on empirical research rather than theoretical criteria
  - People rate themselves on a variety of emotions, then the researcher applies statistical techniques (mostly factor analysis) to identify dimensions underlying ratings
• Consensus among researchers on two basic dimensions: Pleasant/Unpleasant and High Arousal/Low Arousal
• Two-dimensional model suggests every emotion can be described as a combination of pleasantness/unpleasantness and arousal

Content Versus Style of Emotional Life

• Content refers to the specific kinds of emotions that a person experiences
• Style refers to how emotions are experienced
• Content and style have trait-like properties (stable over time and situations, meaningful for making distinctions between people)

Content of Emotional Life

• Pleasant Emotions
  • Happiness and life satisfaction
    • Researchers have defined happiness in two complimentary ways
      • Judgement that life is satisfying
      • Predomiance of positive relative to negative emotions
    • Self-report and non-self-report measures of happiness correlate with self-report scores on social desirability
      • Part of being happy is to have positive illusions about the self, an inflated view of the self as a good, able, desirable person
    • Survey measures of happiness and well-being predict other aspects of people’s lives we would expect to relate to being happy
      • Compared to unhappy people, happy people are less abusive, less hostile, report fewer diseases, are more helpful, creative, energetic, forgiving, and trusting
      • Thus, self-reports of happiness are valid and trustworthy
  • What we know about happy people
    • No sex difference in overall happiness, global well-being, life satisfaction, and across cultures and countries
    • No age differences in overall happiness, although circumstances that make people happy change with age
    • Ethnic group membership is unrelated to subjective well-being
    • National differences in subjective well-being
      • People in poorer countries are less happy
      • People in countries that provide citizens fewer civil and political rights are less happy
      • Differences in economic development of nations may be a key source of differences in happiness of countries

A Closer Look: Does Money Make People Happy?

• Wealthier countries have higher levels of life satisfaction than poorer countries, but national wealth is confounded with many variables that influence well-being, such as health care services, education
• Researchers address confounds by looking at the relationship between income and happiness within countries
• In very poor countries, economic status predicts happiness; however, once people can afford necessities, increasing financial status isn’t related to well-being
• Within affluent societies, economic growth is not accompanied by the rise in life satisfaction among the population
• How can poverty be associated with many problems, and yet income is unrelated to happiness?
• Answer may lie in the notion of the threshold of income, below which a person is unlikely to be happy; once a person is above threshold, more income doesn’t produce more happiness
• Thus, the absence of health and wealth bring misery, but the presence of health and wealth does not guarantee happiness

• Personality and well-being
  • High extraversion and low neuroticism contribute more to happiness than gender, ethnicity, age and all other demographic characteristics
  • Two different models of relationship between personality and well-being
  • Indirect model: Personality causes a person to create a certain lifestyle, and lifestyle causes emotion reactions
  • Direct model: Personality causes emotional reactions
• Research by Larsen et al. to assess the direct model
  • Best predictor of responsiveness to positive mood induction is extraversion
  • Best predictor of responsiveness to negative mood induction is neuroticism
  • Thus, it is easy to put an extravert into a good mood and a high neuroticism person into a bad mood
  • Suggests personality had a direct effect on emotions

• Unpleasant emotions
  • Anxiety, negative affectivity, or neuroticism
  • Person high on neuroticism is moody, touchy, irritable, anxious, unstable, pessimistic, and complaining
  • Eysenck’s biological theory
    • Neuroticism is due primarily to the tendency of the limbic system in the brain to become easily activated
    • Limbic system is responsible for emotion and for “fight-flight” reaction
    • No direct tests of this theory, but indirect evidence supports
      • Neuroticism is highly stable over time
      • Neuroticism is a major dimension of personality found with different data sources in different cultures and by different researchers
      • Neuroticisms shows moderate heritability
  • Cognitive theories
    • Neuroticism is caused by styles of information processing—preferential processing of negative (but not positive) information about the self (not about others)
    • Related explanation holds that high neuroticism people have richer networks of association surrounding memories of negative emotion—unpleasant material is more accessible
      • One type of unpleasant information is poor health—link between neuroticism and self-reported health complaints
      • Major diseases categories are not related to neuroticism
      • But neuroticism is related to diminished immune functioning during stress
      • Matthews’ attentional theory that high neuroticism people pay more attention to threats and unpleasant information in environments
  • Depression and melancholia
    • Diathesis-stress model: Stressful life event triggers depression among those with pre-existing vulnerability, or diathesis
    • Beck’s cognitive theory: Certain cognitive style is a pre-existing condition that makes people vulnerable to depression
      • Vulnerability lies in the particular cognitive schema, a way of looking at world
      • Three areas of life most influenced by depressive cognitive schema—Cognitive triad: Information about self, world, future
• Explanatory style
  • Depressed people maintain an internal, stable, and global explanatory style—Pessimistic explanatory style

• Anger-proneness and potential for hostility
  • Type A personality and heart disease
    • Type A personality: Syndrome or a cluster of traits, including achievement strivings, impatience, competitiveness, hostility
    • Research identified Type A personality as a predictor of heart disease
    • Research subsequently identified hostility as a trait of Type A most strongly related to heart disease
    • Hostility: Tendency to respond to everyday frustrations with anger and aggression, to become easily irritated, to feel frequent resentment, to act in a rude, critical, antagonistic, uncooperative manner in everyday interaction
    • Hostility in Big Five: Low agreeableness, high neuroticism

Style of Emotional Life

• Emotional content refers to the “what” of person’s emotional life, whereas style refers to the “how” of an emotional life

• Affect intensity as an emotional style
  • High affect intensity people experience emotions strongly and are emotionally reactive and variable
  • Low affect intensity people experience emotions only mildly and only gradual fluctuations and minor reactions
  • Assessing affect intensity and mood variability
    • In early studies, affect intensity was assessed using a daily experiential sampling technique
    • Affect Intensity Measure (AIM): Questionnaire measure that allows quick assessment of emotional style in terms of intensity
  • Research findings on affect intensity
    • High (relative to low) affect intensity people display greater mood variability or more frequent fluctuations in emotional life over time
    • Affect intensity relates to personality dimensions of high activity level, sociability, arousability, high extraversion, high neuroticism

Interaction of Content and Style in Emotional Life

• Hedonic balance between positive and negative emotions represents the content of emotional life
• Affect intensity represents the style of emotional life
• Hedonic balance and affect intensity are unrelated to each other and interact to produce specific types of emotional lives that characterize different personalities
  • Positive hedonic balance, low affect intensity
  • Positive hedonic balance, high affect intensity
  • Negative hedonic balance, low affect intensity
  • Negative hedonic balance, high affect intensity

Summary and Evaluation

• Emotion states versus emotional traits
• Emotional content versus emotional style
• Content and style interact within persons to produce distinct varieties of emotional lives
Chapter 14
Descriptive Component of the Self: Self-Concept

- Self-concept is the basis for self-understanding
- Self-concept forms an answer to question, “Who am I?”

Development of the Self-Concept

- Gradually, infant comes to realize that it is distinct from the rest of the world—distinction forms a rudimentary sense of self-awareness of one’s own body
- Around age two to three, among the first aspects of self that children learn to identify and associate with themselves are sex and age
- Children ages two to three also expand self-concept to include the reference to family
- From ages three to four, children’s self-concept is based mainly on developing skills and talents
- From ages five to six, children increasingly begin to compare their skills and abilities with those of others (social comparison)
- Also from ages five to six, the child learns that he can keep secrets and lie—based on the development of the private self-concept
- During teen years, perspective taking: Ability to take perspectives of others, to see oneself as others do including objective self-awareness—seeing oneself as the object of others’ attention
- Objective self-awareness is the beginning of social identity

Shyness: When Objective Self-Awareness Becomes Chronic

- Shy people desire friendships and social interactions but are held back by insecurities and fears
- Shy people are not introverts
- Kagan’s research indicates that parents of formerly shy children encouraged children to socialize
- Shyness is also referred to as social anxiety—discomfort related to social interactions, or even to the anticipation of social interactions
- Shy people tend to interpret social interactions negatively—they expect others to dislike them
- Evaluation apprehension: Shy people are apprehensive about being evaluated by others

Self-Schemata: Possible Selves, Ought Selves, and Undesired Selves

- Self-concept provides a person with a sense of continuity and framework for understanding her past and present, and for guiding future behavior
- Self-concept is like a network of information in memory that organizes and provides coherence for how we experience the self
- Self-concept also guides how each person processes information about themselves
- Self-schema: Specific knowledge structures, or cognitive representations, of the self-concept
- Self-schemas are built on past experiences and guide the processing of information about the self, particularly in social interaction
- Possible selves: Schemata for selves in the future; many ideas each person has about who they might become, hope to become, or fear they will become
- Ideal self (what a person herself want to be) versus ought self (person’s understanding of what other’s want her to be)
- Ideal and ought selves are self-guides—they represent standards a person uses to organize information and motivate appropriate behavior

Evaluative Component of the Self: Self-Esteem
First glimmer of self-esteem occurs when a child identifies expectations for behavior and either does or does not fulfill expectations.

In later childhood, the next shift in the source of self-esteem occurs when the child begins to engage in social comparison.

Later, people develop internal standards as part of self-concept—behaviors or experiences inconsistent with internal standards can cause a decrease in self-esteem.

Evaluation of Oneself

- Self-esteem refers to your general evaluation of your self-concept along a good-bad or like-dislike dimension.
- How we feel about ourselves can vary from day-to-day, hour-to-hour, but always around some average level of self-esteem.
- People can evaluate themselves differently in different areas of life or different aspects of self.

Research on Self-Esteem

- Reactions to criticism and failure feedback
  - Following failure feedback, low self-esteem people are more likely to perform poorly and to give up earlier on subsequent tasks.
  - For a high self-esteem person, in contrast, failure feedback spurs them into action on subsequent tasks, where they are less likely to give up, and work just as hard as they did on the first task.
  - High self-esteem people are concerned with projecting successful, prosperous, and thriving self-image.
  - Low self-esteem people are most concerned with avoiding failure.
  - Following failure in one area of life, high self-esteem people focus on successes in other areas of life, whereas low self-esteem people generalize failure to other areas of life.

Beneath the Wheel: The Challenge that College Makes on Self-Esteem

- College is intensely evaluative (tests, papers, grades).
- Students must compartmentalize performances on exams and assignments—poor performance on one exam in one subject doesn’t mean one is a poor student, in general.
- Low self-esteem can become a self-perpetuating cycle of accepting negative evaluations, decreased motivation to do well which leads to more failures, which again are accepted as consistent with a low view of self, leading to further giving up, and so on.

Protecting Versus Enhancing the Self

- Low self-esteem people are motivated to protect their self-concept by avoiding failure, whereas high self-esteem people are motivated to enhance their self-concept by taking risks and striving for successes.
- Low self-esteem people evade new negative information about themselves.
  - One strategy is defensive pessimism: Expect to fail; when failure occurs, no new negative information about the self is revealed.
  - Self-handicapping: Person deliberately does things that increase the probability of failure—when failure occurs, they have the excuse for failure (and hence failure is not attributable to self).

Self-Esteem Variability

- Individual difference characteristic that refers to the magnitude of short-term fluctuations in self-esteem.
- Self-esteem variability is thought to result from particular vulnerability of a person’s self-worth to events of everyday life.
A Closer Look: The Self-Esteem of Minority Group Members

- Although members of minority groups experience disadvantages relative to the majority group, research does not indicate that minority groups have lower self-esteem.
- Three mechanisms for how minority group members protect self-esteem from negative consequences of prejudice and disadvantage:
  - Attribution to prejudice: Blaming poor outcomes and negative treatment on prejudice of others toward their group.
  - In-group comparison: Tendency to make comparisons only with members of a person’s own group, and not with members of a majority group.
  - Selective valuation: Devaluing characteristics that a majority group deems important and valuing characteristics present primarily in their group.

Social Component of the Self: Social Identity

- Identity is the self that we show to others, part of ourselves that we use to create impression, to let others know what to expect from us.
- Different from self-concept because identity contains elements that are socially observable, publicly available expressions of self.
- Social identity includes sex, ethnicity, and height.
- Identity has an element of continuity because many of its aspects, such as sex and ethnicity, are constant.

The Nature of Identity

- Identity provides the social definition of a person, refers to social knowledge or what others think of person.
- Identity has two key features: Continuity and contrast:
  - Continuity: People can count on you to be the same person tomorrow as you were today.
  - Contrast: Your social identity differentiates you from others, makes you unique in the eyes of others.

Identity Development

- According to Erikson (1968), identity can be achieved in several ways:
  - Experimenting with different identities:
    - Many people struggle with identities, particularly during late adolescence, early adulthood.
    - People “try on” different identities.
  - Adopting a ready-made social role (e.g., taking over the family business, arranged marriages in India).

Identity Crises

- Coined by Erikson, “identity crisis” refers to the anxiety that accompanies efforts to define or redefine one’s individuality or social reputation.
- Can occur anytime, but more likely in adolescence, middle adulthood.
- Baumeister argues for two distinct types of identity crises:
  - Identity deficit—arises when a person has not formed adequate identity and thus has trouble making major decisions:
    - Often occurs when a person discards old values and goals.
    - People in identity crisis are vulnerable to propaganda of groups such as cults.
  - Identity conflict—involves an incompatibility between two or more aspects of identity:
    - These are “approach-approach” conflicts, in that the person wants to reach two mutually contradictory goals.
• Resolving identity crises
  • Whether in adolescence or adulthood, resolution identity crisis involves two steps:
    • Person decides which values are most important to him
    • Person transforms abstract values into desires and behaviors

Summary and Evaluation

• Three core components of self: Self-concept, self-esteem, and identity
• In evolution of language, we developed a rich vocabulary for talking about the self—this reflects people’s preoccupations with themselves
• The self plays an important role in organizing a person’s experiences of the world
• The self is a major organizing force within person

Chapter 15
Three Mechanisms of Social Interaction

• Personality interacts with situations in three ways
  • Selection
    • Personality characteristics of others influence whether we select them as dates, friends, or marriage partners
    • Own personality characteristics play role in kinds of situations we select to enter and stay in
  • Evocation
    • Personality characteristics of others evoke responses in us
    • Own personality characteristics evoke responses in others
  • Manipulation
    • Personality is linked to ways in which we try to influence or manipulate others

Selection

Personality Characteristics Desired in a Marriage Partner (Buss et al., 1990)
• Over 10,000 participants, from 37 samples in 33 countries, six continents, five islands
• Mutual attraction/love is the most favored characteristic
• Almost as important are personality characteristics of dependable character, emotional stability, pleasing disposition

Assortative Mating for Personality: The Search for the Similar
• Assortative mating: People are married to people who are similar to themselves
• Are these positive correlations caused by active selection of mates who are similar, or by-products of other causal processes (e.g., sheer proximity)
• To answer questions, Botwin et al. (1997) studied dating and married couples
  • Correlated preferences for personality characteristics desired in a potential mate, and our own personality characteristics
  • Correlations are consistently positive: Positive correlations between spouses are due, in part, to direct social preferences, based on personality characteristics of those doing the selecting

Do People Get the Mates They Want?
• Botwin et al. (1997): Correlations between preferences for ideal personality characteristics in a mate and the actual personality characteristics of an obtained mate
• Consistently positive correlations: People seem to get mates they want in terms of personality
• Partner’s personality had a large effect on marital satisfaction
• People are especially happy if they are married to partners high on agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness
• But difference in scores between partner’s personality and one’s ideal for that personality did not predict happiness

Personality and the Selective Breakup of Couples
• According to violation of desire theory (Buss, 1994), break-ups should be more common when one’s desires are violated than when they are fulfilled
• People actively seek mates who are dependable and emotionally stable, and those who fail to choose such mates are at risk for divorce
• Those who fail to get what they want—including a mate who is similar—tend to selectively break-up more often than those who get what they want

Shyness and the Selection of Risky Situations
• Shyness: Tendency to feel tense, worried, and anxious during social interactions or even when anticipating social interactions
• During adolescence, early adulthood, shy people tend to avoid social situations, resulting in a form of isolation
• Shy women are less likely to go to a gynecologist
• Shy women also are less likely to bring up contraception with potential sexual partner
• Shyness affects whether a person is willing to select risky situations in the form of gambles
• Shyness, in short, has a substantial impact on selective entry into, or avoidance of, situations

Other Personality Traits and the Selection of Situations
• Personality affects situations to which people are exposed through selective entry into, or avoidance of, certain activities

Evocation
• Once we select others to occupy our social environment, second class of processes set into motion—evocation of reactions from others and evocation of our own reactions by others

Aggression and the Evocation of Hostility
• Aggressive people evoke hostility from others
• Hostile attributional bias: Tendency to infer hostile intent on the part of others in the face of uncertain behavior from others
• Because they expect others to be hostile, aggressive people treat others aggressively—people treated aggressively tend to aggress back
• Thus, hostility from others is evoked by an aggressive person

Evocation of Anger and Upset in Partners
• Person can perform actions that cause emotional response in a partner
• Person can elicit actions from another that upset the original elicitor
• Study by Buss (1991): Role of personality on evocation of anger and upset in married couples
  • Assessed personality characteristics of husbands and wives
  • Strongest predictors of upset are low agreeableness and emotional instability

Evocation Through Expectancy Confirmation
• Expectancy confirmation: People’s beliefs about personality characteristics of others cause them to evoke in others actions that are consistent with initial beliefs
• Snyder and Swann (1978): People’s beliefs led them to behave in an aggressive manner toward an unsuspecting target, then the target behaved in a more aggressive manner, confirming initial beliefs
Manipulation—Social Influence Tactics

- Manipulation or social influence includes ways in which people intentionally alter, change, or exploit others
- Manipulation can be examined from two perspectives within personality psychology
  - Are some individuals consistently more manipulative than others?
  - Given that all people attempt to influence others, do stable personality characteristics predict tactics that are used?

A Taxonomy of 11 Tactics of Manipulation (Buss et al., 1987)

- Developed through a two-step procedure
- Nominations of acts of influence
- Factor analysis of self-reports and observer-reports of nominated acts
- 11 tactics identified, including charm, coercion, silent treatment, reason

Sex Differences in Tactics of Manipulation

- With exception of regression (crying, whining), men and women are similar in performance of tactics of manipulation

Personality Predictors of Tactics of Manipulation

- High surgency: Coercion, responsibility invocation
- Low surgency: Self-abasement, hardball
- High agreeable: Pleasure induction, reason
- Low agreeable: Coercion, silent treatment
- High conscientiousness: Reason
- Emotionally unstable people use a variety of tactics to manipulate others, but the most common is regression
- High intellect-openness: Reason, pleasure induction, responsibility invocation
- Low intellect-openness: Social comparison

A Closer Look: The Machiavellian Personality

- Machiavellianism: Manipulative strategy of social interaction, personality style that uses other people as tools for personal gain
- People who score high on Machiavellianism (“high Machs”) select situations that are loosely structure, untethered by rules that restrict the deployment of exploitative strategy
- High Machs tend to evoke specific reactions from others, such as anger and retaliation for having been exploited
- High Machs influence or manipulate others in predictable ways, using tactics that are exploitative, self-serving, and deceptive

Narcissism and Social Interaction: A Closer Look at One Personality Dimension and Social Interaction

- Those high on narcissism are exhibitionistic, grandiose, self-centered, interpersonally exploitative
- Selection: Associate with people who admire them, who will reflect positive view they hold of themselves
- Evocation: Exhibitionism splits people—some view them as brilliant and entertaining, others as selfish and boorish
- Manipulation: Highly exploitative of others

Panning Back: An Overview of Personality and Social Interaction

Summary and Evaluation
• Personality does not exist solely in the heads of individuals
• Personality affects the ways in which we interact with others in our social world
  • We select people and environments, choosing social situations to which we will expose ourselves—personality plays a key role in the selection process
  • We evoke emotions and actions in others, based in part on our personality characteristics
  • Personality plays a key role in which we use tactics to influence or manipulate others

Chapter 16

The Science and Politics of Studying Sex and Gender

• Study of sex differences is controversial
• Some worry that findings of sex differences might be used to support political agendas or status quo
• Some argue that findings of sex differences merely reflect gender stereotypes rather than real differences
• Some argue that any discovery of sex differences merely reflects biases of scientists, rather than objective reality
• Some advocate stopping research on sex differences because findings of sex differences might conflict with ideas of egalitarianism
• But others argue that scientific psychology and social change will be impossible without coming to terms with real sex differences that do exist

History of the Study of Sex Differences

• Prior to 1973, there was little attention paid to sex differences
• 1974, Maccoby and Jacklyn published a book, The Psychology of Sex Differences
  • Set off an avalanche of work on sex differences
  • Maccoby and Jacklyn presented an informal summary of research
  • Researchers developed more precise quantitative procedures for examining conclusions across studies and thus for determining sex differences: Meta-analysis

Calculation of Effect Size: How Large Are the Sex Differences?

• Effect size or d-statistic: Used to express the difference in standard deviation units
• Effect size can be calculated for each study of sex differences, then averaged across studies to give an objective assessment of the difference
  • Effect size ($d$): $0.20 = \text{small}, 0.50 = \text{medium}, 0.80 = \text{large}$; positive $d$ means men higher, negative $d$ means women higher
  • Even the large effect size for the average sex difference does not necessarily have implications for any one individual

Minimalists and Maximalists

• Minimalists describe sex differences as small and inconsequential
• Maximalists argue that the size of sex differences should not be trivialized—small effects can have important consequences

Sex Differences in Personality

Five-Factor Model

• Extraversion or Surgency
  • Women score slightly higher on gregariousness ($d = -.15$)
  • Men score slightly higher on activity level ($d = .09$)
  • Men score moderately higher on assertiveness ($d = .50$)
    • Sex difference in assertiveness is revealed in the social behavior in mixed-sex groups (men interrupt more than women)
• Agreeableness
Women score higher on trusting \((d = -0.25)\), tender-minded \((d = -0.97)\)

Women smile more than men \((d = -0.60)\), but this may reflect submissiveness and low status rather than agreeableness

Aggressiveness

- Men are more physically aggressive, as assessed on personality tests, in fantasies, and manifest behavior (moderate to large effect sizes)
- Profound consequences for everyday life
  - Men commit 90 percent of homicides worldwide
  - Men commit more violent crimes of all sorts
- Sex difference in violent crimes accompanies puberty, peaking in adolescence and the early 20s

Conscientiousness

- Women score slightly higher on order \((d = -0.13)\)

Emotional Stability

- Men and women are similar on impulsiveness \((d = 0.06)\)
- Women score higher on anxiety \((d = -0.28)\)

Openness to Experience: No sex differences

**Basic Emotions: Frequency and Intensity**

**Other Dimensions of Personality**

- Self-esteem—results from meta-analyses
  - Across ages, effect size is small, with males scoring higher \((d = 0.21)\), but
  - Young children (ages 7–10) show slight difference \((d = 0.16)\)
  - As children age, the gap widens: 11–14, \(d = 0.23\); 15–18, \(d = 0.33\)
  - In adulthood, the gap closes: 19–22, \(d = 0.18\); 23–59, \(d = 0.10\)
- Sexuality: Many large differences
  - Interest in casual sex, \(d = 0.81\)
  - Number lifetime sex partners desired, \(d = 0.87\)
- “People-things” dimension—vocational interests
  - Men are more toward “things” end, women are more toward “people” end

**A Closer Look: Sex Differences in Depression**

- In childhood, there are no sex differences
- After puberty, women show depression two to three times than that of men
  - Rumination—repeatedly focusing on one’s symptoms or distress; women ruminate more, which contributes to the perseverance of depressive symptoms
- Largest sex difference is in ages 18–44; then sexes start to converge again

**Masculinity, Femininity, Androgyny, and Sex Roles**

- 1930s, researchers assumed sex differences on various personality items were attributable to differences along the single dimension of masculinity-femininity
- But perhaps someone could score high on both masculinity and femininity—this led to concept of androgyny

**The Search for Androgyny**

- 1970s, researchers challenged the assumption of the single dimension, instead arguing that masculinity and femininity might be independent, separable
- Two new measures were developed to assess two dimensions, now assumed to be independent
- Those who scored high on both labeled androgynous, to reflect the notion that a person could have both masculine and feminine characteristics
- Researchers who developed measures believed androgyny was ideal
• Many criticisms of new measures and underlying ideas
  • Contrary to researchers’ assumptions, both constructs are multidimensional, containing many facets
  • Several studies documented that masculinity and femininity describe a single bipolar trait—i.e., not independent
  • Researchers who constructed measures changed views
    • Spence: Measure doesn’t assess sex roles, but instead personality traits of instrumentality and expressiveness
    • Bem: Measure assesses gender schemas and cognitive orientations that lead people to process social information on basis of sex-linked associations

Gender Stereotypes
• Three components: Cognitive, affective, behavioral
• Content of gender stereotypes: Attributes we believe men and women possess
  • Similar across cultures—e.g., women are perceived as more communal and oriented toward the group, whereas men are perceived as more instrumental, asserting independence from the group
• Stereotypic sub-types of men and women
  • Some argue that people do not hold single gender stereotype; rather, cognitive categories differentiated into sub-types of men and women
  • Empirical data are lacking
• Prejudice and gender stereotypes
  • Gender stereotypes can have important real-life consequences for men and women
  • Consequences can damage people in health, jobs, odds of advancement, and social reputations

Theories of Sex Differences

Socialization and Social Roles
• Socialization theory: Boys and girls become different because boys are reinforced by parents, teachers, and media for being “masculine,” and girls for being “feminine”
• Bandura’s social learning theory: Boys and girls learn by observing behaviors of same-sex others
• Some research supports socialization and social learning theories of sex differences
• Cross-cultural evidence for different treatment of boys and girls
• Problem: Simple theory that causal arrow runs one way (parents to children) is open to question
• Problem: No account of origin of sex-differentiated socialization practices
• Social role theory: Sex differences arise because men and women are distributed differently into different occupational and family roles
  • Some research supports social role theory
  • Problem: No account of origins of sex-differentiated roles

Hormonal Theories
• Hormonal, physiological differences cause boys and girls to diverge over development
• Following puberty, there is little overlap in the levels of circulating testosterone (with men having about 10 times more)
• Sex differences in testosterone is linked with traditional sex differences in behaviors, such as aggression, dominance, career choice, and sexual desire
• Problem: Research suggests link between hormones and behavior is bi-directional
• Problem: No account of origins of hormonal differences

Evolutionary Psychology Theory
Sexes are predicted to differ only in those domains in which people are recurrently faced with
different adaptive problems (problems must be solved to survive and reproduce)
Research supports many predicted sex differences, especially in sexuality
Problem: No clear accounting of individual and within-sex differences

An Integrated Theoretical Perspective
Integrated theory of sex differences would include all levels of analysis into account
(socialization, hormonal, evolutionary), because they are compatible

Summary and Evaluation

Some sex difference are real and not artifacts of particular investigators or methods
Some sex differences are constant over generations and across cultures
But the magnitude of sex differences vary greatly
When questions about sex differences are posed, a person must ask: In what domains?
Domains that show larger sex differences include assertiveness, aggressiveness, interest in casual sex,
but there is an overlap in each domain
1970s saw the rise and fall of concept of androgyny—masculinity and femininity found to be
independent, now termed instrumentality and expressiveness, respectively
Cross-cultural work reveals universality of gender stereotypes, which correspond in many ways to
actual sex differences
Traditional theories of sex differences have emphasized the social factor
Recent hormonal theories suggest the social factor does not tell whole story
Evolutionary psychologists argue that men and women differ in those domains in which they
recurrently confronted sex-linked adaptive problems
Needed is integrative theory that includes each of these levels of analysis—social, physiological, and
evolutionary

Chapter 17

Introduction

Several reasons personality psychologists believe it is useful to explore personality across cultures
  Discover whether concepts of personality that are prevalent in one culture are also applicable
  in other cultures
  Discover whether cultures differ in the levels of particular personality traits
  Discover whether the factor structure of personality traits varies across cultures
  Discover whether certain features of personality are universal

Three key approaches to the interface of culture and personality: Evoked culture, transmitted culture,
cultural universals

Cultural Violations—An Illustration

Some aspects of personality are highly variable across cultures
Other aspects are universal—features are shared by people everywhere

What is Cultural Personality Psychology?

Culture: Local within-group similarities and between-group differences of any sort—physical,
psychological, behavioral, attitudinal
Cultural differences also are termed cultural variations
Cultural personality psychology has three goals
  Discover principles underlying cultural diversity
Discover how human psychology shapes culture
Discover how cultural understandings shape psychology

Three Major Approaches to Culture

Evoked Culture

- Evoked culture refers to a way of considering culture that concentrates on phenomena that are triggered in different ways by different environmental conditions
- Two ingredients are needed to explain evoked culture
  - A universal underlying mechanism
  - Environmental differences in activation of underlying mechanisms

Evoked Cooperation (Food Sharing)

- Cultural differences in degree to which groups share food depend, in part, on external environmental conditions, notably the variance in the food supply
- When variance in food supply is high, more sharing

Early Experience and Evoked Mating Strategies

- According to Belsky and colleagues, harsh, rejecting, inconsistent child-rearing practices, erratically provided resources, and marital discord evoke short-term sexual strategy in children
- Sensitivity of personality and mating strategies to early experience may explain cultural differences in the value placed on chastity or virginity in a potential mate
  - In China, marriages are lasting, divorces are rare, and parents invest heavily in children—high value on chastity, virginity
  - In Sweden, divorce is more common, more children are born outside of marriage, fewer investing fathers—low value on chastity, virginity
- Mating strategies might be differentially evoked in different cultures, resulting in enduring cultural differences in mating strategies

Honors, Insults, and Evoked Aggression

- In cultures of honor, insults are viewed as highly offensive public challenges that must be met with direct confrontation and physical aggression
- One theory attributes the development of culture of honor to the history of herding economy, where resources are subject to mass stealing
- Thus, the assumption that all humans have the capacity to develop high sensitivity to public insults and the capacity to respond with violence
- These capacities are evoked only in certain cultures, however, and lie dormant in others (non-herding economies)

Transmitted Culture

- Transmitted culture: Representations (ideas, values, beliefs, attitudes) that exist originally in at least one person’s mind that are transmitted to other minds through observation or interaction with the original person

Cultural Differences in Moral Values

- Many moral values are specific to particular cultures and are likely to be examples of transmitted culture

Reaching Across the Great Divide: The Psychology of Cross-Cultural Marriages

- Two lines of inquiry of interest to personality psychologists
  - Who is most likely to marry outside of his or her own culture?
• What happens in cross-cultural marriages that might make them different from mono-cultural marriages?

Cultural Differences in Self-Concept
• According to Markus and Kitayama, each person has two fundamental “cultural tasks” that have to be confronted
  • Communion or interdependence: Concerns how you are affiliated with, attached to, or engaged in the large group of which you are a member
  • Agency or independence: How you differentiate yourself from the larger group
• Cultures appear to differ in how they balance these two tasks
  • Non-Western, Asian cultures focused more on interdependence
  • Western cultures focused more on independence
• Independence is similar to “individualism” and interdependence similar to “collectivism” (Triandis)

Cultural Differences in Self-Enhancement
• Self-enhancement: Tendency to describe and present oneself using positive or socially valued attributes
• Research indicates that North Americans, relative to Asians, maintain positive evaluation of self
• Two explanations offered for cultural differences in self-enhancement:
  • Asians are engaging in impression management (difference is not real)
  • Cultural differences are accurate and reflect participants’ different self-concepts—this explanation has received some support

Personality Variation Within Culture
• Social class may have an effect on personality
• Historical era may have an effect on personality

Cultural Universals
• This approach to culture and personality attempt to identify features of personality that appear to be universal, or present in most or all cultures

Beliefs About the Personality Characteristics of Men and Women
• Worldwide, people tend to regard men as having personalities that are more active, loud, adventurous, obnoxious, aggressive, opinionated, arrogant, course, and conceited
• Women in contrast, are regarded as having personalities that are more affectionate, modest, nervous, appreciative, patient, changeable, charming, and fearful

Emotion
• Apparent cultural universals describe experience and expression of specific emotional states, such as fear, anger, happiness, sadness, disgust, and surprise
• People worldwide can recognize and describe these emotions when presented photographs of others expressing them, even if photographs are of people from other cultures

Personality Evaluation
• Dimensions used for personality evaluation show some cultural universality
• Strong evidence suggests two key dimensions (dominance and warmth) are used for describing and evaluating personality traits of others
• Also, evidence that structure of personality traits, as represented by five-factor model of personality, may be universal for four of five traits—surgency, agreeableness, emotional stability, and conscientiousness
Summary and Evaluation

- Several reasons psychologists find it useful to explore personality across cultures
  - Discover whether concepts of personality that are prevalent in one culture also are applicable in other cultures
  - Discover whether cultures differ in levels of particular personality traits
  - Discover whether factor structure of personality traits varies across cultures
  - Discover whether certain features of personality are universal
- Three key approaches to the interface of culture and personality: Evoked culture, transmitted culture, cultural universals

Chapter 18

Models of the Personality-Illness Connection

- Interactional model
  - Objective events happen to a person, but personality determines the impact of events by influencing a person’s ability to copy
  - Personality moderates the relation between stress and illness
  - Coping response influences degree, duration, and the frequency of a stressful event
  - Problem: Researchers are unable to identify stable coping responses that are consistently adaptive or maladaptive
- Transactional model
  - Personality has three potential effects
    - Can influence coping
    - Can influence how a person appraises events
    - Can influence events themselves
  - Appraisal suggests that it is not the event itself that causes stress, but how the event is interpreted by a person
  - People don’t just respond to situations, they also create situations through choices and actions
- Health behavior model
  - Personality does not directly influence the relation between stress and illness
  - Instead, personality affects health indirectly, through health promoting or health degrading behaviors
- Predisposition model
  - Associations may exist between personality and illness because of a third variable that is causing them both
  - Association found between illness and personality because of some predisposition that underlies them both
- Illness behavior model
  - Personality influences the degree to which a person perceives and attends to bodily sensations, and the degree to which a person interprets and labels sensations as illness
  - Most models of personality and illness include a key variable of stress
  - Stress is not “out there” in our lives, representing something that happens to us
  - Instead, stress lies in part in how we interpret and respond to those events
  - Thus, stress lies “in between” the event and the person

The Concept of Stress

- Stress is a subjective feeling produced by events perceived as uncontrollable and threatening
- Stressors: Events that lead to stress and have several common attributes
  - Extreme in some manner, in that stressors produce a state of feeling overwhelmed
  - Produce opposing tendencies in us, such as wanting and not wanting some activity or object
• Perceive as uncontrollable

Stress Response
• Startle, heart beats fast, blood pressure increases, sweaty palms and soles of feet—fight-or-flight response, increase in sympathetic nervous system activity
• General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS)
  • Alarm stage: Fight-or-flight response
  • If stressor continues, stage of resistance: Body uses resources at above average rate, even though fight-or-flight response subsided
    • Stress is being resisted, but takes a lot of person’s energy
  • If stressor is constant, the person enters the stage of exhaustion: More susceptible to illness, because physiological resources are depleted

Major Life Events (Holmes & Rahe, 1967)
• Identified both positive and negative events that are stressors
• People who experienced most stress also are more likely to have a serious illness over the next year
• Subsequent experimental work suggests that people under chronic stress deplete bodily resources and become vulnerable to infections
• Current thinking is that stress lowers the functioning of immune system, leading to lowered immunity to infection and resulting in illness

Daily Hassles
• Major events stress, but infrequent
• Daily hassles provide most stress in most people’s lives
• Research indicates that people with a lot of minor stress suffer more from psychological and physical symptoms

Varieties of Stress
• Acute stress
• Episodic acute stress
• Traumatic stress
  • Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)
• Chronic stress
• Stress has additive effects, cumulating in a person over time

Primary and Secondary Appraisal
• Stress is the subjective reaction of a person to potential stressors
• According to Lazarus (1991), in order for stress to be evoked, two cognitive events must occur
• Primary appraisal: Person perceives an event as a threat to goals
• Secondary appraisal: Person concludes they do not have resources to cope with demands of threatening event

A Closer Look: The Role of Positive Emotions in Coping with Stress
• General hypothesis: Positive emotions and appraisals may lead to a lowered impact of stress on health
• Three coping mechanisms are capable of generating positive emotion during stress (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000)
  • Positive reappraisal: Person focuses on the good in what is happening
  • Problem-focused coping: Thoughts and behaviors that manage or solve an underlying cause of stress
  • Creating positive events: Creating positive time-out from stress
Coping Strategies and Styles

Attributional Style
- Answer to question, “Where does the person typically place the blame when things go wrong?”
- Three dimensions of attribution: External versus internal, unstable versus stable, specific versus global
- Different measures: Attributional Style Questionnaire, Content Analysis of Verbatim Explanations (CAVE)

Refinements to the Attributional Style Construct
- Optimism-pessimism (Peterson, 2000): People who make stable, global, and internal explanations for bad events termed “pessimists,” whereas people who make unstable, specific, external explanations for bad events termed “optimists”
- Dispositional optimism (Scheier & Carver, 2000): Expectation that good events will be plentiful and bad events rare in future
- Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986): Belief that one can do behaviors necessary to achieve desired outcome
- Optimistic bias: People generally underestimate their risks, with the average person rating risks as below true average

Optimism and Physical Well-Being
- Optimism predicts good health and health promoting behaviors

A Closer Look: How Does Optimism Promote Health?
- Through the effects on the immune system
- Through an emotional mechanism
- Through a cognitive process
- Through effects on social contacts
- Through direct behavioral mechanism

Management of Emotions
- Some theorists suggest that emotional inhibition leads to undesirable consequences
- Other theorists see emotional inhibition more positively
- Chronically inhibited emotion seems to come with certain “costs” to the nervous system
- Someone who characteristically inhibits emotional expression may suffer effects of chronic sympathetic nervous system arousal
- Also, emotions serve the function of communicating to others how we are feeling
- Research indicates that emotional expressiveness may be good for our psychological health and general adjustment

Disclosure
- Pennebaker argues that not discussing traumatic, negative, upsetting event can lead to problems
- Telling a secret can relieve stress, increase health

Type A Behavior and Cardiovascular Disease
- Type A behavior pattern
  - Achievement motivation and competitiveness
  - Time urgency
  - Hostility and aggressiveness
- Early studies of Type A found it was an independent risk factor for developing cardiovascular disease
- Early studies conducted by physicians using structured interview
• Later research used self-report surveys
• Studies using surveys less likely to find relationships between Type A and heart disease than studies using structured interview
• Structured interview gets at the lethal component

Hostility: The Lethal Component of the Type A Behavior Pattern

How Are the Arteries Damaged by Hostile Type A Behavior?

Summary and Evaluation

Chapter 19

The Building Blocks of Personality Disorders
• Symptoms of personality disorders can be viewed as maladaptive variations within the domains of traits, emotions, cognitions, motives, and self-concept
• Personality disorders as maladaptive variations or combinations of normal personality traits
• Several personality disorders involve maladaptive variations on common motives, especially power and intimacy
• Cognitive processes can become distorted in personal disorders
• Several personal disorders include extreme variations in experienced emotion
• Most personality disorders include distortion of self-concept
• Social relationships, especially interpersonal and sexual behavior, frequently disturbed or involve maladaptive patterns in personality disorders
• Biology forms a building block of several personality disorders
• Disorders of personality can provide insight into the normal workings of personality

The Concept of Disorder
• Psychological disorder
  • Pattern of behavior or experience that is distressing and painful to the person
  • Leads to disability or impairment in important life domains
  • Associated with the increased risk for further suffering, loss of function, death, or confinement
• Abnormal psychology: Study of mental disorders, including thought disorders, emotional disorders, and personality disorders

What Is Abnormal?
• Statistical definition: Whatever is rare, not frequent, and not statistically normal
• Social definition: Whatever society does not tolerate
• Statistical and social definitions are tied to changing social or cultural norms
• Psychologists thus look within persons, inquiring about subject feelings and thoughts
• Psychopathology: Study of mental disorders
• Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th ed. (DSM-IV): Widely accepted system for diagnosing and describing mental disorders

What is a Personality Disorder?
• Enduring pattern of experience and behavior that differs greatly from expectations of a person’s culture
• Disorder is usually manifested in more than one of following areas: Thoughts, feelings, how a person gets along with others, and the ability to control own behavior
• Pattern of behavior is rigid and displayed across a variety of situations, leading to distress in key areas of life such as work and relationships
• Pattern of behavior typically has a long history in a person’s life, often back to adolescence or childhood
• Pattern must not be attributable to drug abuse, medication, or other medical condition

Varieties of personality disorder
• DSM-IV lists 10 personality disorders, classified into three groups
  • Erratic group: Persons with these disorders appear erratic, emotional, and have difficulties getting along with others
    • Includes antisocial, borderline, histrionic, and narcissistic personality disorders
  • Eccentric group: Persons with these disorders appear odd, eccentric, do not get along well with others
    • Includes schizoid, schizotypal, and paranoid personality disorders
  • Anxious group: Persons with these disorders appear anxious, fearful, apprehensive, and have trouble with social relationships
    • Includes avoidant, dependent, and obsessive-compulsive personality disorders

• All personality disorders involve impaired social relations

Categories or dimensions?
• Categorical view
  • Either the person does or does not have personality disorder
  • Disorders are viewed as distinct and qualitatively different from normal extremes on some trait
• Dimensional view
  • Personality disorder is viewed as a continuum that ranges from normality at one end to severe disability or disturbance at other end

Culture, age, and gender: The effect of context
• Must take into account person’s culture, age, gender before defining behavior as revealing personality disorder

Specific Personality Disorders

The Erratic Cluster: Ways of Being Unpredictable, Violent, or Emotional
• Antisocial personality disorder
  • Little concern for others
  • Impulse
  • Easily irritated and assaultive
  • Reckless and irresponsible
  • Glib or superficial charm
  • Callous social attitudes
  • Lack of guilt feelings or remorse
  • Indifferent to suffering of others

A Closer Look: Theories of the Antisocial Mind

• Borderline personality disorder
  • Instability of relationships, emotions, and self-image
  • Fears of abandonment
  • Aggressive
  • Prone to self-harm
  • Strong emotions

A Closer Look: Fatal Attraction

• Histrionic personality disorder
• Excessive attention seeking
• Excessive and strong emotions
• Sexually provocative
• Opinions are shallow
• Suggestible
• Strong need for attention

• Narcissistic personality disorder
  • Need to be admired
  • Strong sense of self importance
  • Lack of insight into other peoples’ feelings or needs
  • Sense of entitlement
  • Feelings of superiority
  • Self-esteem appears strong, but is fragile
  • Envious of others

The Eccentric Cluster: Ways of Being Different

• Schizoid personality disorder
  • Detached from normal social relationships
  • Obtains little pleasure out of life
  • Appears inept or socially clumsy
  • Passive in the face of unpleasant events

• Schizotypal personality disorder
  • Anxious in social relations and avoids people
  • Appears “different” and does not conform
  • Suspicious of others
  • Odd or eccentric beliefs, such as in ESP or magic
  • Thoughts and speech sometimes disorganized

• Paranoid personality disorder
  • Distrustful of others
  • Misinterprets social events as threatening
  • Harbors resentment towards others
  • Prone to pathological jealousy
  • Argumentative and hostile

A Closer Look: The Unabomber: Comorbidity of Personality Disorders

The Anxious Cluster: Ways of Being Nervous, Fearful, or Distressed

• Avoidant personality disorder
  • Feelings of inadequacy
  • Sensitive to criticism
  • Restricts activities to avoid embarrassments
  • Low self-esteem

• Dependent personality disorder
  • Excessive need to be taken care of
  • Submissive
  • Seeks reassurance from others
  • Rarely takes initiative, rarely disagrees with others
  • Does not work well independently
  • May tolerate abuse from others to obtain support

• Obsessive-compulsive personality disorder
  • Preoccupied with order
  • Strives for perfection
  • Devoted to work, seeks little leisure time or friendship
• Frequently miserly or stingy
• Rigid and inflexible and stubborn

Prevalence of Personality Disorders

• Prevalence refers to total number of cases present in given population during a particular period of time
• Obsessive Compulsive personality disorder most common, with just over 4% prevalence rate
• Next most common are Schizotypal, Histrionic, and Dependent personality disorders, about 2% prevalence rate each
• Narcissistic personality disorder least common, with 0.2% prevalence rate
• Total prevalence rate for having at least one personality disorder is 13%

Dimensional Model of Personality Disorders

• Distinctions between normal personality traits and disorders are in terms of extremity, rigidity, maladaptiveness
• Parallel with chemistry: A little of this trait, some of that trait, and amplifying to extremely high (or low) levels, resulting in specific disorder
• Dominant model currently is categorical model (DSM-IV)

Causes of Personality Disorders

• Abnormal psychology and psychopathology are highly descriptive disciplines
• Some theoretical work on causes of personality disorders
• Most work emphasizes either “biological” causes or “social” causes of personality disorders

Summary and Evaluation

• Hallmark of psychological definition of abnormal is anything that prevents a person from having satisfying relationships or from carrying on productive work
• Sigmund Freud taught that the sign of a mature adult personality is the ability to love and to work
• All of the personality disorders refer to symptoms that cause problems with relationships, work, or both
• Personality disorders refer to enduring patterns of experience and behavior that differ greatly from the norms and expectations of a person’s culture
  • Disorder shows up in how a person thinks, feels, gets along with others, and the ability to control own actions
  • Pattern is displayed across situations, leading to the distress in self or others in key areas of life such as love and work
  • Disorder typically has a long history in a person’s life

Chapter 20

Introduction

• Personality psychologists seek to understand the whole of personality
• However, understanding the whole may be impossible
• Instead, the difficult task of understanding the whole person is best approached by breaking personality into its parts or domains

Current Status of the Field
• Personality psychologists doing research today focus on specific components or domains of knowledge about personality
• Starting about 50 years ago, personality psychologists began turning away from grand theories of personality (e.g., Freud’s psychoanalysis)
• Whole of personality is the sun of its parts, and the understanding of the parts will provide an understanding of the whole

Domains of Knowledge: Where We’ve Been, Where We’re Going

Dispositional Domain
• Concerns aspects of personality that are stable and make people different from each other
• Trait psychologists will continue to focus on interaction of persons and situations
• Trait psychologists will continue to lead the way in developing new methods for measuring personality characteristics and new statistics for evaluating personality research
• Search will continue for traits not yet identified by lexical and statistical strategies of identifying individual differences

Biological Domain
• Core assumption of biological is that humans are biological systems
• Concerns factors within the body that influence or are related to personality
• Biological domain refers to the physical elements and biological systems in body that influence or are influenced by our behaviors, thoughts, and feelings
• Area likely to be active in the future is psychology of approach and avoidance
• More emphasis on genetic influences on personality, as well as work by genetic researchers identifying environmental influences on personality
• Personality research will continue on genetic influences at the molecular level
• Evolutionary perspectives will continue to gain in importance, adding a new layer of questions and insight to personality

Intrapsychic Domain
• Concerns factors within the mind that influence behavior, thoughts, and feelings—many of these influences are argued to operate at the unconscious level
• Psychologists will continue to be interested in the idea that people can have thoughts outside of conscious awareness
• Topic of repressed memories also is likely to receive attention by researchers and clinicians

Cognitive-Experiential Domain
• Concerns subjective experiences and other mental process
• Psychologists are likely to continue to focus attention on self-concept and identity
• Likely that psychologists will incorporate the idea that identity is like a story, and that the narrative approach will continue to be part of personality psychology
• Psychologists will continue to investigate the notion that people construct their experiences, how this works, and what it tells us about personality
• Goal concepts and emotions will continue to be important within personality psychology

Social and Cultural Domain
• Personality does not reside merely in the heads, nervous systems, and genes of people
• Rather, personality affects, and is affected by, significant others in our lives
• At the cultural level, groups differ tremendously from one another
• Different cultures may evoke different facets of personality
• Study of culture and cross-cultural difference and similarities will continue to grow in personality psychology
• Whatever their origins, gender differences will continue to be of compelling interest to personality psychologists

Adjustment Domain
• Personality plays a key role in how we cope, adapt, and adjust to the ebb and flow of events in life
• Personality is linked with important health outcomes, health-related behaviors, and even how long we live
• Shift in personality psychology toward looking at the role of positive emotions
• Psychologists will continue to apply the trait approach to understanding personality disorders

Integration: Personality in the New Millennium

• Domains of knowledge are complementary, not conflicting
• The different domains seek answers to different questions
• Real action in personality research will be at boundaries of domains
• Progress in personality will depend on researchers’ willingness and ability to reach across domains