

General Course Policies in Psy 3302

Welcome to Psy 3302.

Psy 3302 is a serious course for students serious about learning the subject matter of personality. On the basis of past experience, it is safe to say that **if you don't do most of the work you won't do well in this course**. On the other hand, students who do the work typically do well. The great majority finish with grades in the range of A to B-.

The syllabus. The most central document in Psy 3302 is the syllabus. It identifies the resources and describes the format of the course, including readings, class topics, and Tests. It is designed to tell you everything you need to know in order to find your way through the course.

You should **read this syllabus carefully right away**, use it continually to find assignments and to help you organize your studying, and **read it again carefully from time to time** to make sure you remember the basic features of the course and to help you understand the broader framework of the materials.

You will receive an abbreviated paper copy of the syllabus, but because the full syllabus is long and budgets are tight, the full syllabus will be available only on Library Reserve, including Electronic Reserve (ERes), and on my web site (http://www.morris.umn.edu/academic/psychology/syll_3302.pdf).

The full syllabus contains lecture outlines designed to help you follow the lectures. These will be updated during the semester, and you will receive the updates via e-mail. Please **bring the relevant outline to every class session**.

Class Format

The topics listed in this syllabus may be covered in class by lecture, discussion, exercises, videos, or any other medium that proves useful. In general, **the lectures complement but do not duplicate the readings** and only occasionally involve detailed comment on the readings. In this course, lectures and readings are two different sources of information in the area of personality, and each should be able to stand on its own. If you have a problem with either one, please raise questions in class, since in that case other students probably have the same problem. Please also feel free to talk to the teaching assistants or to me outside of class.

In Psy 3302, most class meetings will include opportunities to discuss current readings. Depending on students' preferences, we will also schedule special review sessions, especially just before the four tests.

Teaching Assistants

The course is staffed with three undergraduate teaching assistants (TAs). The TAs will have office hours, will be available for individual consultation or tutoring, will conduct occasional discussion sections, and will meet with study groups at their request. The TAs will also assist in administering and grading quizzes and tests.

Article Discussions

There will be at least three class sessions for the discussion of articles drawn from the journal literature on personality. These will be placed on ERes. It is essential that you read each article carefully before its discussion session. To encourage this, each discussion session will begin with a short quiz on the article. It will end with a second short quiz on its more difficult points. The class will be divided into smaller groups in break-out rooms, each led by a TA or me, to facilitate the discussions.

Other Course Activities

You will receive occasional assignments in Psy 3302 designed to sharpen your observations of your own personality, to demonstrate some of the concepts in the field, and to introduce you to selected research methods. These activities may consist of brief papers, systematic monitoring of your own behavior and inner experience, taking selected personality tests, and possibly other operations. Most of this activity will take place outside the classroom, with instructions, response forms, and, where necessary, equipment that we will provide. If the activity should consist of collecting easily quantified data, the data for the class will be collected, analyzed, and reported back to the class. In all instances the data will be collected anonymously with full safeguards of everyone's privacy.

Grading standards and Workload Expectations

University policy now requires all course syllabi to contain the following statements. A moment's reflection by a critical thinker will make it apparent that the grading standards below are too ambiguous to place any serious constraints on an instructor's judgments, but, for what they are worth, here they are. Note that the workload expectations are quite *unambiguous* and are the basis for deciding on workload in this course.

University Grading Standards.

- A achievement that is outstanding relative to the level necessary to meet course requirements.
- B achievement that is significantly above the level necessary to meet course requirements.
- C achievement that meets the course requirements in every respect.
- D achievement that is worthy of credit even though it fails to meet fully the course requirements.
- S achievement that is satisfactory, which is equivalent to a C- or better.
- F (or N) Represents failure (or no credit) and signifies that the work was either (1) completed but at a level of achievement that is not worthy of credit or (2) was not completed and there was no agreement between the instructor and the student that the student would be awarded an I.

- I (Incomplete) Assigned at the discretion of the instructor when, due to extraordinary circumstances, e.g., hospitalization, a student is prevented from completing the work of the course on time. Requires a written agreement between instructor and student.

Credits and Workload Expectations. For undergraduate courses, one credit is defined as equivalent to an average of three hours of learning effort per week (over a full semester) necessary for an average student to achieve an average grade in the course. For example, a student taking a four-credit course that meets for four hours a week should expect to spend an additional eight hours a week on coursework outside the classroom.

(End of mandated section)

Equal Opportunity Statement. The University of Minnesota is committed to the policy that all persons shall have equal access to its programs, facilities, and employment without regard to race, color, creed, religion, national origin, sex, age, marital status, disability, public assistance status, veteran status, or sexual orientation.

Academic Misconduct

In the University of Minnesota Policy on Scholastic Misconduct, scholastic misconduct is broadly defined as "any act that violates the rights of another student in academic work or that involves misrepresentation of your own work." Scholastic dishonesty includes (but is not necessarily limited to): cheating on assignments or Tests; plagiarizing, which means misrepresenting as you own work any part of work done by another; submitting the same paper, or substantially similar papers, to meet the requirements of more than one course without the approval and consent of all instructors concerned; depriving another student of necessary course materials; or interfering with another student's work.

For the protection of students and course integrity in Psy 3302, I take academic misconduct quite seriously. Academic misconduct in any portion of the academic work for this course shall be grounds for awarding a grade of F or N for the entire course.

On a personal note, when I post a grade I am delivering my best judgment of the student's level of accomplishment. I cannot be an accomplice to undermining the honesty of the grades I report and still preserve an honest relationship to my faculty and student colleagues in the UMM community. The grades I report must therefore represent my honest best judgment of each student's accomplishment. A student who cheats is exploitatively manipulating my honest judgment and thereby falsifying it.

In light of this, I regard cheating, including plagiarism, as a form of personal betrayal, and I react to it self-protectively as I would respond to any other form of betrayal, by avoiding having anything more to do with the person involved. I therefore regard evidence of deliberate plagiarism or other cheating as an immediate involuntary withdrawal from this course and from any other course I may be associated with now or in the future. The only exceptions would

depend upon the re-establishment of my trust in the person, which would be at best difficult and for which there is no pat formula.

I believe that most UMM students are basically honest and decent people, but even basically honest and decent people are subject to temptation and error. Be sure you understand the rules, including the definition of plagiarism (see above), and be scrupulous in abiding by them.

Help for Students with Disabilities

It is University policy to provide, on a flexible and individualized basis, reasonable accommodations to students who have disabilities that may affect their ability to participate in course activities or to meet course requirements. Because we cannot anticipate every student's special needs, I urge students with disabilities or other special needs to contact the instructor early in the semester to discuss their individual needs for accommodations. UMM's Academic Assistance Center (362 Briggs Library; www.mrs.umn.edu/services/dsoaac/aac/) is also available for help beyond the help available from the instructor and teaching assistants of the course. If you have a disability and need accommodations, please contact Colleen Frey at the UMM Disability Services office, 362 Briggs Library, extension 6163.

This syllabus is available in alternative formats upon request. Please see the instructor.

(Portions of the above several sections were adapted verbatim from official University policy statements.)

Adverse Emotional Reactions To The Readings

If anything in the course makes you emotionally uncomfortable, or if you wish to talk about the course for any reason, don't hesitate to see me about it. If you feel distressed for any reason and wish more than a faculty conference, the UMM Counseling Service (Behmler Hall, second floor rear; 589-6060) is available to help you. After hours, you can reach emergency services through 589-1313.

Tests, Grading, and Deadlines

Kinds of tests. There are four in-class, closed-book Tests in Psy 3302. There will also be occasional quizzes during regular class sessions. The Tests consist of identify-define-describe items, essay questions, and possibly multiple-choice, matching, listing, or fill-in-the-blank items. Quizzes will contain only the non-essay kinds of items. There is a specimen Test along with comments on how it is graded later on in this syllabus.

In addition to the quizzes and Tests, there will be a series of short paper assignments.

Point distributions. Final grades will be based on 1000 points. These are distributed as follows: 150 points for each of four in-class Tests, totaling 600 points; 200 points for the quizzes; and 200 points for the occasional brief paper assignments. You may receive extra points for participating

as a subject in psychological investigations at the rate of 3 points per half hour of participation up to a maximum of 30 points.

Alternate exams. If you are disappointed with your performance on a Test and wish to study some more to improve your mastery of the material, you may take an alternate Test on the same material with similar questions. If your performance on the alternate Test is better than that on the original Test, the new grade will replace the old one on your grade record. If it is worse, the old grade will stand. You may take as many alternate Tests on a given part of the course as you wish, but after the first alternate they will take the form of oral examinations.

There are no alternate forms for the quizzes. If you have an acceptable excuse (see below), I will waive the quiz and prorate the average of your other quiz grades to fill the gap.

The right to take an alternate Test is contingent on a good faith effort on the original Test. I reserve the right not to admit you to an alternate Test if it looks as if you blew off the original. However, you may take the last alternate Test in the course during finals week without having first taken the original version of the Test.

Writing style. I do not grade directly on general writing style. However, if your writing makes it hard to understand what you are saying, you will *not* receive the benefit of the doubt; and I will refuse to grade Tests that fall below university standards of acceptable writing style. I also reserve the right to dock you points for misspellings and other such violations that are covered in the spelling section of this syllabus. Therefore, please read that section carefully and retain it.

PLEASE USE A PEN, NOT A PENCIL, IN WRITING YOUR TESTS, AND WRITE VERY LEGIBLY.

Absences and excuses. All unit Tests and quizzes must be taken when scheduled except in the case of *certifiable* illness, mental incapacitation, or *dire* personal emergencies. Students who fail to take a quiz or Test for other reasons lose the points associated with it.

Disagreements about Grades

Being human, instructors and teaching assistants sometimes make mistakes. Therefore, if you believe that a grade reflects grader errors or is unfair, please be sure to see me or a teaching assistant. We can't guarantee to agree with you, but we will never hold this against any student, and we welcome the opportunity for interchange.

Study Groups

You are encouraged to participate in a small study group. The purpose of study groups is mutual support in achieving the objectives of the course. By sharing information, and by probing and tutoring one another, all members help themselves and other group members to master the material. Using and teaching are the very best ways to learn. Because none of the quizzes or tests in this course is graded on the curve, helping others can in no way hurt your own chances.

Study groups should include between four and eight committed members. If you already know people in the course with whom you would like to form a group, you are welcome to do that. We

will ask you to let us know the membership of your group. If, like a majority of students, you do not already have the makings of a study group, we will assign you to one during the first week of the course.

Study groups normally meet independently of the teaching staff, but, if you like, the teaching assistants and I will be happy to meet with your study group at a mutually convenient time.

Specimen Test Questions

(Unlike an actual Test, the questions for this specimen are drawn from several units in Psy 3302 and 3313 and illustrate the major kinds of questions that might be used. The number of points per actual question or Test will vary. Currently, Tests 1 and 3 in Psy 3302 will contain questions like those in Part I below and questions like those in Part II; Tests 2 and 4; will contain questions like those in Part I below and questions like those in Part III.)

I.A. A matching question: please write to the left of each word in the left-hand column the letter of the entry in the right-hand column that best corresponds to it. (20 points)

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. ___ trait | a. dislikes war |
| 2. ___ state | b. earn a BA degree |
| 3. ___ attitude | c. currently depressed |
| 4. ___ belief | d. sociable |
| 5. ___ goal | e. people get out of life about as much as they put into it |

B. Circle the letter of the *best* answer (4 points each):

6. The science of personality is best described as
- a separate field within the field of psychology
 - a field that integrates the processes covered by other areas of psychology
 - a field outside the main field of psychology
 - a subfield of sociology

II. Identify, define, and describe precisely any three of the following (60 points):

- Identification
- Big Five
- Catharsis hypothesis
- Paranoid schizophrenia

III. Essays

- You are a consultant to a community mental health center. They are establishing a new program to help maximize the functioning of their schizophrenic outpatients, and they want your advice on how best to achieve their goal. What do you advise them to do (other than ask someone else!)? On the basis of what empirical evidence? (35 points)
- Some theorists believe that loving is entirely something that people must learn to do from the society around them. Other theorists believe that people come biologically equipped for the feeling and at least some of the behavior of loving. To what extent and in what way do

you believe loving is built into human beings and (this is very important) on what scientific evidence do you base your belief? (35 points)

Comments on Specimen Unit Test

Part I. These are standard kinds of "objective" question. Each correctly placed letter gets the examinee 4 points.

Part II. The answer to an identify-define-describe question should be relatively short--usually just a few sentences. However, it should be *precise*. That is, it should include the main distinguishing features of the concept (i.e., should identify it); it should distinguish it from other concepts with which it can be confused ("define" comes from the Latin root "fin" meaning "end" and means "set limits or boundaries on"); and it should indicate the relevance of the term to personality psychology or psychopathology if that is not already obvious. Good examples are sometimes helpful.

Suppose you are asked to "identify, define, and describe precisely" the concept *drive* for a maximum of 15 points. Here are four illustrative answers and the number of points each would get:

- A. Any of several gear ratios in an automobile. (0)
- B. A process that motivates someone toward a goal. (8)
- C. According to Hull, drive is a physiological imbalance that motivates behavior, such as hunger and anxiety. It is characterized by elevated arousal levels, restlessness, sensitivity to cues related to reducing drive levels, and temporarily increased value of incentives related to drive reduction. Reducing drive reinforces the behavior that led to drive reduction. (13)
- D. (Same as above, *plus*:) Some investigators define it operationally through deprivation (such as number of hours since last feeding) and others define it by assessing arousal levels. Hull multiplied drive times habit strength times incentive value times some other variables to predict whether the organism will emit a given response. (15)
- E. (Same as D. *plus*:) . In the Yerkes-Dodson Law, drive relates to performance with an inverted-U function, such that intermediate levels of drive lead to optimal performance. Other examples are thirst and sexual arousal. [Etc.]

Note that Answer B received only about half credit (a C- in my point system) because there are several kinds of motivational processes. It doesn't zero in on the distinguishing features of drive. Answer C takes care of that problem and gets an A, but not quite full credit. Answer D is longer (total of five sentences), shows a lot of knowledge about the concept, and receives full credit. Answer E is longer still and adds important points about the concept, but it gets no more points than Answer D because Answer D already met our highest expectations and we cannot give more than full credit. Even though the student writing Answer E makes excellent points, s/he has actually suffered by losing time that could have been spent on other questions.

Part III. The purpose of the course is to develop your **competence** in the field, which requires that you understand the material and know how to use it. That is best assessed through your ability to use the material in thinking about people. The essay questions therefore usually ask you to think with the material--to compare, argue, conclude, diagnose, recommend solutions, and so on, going beyond what is already spelled out in readings and lectures. In this way, also, the essay questions perform an important teaching function in their own right.

Because psychology is a science, the questions ask you to think scientifically. Therefore, statements of opinion are worth very little—whether or not they agree with mine—unless they are supported by valid arguments based where possible on rigorous evidence. This may sound formidable, but most students learn to do this well enough to do well on these Tests. As you study, keep in the back of your mind questions such as "How does the author know this is true?" "On the basis of what evidence does she disagree with So-and-so?" and so on.

Point System

The points assigned to each essay answer are actually a rating system in which points reflect my judgment of the letter grade that an answer merits. For instance, I assign from 53% to 56% of the maximum points for a straight *C*, from 62% to 76% for a *B*, and from 77% to 100% for an *A*.

Note that this is not a linear scale. The full equivalencies are as follows:

(A+ 90-100	C+ 57-61	(F+ 30-39
A 83-89)	C 53-56	F 20-29
A- 77-82	C- 50-53	F- 00-19)
B+ 72-76	D+ 47-49	() = not
B 67-71	(D 43-46	differentiated
B- 62-66	D- 40-42)	in final grade

The advantages of using points rather than just letter grades are that I can add them up across questions (and later across tests), they can reflect the relative importance of a question, and they permit finer judgments within a grade level. The advantage of nonlinearity is that I can give disproportionately high rewards for brilliant work and disproportionately low rewards for abysmal work. In other words, some brilliance on some questions can more than outweigh mediocre work on others, and blowing off parts of the material can more than outweigh mediocre work on other parts. Also, these points correspond well to the way I cut distributions of scores on multiple choice Tests, thereby making it easy to combine points from those kinds of questions with essays.

General Suggestions for Studying the Psychology of Personality

What should you learn? You are unlikely to meet the learning goals for these courses by sheer memorization of unimportant detail. On the other hand, you cannot meet them without thoughtfully digesting the ideas, strategies, and major results contained in reports of important investigations. Ask of each major investigation in the readings the following questions:

Why is the investigation important? That is, to what important psychological questions is the experiment addressed?

What method did the investigators use, and what is the psychological rationale for using it?

What important new piece of knowledge does the investigation contribute, and what are its implications for theories of personality?

If you can't answer all of these questions about an investigation, *then note your question down* and raise it at the next meeting of the class or ask a TA or me outside of class.

How much detail should you memorize? The important stuff. As a general rule of thumb, be familiar with ideas and data if (a) they are italicized or bolded; (b) the author devotes a paragraph or more to them, or a table or a figure; (c) they keep coming up; or (d) you find them interesting. You will be held responsible for names of people only if they belong to the author of one of your readings or are historically identified with an important theory, concept, or movement.

Reference tools. You will encounter many new terms. If you are not sure you know what they mean, look them up. ***Don't assume*** (a) that they mean about the same as some simple, familiar word you already know, (b) that a confusing passage is either unimportant or will be explained later, or (c) that if the author lists two or more similar-sounding terms, they are probably different ways of saying the same thing.

One thing you can do to clear up confusion, of course, is to ask a TA or me. There are, however, some first-aid remedies readily available.

First of all, most textbooks (including the textbook by McAdams used for this course) have glossaries that can be helpful. However, many times a good dictionary of the English language can clear up the confusion over a word you think is technical. Always react to a feeling of vagueness about a word, or to a feeling that the author has used two words to mean the same thing, by checking first in a glossary or dictionary. If you don't own a dictionary, I recommend that you buy one. However, dictionary entries are also available on the web using, for example, Google.

If the glossary and dictionary don't list the word, or still leave you confused, you could consult one of the following, which are in the reference section of the library:

English, H. B., & English, A. C. (1958). *A Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms*. N.Y.: Longmans, Green.

Chaplin, J.P. (1968). *Dictionary of Psychology*. NY: Dell. (Paperback)

Kazdin, A. E. (Ed.)(2000). *Encyclopedia of Psychology*. New York: Oxford U. Press/Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association. (8-volume set!)

Longman Dictionary of Psychology and Psychiatry. (1984). New York: Longman.

Although a confusing passage may sometimes be cleared up by later material, more commonly it causes further confusion about the later material, and the confusion then accumulates to the point where you may have serious difficulties. Try to clear up all confusion when it first occurs.

If you wish to pursue a question into the psychological literature, there are many reference tools. The original, comprehensive, paper tool is *Psychological Abstracts*, a monthly periodical that abstracts or lists nearly every article or dissertation in psychology within about a year of its appearance. However, most people now consult *Psychological Abstracts* electronically on the *PsycINFO* database. You can access this now back to 1872 through the UMM web site: Library—Article and Reference Databases—PsycINFO (I click on R and scroll up to PsycINFO). That brings you to the search screen. (From off-campus, you will be asked to provide your username and UMM ["X.500"] password.) Now just fill in your search terms, and off you go. PsycINFO abstracts articles, dissertations, books, and chapters in books. Books and chapters are relatively recent additions, so older books and chapters are not listed. PsycINFO now also provides links to full-text html and pdf files of many journal articles.

Another useful reference tool is the *Annual Review of Psychology*, in which 15 to 20 prominent psychologists spend a chapter each reviewing developments during a recent period in their specialty. It is far less comprehensive than *PsycINFO* but provides an integration of the material. Other important sources are the *Personality and Social Psychology Review* (appearing in some form since 1980) and the annual *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*.

There is also, of course, the broader Web. You can find useful material through the sites for the American Psychological Association (www.apa.org) and the American Psychological Society (www.psychologicalscience.org). APA has created PsychCrawler (www.PsychCrawler.com) as a search engine for psychologically related material. If you are interested in constructing personality scales, Lewis R. Goldberg at the Oregon Research Institute has put together an International Personality Item Pool (<http://ipip.ori.org/ipip/>). Google (www.google.com) is, of course, an amazingly efficient search engine when you enter a series of search terms, but the information it finds is usually unvetted and hence not necessarily reliable.

Rehearsal and Immersion. The human brain has often been compared to a computer, but in a number of important respects the brain is quite unlike a computer. It cannot instantly store new information or retrieve it on command equally easily under all circumstances. Academic learning requires that you acquire response skills—for instance, for pronouncing new words, relating new ideas to your existing repertoire of concepts and classifications, creating new concepts and classifications, and growing enough "handles" on your new knowledge to permit you to reach for it whenever you need it.

All of this requires that you not only read and listen but also do a great deal of active processing—and processing should not be mechanical repetition but rather creative attempts to relate the material to areas of your life and knowledge. The questions these attempts raise and the problems they pose deepen your understanding and direct you back to look for new aspects of the reading or to question your friends, colleagues, and professors.

Immersion is also important. You are probably less likely to develop deep understanding by giving yourself lots of brief, mechanical exposures to meaningful material than by giving yourself fewer but longer periods of immersion. Long immersion makes it easier to relate new material to old, and is essential to creative use of it. Especially when you think you will need the material, as before a Test, allow time for gentle, sustained immersion in addition to mechanical review. Do a lot of mulling and reflecting. If you can't relate the material to your own life in a concrete way, you probably don't understand it fully.

Understanding. How can you tell whether you really understand something? People use intuitive cues that they understand. Sometimes these are accurate and sometimes not. If you go over and over material, it begins to feel familiar, and that familiarity may serve as a signal of understanding; but it can also be quite misleading. It is quite possible to have a sense of familiarity with something, and even be able to quote it, and yet not understand it clearly. At the point where you can explain it precisely and correctly in your own words, can tell it apart from things it is easily confused with, and can apply it in a practical situation, you probably do understand it. The very best way to learn something with full understanding is to try teaching it to someone else. Then you are likely to become aware of what you don't know about it and can take steps to fill in the gaps.

Vocabulary

Whatever vocabulary you came into the course with, it can stand improvement. The only way you can increase your vocabulary is to be exposed to new words. Therefore, when you come across unfamiliar words in readings and lectures, they provide you with a learning opportunity. Seize it! If you hear the word in class, jot down what it sounded like and look it up or ask one of us about it. If it happens in class, I would even appreciate your raising your hand and asking then and there.

You may not realize it, but you are the victim of a strategic decision made around 1970 by American publishers to "dumb down" their textbooks. They did this by editing out of textbooks all words that seemed uncommon, that dropped below a certain frequency in American English. They also simplified the structure of their prose, so that students acquire less ability to comprehend complex sentences. These publishers were responding to a gradual drop in students' reading abilities and were motivated by their desire for market share, but their policy doomed generations of students to impoverished vocabularies—at least those students who did little reading outside of their textbooks and came from less well educated family backgrounds.

A rich vocabulary helps you to communicate. Less common words are typically not just showy versions of more common ones. Their special connotations let you convey finer gradations of meaning and hence let you be more precise about what you mean to say. If you are planning on graduate school, there is one more, very concrete advantage to a rich vocabulary: It is a crucial factor in the verbal part of Graduate Record Examination scores. Students with restricted vocabularies are likely to do substantially less well and therefore lose out in the competition for the best graduate opportunities.

Therefore, students who wish that instructors would talk exclusively "on my level" are wishing for something educationally unwise. I don't plan to cooperate with it. (But I *do* want to be clear!)

Writing Style and Spelling

It might seem strange to find a section on style in a psychology syllabus, but because this is a liberal arts college, writing competency should be an issue in all work you do. One of the goals of a liberal education is the ability to write effectively. At the very least, your everyday writing style ought to be good enough not to be an embarrassment to you or to UMM.

Writing style is not something you can put on at will, like company manners. It has to be ingrained through practice. That is why you are expected to write competently in this course. If you feel that this is too much of a challenge, I urge you to visit the English faculty's Writing Room on the third floor of Briggs Library for help in upgrading your skills. They will actually coach you through your papers and exams.

Bad writing is not only ineffective communication, it is also hard on your readers. For a fluent reader, trying to wade through material that is badly spelled, badly punctuated, and poorly organized is like trying to slide down a wooden chute that hasn't been properly sanded. It cuts your speed, increases your effort, and becomes a pain in the backside.

This syllabus is not the place to provide you with the fundamentals of good writing, but there are certain kinds of spelling errors that occur with special frequency in psychology courses because the words are heavily used in psychological writing. This section of the syllabus points out some of the most common of these. Please memorize the correct spelling of these words and use it in your Tests and papers.

The old nemesis: "ie" versus "ei." The following traditional rhyme might help you:

"I" before "e" (achieve, believe)
Except after "c" (receive, perceive)
Or when sounded like "ay"
As in "neighbor" or "weigh"

(with certain exceptions, including weird, foreigner, either, neither, counterfeit, seize, and probably some others!)

Adjective versus noun endings and the letter l. In English, the adjectival ending that uses *l* is spelled *-al*. The ending *-le* is a noun ending. That is why we write about principal factors but about scientific principles. In the first instance, *principal* modifies *factors* as an adjective, but in the second instance *principles* is a noun. (If you are confused by the differences between nouns and adjectives, visit the Writing Room today! Use the emergency entrance!) That is also why we have *virtual*, *rational*, and *theoretical* spelled *-al* but *pinnacle*, *monocle*, and *pickle* spelled *-le*. As with all things in English, there are exceptions. Principals of schools are spelled *-al*, but that is probably because of historic accident—here, *principal* is probably short for *principal teacher*. Also *withdrawal* is spelled with an *-al* even though *withdrawal* is a noun; but it is a noun formed from the verb *withdraw* (not from *drawl*). In English, nouns formed from verbs often have an *-al* ending (committal, revival, referral).

Doubling consonants on stressed syllables. Sometimes a rule in a language creates undesired outcomes. Then the language must come up with a second rule to get around the problem created by the first rule. For instance, in Italian a *g* followed by an *e* is soft (as in *gelatin*), so to get a hard *g* when the next sound is *e* Italians interpose a silent *h*. That is why there is an *h* in *spaghetti* and *ghetto*. In English, the sounds of certain vowels change when they are followed by a single consonant and then by an *e*. Compare *quit* with *quite*. Therefore, if you don't want the vowel sound to change when you put a verb in the past tense, for example, the second rule is to double the consonant. That is why we write *commit* and *commitment* but *committed*; or *occur* but *occurrence*. However, for some reason this is done only if the vowel is in a stressed syllable. Therefore, we write *refer* and *referred* but *reference*.

Effect versus affect. I won't try to reason this one out. Both can serve as either nouns or verbs, but they mean different things according to the spelling. The noun *effect* means the impact of one thing on another, as in *the effect of the action*. The verb *effect* carries this meaning out in one way, as in *He effected the plan*. (I.e., *He put the plan into effect*.) But if you wish to carry out another meaning of the noun *effect* in a verb form, meaning one thing had an effect on another, the spelling changes: *Thirst affected her perception of the desert*. The best way to remember this last spelling is to recall that in English we occasionally prefix the letter *a* (often along with a consonant) to indicate impact, as in *the aggrieved party, aggravated assault, acknowledged letter*. The prefix is a form of the Latin *ad-* meaning *to* or *toward*. Finally, there is the noun *affect*, as in *Happiness is positive affect*. Used as a noun, *affect* is a synonym for *emotion* or, as in this course, for certain components of emotion. Now you should be able to understand the following sentence: *Effecting the plan with such poor effects affected his affect*. (!) Please get it right.

The endings ence versus ance. Here again there is no way to reason out this distinction. However, try to be sensitive to the spelling differences in your writing, even if it takes rote memorization. Thus, we write *occurrence, tendency, dependency* (and, of course, *dependent*) but *maintenance, resistance, and deviance*.

Singular and plural forms of Latin and Greek words. Until about the middle of the 20th century, liberally educated people were expected to know Latin and Greek, since these languages, and especially Latin, formed such an important basis for the English language, and since Latin long served as the international language of Western scholarship. People with that kind of background had no problems with English words imported directly from the Latin or Greek. Today, few students ever learn these languages and most are therefore at a loss when trying to use their imports into English. However, here are some simple rules for people without that background.

Latin nouns can be masculine, feminine, or neuter. All genders appear commonly in various words used in English. The nominative singular and plural endings are as follows:

	Singular	Plural	Examples
Masculine	-us	-i	stimulus, stimuli; alumnus, alumni
Feminine	-a	-ae	alumna, alumnae; fovea, foveae
Neuter	-um	-a	datum, data; memorandum, memoranda

Note that we speak of one stimulus but of two stimuli and that *data* is plural. We speak of a single datum. *The data is...* is incorrect usage. Always, *data are* (or were). You should be able to generalize from these examples to new instances. For example, you might look at several aquaria before buying the aquarium of your choice, and you might compare the UMM PE Center with other gymnasia. (The same goes for medium/media [in the context of communications] and agendum/agenda, but widespread incorrect usage has caused their plurals to become the official singular forms.)

Watch out for the Greek endings, too. There are only two sets in common use in English. One set ends *-on* in the singular and becomes *-a* in the plural: for instance, *phenomenon* (singular) but *phenomena* (plural). Likewise, *criterion* and *criteria*. (Note the similarity to the Latin neuter

endings: -um and -a.) Many people treat *phenomena* and *criteria* as if they were Latin singular nouns, but they are Greek plurals. We speak correctly of one criterion for success or of several criteria, of one phenomenon but several phenomena. The second Greek set ends in *-a* in the singular but in *-ata* in the plural, as in *schema* and *schemata*, or *stigma* and *stigmata*.

Etc. This is *not* spelled *ect.* even though in English one might think that *c* after *t* must be a typo. *Etc.* is an abbreviation for the two Latin words *et cetera*, which mean and other things. That is why the *c* follows the *t*. It is also why *and etc.* is incorrect; it would be saying *and and other things*.

NOTE: Although this is a course in psychology, and therefore nearly all of your grade is based on your working knowledge of the material in the area of this course, I reserve the right to reduce your grade for repeated language errors, especially if they are among those covered in this syllabus.

Main General Personality Learning Goals

1. Acquire a detailed, explicit model in your head for the way humans function psychologically. Be able to view individual humans as psychological *systems* with parts and organization. Know what the important psychological subsystems are and how they interact to produce behavioral outcomes.
2. Be able to read critically research reports about personality in standard psychological journals.
3. Given a particular problem behavior, be able to generate hypotheses about what motives and rewards are probably maintaining it (that is, what incentives the behavior is directed at), to think of ways to test your hypotheses, and to think of ways to change the behavior.
4. Know how to tell theory from evidence and, for all major theoretical statements or assumptions, be able to describe the nature of the empirical evidence that supports them or casts doubt on them.
5. Be able to identify and characterize the contributions of major theorists in the field of personality.
6. Become sufficiently familiar with the terminology of personality psychology that you can understand *precisely* what is meant by the many standard terms used in the field and be able to use them *precisely*.

Psy 3302 Schedule of Class Topics and Readings

(Note: This schedule of topics constitutes a statement of aspiration. We may not get to everything on this list or in the lecture outlines. This material constitutes a selection out of a vast field of information. Different instructors and different textbooks vary widely in what they include. This is one instructor's selection. However, there would be consensus that all of the major topics are important.)

Aug.	30	Introduction to the course and the field of personality
Sept.	1	The nature of theory and the role of evidence <i>Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 1</i>
	6-8	Introduction to motivation: Evolutionary perspectives <i>Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 2</i>
	13-15	Emotion: The basics <i>Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 7</i>
	20-22	Consciousness and nonconscious processes; tests of selected psychoanalytic propositions (fantasy; ego-depletion) <i>Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 11</i>
	27	Test 1
	29	Dynamics and prediction of personal choices
October	4	Volition: Processes and individual differences
	6	Achievement motivation <i>Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 3;</i>
	11a	Article discussion: Markus & Kitayama, "Culture and Self:..."
	11b	Goals and the sense that one's life is meaningful; <i>Text quiz and discussion opportunity: Klinger chapter, 1998</i>
	13	The personality system thus far: In what sense is it a system, and how can you relate to it as that? ***Paper 1 is due today.***
	18	Fall break—no class
	20	Test 2
	25	Measuring personality: Basic concepts <i>Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 4, pp. 110-127</i>

- 27 Assessing the assessment tools: Reliability and validity
- Nov. 1-3 Methods for measuring personality:
Response-limited (respondent), idiographic,
idiothetic, and projective (operant) instruments
Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 4, pp. 127-152
- 8-10 Dimensional approaches to personality
Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Chs. 5 and 8
- 15a Taxometrics
- 15b Article discussion: McCullough et al., "The grateful disposition: . . ."
- 17 Test 3**
- 22 Heredity in personality traits
Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 6, pp. 215-230
- 24 Thanksgiving holiday—no class
- 29 Stability and consistency of personality
Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 6, pp. 201-215 and 230-245; McAdams Ch. 9
- Dec. 1a Article discussion: Kochanska et al. "Parents' personality and infants' temperament as contributors to their emerging relationship."
- 1b-6 Personality Systems Interaction theory (Julius Kuhl)
Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 10
- 8 TBA
- 13 Course wrap-up
*Text quiz and discussion opportunity: McAdams Ch. 12 and anything else in the course; ***Paper 2 is due today.****
- 15 Test 4**
- 22 Alternate Test 4 (1:30-3:30)**

References

- Klinger, E. (1998). The search for meaning in evolutionary perspective and its clinical implications. In P. T. P. Wong & P. S. Fry (Eds.), *The human quest for meaning: A handbook of psychological research and clinical applications* (pp. 27-50). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Klinger, E., & Cox, W. M. (2004) Motivation and the theory of current concerns. In W. M. Cox & E. Klinger (Eds.). *Handbook of motivational counseling* (pp. 3-27). Chichester, UK: Wiley. **Optional* supplementary reading.**
- Kochanska, G., Friesenborg, A. E., Lange, L. A., & Martel, M. M. (2004). Parents' personality and infants' temperament as contributors to their emerging relationship. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86, 744-759.
- Markus, H., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and self: implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98, 224-253.
- McAdams, D. P. (2006). *The Person: A new introduction to personality psychology* (4th ed.). John Wiley & Sons. **Required textbook.**
- McCullough, M. E., Emmons, R. A., & Tsang, J. (2002). The grateful disposition: A conceptual and empirical topography. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82, 112-127.

*Optional means that the reading is not assigned and your understanding of it will not be directly evaluated. It will be put on reserve for those interested.

LECTURE OUTLINES

(Note disclaimer on p. 16! Also, these outlines will undergo updating through the semester. These are therefore subject to change, and possibly drastic change.)

Introduction to Personality

- I. The psychology of personality encompasses a number of different approaches. There is no agreement on a single definition.
 - A. Gordon Allport's definition (1937, p. 48): "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his (sic!) unique adjustments to his environment."
 - B. Henry Murray's definition (1938, p. 4): "The branch of psychology which principally concerns itself with the study of human lives and the factors that influence their course, which investigates individual differences and types..."

- II. Some common features of personality psychology as it is practiced
 - A. Person-level way of looking at people
 1. How the parts (subsystems) of a person come together to produce total behavioral outcomes (which means that the study of personality requires knowledge of the parts of the person [the subsystems] as well as how they interact with one another)
 2. The unique contribution of personality psychology to general psychology: human psychological organization
 3. Stability and viability of the person-system in coping with shocks (threats, challenges)
 - B. Relatively enduring aspects of human beings (but to understand a person's stability we must also understand how s/he undergoes change or resists change)
 - C. Individual differences (but this is the flip side of individual functioning-- people are different because they function differently, so we must explain individual functioning before we can explain individual differences)

Introduction to Motivation: Evolutionary Perspectives

- I. Requirements for living organisms: procreation, therefore also endurance, therefore compensation for entropy (or mutual infiltration), therefore:**
- A. acquisition of necessary substances and conditions
 - B. replacement of lost or defective substances or conditions
 - C. elimination of toxic substances
 - D. protection against external hazards
 - E. completion of procreative processes
- II. Why do we need a concept like "motivation"? The Centrality of Goal Pursuit in Animal and Human Evolution**
- A. Life forms as biochemical machines, behaviorally inert without motivation
 - B. Without motivation and emotion, nothing matters to an individual
 - C. Sessile and motile strategies
 - D. We're motile; everything revolves around successful goal-striving
 - E. Motivation as the central process of psychology *and* zoology
 - F. Time-binding and the nature of the current-concern construct: Having a goal
 - G. What does the term "goal" include?
- III. Behavior is organized around goal-pursuits; requirements for successful goal-striving:**
- A. **evaluate** current state
 - B. *identify* needs or desires
 - C. launch *search* for substances and conditions (goals) to fulfill these
 - D. *recognize* substances and conditions (goals) when encountered
 - E. **evaluate** for preliminary decision: approach or avoid
 - F. orient toward or avert from object
 - G. perform action
 - 1. select and apply instrumental response
 - 2. *monitor* progress, *register* feedback
 - 3. **evaluate** feedback
 - 4. correct behavior if necessary
 - H. consummate goal or abandon goal if unattainable
 - [I. Role of emotion, cognition in these steps]

IV. Effects of Current Concerns on Cognitive Processing: Attention, Memory, Recall, Dreams

- A. Direct effects on attention, recall, thought content
 - 1. Blunt measures with audiotaped narratives
 - 2. Dot-probe and free recall techniques
- B. Automaticity of the effects
 - 1. Dream content
 - a. Stimulation during sleep
 - b. Presleep suggestions
 - 2. Distraction effects on color-naming (“emotional” Stroop)

V. How Goal Pursuits End

- A. The nice way: Goal attainment
- B. The ugly way: the roller coaster of failure and loss
- C. Emotions, perceptions, memories, thoughts, and actions all track the roller coaster
- D. What is so adaptive—even necessary—about the roller coaster?

VII. Motivational concepts:

- A. Drive (Hull),
- B. Central Excitatory State (Tinbergen), Instinct (Mcdougall; Lorenz, Tinbergen, and the ethological paradigm),
- C. Incentive (general),
- D. Need (general; Murray); motive (McClelland, Heckhausen);
- E. Current concerns (Klinger), personal projects (Little), personal strivings (Emmons), life tasks (Cantor), possible selves (Markus), wish (Freud), intention (Heckhausen, Kuhl, et al.);
- F. Extrinsic/intrinsic (general),
- G. Appetitive/positive vs. aversive/avoidant/negative (general), promotion vs. prevention focus (Higgins)

VII. How is all this related to personality?

Emotion: The Basics

- I. Value: Bridge between Affect and Motivation
 - A. Commitment occurs to things of value
 - B. Nature of value: exchange measures versus affect measures
 - C. Affect as evaluative feedback
 1. Influence of mood on judgments (Mayer, 1992) and decisions
 2. "Emodynamics" (Salovey): Satisfaction and rate of change in outcomes (Lawrence, Carver, & Scheier, 2002)
 3. Emotional sense of well-being depends on match between goals and basic values ("motives") (Brunstein et al., 1998; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999)
 4. Value ratings change when people are asked to think about them (Maio & Olson, 1998)

- II. The many faces of emotion
 - A. Response: neural, hormonal, motoric (face, posture)
 1. Cross-cultural similarity of facial expressions and autonomic reactions (Levenson, Ekman, Heider, & Friesen, 1992; Elfenbein & Amady, 2002, meta-analysis)
 2. Similarities and differences in emotional response patterning (Scherer & Wallbott, 1994) and antecedent appraisals (Scherer, 1997) across 37 countries
 3. Similarity in expressions of the congenitally blind (Galati et al., 1997)
 4. Effects of facial expressions on mood (Kleinke et al., 1998)
 5. Relation of positive affect to D₂ dopamine activity (Depue et al., 1994)
 - B. Stimulus or felt experience (affect) (but many individual differences; Feldman, 1995, on valence vs. arousal focus)
 - C. Physiological state; role of neuropeptides (Candace Pert)
 - D. Drive state (at least in some cases)
 - E. Inverse relation of emotional expression and autonomic reactions (Cacioppo et al., 1992; King; Pennebaker, 1992)
 - F. Steering effects of emotions on attention, recall, and thoughts
 1. Triggering and focusing cognitive processing (Klinger, 1996, 1999; re movement: Cacioppo et al., 1993; Neumann & Strack, 2000; Wentura et al., 2000)
 2. Kuhl's "Modulation Assumptions":
 - a. Positive emotion (as in approach motivation) facilitates translating intentions into actions and deactivates intention memory; inhibiting positive emotion has the opposite effect (see also Kuhl & Kazén, 1999)
 - b. Negative emotion (as in aversive motivation) inhibits access to extension memory and activates object recognition and discrepancy-sensitive attention; dampening negative emotion has the reverse effect
 - G. Alice Isen's work on positive-mood effects; also Ashby, Isen, & Turken, 1999; Rusting, 1999.

(Outline continued on next page)

(Continued from previous page)

- III. How do we acquire our emotional reactions?
- A. Emotion as an aspect (probably) of innate response mechanisms; hence, it is compelling and suffuses experience
 - 1. Issue of "basic emotions" (many references; e.g., Buck, 1999; Cacioppo & Berntson, 1999; Ekman, 1999; Panksepp, 1999; Turner & Ortony, 1999)
 - 2. Hemisphericity of approach and avoidance; relation to emotion (Harmon-Jones, 2003, 2004)
 - B. Heritability of emotionality
 - C. Emotions as conditioned responses
 - D. "Self-conscious" emotions (Lewis, 1995)
 - E. Emotional "toughness" (Dienstbier) as a function of stress history
- IV. Dimensions of emotion
- A. Intensity vs. frequency (Diener & Emmons; Schimmack & Diener, 1997)
 - B. Two separate systems (approach/pos emo vs. avoid/neg emo), but they inhibit each other at given moments in time (Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1999; Carver, 2001; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999).
 - C. Independence of average positive and negative emotions over longer time periods (Tellegen, 1985; Watson & Clark, 1992; Watson & Tellegen, 1999; but see Diener special JPSP section, May 1999; Diener et al., 1995; Goldstein & Strube, 1994; Russell & Carroll, 1999; Yik et al., 1999)
 - C. Inverse relationship at single points in time (Barrett & Russell, 1998), but not necessarily—can be happy and sad at same time (Larsen, McGraw, & Cacioppo, 2001)
 - D. Hierarchical organization; broad dimensions compatible with discrete emotions (Berenbaum et al., 1995; Diener et al., 1995; Watson & Clark, 1992); discrete emotions make a difference, however (Buck, 1999; DeSteno et al., 2000)
- V. Emotional dispositions: Effects on performance and health (chronic anger; hopefulness [Curry et al., 1997; Segerstrom et al., 1998]; pos emotion in early life vs. mortality in later life—the nun study [Danner, Snowdon, & Friesen, 2001])
- VI. How are emotions related to personality? (E.g., Abe & Izard, 1999 [infancy]; DeNeve, 1999 [adult subjective well-being])

Consciousness and Nonconscious (*Implicit*) Processes

- I. "Consciousness" refers to all awareness, all inner experience, at a given moment.
 - A. Totality of human awareness
 - B. What is left out: nonconsciousness: the preconscious and the unconscious (warning: the terms are used inconsistently)
 1. Automatized Processing steps
 - a. In perception: Marcel (1983), Greenwald et al. (1996)
 - b. In volition: Libet et al. (1983)
 - c. In cognition and action: Implicit learning and tacit knowledge (Polanyi; Reber, 1989)
 2. Memory store
 3. Peripheral psychological stages
 4. Selective inattention
 5. Missing links to earlier relationships: transference (Freud; Andersen et al., 1995, 1996); a special case of implicit learning?
 6. Repressed material?
- II. Components of consciousness
 - A. Imagery
 1. Sensory
 2. Mental
 - B. Affect
- III. Functions of consciousness
 - A. Focusing
 - B. Amplification
 1. Mischel studies on resistance to temptation (tests of psychoanalytic theory of fantasy)
 - C. Quasisensory imaginal feedback for complex cognitive operations
- IV. The Traditional Concept of Defense Mechanism
 - A. Self-control through inhibitory control of consciousness; three requirements:
 1. thoughts or intentions that start nonconsciously,
 2. ability to detect these nonconsciously,
 3. ability to stop these from becoming conscious
 - B. Anxiety avoidance by eliminating anxiety-provoking events from consciousness
 - C. Repression versus forgetting
 - D. "Auxiliary" defenses (projection [Kawada et al. 2004 on projecting goals; Schimmel et al., 2003 on defensive function], reaction-formation, isolation, sublimation)
 - E. Distortion of reality, of ideational and affective feedback (e.g., motivated shifts in personal theories: Dunning et al., 1995)
 - F. Self-reinforcing, resistant to change
 - G. Ego-depletion (Baumeister; Kehr, 2004 re discrepancies between implicit and explicit motives)

(outline continued on next page)

(Consciousness lecture continued)

- V. Are "Defense Mechanisms" for Real? (Probably not the way Freud thought of them)
 - A. Hypnosis evidence on posthypnotic amnesia or hypnotic recall; Hilgard versus Spanos: Dissociation and the "hidden observer"
 - B. "Return of the repressed" in therapy differs in content according to the theoretical orientation of the therapist (Holmes, 1974)
 - C. Repression as motivated neglect (Erdelyi, 1990)
 - D. Defense mechanisms of projection and others lack support (Holmes, 1981); "projection" explained by other means (Newman et al., 1997)
 - E. Newer formulations (Cramer, Gleser); Pedersen et al. (2000) re displaced anger
- VI. Coping and Self-Talk (People can modify their consciousness so as to alleviate emotional stress.)
 - A. Coping
 - 1. Conscious and implicit operations in response to threat, challenge, and frustration: When you can't deal with life automatically.
 - 2. Construing reality as accurately as you can (but maybe manipulating how it looks to you)
 - 3. Flexible according to the requirements of reality
 - 4. Ego depletion (Baumeister)
 - B. Dimensions and kinds: Emotion-focused (e.g., Frederickson [1998, 2001, 2003] findings on using positive affect to cope and be resilient), metacognitive, and problem-focused coping; reappraisal versus suppression in regulating emotions (Gross, 1998); self-help, approach, accommodation, avoidance, and self-punishment forms of coping (Zuckerman & Gagne, 2003); Cheng's (2003) discriminative facility and need for closure
 - C. "Stress inoculation training" (Meichenbaum, 1975)
 - 1. Education, relaxation, rehearsal of self-statements, rehearsal under stress
 - 2. Management of "test anxiety"
 - D. Worrying about the future versus ruminating about the past
 - 1. "Work of worrying" vs. denial in children facing surgery (Meichenbaum, Turk, & Burstein, 1975): acquiring information and self-preparation versus focusing on the irrelevant
 - 2. But effect of information reduces immediate stress only with "monitors," has stressing effect on "blunters" (Susan Miller, 1981; women undergoing test for cervical cancer)
 - 3. Rumination and depression (Nolen-Hoeksema; Lyubomirsky et al., 1998)
 - E. "Settling down" current concerns by acquiring information, marshaling skills, rehearsing contingencies
 - F. "Constructive thinking" (Epstein & Meier, 1989) and Cognitive-Experiential Self-Theory (Epstein, 1990; Epstein et al., 1992)
 - G. Coping dispositions (Carver & Scheier, 1994)
 - H. Prejudice as way to maintain self-esteem (Fein & Spencer, 1997)
 - I. "Repressive coping" by self-distraction (Boden & Baumeister, 1997), especially when events threaten self-evaluation of people hypersensitive to all emotional events, and distraction is possible in that situation (Mendolia, Moore, & Tesser, 1996)
 - J. Self-handicapping and its consequences (Zuckerman et al., 1998)

Dynamics and Prediction of Personal Choices: Expectancy X Value Theories and Their Applications

- I. Defining the terms
 - A. Value (see previous outline)
 - B. Expectancy: probability of success
 - C. Instrumentality: Applies to extrinsically valued goals; refers to conditional probabilities of distal-goal attainment with and without attaining the proximal goal

- II. The basic E x V model
 - A. The Subjective Expected Utility or expected value of any one alternative:

$$SEU = \sum_{i=1}^n (P_{x_i})(U_{x_i}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (E_{x_i})(V_{x_i})$$

where x_i is each outcome of a choice
 - B. Given a choice, people select the alternative with the highest SEU
 - C. The Instrumentality x Value (x Expectancy) approach

- III. Tests of E x V theory and its variants
 - A. Marijuana: use and political action (Albrecht & Carpenter, 1976)
 - B. Predicting what people think about (Klinger, Barta, & Maxeiner, 1980)
 - C. Birth planning (Beach et al., 1979; Townes et al., 1977)
 - D. Migration (Chemers, Ayman, & Werner, 1978)
 - E. Suicide (Lester & Yang, 1996)
 - F. A meta-analysis (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996)
 - G. Is emotion the basis of value? (Isen et al., 1988 [negative utility of loss greater in positive moods]; Mellers et al., 1999 [maximizing expected pleasure]; Erez & Isen, 2002 [mood affects V and E])

- IV. Limitations of ExV theory
 - A. Decision-making under stress (Janis & Mann, 1977)
 1. Conditions necessary for "vigilance"
 2. Four nonoptimal patterns of decision making; six bolstering tactics; postdecisional crises
 3. Applications to counseling: diagnostic questions and the balance sheet procedure
 - B. Do people really use E *and* V?
 1. Satisficing (Herbert A. Simon, 1967; Gigerenzer & Goldstein, 1996);
 2. dysregulation of judgment under unpleasant moods with high arousal (Leith & Baumeister, 1996, re risk-taking);
 3. relative importance of E (e.g., difficulty of an assignment) and V (e.g., interest value) changes with distance to goal (e.g., due date of assignment; Liberman et al., 1998) and with promotion vs. prevention focus (Shah & Higgins, 1997)

- V. Value terms and Reversal Theory (Apter, 1989): telic vs. paratelic states

Volition: Processes and Individual Differences

- I. Volition
 - A. Defined as “the process of deciding upon and initiating a course of action” (English & English, 1958, p. 586)
 - B. But now widely used to include self-regulation of the ensuing actions

- II. Evidence that commitment mediates between Value X Expectancy and action
 - A. Different effect of obstacles before and after commitment
 - B. Bereavement
 - C. Hence the *Rubicon effect* (Gollwitzer, 1988; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1987)
 - D. Mindset changes (see III)

- III. Relationships to goals
 - a. Goal pursuit stages and mindsets (deliberative and implementational)
 - b. Illusions (Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995; Alloy & Abramson, 1979)
 - c. Implementation versus goal intentions (e.g., Brandstaetter, Lengfelder, & Gollwitzer, 2001; Gollwitzer, 1999; Snyder, 1994)
 - d. Realistic versus idealistic goal fantasies (Oettingen, Pak, & Schnetter, 2001)
 - e. Implicit volition (Moskowitz et al., 2004)

- IV. Kuhl’s concepts of action versus state orientation
 - A. Readiness to move on to new action vs. preoccupation with past and present state
 1. Action orientation: "the ability to facilitate the enactment of context-adequate intentions . . . whenever it is appropriate" (Kuhl, 1994, p. 10).
 2. State orientation: a focus on one's current state in ways that interfere with continuing volitional activity, including "debilitating effects on individuals' volitional abilities to plan, initiate, and complete intended activities: Intrusive and perseverating thoughts focusing on an experienced state can impair those volitional functions, at least temporarily" (Kuhl, 1994, p. 9).
 - B. "Orientations" as either state or trait
 - C. Neither orientation is inherently adaptive or maladaptive—e.g., state-orientedness facilitates deliberating about a complex decision--state orientation is strongly correlated with anxiety (Bossong, 1994; Hautzinger, 1994; Kammer, 1994; Klinger & Murphy, 1994) and depression (Hautzinger, 1994; Kammer, 1994).
 - D. The dimension is "moderately related to fundamental personality dimensions such as conscientiousness, negative emotionality (sometimes called ‘neuroticism’), anxiety, especially its worry component, intro- versus extraversion, etc." (Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994, p. 3). Nevertheless, Kuhl and Beckmann view the construct as having sufficient variance independent of such other personality dimensions, and sufficient independent relatedness to yet other variables, including neurophysiological ones (Kuhl, 1994a), as to warrant a separate theoretical identity.

- V. Assessment: the Action Control Scale (ACS; Kuhl, 1994b) and the Volitional Components Inventory (Fuhrmann & Kuhl, 1998)
 - A. Three factors of the ACS (Kanfer, Dugdale, & McDonald, 1994; Kuhl, 1994b):
 1. preoccupation (with past events)

V. A. (cont.)

2. hesitation (regarding the future)
 3. volatility (tendency to alternate activities or to multitask)
- B. The first two factors are strongly intercorrelated, but they are uncorrelated with the third. Volatility sounds conceptually the inverse of absorption (Tellegen & Atkinson, 1974), but it is essentially uncorrelated (Klinger & Murphy, 1994) with the Absorption scale of the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ; Tellegen, 1985).
- C. Volitional Components Inventory (35 scales, 263 items; 7-point scale [almost never to very often])

EAV EffortAVoidance	AVE AnstrengungsVERmeidung
REA REActance	REA REAktanz
SCP SelfControlPressure	SKD SelbstKontrolleDruck
SPO SPontaneity	SPO SPontaneität
DEC DEcisionControl	ENK ENtscheidungsKontrolle
IMO IntentionMOnitoring	IKM IntentionsKontrolleMonitoring
SIC StrategicIntentionControl	IKS IntentionsKontrolleStrategie
LAE LAckofEnergy	EDE EnergieDEfizit
PLA PLAnning	PLA PLANen
INI INItiating	INI INItiiieren
XCO eXternalControl	XKO eXternaleKOntrolle
GON GOalNeglect	VNA VerNachlässigen
CAC ConsciousAttentionControl	BAK BewußteAufmerksamkeitsKontrolle
ACU ArousalControlUp	EKA ErregungsKontrolleAktivieren
IAC ImplicitAttentionControl	IAK ImpliziteAufmerksamkeitsKontrolle
ADI AttentionalDIstractability	INT INTrusionsneigung
ACD ArousalControlDown	EKB ErregungsKontrolleBeruhigen
SEL SELfdetermination	SEL SELbstbestimmung
VSE VolitionalSelfEfficacy	VSW VolitionaleSelbstWirksamkeit
MAS MASTery	KOM KOMpetenz
IOJ IntrOjectiontendency	IOJ IntrOjektionsneigung
OPT volitionalOPTimism	OPT realisierungsOPTimismus
FOF FearOfFailure	MIF MIßerfolgsFurcht
EMC EMotionControl	EMK EMotionsKontrolle
EDI EmotionalDistractability	BIK BeeinträchtigteImpulsKontrolle
MOC MOTivationControl	MOK MOTivationsKontrolle
ALI ALIenation	LI ALIenation
SAC ShiftcostsACtion	RIG RIGiditätHandeln
SCO ShiftcostsCOgnitiveAspects	RID RIGidisierungDenken
FCO FailureControl	MIK MIßerfolgsKontrolle
PGF PositiveGoalFantasies	PZF PositiveZielFantasien
EPI EmotionalPerseveranceInhibition	EPL EmotionalesPerseverierenLähmung
RSE ReinforcingSelfEvaluation	PSE PositiveSELbstbegräftigung
EPR EmotionalPerseveranceRumination	EPG EmotionalesPersevierenGrübeln
RWD selfReWarDing	BLO selbstBeLOhnung

Achievement Motivation

- I. Achievement motivation: a seeming paradox for ExV theory
- II. Definitions
 - A. Achievement (Murray, McClelland et al., Heckhausen)
 - B. Motive versus motivation (=tendency)
 - C. Operational definitions of motivational strength
 1. Task choice or goal-setting
 2. Persistence
 3. Performance
- III. Atkinson's risk-taking model of task choice
 - A. Basic assumptions
 1. Pride in success = $f(\text{difficulty level})$ and embarrassment over failure = $f(1 - \text{difficulty level})$
 2. $I_s = f(1 - P_s)$ and $I_{af} = f(P_s)$
 3. Value = $M \times I$
 where I_s = amount of incentive to succeed
 I_{af} = amount of incentive to avoid failure
 P_s = subjective probability of succeeding
 M = strength of achievement motive (or motive to avoid failure)
 - B. The model
 1. $T_r = T_s + T_{af} (+ T_{\text{extrinsic}})$
 2. $T_s = M_s \times P_s \times (1 - P_s) = M_s(P_s - P_s^2)$

 $T_{af} = -M_{af} \times (1 - P_s) \times P_s = -M_{af}(P_s - P_s^2)$
 3. $T_r = (M_s - M_{af})(P_s - P_s^2)$
 - C. Conclusions from the model
 1. Relation between achievement motivation and probability of success is quadratic.
 2. Its function reaches a maximum at $P_s = 0.5$ when $M_s > M_{af}$.
 3. Its function reaches a minimum at $P_s = 0.5$ when $M_s < M_{af}$.
 4. Negative T_r is a task-avoidant tendency.
 - D. Assumptions and limitations of the model

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- IV. The evidence regarding the model
 - A. Task choice results
 - 1. Unimodal distribution of difficulty choices for all groups around objective P_s of 0.3 to 0.7 and around subjective P_s of 0.5 (under certain assumptions regarding subjective expectancy); diagnosticity (Meyer)
 - 2. Distinction between people who choose too-hard tasks and those who choose too-easy tasks
 - 3. Differences between success-motivated and fear-of-failure-motivated people
 - 4. Kuhl's addition of individual performance standard to the model
 - B. Prediction of performance
 - 1. Not very good: Collides with
 - a. Law of difficulty (Ach, 1910)
 - b. Yerkes-Dodson Law (1908)
 - 2. All groups of subjects faced with simple tasks increase effort and performance after failure (Schneider, 1978, 1983).
 - C. Persistence: confirmation of model
- V. Does achievement motivation cause upward mobility or is it the other way around?
 - A. Role theory (see *Meaning and Void*, Pp. 330-336)
 - B. Skolnick's (1966) longitudinal analysis
 - C. Nichols (1977)
- VI. Bases of achievement motivation
 - A. The joy of tension followed by tension-release (Sroufe & Waters, 1976, on smiling)
 - B. Pride (from second year of life)
 - C. Self-evaluation (from third year of life)
- VII. Cognitive factors in the development of achievement motivation: causal attribution
 - A. Cognitive preconditions
 - B. Dimensions of attribution
 - C. Achievement orientation and causal attribution patterns: Attribution as a motive stabilizer, and motives to succeed and to avoid failure as self-reinforcing systems
- VIII. Development of cognitive preconditions for mature achievement motivation
- IX. Mastery orientation versus Performance orientation (Dweck, many others)
- X. Avoidance goals make for unhappier people (Elliott & Sheldon, 1997; Roberson, 1989)

The Personality System Thus Far: In What Sense Is It a System, And How Can You Relate to it as Such?

- I. System: "1. A regularly interacting or interdependent group of items forming a unified whole" (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary)

- II. Personality as a System
 - A. (To the tune of "The foot bone is connected to the leg bone,...":)
 - Perception is connected to cognition, and
 - Cognition is connected to emotion, and
 - Emotion is connected to conation (motivation, volition),
 - And they all go back to your genes!

 - B. Connected and interdependent
 1. What you see and hear depends on what arouses emotion.
 2. What arouses emotion depends on *what* you have set out to do (motivation, volition) and *how* you plan to do it (cognition), as well as on what you associate with it (cognition again).
 3. What you have set out to do (goal) depends on
 - a. what you perceive to be available and relevant (perception)
 - b. which of these most turns you on (emotion, value)
 - c. your beliefs (which are cognitions) about
 - i. whether you can do it (or how likely it is that you can--P_s, expectancy)
 - ii. how you might go about it, including costs in time effort, pain
 4. How you feel (emotion) depends on
 - a. the outcomes of your goal pursuits: joy or the disengagement cycle—invigoration, anger, depression
 - b. expectations about outcomes (hope, fear)
 5. How you feel (emotion) in reaction to how the goal pursuit came out depends on your attributions (cognitions):
outcome → attributions → emotion (e.g., pride, disappointment)
 6. How you feel and to what you attribute outcomes affects your cognitions about what you can do (expectancies, hence cognitions) and therefore what goals you commit yourself to pursue (what relationships, what careers, what hobbies, recreation, etc.)--motivation.

- III. Clinical applications

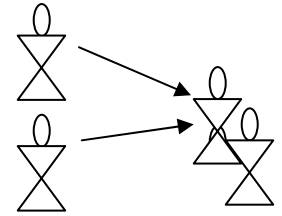
Measuring Personality: Basic Ideas

- I. The Job of Personality Measurement:
 - A. There is no scientific evidence without measurement of some kind.
 - B. Calibration, Analysis, Prediction (e.g., Hogan, 1997, with regard to employment decisions; Neyer & Asendorpf, 2001, with regard to personal relationships)
- II. Interactionism: Traits X Situations
 - A. Indeterminateness of their respective contributions
 - B. Personality codetermines the situations people meet (Magnus et al., 1993)
 - C. Situational effects in individuals' "if...then..." situation-behavior profiles (Shoda, Mischel, & Wright, 1994; Wright, Lindgren, & Zakriski, 2001)
- III. Three "strength factors" that determine how well personality scores predict behavior and inner experience
 - A. Weak versus strong situations (Larsen; Emmons)
 - B. Weak traits (behavior is elicited, "respondent") versus strong traits (behavior is emitted, "operant") (McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989, with implications for "self-report" vs. projective methods; Funder & Colvin, 1991)
 - C. Weakly versus strongly judgeable persons (Colvin, 1993)
- IV. Differential approach assumes
 - A. An appropriate set of response categories or dimensions
 - B. Specification of appropriate situations
 - C. "Sampling" of responses that can be considered either representative or indicative of a larger universe of possible responses.
- V. The search for personality "units" and "elements": Common Traits versus Individual Traits (or Personal Dispositions; Gordon Allport, 1937, 1961) and the Concept of *Traitedness*
 - A. Traits as response biases ("density distributions of states" [Fleeson, 2001, p. 1011])--but how do you formulate the categories of biased responses?
 - B. Idiographic versus nomothetic approaches in personality research
 - C. The problem of establishing psychological equivalence of response categories across different individuals (Allport, 1937; Dunning & McElwee, 1995)
 - D. Are some kinds of variables more readily comparable across individuals than other variables?

Assessing the Assessment Tools: Reliability and Validity

I. Types of Reliability

- A. General definition: Repeatability under identical conditions
- B. Interobserver/interjudge agreement as reliability
 - 1. Two or more observers rate the same people
 - 2. Their ratings are correlated to see how well they agree

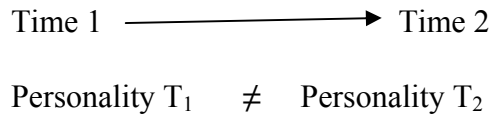


Participant s	Ratings	
	Observer 1	Observer 2
1	8	7
2	3	4
3	6	2
...
<i>N</i>	5	6

$r = .40$

C. Stability

Sameness over time: Time 1 vs. Time 2 (vs. Time k?)
 The confound of unreliability with change in the properties measured (and circumstances)



D. Internal consistency/homogeneity

- 1. What is it?
- 2. How can internal consistency reflect reliability?
- 3. Split-half reliability
- 4. Cronbach=s Alpha

II. How can internal consistency reflect reliability?

Basic statistical principle (*Central Limit Theorem*):

Variance of sample means = variance of individual observations divided by sample size:

$$\sigma_M^2 = \sigma^2/n$$

This population variance of individual observations can be estimated by the pooled variance within samples divided by sample size minus 1:

$$S_M^2 = S_w^2/(n-1)$$

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Assessing the Assessment Tools: Reliability and Validity (continued)

Assume that

- a participant's responses to the n items in a test constitutes a sample of size n ;
- a participant's total score on the test constitutes a sample mean; and
- the participant retakes the same test numerous times under identical conditions (i.e., doesn't remember taking it before).

Then the variance of item scores within individual participants' tests, divided by the number of items, estimates the variance of total scores made by the same individual taking the test numerous times.

Variance in total scores of a measure taken under repeated identical conditions is the definition of unreliability. The greater the variance of total scores taken by the same individual, the less reliable the test.

Occasion of Taking the Same Test	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	...	Item k
1	5	4	4	...	5
2	3	4	2	...	4
3	2	2	3		1
...
N	5	3	4	...	4

Split-Half Reliability

Participant	Score on Odd-Numbered Items	Score on Even-Numbered Items
1	85	73
2	43	54
3	26	22
...
N	65	76

$$r = .90$$

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Assessing the Assessment Tools: Reliability and Validity (continued)

Internal Consistency

Participant s	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	...	Item k
1	5	4	4	...	5
2	3	4	2	...	4
3	2	2	3		1
...
<i>N</i>	5	3	4	...	4

Correlations Among Item Responses

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item k
Item 1	1	.52	.75	.83
Item 2	.52	1	-.09	.90
Item 3	.75	-.09	1	.30
Item k	.83	.90	.30	1

Cronbach's
 $\alpha = .83$

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Assessing the Assessment Tools: Reliability and Validity

II. Types of Validity

- A. General definition: Truth in labeling
- B. Face/content validity: Subjective evaluation of content
- C. Concurrent validity: Measures taken at about the same time

Participant s	Scores	
	Measure 1	Measure 2
1	85	73
2	43	54
3	26	22
...
N	65	76

$$r = .90$$

- D. Predictive validity: Correlations with future measures
- E. Criterion validity: Correlations with a measure used as a criterion
- F. Construct validity: A pattern of theoretically dictated relationships
 - 1. Convergent validity: Relating to theoretically related measures
 - 2. Discriminant validity: Lack of relation to theoretically unrelated measures
- G. Ways to quantify construct validity (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003)

Methods for Measuring Personality: Response-Limited (Respondent), Idiographic, Idiographic, and Projective (Operant) Instruments

- I. Response-limited (nomothetic, respondent) versus projective (idiographic, operant) instruments
 - A. Response options: imposed versus self-generated
 1. Response-limited item Forms:
 - a. Yes/No, True/False, Checklists
 - b. Scaled answers (e.g., Likert, Q-sort)
 - c. Forced choice
 - d. Alternative responses to specified situations
 2. Projective answer formats (e.g.):
 - a. Inkblot interpretations (Rorschach)
 - b. Story-telling (Thematic Apperception Test [TAT])
 - c. Sentence completions
 - d. Drawing tasks
 - B. Relative validity of response-limited and projective measures
 1. Both have some validity when properly administered, scored, and applied
 2. TAT may be more valid for implicit traits (McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989)
- II. Moderator variables for validity
 - A. Private self-consciousness (Buss, 1980)
 - B. Social desirability response set (defensiveness) (Crowne & Marlowe; Weinberger, Schwartz & Davidson, 1979; Asendorpf & Scherer, 1983; Schimmack & Hartmann, 1997)
- III. A Classic Case: The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI 1 and 2)
 - A. Major contributions to test methodology
 1. Empirical (criterion) keying ("clinical scales": 1/Hs/Hypochondriasis, 2/D/Depression, 3/Hy/Hysteria, 4/Pd/Psychopathic Deviate, 5/Mf/Masculinity-Femininity, 6/Pa/Paranoia, 7/Pt/Psychasthenia, 8/Sc/Schizophrenia, 9/Ma/Mania, 0/Si/Social Introversion)
 2. Validity scales: Can't Say, L(Lie, fake good), F (fake bad), K (underdiagnosis; social desirability response set), TRIN (True Response Inconsistency), VRIN (Variable Response Inconsistency)(*but cf. doubts: Piedmont et al., 2000*)
 3. Standard (T) scores
 4. Profile analysis, code groups
 5. Atlases, cookbooks
 - B. Grandparent of hundreds of other prominent tests

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- C. Content Scales: ANX (Anxiety), FRS (Fears), OBS (Obsessiveness), DEP (Depression), (HEA) Health Concerns, (BIZ) Bizarre Mentation, ANG (Anger), CYN (Cynicism), ASP (Antisocial Practices), TPA (Type A), LSE (Low Self-Esteem), SOD (Social Discomfort), FAM (Family Problems), WRK (Work Interference), TRT (Negative Treatment Indicators)
- D. Numerous “Content Component Scales” and subscales
- E. Limitations
 - 1. Multidimensionality of clinical scales
 - 2. Item forms
 - 3. Item selection and limited differentiation among diagnostic groups
- IV. The issue of “statistical” (actuarial, algorithmic) versus “clinical” (subjective, intuitive, human-judgmental) prediction (Grove & Meehl, 1996; Meehl, 1954)

Dimensional Approaches to Personality

- I. Factor Analysis and Dimensions
 - A. The problem and the concept of dimension as applied to personality
 - B. Analysis of correlation matrices
 1. The meaning of correlation matrix
 2. Finding linear dependencies: dimensionality of a space
 - C. Factors and measured variables
 1. The concept of loading: correlations between directly measured variables and factors
 2. Measured variables may reflect multiple factors; factors may underlie multiple measured variables
 - D. Rotation
 1. The concept of rotation
 2. Criteria for rotation: e.g., simple structure
 3. Orthogonal versus oblique rotation; second-order factors
 - E. Exploratory versus confirmatory factor analysis
 - F. Limitations of factor analysis
 1. First-order factors not adequately "invariant" because factor analysis is vulnerable to sampling variations
 2. No allowance for interactions (or moderator variables)
 3. One gets out of a factor analysis what one puts into it
 4. Loss of useful information (Paunonen, 1998)
- II. The "Big Five" Dimensions of Personality of D. W. Fiske and Norman (Goldberg, 1990)
 - A. Their names (the most commonly used are underlined)
 1. Extraversion/Positive Affectivity/Sociability/Surgency
 2. Emotional Stability/Negative Affectivity/Neuroticism/Trait Anxiety
 3. Agreeableness/Conformity
 4. Conscientiousness/(Achievement?)
 5. "Culture"/Intellect/Openness to experience
 - B. Hierarchic organization of Big 5 traits; "facets" and "aspects" (DeYoung & Peterson, 2005 SPSP Poster)
 - C. Cross-cultural replicability (Paunonen, Jackson, Trzebinski, & Forsterling, 1992), including nonverbal measures
 - D. Use with circumplex models (Hofstee, Raad, & Goldberg, 1992)
 - E. Why not a Big 3, 4, or 7? (Block, 1995; Church, 1994; Almagor et al., 1995; Saucier, 1997)
 - F. The Big 2 metatraits? Second-order factors for the Big 5 (Digman, 1997)

APPENDIX TO DIMENSIONAL APPROACHES

Selected Factor-Analytically Oriented Personality Psychologists: Raymond B. Cattell, Hans Eysenck, J. P. Guilford, Robert Hogan, Auke Tellegen

- I. Cattell's system
 - A. Basic tenets: purely empirical approach (starting with Allport & Odbert's (1936) 18,000 trait names) but need for oblique rotation
 - B. Self- and observer-rated adjectives; activities liked or disliked (16 PF); normal adults (started with 171 "surface" traits boiled down from 18,000)
 - C. Twelve factors plus four more test-related: The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF, 1957)
 1. The factors ("source traits")
 2. Second-order factors: Two major (Anxiety, Introversion), five more.
 - D. Refinements: multivariate analysis of change; learning theory
- II. Guilford's system
 - A. Basic tenets: empirical approach with more selected item pool than Cattell; orthogonal rotation
 - B. Self-statements, yes-no response format; normal adults
 - C. Ten major factors (Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey) plus three; no second-order factors
- III. Eysenck's system
 - A. Basic tenets: "Criterion analysis" (selecting variables and criterion groups such as neurotics in advance according to theoretical expectations, then refining in successive analyses); type theory using orthogonal second-order factors
 - B. Variety of self-report, observer-rated, and experimental performance items applied to criterion groups, starting with neurotic soldiers
 - C. Four major dimensions: introversion-extraversion, stability-neuroticism, stability-psychoticism, intelligence
 - D. Theory of introversion (greater excitation of neurons and hence faster learning; less reactive and conditioned inhibition and hence less resistance to persistent mental activity; lower threshold of arousal of reticular activating system). The theory is ambiguous and contradictory (Brody, 1972) but has received much empirical support (e.g., Gray, Revelle, Larsen & Ketelaar)
- IV. Hogan Personality Inventory: a six factor model (Hogan, 1981): Intellectance, adjustment, surgency, likeability, sociability, conformity
- V. Tellegen's Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (3 second-order factors: Positive Affectivity, Negative Affectivity, Constraint; he recently added a fourth: Absorption, which is related to Openness to Experience)

Taxometrics

- I. Taxometrics: The problem it is trying to solve
- II. Clusters
- III. Taxons and nontaxons
- IV. Taxometric methods (Meehl, Golden, et al.)
- V. Application to schizophrenia [Meehl], homosexual preference [Gangestad et al., 2000], self-monitoring [Snyder], hypnotic susceptibility [Oakman & Woody, 1996]

Heredity in Personality Traits

- I. The heredity versus environment debate
 - A. The politics and the shifting opinions: Traditional racism versus traditional American environmentalism
 - B. Why versus? Heredity X environment interactions (e.g., Turkheimer et al., 2003)
 - C. Relative prominence depends on range of variation
 - D. A priori reasons to expect hereditary factors in personality: All biological features vary from person to person
 - E. A caution: Conclusions about heritability for individuals in general cannot simply be generalized to particular individuals or to differences between ethnic groups

- II. Methods for investigating hereditary factors
 - A. Basic strategy: Vary the degree of biological relatedness among people and assess the varying degrees of similarity between them
 - B. Problem of disentangling biological and environmental relatedness
 - C. Problem of disentangling genetic from other biological factors
 1. Shared intrauterine nutrition and toxicity (drugs, bugs, natural and human-made toxins)
 2. Differentiation of intrauterine environment through position, access to nourishment
 - D. The twin strategy: degree of inrapair similarity
 1. Monozygotic (MZ; "one-egg") versus same-sex dizygotic (DZ; "two-egg")
 - a. Problems: whether families treat both twins equally; genetics vs. intrauterine environment
 - b. Emergenesis (Lykken, McGue, Tellegen, & Bouchard, 1992; Plomin et al., 1998): If an attribute depends on a polygenic *pattern*, it may not "run in families" but its genetic basis shows up in MZ sample.
 2. Twins reared apart (MZA and DZA) vs. together (MZT and DZT)
 - E. How assess similarity? Intraclass correlation

- III. The Minnesota Twin Study (worldwide sample; Bouchard, Tellegen, et al.)
 - A. Some reference points: height, weight, EEG frequencies, intelligence; BUT note Turkheimer et al., 2003: heritability of intelligence in 7-year olds is strongly moderated by socioeconomic status (this study did not use the MTS sample).
 - B. Hereditary contributions to personality traits as assessed by Tellegen's Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire
 - C. The puzzling near-absence of contributions from the family environment
 - D. The remaining variance: Unshared environment, nonadditive gene contributions, and scale unreliability
 - E. Religious values and activities (Waller et al.)
 - F. Ego development (Newman et al., 1998)
 - G. Self-concept facets in preadolescent girls (Hur et al, 1998)
 - H. Sociosexuality (Bailey et al., 2000)

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- IV. Other studies of heritability of personality
 - A. Heritability of extraversion and neuroticism across the life-span (Viken et al., 1994)
 - B. Heritability of residual facets of Big 5 traits (Jang et al., 1998)
 - C. Nonadditive effects (Plomin et al., 1998)
 - D. Shared-environment effects only on extraversion, inadequacy, and especially religious orthodoxy (Texas Adoption Program study, Beer et al., 1998)
- V. Genetics of sexual orientation (Bailey et al., 2000)
- VI. Genetics of mate selection (Tellegen & Lykken, 1993) and divorce (Wierzbicki, 1988)
- VII. What can we conclude?
 - A. Given the amount of environmental variation of the Minnesota Study twins, genes account for the majority of broadly defined individual differences in personality; environment controls gene expression, including specific content
 - B. Inapplicability of this conclusion to group differences
 - 1. Sandra Scarr's adoption study
 - 2. Systematic environmental differences, including nutrition, drugs, other toxins
 - C. No cause for despair about personal change

Stability and Consistency of Personality

- I. What do we mean by stability and consistency?
 - A. Stability over time:
 1. Sameness vs. changes in variable *levels* (e.g., means) over time
 2. Sameness vs. fluctuations in a person's *relative standing* on personality variables (test-retest correlations)
 - B. Consistency across situations

- II. Disentangling personality changes from other changes (Schaie & Parham, 1976)
 - A. In longitudinal designs, changes in variable *levels* (e.g., means) over time confound:
 1. Cultural changes
 2. Age-dependent changes
 - B. Cross-sectional designs confound age-dependent changes with cohort differences
 - C. Schaie & Warner's solution: multicohort longitudinal design: lagged, overlapping, shorter-term

- III. Age-dependent changes in personality
 - A. Clean data hard to come by; Kelly (1955) finds many changes, but confounded with sociocultural changes
 - B. Schaie & Parham's only age-dependent variables: excitability (increases with age, unaffected by cohort differences or sociocultural changes) and "universal political concern" increases with age
 - C. Traits that are stable within cohorts
 1. Kelly: Economic, social, and political values (AVL); Strong VIB Interest Maturity and Occupational level scales and certain interest scales; self-ratings of intelligence, pleasantness of voice quality, conventionality, quietness, modesty, and dependability.
 2. Schaie & Parham: Premsia (tendermindedness), threat reactivity, coasthenia (individualistic, reflective, internally restrained), expressed honesty, interest in science, community involvement, affectothymia (extraversion), superego strength, protension (jealous, suspicious, irritable), and low self sentiment (e.g., superego strength is lower for the oldest cohorts but does not change within cohorts over a 7-year period).
 - D. Age-related improvements in resolving Ericksonian stages (Whitbourne, Zuschlag, Elliot, & Waterman, 1992; used multicohort longitudinal design)

- IV. Relative-standing stability of individual personality traits
 - A. Changes in stability across the life span (Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000)
 - B. Birth to young adulthood (Kagan & Moss, 1962)
 1. Passivity/dependency variables: Moderately stable for females, unstable for males.

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IV. B. (Continued)

2. Aggression: Moderately stable for males, unstable for females: Negative correlations (-.51, -.57) between preschool years (physical aggression to peers and mother) and adulthood (aggressive retaliation) for girls fits the theory that those who are most disposed to aggress may end up displaying the least aggression when aggression is punished. Likewise "behavioral disorganization" (i.e., emotional disruption in response to frustration) around puberty and adult competitiveness
 3. Achievement: Unstable during childhood, but childhood intellectual achievement striving and striving for recognition (especially ages 10-14) are related to adult striving for recognition ($r = .49$ to $.68$, both sexes). Expectancy of failure is negatively related, athletic striving unrelated or (in males) negatively related to adult achievement. In females, child achievement striving is negatively correlated with adult fear of failure. But after age 3, intelligence is strongly correlated with child achievement striving except negatively with athletic striving. (Social class confound?)
 4. Opposite sex activities are moderately stable (e.g., boys interested in stereotypically female crafts or uninterested in male competitive activities).
 5. Heterosexual interaction is unstable for both sexes.
 6. Compulsivity (e.g., neatness) is stable for boys during childhood but not in adolescence.
 7. Fear of harm is unstable for both sexes.
 8. *"The boys who were passive during the first 10 years adopted non-masculine interests as adults....Moreover, passivity among boys during age 6 to 10 predicted, noncompetitiveness ($r = .57$; $p < .001$), avoidance of sexual behavior ($r = .57$; $p < .001$), and apprehension in social situations ($r = .46$; $p < .01$)."* (P. 199; sic)
 9. Re "behavioral disorganization" (i.e., emotional disruption, including anger, after frustration) during age 6 to 10: *"For the men, disorganization predicted overt aggressivity. For the women, on the other hand, disorganization was unrelated to direct aggression but predictive of intellectual mastery, dependency conflict, and masculine interests -- characteristics of the intellectually competitive women"* (P. 20).
- C. Childhood through adolescence (Caspi, 2000; Shiner, 2000) and adolescence to adulthood (Roberts, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2001)
- D. Junior high to mid-30s (Block, 1977)
1. Of California Q-Set items, the percentage producing correlations of at least .35 ($p < .001$) between two time periods was 58% between jr and sr high and 29% between sr high and mid-30s.
 2. Sr. high WILTD Overcontrol scores vs mid-30s CPI Ego Control and Self-Control scores correlated in the .50s.
- E. Ten-year spans during middle adulthood (Block, 1977): CPI scales yield mean convergent validities (correlations) around .70 and discriminant validities (percent of scales that correlate more highly with themselves 10 years later than with any other scale) of 89%, 89%, 100%, and 100% for 4 samples of between 39 and 78 subjects.

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- F. Early adulthood to 20 years later (Kelly, 1955): Values (AVL) and interests (SVIB) fairly stable (test-retest correlations averaging in the .40s), self-ratings less so (average r about .30), attitudes unstable.
 - G. About 21-51 and 45-75 (Finn, 1986): moderate to high stability on most MMPI-based measures except depression and somatic-related variables, more stability in the older group.
 - H. Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, & Walder (1984): Great stability in aggressiveness from early childhood to adolescence.
 - I. Helson & Moane (1987): Substantial stability on most personality scales for women ages 21-43.
 - J. Burns & Seligman (1989): Remarkable stability over 52 years for style of explaining setbacks.
- V. Personality Factors in Personality Change
 - A. Personality fit with job (Jenkins, 1994)
 - B. Ego development (Helson & Roberts, 1994)

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Personality Systems Interaction Theory of Julius Kuhl

- I. Origins of the theory and definitions of action and state orientation (Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994)
 - A. Readiness to move on to new action versus preoccupation with past and present state
 1. Action orientation: "the ability to facilitate the enactment of context-adequate intentions . . . whenever it is appropriate" (Kuhl, 1994, p. 10).
 2. State orientation refers to a focus on one's current state in ways that interfere with continuing volitional activity, including "debilitating effects on individuals' volitional abilities to plan, initiate, and complete intended activities: Intrusive and perseverating thoughts focusing on an experienced state can impair those volitional functions, at least temporarily" (Kuhl, 1994, p. 9).
 - B. "Orientations" as either state or trait
 - C. Although neither orientation is considered inherently adaptive or maladaptive--for example, state-orientedness would facilitate deliberating about a complex decision--state orientation is strongly correlated with anxiety (Bossong, 1994; Hautzinger, 1994; Kammer, 1994; Klinger & Murphy, 1994) and depression (Hautzinger, 1994; Kammer, 1994).
 - D. The dimension is "moderately related to fundamental personality dimensions such as conscientiousness, negative emotionality (sometimes called 'neuroticism'), anxiety, especially its worry component, intro- versus extraversion, etc." (Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994, p. 3). Nevertheless, Kuhl and Beckmann view the construct as having sufficient variance independent of such other personality dimensions, and sufficient independent relatedness to yet other variables, including neurophysiological ones (Kuhl, 1994a), as to warrant a separate theoretical identity.

- II. Assessment: the Action Control Scale (ACS; Kuhl, 1994b) and the Volitional Components Inventory (Fuhrmann & Kuhl, 1998)
 - A. Three factors of the ACS (Kanfer, Dugdale, & McDonald, 1994; Kuhl, 1994b):
 1. preoccupation (with past events)
 2. hesitation (regarding the future)
 3. volatility (tendency to alternate activities or do more than one thing at a time)
 - B. The first two factors are strongly intercorrelated, but they are uncorrelated with the third. Volatility sounds conceptually the inverse of absorption (Tellegen & Atkinson, 1974), but it is essentially uncorrelated (Klinger & Murphy, 1994) with the Absorption scale of the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ; Tellegen, 1985).

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- III. State-oriented individuals are bothered by cognitive interference
 - A. The Preoccupation and Hesitation scales of the ACS are strongly correlated (Klinger & Murphy, 1994) with the Poor Attentional Control scale of the Short Imaginal Processes Inventory (Huba, Singer, & Aneshensel 1982) and with the MMPI Schizophrenia scale, and moderately correlated in one of two studies with a thought-sampling measure of vagueness of thoughts and mistrust for their memory of their thoughts (Klinger & Murphy, 1994).
 - B. They require more time to process the attainment of a goal or the failure to attain it before being ready to go on to the next one (Beckmann, 1994).
 - C. Under induced failure, state-oriented individuals employ fewer efficient strategic plans and more inefficient task strategies than action-oriented individuals, they experience less self-confidence, give themselves fewer instructions, and are more preoccupied with loss of control (Brunstein, 1994).
 - D. Despite their apparently greater immersion in their own thoughts, state-oriented individuals are not less defensive or more favorably inclined toward daydreaming than the action-oriented; on the contrary, they espouse less favorable attitudes toward daydreaming, feel less free to disclose either their daydreams or their past actual experiences, and feel less comfortable when they imagine doing so (Klinger & Murphy, 1994).
- IV. Some volitional concepts (Kuhl, 2000)
 - A. Four functions important for the exercise of will
 1. Maintain memory of an intention
 2. Inhibit premature action
 3. Suppress competing action impulses
 4. Cope with strain
 - B. Intention memory (explicit) versus extension memory (implicit)
 - C. Self-regulation versus self-control
 - D. Effects of rise and fall in positive and negative affect (*Modulation Assumptions*; see p. 41)
 - E. “Implementation intentions” (Gollwitzer & Brandstätter, 1997)
- V. Volitional peculiarities
 - A. Despite the fact that state-oriented individuals ruminate more about their intentions, they are actually more likely to forget them and less likely to carry them out
 - B. They are more likely to be confused as to whether their activities were assigned by others or are what they themselves intended (Kuhl & Goshke, 1994).
 - C. They have more difficulty in making choices and take longer to decide among alternative activities (Stiensmeier-Pelster, 1994).

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- VI. Relation of action versus state orientation to the content-shifting model (Klinger, M&V, 1987 article): the model explains attentional focus on thoughts other than those best suited to facilitating action, or intrusions of thought content extraneous to what it would be most adaptive to focus on. (Their content shifting mechanism seems relatively underinhibited by a task focus or by the operant demands of a present situation.)
- A. State-oriented individuals may respond with stronger emotion to cues of their various other goal pursuits.
1. State orientation has, in fact, been found correlated with Affective Intensity Measure (AIM; Larsen & Diener, 1987) scores. In two studies, correlations of AIM with ACS preoccupation and hesitation scores (with state orientation at the low end of the scale and action orientation at the high end) have ranged from -.13 to -.39 (Kanfer, 1994; Klinger & Murphy, 1994).
 2. To the extent that an individual responds with stronger emotion to concern-related cues other than those relevant to a task at hand, task-irrelevant thoughts will keep outmatching the inhibitory constraints and keep intruding on consciousness. This may be one manifestation of what Kuhl (1994a, p. 39) calls the "role of the septo-hippocampal system . . . in mediating maintenance ("perseveration") of cognitive" and other processes.
- B. State-oriented individuals may possess a weaker capacity for inhibition. Both preoccupation and hesitation scores of the ACS (with state orientation at the low end of the scale and action orientation at the high end) are, in fact, correlated in two studies with MPQ Control, with coefficients ranging from .33 to .47 (Klinger & Murphy, 1994).
1. Whether these relationships entail a different capacity for inhibition is, however, impossible to determine from these relationships.
 2. It is furthermore oversimple to speak in terms of across-the-board differences in inhibitory strength. However, if state orientation were associated with a deficiency in nonconscious ("automatic") inhibition of task-irrelevant thoughts, that would not only lead to more intrusions but would also force a more massive, partly conscious effort to suppress them, which might further interfere with task performance or with the volitional resources required to get on to a new activity (Kuhl, 1994a).
- C. There is evidence that processing failure is compressed, presumably automatically, by the prospect of having to begin a new task soon (Beckmann, 1993). That kind of clearing of the mental decks appears to come harder to the state-oriented.
1. Action- and state-oriented individuals do differ neurophysiologically in their reactions to failure (Haschke, Tennigkeit, & Kuhl, 1994), with the state-oriented displaying a positive slow-potential shift in their EEGs over a 5 s period following failure feedback as compared with success feedback. Whether this represents a failure to inhibit responses to the feedback is, however, uncertain.
- D. Relation to depression (Kuhl & Helle, 1986, 1994)

Motivational Structure: Definition, Assessment, and Applications

- I. Why focus on motivation?
 - A. Motivation is the set of processes that govern goal striving.
 - B. Other conditions also involve trouble with goal pursuits:
 1. Depression
 2. Anxiety Disorders
 3. Relationship problems
 4. Antisocial activity
 5. Identity and value confusion
- II. SMC isn't just for addictions any more! SMC components are also being applied to
 - A. General clinical disorders
 - B. Corrections
 - C. Possibly homeless families
- III. A Palette of Principles
 - A. All nonreflexive behavior is organized around goal pursuits.
This includes attention, recall, thoughts, dreams, and action.
 - B. All goals start out as incentives—objects, events, or states that evoke emotional responses, whether positive or negative.
 - C. People value incentives according to anticipated emotional payoffs.
- IV. Also:
 - A. Emotional states depend heavily on how goal pursuits are going.
 - B. That affects emotional responses to future incentives
 - C. And satisfaction with one's life.
- V. Motivational Structure: The pattern of a person's goal pursuits: What the goals are and how the person relates to them.
- VI. The Motivational Structure Questionnaire (MSQ):
Assesses the subjective value, instrumentality, and attainability of each goal because they determine the priority given to it.
- VII. The Personal Concerns Inventory (PCI): A user-friendlier but reduced variant of the MSQ.
- VIII. The MSQ Answer Sheet
- IX. The MSQ Steps and Scales (Idiographic + nomothetic = idiothetic)
 - Step 1. Describe briefly each concern in each life area.
 - Step 2. Rephrase with a verb regarding goal.
 - Steps 3.-12. Rate each concern regarding active role, commitment, joy, unhappiness, sorrow, probability of success, probability of success if no action, time available, goal distance, effect of alcohol on goal attainment.

- X. MSQ and PCI Scores: Trait-Level Versus Concern-Level Indices
May have quite different implications; e.g.,
Commitment – $f(\text{joy} \times p_s)$:
- trait readiness to commit *or*
 - inappropriate commitment to a particular unsatisfying goal
- XI. Reliability of MSQ Trait-Level Scores
- XII. Adaptive Motivational Structure: Factor analysis of Trait-Level MSQ scores.
- XIII. When Does Motivational Structure Matter?
- A. Correlations of Drinking with Healthy Motivational Structure for Different SMAST Scores
 - B. Correlations between AAI-Factor 1 (Inverse) Correlations and SMAST Scores by Country
 - C. Systematic Motivational Counseling (SMC)
- XIV. Systematic Motivational Counseling (SMC): A treatment method aimed at improving motivational structure.
- A.. Changes in Positive Goal and Negative Affect Scores of Traumatically Brain-injured Patients (Effect Sizes)
 - B. Changes in SMC and PANAS Scores of Traumatically Brain-injured Patients (Effect Sizes)
 - C. Percentage of Traumatically Brain-Injured Patients Using Alcohol
 - D. Mean Number of Substance Types Used by Traumatically Brain-Injured Patients
 - E. Correlations between Change in Number of Substance Types Used and Change in SMC Indices
- XV. The Relationship Between Motivational Structure and Post-Treatment Drinking in a Male Alcoholic Sample (Glasner et al., 2002)
- XVI. Steps and Facets of Systematic Motivational Counseling (SMC)
- A. How to Resolve Conflicts among Goals
 - B. Disengage from Inappropriate Goals
 - C. How to Help Client Disengage from Inappropriate Goals #1
 - D. How to Help Client Disengage from Inappropriate Goals #2
 - E. Identify New Incentives
 - F. How to Identify New Incentives
 - G. Reframe Aversive to Appetitive Goals
 - H. How to Re-examine Sources of Self-esteem
 - I. *Maintenance Phase*
- XVII. Theoretical Benefits of SMC