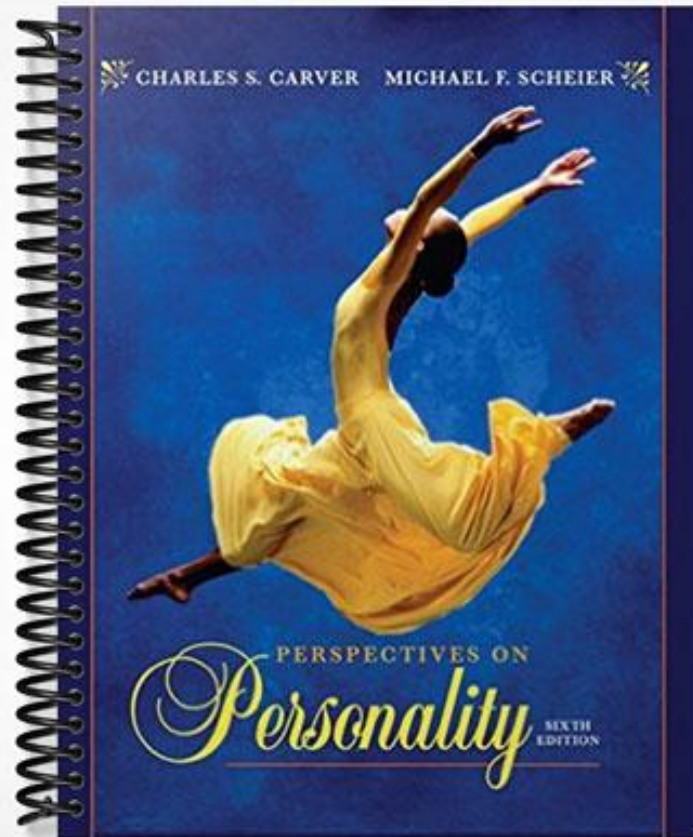


**TEST BANK**



# **Instructor's Manual and Test Bank**

*for*

Carver and Scheier

## **Perspectives on Personality**

Sixth Edition

*prepared by*

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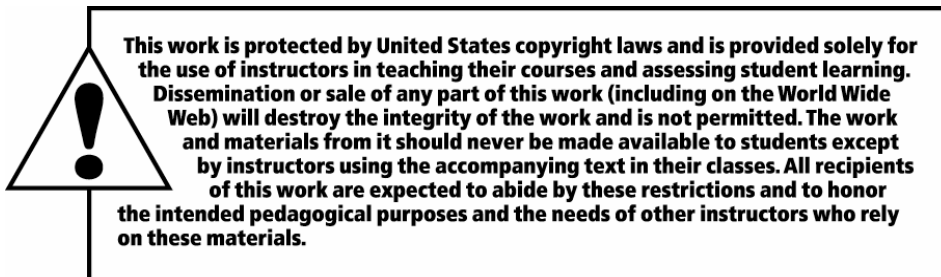
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## USE OF THE MANUAL: ORGANIZATION AND FEATURES

This manual was written to accompany the sixth edition of *Perspectives on Personality*. Its primary purpose is to assist instructors in evaluating their students' knowledge of the material contained in the text. Consequently, most of the manual is devoted to the presentation of test questions for use in generating course examinations.

Chapters are organized in the following way: Each begins with a Chapter Outline detailing the material covered in the chapter. This is followed by a brief Chapter Summary in narrative form. A glossary of Key Terms defining the most important concepts found in the chapter follows the Chapter Summary. The Test Items come next, followed in some cases by Class Demonstrations and/or Test Yourself exercises. (More will be said about these demonstrations and exercises below.) Each chapter closes with a section on Primary Sources. The purpose of the primary source material is to provide instructors with a starting point in assembling material for lecture and discussion.

Complete sets of Multiple Choice, True and False, and Short Essay questions are provided for each chapter. Questions have been written to cover all portions of the text, including the prologues. In addition, questions were written to cover material presented in "Boxes" and Tables. Questions involving prologue material are included in adjoining chapters. For example, questions covering the Prologue to Part 2, the Dispositional Perspective, appear at the beginning of the questions for Chapter 4.

Each question is preceded by a page reference in parentheses to make it easier for instructors to locate the relevant material in the text. Use of the page reference also makes it possible to identify questions dealing with prologue material.

Answers to the Multiple Choice and True and False questions are presented along with the page reference numbers. Page numbers and answers were purposely placed in the outer margin, to make it easier to reproduce the questions without retyping them: Simply place a strip of paper over the margin material while photocopying the questions for your exams.

A suggested answer follows each Short Essay question. It is important to note that our essay answers are not necessarily the definitive answers. They are meant to be a starting point in grading students' answers, which may change depending on the emphases given particular material in lectures and assignments. They may also serve as a study guide for students or points to be covered in lectures.

Two additional sections of the Instructor's Manual need some discussion. The first involves the Class Demonstrations. This feature is intended to present suggestions about in-class demonstrations that your students might find interesting. They are devices that we have used in our own courses in the past with some success. The students seem to like them and learn from them.

You'll note that not every chapter contains a Class Demonstration suggestion. It's been our experience that generating effective demonstrations is a time consuming and uncertain process, and we've chosen to include only those with which we have had success with in the classroom in the past. In this regard, we'd like to call on instructors who teach Personality to forward to us suggestions about other demonstrations that they might have tried. Our intention is to include these shared demonstrations in subsequent editions of this manual so that we might all benefit from each other's effort. If you have a demonstration that you think is particularly useful and interesting, please forward it by mail to Michael F. Scheier, Department of Psychology, Carnegie-Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA 15213. You can also send E-Mail to [Scheier@cmu.edu](mailto:Scheier@cmu.edu). We thank you in advance for your help and suggestions with these demonstrations.

We also need to say a word about the Test Yourself exercises. Like the Class Demonstrations, these exercises appear in some, but not all, of the chapters. The purpose of these exercises is to identify scales and assessment devices that can be administered in class for pedagogical reasons, i.e., to give

students hands-on experience with different types of personality assessment devices, to provide the students with feedback about normal or benign aspects of their own personalities, and to engage the students' interest more fully in the concepts that are being discussed in the text. The Test Yourself exercises can be found at the end of the relevant chapters, prior to the Primary Sources. Each Test Yourself section contains a variety of information about the exercise, including information about where the test came from, what it measures, and where it best fits into the chapter. Instructions for administering the test are also provided, as are suggestions about what to tell your students about what the test measures. Our own experience is that students find the type of information presented in the Test Yourself exercises to be quite interesting, and we encourage instructors to make use of the information that is provided in whatever manner they find appropriate. Those familiar with previous editions will notice that we no longer provide truncated versions of the scales, along with accompanying normative data. There are a couple of reasons for this change. First, it wasn't clear to us that all instructors would have chosen the same set of illustrative items that we had. We think that the choice of which items to include (if indeed the scales are truncated at all) should be left with individual instructors, in order to allow them to meet their own needs and circumstances. Second, we wanted to (and did) enlarge the number of Test Yourself exercises that we offered. It was not possible to obtain normative data for all of the scales and assessment devices that we wanted to include.

Finally, we would like to remind instructors that practice test items are available on the textbook website. Allyn & Bacon provides practice tests that students may use to monitor their own comprehension. One practice test has been written for each chapter. Each practice contains 15 multiple-choice, 5 true-false and 2 essay questions (with answers). All of the questions that appear on the web-site also appear as questions in this Instructor's Manual. These items are marked with an asterisk. Instructors should be aware that these items are available on the web to students. Instructors should decide for themselves whether they want to include these items on their course examinations.

# CHAPTER 1

## WHAT IS PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY?

### CHAPTER OUTLINE

#### DEFINING PERSONALITY

Why Use Personality as a Concept?

A Working Definition

Two Fundamental Issues in Personality Psychology

#### THEORY IN PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

What Do Theories Do?

Evaluating Theories: The Role of Research

What Else Makes a Theory Good?

#### PERSPECTIVES ON PERSONALITY

Groupings among Theories

How Distinct Are the Perspectives?

Another Kind of “Perspective”

#### ORGANIZATION WITHIN CHAPTERS

Assessment

#### PROBLEMS IN BEHAVIOR, AND BEHAVIOR CHANGE

### CHAPTER SUMMARY

Personality is a hard concept to define. Thinking about how people use the concept, however, suggests three reasons for its use. People use it to convey a sense of consistency or continuity within a person, to convey the sense that the person is the origin of behavior, and to convey the sense that the essence of a person can be summarized or captured in a few salient qualities.

The field of personality addresses two fundamental themes. One is the existence of differences among people. The other is how best to conceptualize intrapersonal functioning—the processes that take place within all persons, giving form and continuity to behavior.

Much of this book deals with theories. Theories are summary statements, sets of principles that pertain to some class of events. Theories have two purposes: to explain things that are known and to predict possibilities that haven't yet been examined. One way to evaluate the worth of a theory is to ask whether research supports its predictions. Scientific psychology has a continuing cycle between theory and research, as theories are tested, modified on the basis of results, and tested again.

Theories can be evaluated on several grounds other than research. For example, a theory shouldn't be based on a single kind of information. Theories benefit from being parsimonious—from having relatively few assumptions (or concepts). Theories also are judged as better when they fit well with one's intuitions, and if they stimulate interest (and thus efforts to test them).

The theories described in this book derive from seven different perspectives, or viewpoints, on human nature. They are identified with the terms dispositional, biological, psychoanalytic, neoanalytic, learning, phenomenological, and cognitive self-regulation. Each theory chapter focuses on assumptions about the nature of personality within a particular theoretical framework. Also included are a discussion of assessment from the viewpoint of the theory under discussion, and a discussion of problems in behavior and how they can be remedied.

### KEY TERMS

Individual differences: Differences in personality from one person to another.

Intrapersonal functioning: Psychological processes that take place within the person.

Metatheory: Sets of orienting assumptions about reality, which provide guidelines for what kinds of ideas to use to create theories.

Parsimony: The quality of requiring few assumptions; simplicity.

Personality: A dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's characteristic patterns of behavior, thoughts, and feelings.

Theory: An abstract statement that summarizes a set of principles pertaining to a class of events.

## TEST ITEMS

### Multiple Choice

- (d/3) 1. \* When non-psychologists use the term personality, they generally refer to \_\_\_\_\_ whereas when personality psychologists use the term, they generally refer to \_\_\_\_\_.
- generic ideas about things everyone has in common; specific traits of particular people
  - specific traits of particular people; concrete concepts about personality
  - concrete concepts about personality; specific traits of particular people
  - specific traits of particular people; abstract concepts about personality
- (b/4) 2. The term "personality" conveys a sense of \_\_\_\_\_ about someone's qualities:
- diversity
  - consistency
  - complexity
  - inevitability
- (d/4) 3. Consistency in the study of personality involves looking for continuity across:
- time
  - similar situations
  - situations that are relatively different from each other
  - all of the above
- (c/4) 4. \* One reason people use the term personality is to convey:
- that no other person will behave in that manner
  - that their actions in a situation are determined by genetics
  - that a causal force within the person is influencing their behavior
  - none of the above
- (d/4) 5. \* The personality concept helps us:
- understand the behavior of others
  - predict the how people will behave in certain situations
  - understand our own behavior
  - all of the above
- (a/5) 6. \* The concept of personality conveys a sense of:
- personal distinctiveness
  - internal conflict
  - disorganization
  - dysfunction
- (c/5) 7. \* Which of the following did Allport say about personality?
- it's simply an accumulation of bits and pieces
  - it is not inextricably tied to the physical body
  - it is a causal force that determines behavior
  - is generally displayed in just one way

- (d/5) 8. Allport's definition of personality included all of the following points EXCEPT the idea that personality:
- a. has organization
  - b. is a causal force
  - c. shows up in patterns
  - d. is a purely psychological concept
- (c/5) 9. \* The fact that no two people's personalities are exactly alike is captured by the notion of:
- a. motivation
  - b. intrapersonal functioning
  - c. individual differences
  - d. none of the above
- (a/5) 10. Intrapersonal functioning describes:
- a. the dynamic organization of systems within the person
  - b. the interactions between individuals within society
  - c. individual differences in behavior
  - d. the degree of consistency of an individual's behavior across settings
- (c/6) 11. \* The idea that our behavior at a given time stems from the motives we hold at that time emphasizes the concept of?
- a. individual differences
  - b. internal consistency
  - c. intrapersonal functioning
  - d. personal distinctiveness
- (d/6) 12. \* The two basic functions of theories are:
- a. to explain and modify behavior
  - b. to describe and modify behavior
  - c. to describe and explain behavior
  - d. to explain and predict behavior
- (b/7) 13. \* A good personality theory should be:
- a. abstract
  - b. testable
  - c. correct
  - d. all encompassing
- (c/7) 14. In characterizing Freud's ideas about testability, it is most accurate to say that he:
- a. insisted that his theoretical ideas be supported by research
  - b. preferred that his theoretical ideas be supported by research but recognized that some of them were untestable
  - c. was not interested in whether or not his theoretical ideas were supported by research
  - d. none of the above

- (a/8) 15. Which of the following is NOT a legitimate criticism of a psychological theory?
- it is too parsimonious
  - it is based on laboratory animals in artificial settings
  - it is based on the theorists' experiences conducting therapy
  - it does not stimulate enthusiasm
- (d/8) 16. \* Which of the following criteria should a good theory fit?
- it should be parsimonious
  - it should "feel" right
  - it should generate enthusiasm or excitement
  - all of the above
- (b/8) 17. \* A theory is parsimonious if:
- it can predict behavior accurately
  - it contains few assumptions
  - it is testable
  - it is able to stimulate research
- (d/8) 18. The best theories are characterized by:
- parsimony
  - substantial research support
  - intuitive appeal
  - all of the above
- (c/8) 19. There is evidence that psychologists prefer theories that fit their:
- political orientations
  - images of close others
  - images of themselves
  - none of the above
- (b/9) 20. \* A set of orienting assumptions within which theories can be devised or understood is known as:
- an explanatory theory
  - a metatheory
  - a descriptive theory
  - an information-processing theory
- (c/9) 21. Which of the following is NOT one of the perspectives on personality?
- the psychoanalytic perspective
  - the biological perspective
  - the emotional perspective
  - the phenomenological perspective
- (b/9) 22. The \_\_\_\_\_ perspective is based on the idea that people have fairly stable qualities.
- phenomenological
  - dispositional
  - biological
  - learning

- (a/10) 23. The view that human nature incorporates a set of internal pressures that compete and conflict with each other reflects the:
- psychoanalytic perspective
  - dispositional perspective
  - phenomenological perspective
  - learning perspective
- (d/11) 24. \* Which of the following perspectives is most closely aligned with the psychoanalytic perspective?
- meta-theoretical perspective
  - dispositional perspective
  - phenomenological perspective
  - neanalytic perspective
- (a/10) 25. The concept of self-determination is central to the view of human nature held by the:
- phenomenological perspective
  - psychodynamic perspective
  - dispositional perspective
  - process perspective
- (b/10) 26. \* The cognitive self-regulation perspective suggests \_\_\_\_\_ underlie personality:
- biological processes
  - cognitive processes
  - unconscious motives
  - evolutionary-based drives
- (b/11) 27. Compared to older theories in personality psychology, newer theories tend to be:
- wider in scope
  - narrower in scope
  - on very similar topics
  - on very different topics
- (a/12) 28. \* Accurate assessment of personality is necessary:
- to conduct valid research on personality
  - for making smart hiring decisions
  - for treating mental illness
  - all of the above

#### True and False

- (F/3) 1. Everyday use of the word "personality" focuses on abstraction.
- (T/3) 2. When we describe personality, we reduce a large amount of information to a smaller set.
- (T/4) 3. Psychologists use the term "personality" broadly to refer to personalities in general.
- (F/3) 4. \* Personality psychologists generally agree on a single definition of "personality."
- (T/4) 5. The study of personality deals with continuity and consistency in personal qualities.



- (T/4) 6. Personality refers to consistency across similar situations and also consistency across very different situations.
- (T/4) 7. One reason to use the term "personality" is to suggest that a person's behavior is caused by internal forces.
- (T/4) 8. The term "personality" suggests that a few characteristics can summarize what a person is like.
- (F/5) 9. According to Allport, personality has little to do with the physical body.
- (T/5) 10. \* Even when describing the personalities of identical twins, we can talk about the issue of individual differences.
- (F/5) 11. The two core issues in personality psychology are similarities between people and interpersonal functioning.
- (T/5) 12. The concept of intrapersonal functioning describes the dynamic processes that occur within the individual.
- (F/6) 13. All personality theories give equal emphasis to individual differences and intrapersonal functioning.
- (T/7) 14. A good theory needs to generate novel predictions.
- (T/7) 15. That personality is a broad construct forces personality theories to be broad and complex.
- (F/7) 16. The explanatory aspect of personality theories is more subtle than the predictive aspect.
- (F/7) 17. The fewer things a theory has to account for, the more likely it is to be ambiguous.
- (F/7) 18. A theory is sufficient if it provides an explanation for known facts; it need not allow you to make new predictions.
- (T/7) 19. Most personality theories have some ambiguity, making it unclear exactly what their predictions should be.
- (T/7) 20. \* Theories should be open to the possibility of being disconfirmed as well as to the possibility of being supported.
- (T/7) 21. Results from psychological research often fail to fully support predictions.
- (F/8) 22. Personality psychologists only use objective information when evaluating theories.
- (T/9) 23. \* A metatheory can guide the development of multiple theories.
- (T/9) 24. The dispositional perspective suggests human nature is a set of relatively permanent qualities built into the person.
- (F/10) 25. The psychoanalytic perspective is based on the idea that everyone learns by experience.
- (T/10) 26. The idea that human behavior is modified by experience is most closely linked with the learning perspective.
- (T/10) 27. The belief that people tend naturally toward self-perfection is one of the roots of the phenomenological perspective.

- (F/10) 28. The idea that individuals operate with decision rules and patterns of information storage belongs to the dispositional perspective.
- (T/10) 29. Each perspective on personality generally begins with a different conception of human nature.
- (F/11) 30. \* Different theories generally are tied to only one metatheory.
- (F/11) 31. If a particular theory does not cover the entire domain of personality, it is not a valuable contribution to the field.
- (T/12) 32. Assessment techniques often differ from one theoretical approach to another.
- (T/12) 33. Assessment techniques are an important part of applied psychology.
- (F/12) 34. Each theoretical perspective suggests different things about normal behavior, but similar things about abnormal behavior.
- (T/12) 35. Each theoretical perspective suggests different ways to promote behavior change.

### Short Essay

- (5) 1. Allport's definition of personality emphasizes several elements. Identify three of the Ideas it contains.

Personality has organization; it is not just a collection of bits and pieces.

Personality has processes; it is active.

Personality is a psychological concept, inextricably tied to the physical body.

Personality is a causal force; it helps determine how an individual relates to the world.

Personality appears in patterns, recurrences, consistencies.

Personality is displayed in many ways, in behaviors, thoughts and feelings.

- (6-7) 2. \* Define the term, "theory;" and identify a theory's two basic purposes or functions.

A theory is a type of summary statement, a general principle or set of principles pertaining to a class of events. Two basic purposes are: (1) Explain the set of phenomena the theory addresses; (2) predict new information.

- (7-8) 3. Briefly describe the continuous interplay between research and theory.

A theory makes predictions; research tests those predictions and, subsequently, either supports or fails to support the theory. If research fails to support the theory (or only partially supports it), limitations are placed on the theory, necessitating revision or modification of the theory. These changes require further testing, which begins the cycle again.

- (7-8) 4. Identify and briefly discuss the characteristics of a good theory.

Generally, a good theory explains and predicts behavior. In addition, the following questions should be answered affirmatively: (1) Is the theory stimulating? (2) Is the theory parsimonious? (3) Does the theory feel reasonable or sensible? Finally, a theory should not be based on too narrow a set of information.

(12) 5. \* Identify three ways in which personality psychologists use assessment.

(1) To portray personalities of specific persons; (2) to study personality variables and their influence on behavior; (3) to use in applied psychology, e.g., as a basis for hiring decisions or to diagnose psychopathology.

### **CLASS DEMONSTRATION 1-1**

Purpose: To have students think about their everyday use of the term "personality" and how it fits the ideas of personality researchers.

Exercise: Have students complete the following stem on a piece of paper: "I use the term personality to refer to...". After students have time to write down their answers, collect the completions, and randomly select a few to read and analyze aloud in class.

Results: This exercise should demonstrate that students use the term personality in much the same manner as do personality psychologists: i.e., to refer to the individual differences that give rise to human uniqueness, to capture a sense the consistency in people's behavior across time and situations, and to acknowledge that behavior often seems to be motivated internally, by something about the person, rather than by aspects of the situation in which the person is embedded.

### **PRIMARY SOURCES**

Allport, G. W. (1961). *Pattern and growth in personality*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Maddi, S. R. (1980). *Personality theories: A comparative analysis*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.

## CHAPTER 2

### METHODS IN THE STUDY OF PERSONALITY

#### CHAPTER OUTLINE

##### GATHERING INFORMATION

Sources: Observe Yourself and Observe Others

Seeking Depth: Case Studies

Seeking Generality: Studies of Many People

##### ESTABLISHING RELATIONSHIPS AMONG VARIABLES

Correlation between Variables

Two Kinds of Significance

Causality and a Limitation on Inference

Search for Causality: Experimental Research

Recognizing Types of Study

What Kind of Research Is Best?

Multifactor Studies

Reading Figures from Multifactor Research

#### CHAPTER SUMMARY

Research in personality relies on observations of both the self and others. The desire to understand a person as an integrated whole led to case studies, in-depth examinations of specific persons. The desire for generalizability—conclusions that would apply to many rather than to a few people—led to studies involving systematic examination of many people.

Gathering information is only the first step toward examining relationships between and among variables. Relationships among variables are examined in two ways, corresponding to two kinds of relationships. Correlational research determines the degree to which two variables tend to go together in a predictable way when measured at different levels along the dimensions. This technique determines two aspects of the relationship: its direction and its strength. The special relationship of cause and effect cannot be determined by this kind of study, however.

A second technique, called the experimental method, allows testing for cause and effect. In an experiment, an independent variable is manipulated, other variables are controlled (made constant), and anything that cannot be controlled is treated by random assignment. An effect caused by the manipulation is measured in the dependent variable. Experimental and correlational techniques are often combined in multifactor studies. This is termed experimental personality research. Multifactor studies permit the emergence of interactions.

#### KEY TERMS

Case study: An in-depth study of one individual.

Causality: A relationship such that variation in one dimension produces variation in another.

Clinically significant: An association that is large enough to have some practical importance.

Correlation: A relationship in which two variables or dimensions covary when measured repeatedly.

Correlation coefficient: A numeric index of the degree of correlation between two variables.

Dependent variable: The variable measured as the outcome of an experiment; the “effect” in a cause–effect relation.

Descriptive statistics: Statistics used to describe or characterize some group.

Experimental control: The holding constant of variables that are not being manipulated.

Experimental method: The method in which one variable is manipulated to test for causal influence on another variable.

Experimental personality research: A study involving a personality factor and an experimental factor.

Generality (generalizability): The degree to which a conclusion applies to many people.

Independent variable: The variable manipulated in an experiment, tested as the “cause” in a cause–effect relation.

Inferential statistics: Statistics used to judge whether a relationship exists between variables.

Interaction: A finding in which the effect of one predictor variable differs, depending on the level of another predictor variable.

Main effect: A finding in which the effect of one predictor variable is independent of other variables.

Multifactor study: A study with two (or more) predictor variables.

Personology: The study of the whole person, as opposed to studying only one aspect of the person.

Practical significance: An association being large enough to have practical importance.

Random assignment: The process of putting people randomly into groups of an experiment so their characteristics balance out across groups.

Statistical significance: Likelihood of an obtained effect occurring when there is no true effect.

Third variable problem: The possibility that an unmeasured variable caused variations in both of two correlated variables.

Variable: A dimension along which two or more variations exist.

## TEST ITEMS

### Multiple Choice

- (c/14) 1. Looking inward to your own experience is called:
- inspection
  - self-monitoring
  - introspection
  - personal case study
- (b/15) 2. \* Henry Murray used the term \_\_\_\_\_ to describe efforts to understand the whole person:
- biography
  - personology
  - introspection
  - idiographic research
- (c/15) 3. Which view leads naturally to the use of case studies?
- introspection
  - biological
  - personology
  - correlational
- (d/15) 4. \* Which of the following is NOT true of the case study method?
- Case studies are rich in detail.
  - Case studies are often clinical studies
  - Case studies can be used to generate theories
  - Case studies are conducted in settings carefully created and controlled by the researcher.
- (b/16) 5. What prevents the results of a single case study from being applied to many people?
- lack of retest reliability
  - lack of generality
  - general scoring error
  - singular inconsistency
- (d/16) 6. \* Most personality research has been done:
- in the United States or western Europe
  - on college students
  - on white, middle to upper-middle class people
  - all of the above
- (a/17) 7. In any personality study there is an inherent trade off between \_\_\_\_\_ on the one hand and \_\_\_\_\_ on the other.
- generalizability and in-depth understanding
  - observation and self-report
  - convenience and utility
  - none of the above

- (d/17) 8. A \_\_\_\_\_ is a dimension, along which variations exist. There are always at least two \_\_\_\_\_ along each dimension.
- level, constructs
  - value, variables
  - variable, observations
  - variable, values
- (c/18) 9. Psychologists describe correlations by referring to their:
- direction and duration
  - duration and strength
  - direction and strength
  - none of the above
- (b/19) 10. \* The strength of a correlation refers to its:
- directionality
  - degree of accuracy
  - positivity as opposed to negativity
  - statistical significance
- (a/19) 11. A scatterplot with many points in the lower right quadrant of the plot, many points in the upper left quadrant, and very few points in the other quadrants would indicate:
- a positive correlation
  - a negative correlation
  - an inverse correlation
  - none of the above
- (b/19) 12. When low values on one dimension are associated with high values on another dimension, the correlation between the two variables is termed:
- inadequate
  - inverse
  - qualified
  - substantive
- (a/19) 13. A perfect positive correlation is indicated by an r value of:
- 0.0
  - 1.0
  - 10.0
  - 100.0
- (b/19) 14. \* Which of the following is the strongest, plausible correlation coefficient?
- 1.68
  - .63
  - .42
  - .56

- (b/20) 15. A correlation of \_\_\_\_\_ means two variables are not related at all.
- .5
  - .0
  - .5
  - 1.0
- (a/20) 16. \* If a research finding is statistically significant, it:
- is unlikely to have occurred by chance
  - will have wide-ranging effects
  - is important to humanity
  - all of the above
- (c/20) 17. In addition to statistical significance, psychologists often talk about the \_\_\_\_\_ significance of research results.
- scientific
  - humanitarian
  - practical
  - therapeutic
- (b/21) 18. \* Correlational research cannot tell us:
- how strongly two variables go together
  - why two variables go together
  - whether two variables go together
  - in what direction two variables go together
- (c/21) 19. To test whether research findings can be attributed to chance, researchers use:
- random numbers tables
  - descriptive statistics
  - inferential statistics
  - all of the above
- (b/22) 20. \* What type of study design allows for statements about causality?
- case study
  - experimental
  - correlational
  - all of the above
- (c/22) 21. The independent variable is the one that is:
- free to vary
  - measured
  - manipulated
  - the outcome variable
- (b/22) 22. \* Ensuring that all variables are constant in an experiment, except for the independent variable, is called:
- the experimental method
  - experimental control
  - random assignment
  - experimental manipulation



- (a/22) 23. \* The variable manipulated by the experimenter is called the:
- independent variable
  - control variable
  - dependent variable
  - correlation coefficient
- (d/23) 24. Which of the following is NOT a reason someone would use random assignment?
- to assure that each participant has an equal chance of being in either experimental condition
  - to balance out differences between experimental groups
  - to rule out the third variable problem
  - to assure that people within each group are similar to one another
- (d/23) 25. \* If a researcher randomly assigns subjects to two groups at the beginning of an experiment, we can assume that at that point:
- the groups will have similar numbers of males and females
  - the two groups will be similar with respect to IQ
  - the two groups will be approximately equal in size
  - all of the above
- (c/23) 26. If you find that two groups differ from each other on the dependent measure at the end of an experiment, you are able to conclude that:
- only one thing could have caused the difference: manipulation of the dependent variable
  - the groups differed on the dependent measure before the study started
  - only one thing could have caused the difference: manipulation of the independent variable
  - none of the above
- (a/24) 27. \* If a study categorizes subjects on the basis of some naturally-occurring difference, it is most likely:
- a correlational study
  - an experimental study
  - a cross-lagged study
  - a case study
- (a/24) 28. Personality psychologists use people very high and very low on dimensions of personality when conducting research:
- to maximize the chance of finding differences
  - to make it easier to express the finding as a correlation
  - to maximize generalizability
  - to make it look like they are conducting experimental work
- (c/25) 29. \* One reason that a personality psychologist might not use the experimental method is that:
- experiments tend to be long in duration
  - experiments cannot be used in personality research
  - for ethical reasons certain variables can't be manipulated
  - all of the above

- (c/25) 30. The factors in any given multifactor study:
- are always personality variables
  - are always experimental manipulations
  - can be any combination of personality variables and experimental manipulations
  - cannot be all personality variables
- (b/25) 31. \* Experimental personality research:
- focuses on only one variable at a time
  - combines experimental and correlational techniques
  - tells us nothing about cause and effect
  - none of the above
- (c/26) 32. In multifactor research, possible results fall into which two categories?
- good and bad
  - interactive and singular
  - main effects and interactions
  - correlational and causal
- (d/26) 33. \* Interaction effects are possible to find only in:
- interaction studies
  - correlational studies
  - main effect studies
  - multifactor studies

#### True/False

- (T/14) 1. Looking inward to your own experiences is known as introspection.
- (F/15) 2. Unlike introspection, observation of another person is unbiased.
- (T/15) 3. Henry Murray coined the term "personology."
- (T/15) 4. \* Many case studies are also clinical studies.
- (F/15) 5. Case studies are lacking in detail relative to other types of studies.
- (T/16) 6. It is very difficult for a single case study to be generalizable to everyone.
- (T/17) 7. Most of the research on personality has been done in the United States and Europe.
- (F/17) 8. \* A variable must have at least three values or levels.
- (T/17) 9. In order to study age-related changes in personality, you would need to study at least two age groups.
- (F/18) 10. In order to understand the relationship between two variables, psychologists consider the strength and duration of that relationship.
- (F/19) 11. If lower values on one variable are associated with lower values on another, the two variables are negatively correlated.
- (F/20) 12. A correlation of  $r = .27$  is stronger than a correlation of  $r = -.57$ .

- (F/20) 13. A statistically significant correlation is always an important one.
- (F/21) 14. \* Correlational research provides information about causality among two or more variables.
- (F/21) 15. Descriptive statistics are used to indicate whether an effect was due to chance.
- (T/21) 16. Inferential statistics always lead to probabilistic conclusions.
- (T/22) 17. In order for a study to be considered experimental, the researcher must manipulate one variable.
- (T/22) 18. In experimental research the researcher actively creates a difference between the treatment given to one group and the treatment given to some people and the treatment given to others.
- (F/22) 19. Experimental control is not a necessary component of experimental research.
- (T/23) 20. In experimental research variables that can't be controlled, such as individual differences, are treated by random assignment.
- (T/24) 21. Because it is difficult to know sometimes what it was about a manipulation that produced an effect, we must be cautious even about how we view the results of experiments.
- (F/24) 22. \* Results of correlational studies are always reported as correlations.
- (T/25) 23. Personality psychologists have criticized experiments on the grounds that they don't deal directly with personality.
- (F/25) 24. It is not possible to combine correlational and experimental techniques in the same study.
- (F/25) 25. You can always find an ethical way to manipulate a variable of interest.
- (F/25) 26. It is impossible to do research in which one variable is an experimental manipulation and two are personality variables.
- (T/25) 27. \* All experimental personality research studies are multifactor studies.
- (F/26) 28. The more factors involved in a study, the easier it is to clearly interpret results.
- (T/26) 29. Interactions can only be detected in multifactor studies.
- (F/26) 30. It is possible to observe an interaction even if the study includes only one variable.
- (T/26) 31. An interaction between variables can take a variety of forms.

### Short Essay

- (17) 1. If only college students are used as research participants, what impact does this have on how results may be interpreted?

Results may lack generality because college students differ from older adults in several ways, e.g., having a less fully formulated sense of self.

- (17) 2. Why is it so important to examine at least two levels of a personality variable before drawing conclusions?

You cannot be sure that the different values on the first variable are really associated with different values on the second variable unless you examine at least two levels. For example, we cannot see the effects of having low self-esteem by looking only at people with low self-esteem. You must also determine if the particular effect is absent (or present) among those with high self-esteem.

- (18-20)3. \* Identify and describe the two aspects of a correlation that need to be considered in order to understand its meaning.

DIRECTION: Positive--low values on one variable tend to go with low values on the other, and high values on one tend to go with high values on the other. Negative (inverse)--high values on one variable tend to go with low values on the other, and vice versa.

STRENGTH: Accuracy with which you can predict values on one dimension from values on the other dimension; ranges from  $r = -1.0$  to  $r = +1.0$ .

- (20) 4. Explain what is meant by "statistical significance." How does statistical significance relate to the issue of importance?

"Significant" does not mean "important" in the usual sense. Rather, computations indicate the effect was unlikely to have been a product of chance factors. For example, if probability is 5% or less, the correlation is believable and, therefore, statistically significant.

- (21-22) 5. Doug observes that people who exercise tend to have higher levels of self-esteem. What are three ways Doug might interpret this correlational finding?

First, it could be that people who are high in self-esteem also tend to exercise. Second, it could be that exercise leads people to have higher levels of self-esteem. Finally, it might be that some unmeasured third factor may be causing both high levels of self-esteem and exercise.

- (23) 6. \* The use of random assignment is based on a specific assumption. Identify/explain that assumption.

If you study enough people, any important differences between them (and from other sources) will balance out between groups.

- (24-25) 7. Discuss the relative advantages and disadvantages of the correlational method versus the experimental method.

CORRELATION. Advantages: (1) May examine events that take place over longer time periods and are very elaborate; (2) may gain information about events in which experimental manipulation would be unethical.

Disadvantage: Can say nothing about causal relationship between variables.

EXPERIMENT. Advantage: Ability to demonstrate cause and effect relationship between variables.

Disadvantages: (1) Some uncertainty about what it was in the manipulation that was important; (2) experiments on humans are limited to phenomena of relatively short duration, under carefully controlled conditions; (3) experimental relationships often have little to do with central issues of personality.

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