

logical concept in which an unconscious thought is denied admission to consciousness. When regression of the libido is accompanied by repression a neurosis results, regression without repression would not give rise to a neurosis but would result in a perversion. A neurosis only develops when there is frustration and the symptoms are actually substitutes for the missing satisfaction. A logical outgrowth of this view is the mechanism of sublimation, where the sex urge is recognised and its satisfaction achieved in a substitute activity which is more socially acceptable. Then there is the mechanism of projection, where the motives in the individual are imputed to others and transference which occurs specifically in the therapeutic situation.

In short, the object of psychoanalysis is to bring the repressed and unconscious urge into consciousness. This is essential, but if the therapy is to be successful it is necessary that in addition the patient accept this knowledge and integrate it within himself. Most repressions take place during early sexual development and it is postulated that the patient, with his increased maturity, will be able to handle this knowledge more satisfactorily than at the time of its repression. "The necessary condition is that the knowledge must be founded upon an inner change in the patient which can only come about by a mental operation directed to that end."<sup>1</sup> Freud states that advice and guidance concerning the patient's conduct do not form an integral part of therapy. "On the contrary, as far as possible we refrain from playing the part of mentor; we want nothing better than that the patient should find his own solutions for himself."<sup>2</sup>

Freud envisages a continuum, at the one end of which are individuals who would have developed a neurosis under very little stress because of constitutional elements, while at the other end we have those individuals who would not have become ill had the environmental stresses not been inordinately severe. This differentiating

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1 Freud, Sigmund (7) p. 249

2 Ibid., p. 376

factor, "the sexual constitution" depends upon the normal development of \* libido.<sup>1</sup> Besides the general conditions of privation and fixation of the libido, Freud includes a third factor in the aetiology of the neuroses. This is the susceptibility to conflict which, he considers, is connected both with the development of the ego and the libido.<sup>2</sup>

The normal development of the libido is, however, integral to his theories and he states that: ".... we know that the most favourable circumstance for the development of a neurosis lies in the inability to tolerate a considerable degree of pent-up libido for any length of time."<sup>3</sup> Freud mentions the development of phantasies as one outlet for pent-up libido, and considers that C. G. Jung coined the very appropriate term of introversion for this "inward turning" of the libido, but that he inappropriately used it to describe other things as well. Freud continues: "We will adhere to the position that 'introversion' describes the deflection of the libido away from the possibilities of real satisfaction and its excessive accumulation upon phantasies previously tolerated as harmless."<sup>4</sup> This is, however, an unstable state which may easily develop into a neurosis.

Jung was a follower of Freud who finally broke away because of a gradually developing divergence of their view-points. Besides a personal subconscious Jung postulates a "collective" or "racial" subconscious which exists in each person. This is the sediment of the experience acquired by the development of the race through the ages. Jung also emphasises the primordial unity of all the instincts and expands the concept of the libido. The early libido is expended in nutrition and growth and only with puberty is the sexual component of the urge to ego-expression dominant.

Freud gives Jung the credit for building the first bridge between psychoanalysis and experimental psychology when referring to

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1 Ibid., p. 304

2 Ibid., p. 308

3 Ibid., p. 354

4 Ibid., p. 326



his experiments in free association. Jung eventually developed some standardised association tests.

Jung also emphasises "Psychological Types" which are based on hereditary differences in personality make-up. These types are derived from his basic distinction of extraversion and introversion. "Both introversion and extraversion may be expressed on four different levels or segments of behaviour; namely, sensation, intuition, feeling and thinking. The combination gives rise to eight varieties of character types which are rarely pure types, but mixed."<sup>1</sup> Gardner Murphy considers that Jung's types cannot be used in applied psychology: "As a matter of fact, Jung's concept is difficult to adapt to the ordinary procedures of psychology, so much so that it is best to stress at once that for him the determination of introversion-extroversion is a complex analytical task which overlaps, to an unknown but probably only a slight degree, the procedures currently used with large populations whose individual members are not well known to the experimenter."<sup>2</sup>

Alfred Adler's "Individual Psychology" is even more divergent from Freud's "Psychoanalytical Psychology" than is Jung's "Analytical Psychology". For Adler, life's energy source is directed by external goals and is not generated by unconscious urges within the individual. The goal is always social superiority and prestige which will be inversely related to the unconscious feelings of inferiority. Jastrow quotes Adler as follows: "Every neurosis can be understood as an attempt to free oneself from a feeling of inferiority in order to gain a feeling of superiority."<sup>3</sup> Adler's theories were shaped by early observations that patients with physical defects developed an unfavourable attitude towards life and often a susceptibility to neurosis. These facts led to his study of "organ inferiority".

The individual's "life style" or the mode of reaction which he will use throughout life for the achievement of his goals is

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1 Jastrow, Joseph (13) p. 102

2 Murphy, Gardner (17) p. 595

3 Jastrow, op. cit., p. 110

determined in his childhood. The family relationships play a dominant part in the establishment of the particular "life style". It is generally recognised today that the parents' attitudes, the number of siblings in a family and the age differences between them contribute towards the shaping of the personality. Questions concerning family relationships are usually included in biographical inventories to be used in the assessment of personality. However, neither they nor the superiority goal are accorded the central significance which they possess in Adler's theories.

Mention should also be made of some newer methods of psychotherapy which have their origins in classical psychoanalysis. After fifteen years of experience in this field Karen Horney has given us a critical re-evaluation of psychoanalytical theories. She states that she realises the constructive value of Freud's fundamental findings and considers that if the debatable elements and the theories arising from certain historically determined theoretical premises are discarded, the scope and value of psychoanalysis can be immeasurably increased.<sup>1</sup>

Horney regards the following as the most fundamental and most significant of Freud's findings: Firstly, that psychic processes are strictly determined. Secondly, that actions and feelings may be determined by unconscious motivations.<sup>2</sup> When discussing some of the mechanisms described by Freud she states further: "Freud has not only revealed the importance of unconscious processes in the formation of character and neuroses, but he has taught us a great deal about the dynamics of these processes."<sup>3</sup> Thirdly, she pays tribute to Freud for recognising that the unconscious motivations driving us are emotional forces.<sup>4</sup>

Horney considers, however, that Freud's instinctivistic and and genetic orientation has imposed an unnecessary rigidity on psycho-

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1 Horney, Karen (11) p. 8

2 Ibid., p. 18

3 Ibid., p. 25

4 Ibid., pp. 18, 24



analysis. She considers that the libido concept is unproved, that all attitudes and drives are not sexual in origin and that every striving for pleasure is not necessarily a striving for libidinal satisfaction. Above all she objects to the assumption underlying these premises that " .... man is driven to fulfill certain primary, biologically given needs, and that these are powerful enough to exert a decisive influence on his personality and thus on his life as a whole."<sup>1</sup> She gives Freud credit for recognising the frequent appearance of sexual maladjustments in psychoneurotics but she regards these sexual maladjustments as one of the expressions rather than as the cause of the neurosis.

The chief difference between Horney's views and those of Freud lies in the role assigned to the sex impulses in the aetiology of the neuroses. Horney regards neurotic manifestations as representing attempts on the part of the person to neutralise or counteract anxiety. She points out that there has been a considerable alteration in the cultural attitude towards sex, and she considers that this is largely responsible for the fact that at present, sex impulses as such are only in rare cases the dynamic force behind anxiety. It is rather hostile impulses of various kinds, connected with sex, aggressive and other impulses which form the main force from which neurotic anxiety arises.

In the further development of her theories Horney states that infantile attachments to the parents, what Freud designates the Oedipus complex, is not primarily a sexual phenomenon but rather an early manifestation of neurotic conflicts.<sup>2</sup> She recognises the supreme importance of early experiences in the formation of the character structure but considers that " .... the entirety of infantile experiences combines to form a certain character structure, and it is this structure from which later difficulties emanate. Thus the analysis of the actual character structure moves into the foreground of attention."<sup>3</sup> In analysis, Horney focusses her attention on the

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 70

<sup>2</sup> Ibid., p. 84

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., p. 9

environmental circumstances producing a certain character structure rather than on the biologically or genetically based impulses.

Strictly speaking, the psychoanalytic approach refers to the doctrines of Sigmund Freud and his more faithful followers, but we have included some of those schools which have developed out of classical psychoanalysis. One might add, indeed, that few methods of psychotherapy have remained entirely uninfluenced by Freudian philosophy. In general, the description of the dynamics of the psychic life provided by these theories was developed as a result of a study of the neuroses and other disturbed states, and naturally finds its greatest application in therapeutic work. These theories have contributed to general psychological knowledge but do not find much direct application in vocational guidance and similar fields where we are dealing predominantly with the "normal" range of behaviour and where time is limited.

#### The Physiological Approach to Theories of Personality.

The dichotomies or trichotomies which resulted from the first attempts at the classification of human beings according to body build were based on observation and shrewd insight but were seldom subjected to scientific proof. It was held that the "types" which were distinguished in this way differed not only in their physical characteristics but also in their susceptibility to different forms of disease and in their temperamental make-up.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century a three-fold typology was developed by a Frenchman called Roston. This was revived by Kretschmer almost a hundred years later. Roston's "digestive" and "muscular" types correspond to Kretschmer's "pyknic" and "athletic" types respectively and the subtypes which Roston called "respiratory" and "cerebral" correspond to Kretschmer's "asthenic" type and the "athletic-asthenic" mixture.<sup>1</sup>

Kretschmer attempted to give the old intuitive typologies some experimental backing and subjected the hypotheses to a rigorous

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<sup>1</sup> Sheldon, William H. (19) p. 527



clinical investigation. He investigated two clinical groups of subjects, the first suffered from manic-depressive or "circular" psychoses and the second from various forms of schizophrenia. Amongst these subjects three main physical types emerged which he called pyknic, asthenic and athletic, these are too well known to warrant a further description than that: pyknics are characterised by softness, roundness, fatness and delicate extremities, asthenics are characterised by linearity or a deficiency of thickness combined with an average unlesened length, and athletics are characterised by strong development of the skeleton and musculature resulting in almost hypertrophied shoulders in comparison with which the legs seem almost dainty.<sup>1</sup>

Besides these main types there are small groups differing amongst themselves which Kretschmer calls dysplastics. The chief amongst these are the eunuchoids who, as the name implies, are lacking in strong masculine characteristics. There is also the masculine type amongst women and what he designates as hypoplastics characterised by underdevelopment especially in the features of the face and the extremities.

Besides these divers types, mixtures of pyknic and athletic elements can be found, asthenic-pyknic interference in structure is encountered, athletic-asthenic combinations are common and in Kretschmer's own words: "We could reel off here, and with other types, innumerable mixtures of such a kind: there is absolutely no single criterion which cannot be varied by, and combined with, marks of another type."<sup>2</sup> In his subjects Kretschmer found a preponderance of pyknic types amongst the circulars and a preponderance of athletic, asthenic, dysplastics and mixtures of these in the schizophrenic group.

It was emphasised, however, that these were found amongst healthy people as well as those suffering from organic and psychic disorders.<sup>3</sup> Similarly, the behaviour and temperamental attributes

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1 Kretschmer, Ernst (14) pp. 30, 22, 25

2 Ibid., p. 33

3 Ibid., p. 29

(designated cycloid) which characterise the group of circulars and those (designated schizoid) which characterise the schizophrenic group do not have their foundation in the disease as such but indicate certain normal biological tendencies which, in only a small proportion of cases, come to a pathological culmination either in a psychosis or in certain established internal diseases.

Kretschmer describes the temperamental make-up of the healthy cyclothymes and schizothymes in all their variations until their culmination in pathological symptoms with great persuasiveness and insight. Very briefly, the cyclothymes are uninhibited, good-natured, softhearted people with a mood range from gay to sorrowful. The schizothymes on the other hand, vary on a mood scale from hypersensitive through "affective lameness" to insensitivity and dullness. In general there is an autistic narrowing down of affective responses.

Kretschmer gave a scientific foundation to previous unsystematic work in this field, he recognised the complex relationships between physical and psychological factors in the structure of the personality and his recognition of dysplastics and mixtures of types paved the way for investigations involving the scaling of continuous variables.

W.H. Sheldon is amongst the best known current workers in this field of research. His work involved, first of all, a search for basic components of morphology. Four thousand college students were photographed in a standardised posture from the frontal, lateral and dorsal positions on a single film. It was found that the entire series of four thousand photographs could be arranged along three (and only three) different axes by observational examination.

Anthropometric measurements which reflected the variations on these three axes respectively were devised. Each variable was rated on a seven point scale. The somatotype is a series of three numerals each expressing the approximate strength of one of the three primary components of morphology which are designated "endomorph", "mesomorph" and "ectomorph" respectively. Thus 7 - 1 - 1 represents the extreme endomorph and 4 - 4 - 4 represents a situation where the components are of equal strength.

Sheldon explains this terminology at some length and



summarise. "The hallmark of mesomorphy is uprightness and sturdiness of structure, as the hallmark of endomorphy is softness and sphericity.

Ectomorphy means fragility, linearity, flatness of the chest, and delicacy throughout the body. .... The hallmark of ectomorphy is the stooped posture and hesitant restraint of movement."<sup>1</sup> We appear to have returned to the salient characteristics of the athletic, pyknic and asthenic builds respectively, with the essential difference that these components represent separate continua.

An attempt was then made to discover the basic components of temperament. The literature was combed for differentiative behaviour traits and 50 were chosen. After a weekly series of analytic interviews extending over the period of a year, 33 graduate students were rated on each of the traits using a seven point scale. Inter-correlations were calculated and clusters of traits were sought. Three clusters were found where the positive correlation was at least +.60 between all individual traits comprising the cluster and where these traits also had negative correlations of at least -.30 with every trait found in any of the other clusters.

These three components of temperament were named "viscerotonia", "somatotonia" and "cerebrotonia" respectively. A table of the 22 out of the original 50 traits which characterise these three groups is given below.<sup>2</sup>

Table I

Twenty-two Traits Originally Defining the Three Primary Temperamental Components.

Group I	Group II	Group III
V-1 Relaxation	S-1 Assertive Posture	C-1 Restraint in Posture
V-2 Love of Comfort	S-3 Energetic Characteristic	C-3 Overly Fast Reactions
V-6 Pleasure in Digestion	S-4 Need of Exercise	C-8 Sociophobia
V-10 Dependence on Social Approval	S-7 Directness of Manner	C-9 Inhibited Social Address
V-15 Deep Sleep	S-13 Unrestrained Voice	C-10 Resistance to Habit
V-19 Need of People when Troubled	S-16 Quality of Seeming Older	C-13 Vocal Restraint
	S-19 Need of Action when Troubled	C-15 Poor Sleep Habits
		C-16 Youthful Intentness
		C-19 Need of Solitude when Troubled

1 Sheldon, William H. (19) p. 540

2 Ibid., p. 542

In general viscerotonia is characterised by love of relaxation and comfort and gluttony for food, people and affection. The second group, somatotonia is defined by bodily vigour and assertiveness, with love of action and power. In cerebrotonia there are anti-social tendencies and above all, restraint and inhibition.

Intercorrelations were calculated for the three basic components of morphology and the three basic components of temperament. The following correlations indicate the relationship between the morphology and the temperament variables<sup>1</sup>

viscerotonia and endomorphy +.79

somatotonia and mesomorphy +.32

cerebrotonia and ectomorphy +.83

Sheldon considers that these findings confirm the association of physiological and psychological components in the structure of the personality.

To the writer there appears to be great doubt as to whether Sheldon has actually isolated three basic and independent components of morphology and three basic and independent components of temperament. A study of Table I indicates that a number of the traits each of which is characteristic of a particular group appear to be polar opposites. Thus, "Need of People when Troubled" (viscerotonia 19) and "Need of Solitude when Troubled" (cerebrotonia 19) or again, "Unrestrained Voice" (somatotonia 13) and "Vocal Restraint" (cerebrotonia 13). Sheldon himself reports a correlation of -.62 between the two temperament components somatotonia and cerebrotonia and a correlation of -.63 between the corresponding components of morphology, mesomorphy and ectomorphy.<sup>2</sup> If Sheldon is seeking independent variables it would seem more reasonable to seek clusters of behaviour traits where there were high positive intercorrelations between traits within the cluster and where there were zero and not negative correlations with traits in any of the other clusters.

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1 Sheldon, William H. (19) p. 544

2 Loc. cit.



Sheldon describes only the positive poles of his three components of temperament. If these are each on a continuum, a description of the negative poles is equally important. Above all, these three variables should serve as points of reference in a coherent theory of personality.

#### The Wholistic Approach to Theories of Personality.

The wholistic approach to theories of personality is in sharp contrast to those theories where the emphasis is either on genetic and physiological determinants of personality or on environmental determinants. Personality is studied in terms of the "total interacting organism". Each individual-environment compound is thus a unit which must be studied separately. Behaviour follows no general rules and is explicable only in terms of the total interacting organism's development.

In his theory of personality Prescott Lecky describes behaviour in the following terms: "The point is that all of an individual's values are organised into a single system the preservation of whose integrity is essential. The nucleus of the system, around which the rest of the system revolves, is the individual's valuation of himself."<sup>1</sup>

The environment is constantly changing thus presenting continuous problems of adjustment to which the organism is reacting. If new concepts are encountered which are inconsistent with the individual's self-evaluation they will either be rejected or assimilated through a reorganisation of the self-concept.

The purpose of the investigator is to discover for each individual the particular "concept of self" or "system of values" or "plot" or "life-style" according to which he behaves. This point of view and Adler's are alike in that they are both teleological, and both emphasise the individual as a unit, but differ in that the former postulates a continuous reactivity of the organism as a result of

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<sup>1</sup> Lecky, Prescott (15) p. 82

a continuously changing environment, whereas Adler explains the reactivity of the organism as a continuous effort to achieve superiority. In the Freudian scheme the id represents the primitive reservoir of motives.

The stable individual has a unified attitude towards the life situation as a whole. He has a well organised system of values and his behaviour is aimed at maintaining the integrity of this system. Provided that the individual sees no inconsistencies in his system of values, his behaviour must be regarded as rational. Lecky states that: "The behavior of others seems irrational and incomprehensible only when the definitions they are striving to maintain bear too little resemblance to our own."<sup>1</sup> It appears to the writer to follow that, provided he sees no inconsistencies in his system of values, the behaviour of a psychopath happily suffering from delusions of grandeur must be regarded as rational. When talking of psychotherapy Lecky states: "We do not aim at consistency with the demands of society, but only at self-consistency. Social ends must be approached indirectly. In other words, if the personal problem is solved and unity of action is achieved, the social problem disappears."<sup>1</sup> It seems to the writer that this is by no means inevitable and that unity of action might be obtained without regard to the requirements of the society.

Lecky states that therapy should consist in removing from the individual's system of values those concepts which are incompatible with the system and substituting others which will increase the internal strength of the system and thus result in unified action. In his own words: "As always, the technique consists in making the subject aware of his own inconsistency. The inhibiting definitions must be seen as useless burdens from which he must try to free himself, rather than as assets to be justified and retained."<sup>2</sup>

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1 Ibid., p. 110

2 Ibid., p. 146



The method of therapy advocated appears to be at variance with the theory of personality on which it is based. It is repeatedly stated that to ensure stability the individual must see his organisation of values as being without inconsistencies. The therapist, however, points out to the individual certain inconsistencies which do exist, but these can only be regarded as inconsistencies in terms of the therapist's own system of values, since no outside criterion of consistency is supplied by this theory of personality.

This anomalous situation is due in part to the fact that Lecky has ignored the concept of "group norms" in behaviour. All members of a particular society have broad areas of similarity in their environments. Their behaviour is adapted to this environment and certain behaviour responses are established which are accepted by the group. It is necessary not only that the individual's system of values appear consistent to himself but also that his behaviour be acceptable in terms of the standards maintained by the society. Lecky has also avoided the question of the original endowments of the psychophysical organism. At the very least, these must set limits to the development of the organism.

Lecky's volume was edited and published posthumously and it is a loss to psychology that he was not able to complete the formulation and integration of his theories. Throughout his work there is a much needed insistence on the uselessness of studying isolated temperament traits or individual reflex arcs without reference to wider patterns of behaviour and he emphasises the fact that observational data must serve as the background for creative thought and the postulation of a unifying hypothesis.

One of the most comprehensive of the wholistic theories of personality has been formulated by Carl R. Rogers. It is similar to Lecky's theory in that the behaviour of each individual is regarded as the goal-directed attempt of the organism to meet its needs as it perceives them, and by so doing to maintain and strengthen the system of values which constitute the concept of self. It differs in that Rogers explains the reactivity of the organism in terms of a "growth force" which impels the organism in the direction

of self-actualisation. Provided that the factors in the situation are clear, and the person feels free to choose, it is this force which decides the individual to face the pain and difficulty in making a normal adjustment, thus actualising and enhancing himself, rather than to escape into a psychosis.

Rogers' theory of personality was formulated as a result of the experience gained from many years of successful work in the field of psychotherapy, and an understanding of his theories may perhaps best be obtained by studying the method of psychotherapy out of which they developed. According to Rogers his method of psychotherapy (known as client-centered therapy) differs sharply from the accepted forms of therapy in three ways:

(1) If the therapist creates the right conditions it is a predictable process which follows the same general lines for each patient or client. The client will first express deep motivating attitudes, will explore these more fully and thus become aware of aspects of his attitudes which he has previously denied. When he has arrived at a clearer conscious realisation of his motivating attitudes, his concept of himself will be re-organised to assimilate these attitudes. As a result of this better understanding of himself he will, on his own initiative, direct his behaviour towards the achievement of new goals which he will find more satisfactory than his maladjusted ones.

(2) This systematic development is due to the fact that the changes are brought about by the forces within the individual. Rogers states that it has been known for centuries that catharsis and emotional release were helpful in therapy, so too was insight, if accepted and assimilated by the client. He continues: "But we have not known or recognised that in most if not all individuals there exist growth forces tendencies toward self-actualization, which may act as the sole motivation for therapy. We have not realized that under suitable psychological conditions these forces bring about emotional release in those areas and at those rates which are most beneficial to the individual. These forces drive the individual to explore his own attitudes and his relationship to reality, and to explore these areas effectively. We have not realized that the individual is capable of exploring his attitudes and feelings,



including those which have been denied to consciousness, at a rate which does not cause panic, and to the depth required for comfortable adjustment."<sup>1</sup>

(3) The most distinctive feature of client-centered therapy is the relationship between the therapist and the client. The therapist does not "lead" or "explain" to the client, but rather strives to create the psychological atmosphere in which the client feels free to express himself and work out his own problems. "If the counselor can create a relationship permeated by warmth, understanding, safety from any type of attack, no matter how trivial, and basic acceptance of the person as he is, then the client will drop his natural defensiveness and use the situation."<sup>2</sup>

Rogers contends that the client is capable of translating the insights which he has achieved into constructive behaviour which weighs his own needs and desires realistically against the demands of society. Thus he avoids two of the criticisms directed against Lecky's theories which concerned firstly the need for the therapist to determine and to point out to the patient the inconsistencies in his system of values and secondly the failure to take the requirements of the society into account.

Rogers also discusses, though in a somewhat unsystematic way, the question of original endowments and biologically based needs. He states that biologically based needs (for example sex cravings) may not be admitted to consciousness because they are inconsistent with the concept of self, but that the pressure of the need may become so great that it will initiate its own seeking behaviour to bring about satisfaction. The behaviour would then be disowned by the individual who would say he was not himself at the time or that he did not know what he was doing. He is also of the opinion that psychologically based needs, such as the need for affection and esteem are just as organically basic as the physiological ones. He continues: "Likewise persistent deprivation of these needs has a

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<sup>1</sup> Rogers, Carl R. (23) p. 418

<sup>2</sup> Ibid., p. 419

total psychological and physiological effect upon the individual, as the work of Goldfarb has shown.<sup>1</sup> He emphasises the point that it is not the biological or cultural needs which primarily determine behaviour but it is the way in which the individual perceives these needs. This emphasis on the perceptual field as the determinant of behaviour has an obvious relationship to the concepts of the Gestalt Psychologists.

The latter, however, stress the fact that behaviour is the resultant of the individual and the environment. Mathematically,  $B = f(PE)$  where B is the behaviour, P the person and E the environment.<sup>2</sup> In other words, the forces in the field which determine behaviour relate not only to the states of tension within the person but also to the valences within the environment. This theoretical approach has led to the development of techniques for the assessment of personality in real-life situations. These techniques consist in studying the interpersonal relations which manifest themselves when a number of people are engaged on a common task. Patterns of dominance and submission and of co-operativeness and isolation make their appearance and contribute greatly to the understanding of the individual personalities involved. Examples of these techniques of personality assessment are those employed by the War Office Selection Board and the Civil Service Selection Board in Great Britain and by the Office of Strategic Services in the United States of America.

Rogers defines psychological adjustment and maladjustment in terms of the discrepancy between the organic perceptions and the concept of self. If the individual has been unable to assimilate a large number of the organic perceptions into his concept of self, this will result in maladjustment. In this context the organic perceptions include all the physiological and psychological needs of the organism. If, on the other hand, the self-concept embraces all the organic perceptions in a unified system of values, the individual will not experience tension or unease and will be adjusted.

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1 Rogers, Carl R. (30) p. 11

2 Lewin, Kurt (16) p. 73



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