

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE PERSONAL  
ORIENTATION INVENTORY IN SOUTH AFRICA

by

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submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for  
the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in the subject

INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

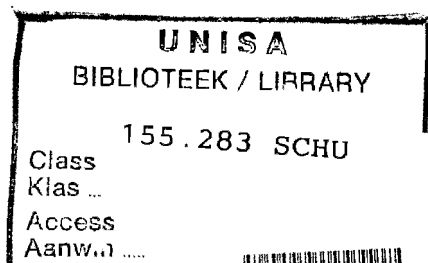
SUPERVISOR: PROF F. CILLIERS

JUNE 1994

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS:**

Sincerest appreciation is expressed to the following people who made this attempt possible:

- \* Prof F Cilliers for his guidance and supervision.
  
- \* Prof M Watkins and Mr N Hall for their input regarding statistical analysis.
  
- \* Madelaine Van Vuuren for her contributions in typing and laying out of the manuscript.
  
- \* James Kitching of the Unisa library for his help in finding relevant material.

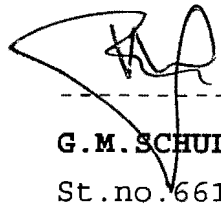


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**STATEMENT:**

I declare that this dissertation: **"Reliability and Validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory in South Africa"**, is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



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**SUMMARY**

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY  
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SUPERVISOR : PROF F CILLIERS  
DEGREE : MAGISTER ARTIUM  
SUBJECT : INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

A survey of literature has revealed that there is a need for a reliability and validity study of the Personal Orientation Inventory in South Africa. The two major objectives of this research were therefore to determine firstly, the test-retest reliability of the Personal Orientation Inventory and secondly, to establish the construct validity, in other words, how well the Personal Orientation Inventory correlates with other measures purporting to measure similar traits.

The total sample of 317 individuals used in this research, consisted of both male and female school leavers such as students and national servicemen, ranging in age from 17 to 22 years.

The results of this introductory study regarding reliability and validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory in South Africa demonstrated clear support for similar research done overseas and showed to be compatible with the humanistic psychology movement's original concept of self-actualization.

**KEY TERMS:**

Self-actualization, Personal Orientation Inventory, Reliability, Validity, South African Sample.

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**CHAPTER 1****INTRODUCTION**

This dissertation is about the reliability and validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory in South Africa. In this chapter, the background and motivation of the study will be covered as well as the problem statement and the aims. The paradigmatic perspective of this research will include a theoretical and empirical section, meta-theoretical assumptions, typologies, models and theories as well as methodological assumptions. Finally, the presentation of the study will be outlined.

**1.1. BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH**

There can be little doubt that the focus of activity and interest in the mental health field has undergone a significant change. The emphasis has clearly been on moving away from an orientation of pathology and deficit to rather one of prevention and of psychological health (Ilardi & May, 1968). As stated by Coan (1972), both theory and measurement in the field of personality have in the past centred too much around concepts of psychopathology. Theorists such as Bennett (1966), Bellak (1964) and Caplan (1964), have thus increasingly recognized that the focus should be more directly on optimal functioning rather than just the presence or absence of pathology.

It was however only with the emergence of the humanistic thinking in the 1960's that attempts were made to formulate theories of human nature based distinctively on human attributes and problems of existence caused by the condition of being human (DiCaprio, 1983). It was this movement advocated by theorists such as Allport, Rogers and Maslow that rejected the typical models used by psychologists depicting humans in mechanistic or biological terms (Potkay & Allen, 1986). These humanistic psychologists claimed that they included components in their theories that encompassed much more of human nature than other theories supported by behaviourism and psychoanalysis (Ryckman, 1989).

One of the outgrowths of the changing emphasis has been the emergence of assessment techniques which concern themselves with psychological health. Especially in the field of personality, has assessment been closely identified with the administration and interpretation of psychological tests (Anastasi, 1990). One reason for this has been that tests are intentionally developed as standardized and systematic procedures for gathering information from people and summarizing that information. The same tasks are administered in the same way to all persons. An individual's responses are samples of behaviour which may then be assigned scores for use in making comparisons with those of other people and categorizing the individual's behaviour (Beech & Harding, 1990).

Assessment techniques or psychological tests must meet important technical standards before they can be considered scientifically acceptable measures for making inferences about characteristics of people (Anastasi, 1990). Two critical standards are reliability and validity. In other words, the test must firstly demonstrate that the results are repeatable and secondly, that the test actually measures what it was designed to measure. As pointed out by Lemke and Wiersma (1976), psychological tests are measuring instruments and for their results to be accepted with confidence, they need to fulfill the criteria of reliability and validity.

One assessment technique concerned with psychological optimality and according to Knapp (1976), one of the most promising, appears to be Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI). It is this instrument that has stimulated extensive research into humanistic concepts and theory. According to Shostrom (1972), the concepts measured by the POI reflect an actualizing model that has been described as fast replacing the medical model for most counsellors and therapists. The medical model stresses movement from illness to a mean of normalcy, whereas the self-actualizing model stresses ways by which normal or well people can become more effective and self-fulfilled (Knapp, 1976). A need thus had arisen for an objective measure of values and behaviours that are important in the development of the

actualizing person. The POI was developed to meet this need.

## **1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The POI, developed to provide a standardized instrument for the measurement of values and behaviours hypothesized to be of paramount importance in the development of the self-actualizing person (Knapp, 1976; Shostrom, 1974), has been used extensively in South Africa for many years. Wide application and usage of the POI has been found in individual and group therapy, clinical studies, research and industry.

However, no South African reliability and validity studies using South African groups, samples or population could be found despite its extensive use over so many years in this country (Rothmann, 1993; Van Wyk, 1978). Research in the United States of America (Cattell, Eber & Tatsouka, 1970; Ilardi & May, 1968; Klavetter & Mogar, 1967; Shostrom, 1974; Wise & Davis, 1975), has shown positive results in this regard.

Research questions arising from this are firstly, how reliable is the POI using South African samples and to what extent do the reliability results compare to similar reliability studies administered overseas and secondly, how valid is the POI using South African samples and to what extent do the validity results compare to similar studies overseas.

## **1.3. AIMS OF THE RESEARCH**

### **1.3.1. GENERAL AIM**

The general aim of this research is to investigate the reliability and validity of the POI using South African samples.

### **1.3.2. SPECIFIC AIMS**

The theoretical aims of this research are:-

1. To provide a framework which allows for the understanding of

personality as presented in the humanistic paradigm.

2.To provide a framework which allows for the classification of the concept self-actualization as depicted by the humanistic theorists, namely Allport, Rogers and Maslow as well as the measurement of the construct.

The empirical aims of this research are:-

1. To ascertain the reliability of the POI using South African samples and to compare the results to similar studies administered overseas.
2. To ascertain the validity of the POI using South African samples and to compare the results to similar studies administered overseas.

#### **1.4. PARADIGMATIC PERSPECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH**

There are two paradigms applicable to this research. Firstly, the theoretical part is presented from the humanistic paradigm and secondly, the empirical study from the functionalistic paradigm.

##### **1.4.1. THE THEORETICAL SECTION**

It was the humanistic psychologists who rejected, as explained by DiCaprio (1983, p.281), the machine model of humans, the animal model, the pathological model and the model of the child as being inappropriate characterizations of fulfilled human nature. "The machine model conceptualizes human nature as a complicated computer. The animal model views people as being simply more complex animals, being governed by drive-reduction motivation and pain avoidance. The pathological model stresses the nonrational and unconscious aspects of personality. The model of the child views the human adult as being simply a more complex child".

According to DiCaprio (1983), these models just mentioned as seen



by the humanistic movement, neglected the radical changes that occur from childhood to adulthood in motivation, in cognition, in the growth of the self, and in the development of abilities. Take away any of the ingredients the humanistic theorists propose and the result is something less than a human being or certainly, less than a fully functioning human being (Maddi, 1980).

During the so-called golden age of behaviourism following World War II, a group of psychologists became discontented with behaviourism's view of human nature and method, and subsequently formed a movement known as humanistic psychology (De Carvalho, 1991). It was these founding members of the Association for Humanistic Psychology (AHP) that shared a deep desire and willingness to do something with the strong influence of behaviourism and psychoanalysis in mid-century American psychology (De Carvalho, 1991; DiCaprio, 1983; Rykman, 1989).

When this movement came to maturity, it was however, according to Rykman (1989), only a few humanistic psychologists like Gordon Allport, Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow who stood out for their inspiration and leadership roles. The humanistic psychology advocated by these men was an outcry against what they thought was the "mechanomorphic image of human nature and the academic sterility of behaviourism" (De Carvalho, 1991, p. 33). It was conversely, the persistent and somewhat provocative critique of behaviourism by humanistic psychologists that contributed to the decline of behaviourism in the 1960's. Allport (1955, p.18) claimed that contemporary psychologies like psychoanalysis and behaviourism, provided only a partial and limited view of human functioning, a view that needed drastic revision: "It is especially in relation to the formation and development of human personality that we need to open doors. For it is precisely here that our ignorance and uncertainty are greatest. Our methods, however well suited to the study of sensory processes, animal research, and pathology, are not fully adequate and interpretations arising from the exclusive use of these methods are stultifying. Some theories ... are based largely upon the behaviour of sick and anxious people or upon the antics of captive and desperate rats. Fewer theories have derived from the

study of healthy beings, those who strive not so much to preserve life as to make it worth living. Thus we find today many studies of criminals, few of law-abiders; many of fear, few of courage; more on hostility than on affiliation; much on the blindness in man, little on his vision; much on his past, little on his outreaching into the future". In other words, a drastic revision of contemporary psychology was advocated by the humanistic psychologists in which primary attention would be paid to topics that have been relatively ignored by existing theories. These topics would include, among others, love, affiliation, creativity, spontaneity, joy, courage, humour, independence and personal growth (Ryckman, 1989).

Another area of criticism voiced by the humanists centres on the prevailing view in the discipline that psychology is a natural science and must therefore employ methods of study consistent with those used in physics, chemistry, physiology and biology. The humanists claim that this attitude has led to a psychology that does not do justice to the full range of human experience and behaviour (De Carvalho, 1991). The natural science approach to the study of problems focuses on the accumulation of facts through the employment of objective and reliable measurement procedures. It avoids speculation and deduction in the attempt to understand phenomena and relies instead on induction. Because of their concern with objective and precise measurement, advocates of this approach have focused on only those problems that can meet the criteria, so such phenomena as jealousy, hatred of a parent and a man's love for a woman have been excluded from consideration (Ryckman, 1989). It is this depersonalized view of science that the humanistic psychologists have rejected. Rogers (1965, p.164) commented as follows: "Science exists only in people. Each scientific project has its creative inception, its process, and its tentative conclusion, in a person or persons. Knowledge - even scientific knowledge - is that which is subjectively acceptable. Scientific knowledge can be communicated only to those who are subjectively ready to receive its communication. The utilization of science also occurs only through people who are in pursuit of values which have meaning for them".

It seems that the humanists do not see the natural-science approach as meaningless, but would rather find psychology adopting an expanded set of methods to help one understand reality better. Humanistic psychologists portray a positive outlook, stressing the unique capacities of each individual for self-realization and personal growth. They assign greater importance than other personality theories to the study of choice, joy, love, creativity and authenticity. Humanistic psychologists do not believe that human beings begin their lives as blank sheets of paper on which society writes its cultural text. Instead, they see the aim of each person's life as an unfolding of inherent powers present in human nature. They stress the uniquely human aspects of experience, including personal choice, interpersonal relationships, intentions, purposes and transcendental or spiritual experiences (Potkay & Allen, 1986).

#### **1.4.2. THE EMPIRICAL SECTION**

In considering the empirical part of this research, the functionalist paradigm is applicable. The functionalist paradigm is based upon the assumption that "society has a concrete, real existence and a systemic character oriented to produce an ordered and regulated state of affairs. It encourages an approach to social theory that focuses upon understanding the role of human beings in society" (Morgan, 1980, p.609). There is encouragement for a belief in an objective and value-free social science in which researchers are distanced from the scene that they are analysing through the rigor and technique of the scientific method. The basic orientation is therefore concerned with understanding society in a way which generates useful empirical knowledge. This functionalist paradigm embraces inter alia the application of psychometric theory and procedures in order to be able to assess personality attributes, reliability and validity (Anastasi, 1990). The research is conducted in a rational and empirical manner.

### 1.4.3. META-THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

This research falls within the bounds of the behavioural sciences. A subfield of the behavioral sciences is psychology, which is the study of human behaviour by firstly, discovering information about human behaviour through research and secondly, applying such knowledge gained to various practical problems (McCormick & Ilgen, 1982). Research that is used in the study of human behaviour includes for example: experimental, observational, survey and measurement methods (Leedy, 1993).

It is specifically within the field of personality and the usage of a measurement instrument for gathering information about the optimal functioning personality. As the particular measurement instrument in question is widely used in industry today for the purposes of personnel selection, promotions, transfers, training and development as well as counselling, the research falls within the ambit of industrial psychology.

Industrial psychology is the scientific study of human behaviour in the production, distribution and consumption of the goods and services of society. As an applied science, it has the further objective, apart from explaining behaviour, also to provide practical guidelines towards predicting and controlling behaviour with a view to efficiency and human welfare (McCormick & Ilgen, 1982). In other words, industrial psychology plays a considerable role in the effort to enhance the quality of worklife.

Within the field of industrial psychology is the study of personnel psychology, in which, inter alia, attention is given to the measurement of personality characteristics of individuals. The study of personality concerns itself with "the individual person's characteristics and the similarities and differences between people" (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1993, p.3). Personality can be studied from different paradigms and theories. Of particular relevance to this research is the humanistic paradigm along with the personality theories of Allport, Rogers and Maslow. It is especially this paradigm that perpetuates certain

themes and concepts such as psychological health and growth, optimal development and self-actualization. The notion here is that the responsible human being is able to choose freely from the possibilities available to him. It is a human being that is in the making - a person who is always in the process of growing and striving to realize his full potential and to be truly himself. In other words, the individual's inherent inclination towards actualization of his potential and creative ability (Meyer et al., 1993).

One of the outgrowths of this emphasis on psychological health and growth, optimal development and self-actualization by the humanistic theorists has been the emergence of assessment techniques concerned with measuring such concepts (Jourard, 1964; Potkay & Allen, 1986). Of particular relevance to this research is Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (Ilardi & May, 1968), which represents an effort to assess a number of variables involved in sound psychological functioning or self-actualization (Coan, 1972).

The measurement by the POI of the concept self-actualization implies the use of psychometrics, which is defined as firstly, the study of all aspects of psychological measurement, including the drawing up and standardizing of psychological tests and secondly, a subfield of psychology that is aimed at the development and application of mathematical and statistical procedures in psychology (Gouws, Louw, Meyer & Plug, 1982).

In the process of standardizing psychological tests, certain important technical standards have to be met before such tests can be considered as scientifically acceptable measures for making inferences about characteristics of people (Anastasi, 1990). Of particular relevance to this research are two of these standards, namely reliability and validity. According to Kerlinger (1986, p.431), "there is a growing understanding that all measuring instruments must be critically and empirically examined for their reliability and validity".

#### 1.4.4. TYPOLOGIES, MODELS AND THEORIES

Three types of conceptual frameworks can be distinguished: typologies that basically have a classifying or categorizing function, models that, apart from classification, also suggest new relationships heuristically, and theories that, apart from the preceding functions, also fulfill an explanatory and interpretative function (Mouton & Marais, 1988).

A typology is a conceptual framework which classifies phenomena according to characteristics that they have in common with other phenomena (Gouws et al., 1982; Mouton & Marais, 1988). In this research, the achievement of the typology will be done twofold. Firstly, focusing on the humanistic paradigm in terms of the theoretical section, thus excluding the school of behaviourism and psychoanalysis and secondly, concentrating on the functionalist paradigm in terms of the empirical section.

A model is part of a conceptual framework which in addition to classifying and/or categorizing, attempts to represent the dynamic aspects of the phenomenon by illustrating the relationships between the major elements of that phenomenon in a simplified form (Mouton & Marais, 1988). With relevance to this research, the psychological growth (Schultz, 1977) will be applicable to the theoretical part and on the empirical side, the application of the psychometric model (Mouton & Marais, 1988) will be administered.

A theory is a "set of interrelated constructs or concepts, definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena" (Kerlinger, 1986, p.9). Theories considered to be of most relevance to this research will firstly be, the psychological growth theory and secondly, the psychometric theory.

The growth theory will be depicted by the theorists Allport, Rogers and Maslow and it follows a school of thought that stands for psychological health and growth, optimal development and

self-actualization. In other words, a focus on helping and facilitating growth from normal to optimal behaviour, but excluding abnormal behaviour.

The psychometric theory will be consisting of firstly, the measurement of the concept self-actualization with the use of a personality test, namely the POI and secondly, the verification of reliability and validity of the POI through acceptable psychometric standards. The statistical procedure to be utilized will be that of correlation, defined as the discovery of the relationship between different types of data (Leedy, 1993). Since all types of reliability and validity are concerned with the degree of consistency or agreement between two or more independently derived sets of scores, they can all be expressed in terms of a correlation coefficient (Anastasi, 1990).

#### **1.4.5. METHODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS**

All research methodologies can be classified under the categories qualitative and/or quantitative. Due to the nature of the data in this research, both will be applicable. Qualitative or descriptive research will be presented in the form of a literature review on reliability and validity. Quantitative or explanatory research will be presented in the empirical section.

For the purposes of this research, the quantitative approach can be described in general terms as the approach to research in the social sciences that is more highly formalized as well as more explicitly controlled, with a range that is more exactly defined, and which, in terms of the methods used, is relatively close to the physical sciences (Mouton & Marais, 1988).

Measurement applied to this research will be defined as "limiting the data of any phenomenon - substantial or insubstantial - so that those data may be examined mathematically and ultimately, according to an acceptable qualitative or quantitative standard" (Leedy, 1993, p.32). The type of measurement that will be relevant here is the nominal level of measurement which divides data into discrete categories that can be compared with each

other (Huysamen, 1978). The insubstantial data that is measured and applicable to the research is the concept of self-actualization and the measuring instrument used will be classified as a personality test, namely the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) developed by Shostrom.

With any type of measurement, two considerations are very important and also of particular relevance to this research. One of these is reliability and the other is validity.

#### **1.4.5.1. RELIABILITY**

The concept of reliability refers to "the consistency of scores obtained by the same persons when reexamined with the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under other variable examining conditions" (Anastasi, 1990, p.109).

There are four methods that are customarily used for estimating the reliability of tests (Smit, 1986). These methods are estimating reliability, firstly, from the coefficient of correlation between scores on repetitions of the same test, secondly, from the coefficient of correlation between scores on parallel forms of a test, thirdly, from the coefficient of correlation between scores on comparable parts of the test and fourthly, from the intercorrelations among the elements of a test (Ghiselli, 1964).

The test-retest reliability is an estimate of reliability obtained by correlating pairs of scores from the same person (or people) on two different administrations of the same test. The test-retest measure is appropriate when evaluating the reliability of a test that purports to measure something that is relatively stable over time (Cohen, Montague, Nathanson & Swerdlik, 1988).

In the test-retest method the intercorrelations among the scores are taken as the reliability coefficient.



According to Brown (1983), there are two main advantages with the test-retest method. Some of the other methods for estimating reliability require that more than one form of the test is available, but with the test-retest method only the test itself is required. The other advantage is that when this method is used, the particular sample of items is held constant. The individuals are tested with precisely the same instrument. However, there are also problems with this approach.

As stated by Beech and Harding (1990), to obtain a retest reliability of 1.0, both a perfect measuring instrument and perfectly stable trait would be needed. Even when the time period between the two administrations of the test is relatively small, it has to be noted that various factors like experience, practice, memory, fatigue, stress, environment and motivation may be operative and render confounded an obtained measure of reliability.

If the correlation between the scores on the two occasions is low, it is difficult to know whether the test is unreliable or whether different factors as mentioned, could have had an influence. It is therefore desirable to maximize the interval between the testing occasions in order to minimize the possibility of transfer effects, yet on the other hand, the longer the time interval between the two tests, the greater the likelihood that other factors have influenced an individuals personality (Ghiselli, 1964). As pointed out by Huysamen (1990), there should be an interval of at least several days between the two test sessions, however, this interval should not exceed several weeks.

An estimate of split-half reliability is obtained by correlating two pairs of scores obtained from equivalent halves of a single test administered once (Cohen et al., 1988). The computation of a coefficient of split-half reliability general entails three steps (Beech and Harding, 1990):

- Step 1. Divide the test into equivalent halves.
- Step 2. Compute a Pearson  $r$  between scores on the two halves

of the test.

Step 3. Adjust the half-test reliability using the Spearman-Brown formula.

According to Anastasi (1990), there are more than one way to split a test. Simply dividing the test in half is not recommended, since this procedure would probably spuriously raise or lower the reliability coefficient due to factors such as differential fatigue for the first versus the second part of the test, differential amounts of test anxiety operative, and differences in item difficulty as a function of placement in the test. One acceptable way to split a test is to randomly assign items to one or the half of the test. A second acceptable way is to assign odd-numbered items to one half of the test and even-numbered items to the other half, yielding an estimate that is also referred to as "odd-even reliability" (Cohen et al., 1988). A third way is to divide the test by content so that each half of the test contains items equivalent with respect to content and difficulty.

Step 2 in the procedure entails the computation of a Pearson  $r$  and step 3, requires the use of the Spearman-Brown formula.

The Spearman-Brown formula is used to estimate internal consistency reliability from a correlation of two halves of a test. However, according to Cohen et al. (1988), internal-consistency estimates of reliability, such as that obtained by use of the Spearman-Brown formula, are inappropriate for measuring the reliability of heterogeneous tests. The internal consistency of such tests will tend to appear lower by assessment with other measures.

In addition to the Spearman-Brown formula, other methods in wide use to estimate internal consistency reliability include formulas developed by Kuder and Richardson (1937) and Cronbach (1951).

Inter-item consistency is a term that refers to "the degree of correlation between all of the items on a scale; it is an internal reliability measure based on response consistency to

individual test items" (Cohen et al., 1988, p.89). An index of inter-item consistency is useful in assessing the homogeneity of a test (Anastasi, 1990). Tests are said to be homogeneous if they contain items that measure a single trait. In contrast to test homogeneity is the concept of test heterogeneity, a term that refers to the degree to which a test measures different factors. In other words, a heterogeneous test is composed of items that measure more than one trait (Anastasi, 1990). The more heterogeneous the content area sampled, then the lower will be the inter-item consistency (Cohen et al., 1988).

Instead of splitting the test into two halves, the Kuder Richardson formula 20 or "KR-20" splits the test into as many parts as there are test items. Each item is then treated as a parallel form of every other item.

In the instance where test items are highly homogeneous, KR-20 and split-half reliability estimates will be similar. However, KR-20 is the statistic of choice for determining the inter-item consistency of dichotomous items. If test items are more heterogeneous, KR-20 will yield lower reliability estimates than the split-half method (Cohen et al., 1988).

A variant of the KR-20 formula is the coefficient alpha, sometimes referred to as coefficient  $\alpha$ -20 (Anastasi, 1990). Coefficient alpha is appropriately used on tests containing items that each can be scored along a range of values.

According to Guilford (1965), a test-retest reliability coefficient in the case of a heterogeneous test is a better indication of reliability of the test than the KR-20 coefficient or the split-half reliability coefficient. This is of significance to this research as the POI is classified as a heterogeneous test (Van Wyk, 1978).

#### **1.4.5.2. VALIDITY**

Another very important characteristic of an acceptable psychological test is its validity which according to Anastasi

(1990, p.28) refers to "a judgement concerning how well a test does in fact measure what it purports to measure". Validity therefore provides a direct check on how well the test fulfils its measuring function.

Tests may be used to achieve different objectives which then require the assessment of different types of validity. There are three categories of validity which Anastasi (1990) considers fundamental and they are (1) content, (2) criterion-related and (3) construct validity.

Within this context and for the purposes of this research, the validity of a test may therefore be evaluated by firstly, relating scores obtained on the test to other test scores or other measures and secondly, executing a comprehensive analysis of not only how scores on the test relate to other test scores and measures, but also how they can be understood within some theoretical framework for understanding the construct the test was designed to measure (Cohen, 1988).

The content validity of a test refers to the "degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure judged on the appropriateness of the content" Bartram (1990, p.77). In other words, it refers to the degree to which the scale or test covers the area being studied and is not confounded with other materials. Content validity is, therefore, basically a matter of judgement; each item must be judged for its presumed relevance to the property being measured.

According to White and Speisman (1982, p.140), criterion validity is "established by procedures designed to determine the relationship of test responses to criteria external to the test". Cohen (1988, p. 121) defines criterion-related validity as a "judgement regarding how adequately a test score can be used to infer an individual's most probable standing on some measure of interest - the measure of interest being the criterion".

Two types of validity are subsumed under the heading "criterion-related validity". Concurrent validity refers to the form of

criterion-related validity that is an index of the degree to which a test score is related to some criterion measure obtained at the same time (Cohen, 1988). In other words, concurrent validity concerns the accuracy with which the test identifies or diagnoses some current behaviour or status of individuals (Huysamen, 1990). Predictive validity refers to the form of criterion-related validity that is an index of the degree to which a test score predicts some criterion measure (Cohen, 1988). This means that it refers to the accuracy with which a test predicts or forecasts some future behaviour or status of individuals.

Concurrent validity is investigated by comparing the test scores of a large representative sample from the relevant population with indices of criterion status obtained at approximately the same time as the test scores (Huysamen, 1990). One way in which this could be done is to determine how well a test distinguishes between groups known to be different in terms of the criterion. Another way is to compute the correlation between a new test and another test whose validity has already been demonstrated to be satisfactory.

Cohen (1988, p.128) defines construct validity as referring to "a judgement about the appropriateness of inferences drawn from test scores regarding individual standings on a certain kind of variable called a construct." According to White and Speisman (1982), construct validity is probably the most important approach to theoretically based research. The researcher investigating a test's construct validity must formulate hypotheses about the expected behaviour of high scores and low scores on the test. From these hypotheses arises a tentative theory about the nature of the construct the test was designed to measure. If the test is a valid measure of the construct, the high scores and low scores will behave as predicted by the theory (Cohen, 1988).

Evidence for the construct validity of a particular test may converge from a number of sources, such as other tests or measures designed to assess the same or a similar construct

(Ghiselli, 1964). This is of particular importance to this research. Thus if scores on the test undergoing construct validation tend to correlate highly in the predicted direction with scores on already validated tests designed to measure the same or a similar construct, this would be an example of convergent validity (Beech & Harding, 1990).

A validity coefficient showing a statistically insignificant relationship between test scores and/or other variables with which scores on the test being construct-validated should not theoretically be correlated provides discriminant validity (Beech & Harding, 1990).

In summary, construct validity has according to Cohen (1988) been increasingly viewed as the unifying concept for all validity evidence; all types of validity evidence, including content and criterion-related, are seen as a form of construct validity.

The Personal Orientation Inventory will be applied to a total sample of 317 subjects in order to establish the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among scores on the various scales. The reliability and validity correlations will then be obtained by administering the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) as well as the Sixteen Factor Personality Questionnaire (16PF) to the sample of 317 subjects. The sample will consist of male and female university and college students and national servicemen ranging in age from 17 to 22 years.

The hypotheses under investigation will be generated from the theoretical writings of Allport, Rogers and Maslow and from a review of the POI as well as previous research related to this field.

All the collected data from the administration of the POI and the 16PF will be scored via a computerized programme. Psychometric procedures regarding reliability and validity will then be applied in order to firstly, comply with the general and specific aims set out in this study and secondly, to verify the various hypotheses made.

In this research, the role of the first person is firstly, researcher setting certain parameters for an investigation into a specific problem and secondly, psychometrist administering and interpreting a psychometric instrument. The role of the second person is that of testee who for a contract of thirty to forty minutes completes the psychometric instrument.

### **1.5. PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH**

This research is divided into two sections and five chapters. The literature review will be prescribed as descriptive research in chapters two, three and four.

Chapter two will review personality in the humanistic paradigm. Attention will be given to the personality theory as presented by Allport, Rogers and Maslow according to the following themes: view of man and world, structure of personality, dynamics of personality and optimal development.

Chapter three will initially focus on the meaning and relevance of the concept self-actualization in humanistic psychology with subsequent reference to the three chosen theorists and their views on optimal development. The characteristics of self-actualizing people will then be presented according to a general accepted psychometric framework. The chapter will conclude with a critical evaluation of the self-actualizing theory and a short review regarding various measurements of self-actualization.

Chapter four will discuss the development and rationale of the POI. A detailed description of the POI will be given which includes the scales, administration and interpretation as well as previous research in terms of reliability and validity. No recent literature on research relating especially to reliability and validity of the POI, could be found. All references made to reliability and validity studies for the purposes of this research will therefore be from a time period 1965 to 1978. Finally, a critical analysis of existing reliability and validity of the POI will be presented.

The empirical section as explanatory research will be presented in chapter five. The emphasis will be on the aim, the sample used, research procedure, statistical analysis and results. Finally, conclusions and recommendations will be provided.

#### **1.6. SUMMARY**

In this chapter the background and motivation for the research was presented. The problem statement which this research will attempt to resolve was identified and linked to this where the relevant aims of this research. A paradigmatic perspective of the research was given which included meta-theoretical assumptions, typologies, theories and models as well as methodological assumptions. Finally, the presentation of the research was outlined.



## CHAPTER 2

## PERSONALITY IN HUMANISTIC PSYCHOLOGY

Perhaps one of the most complex questions in all of psychology is that of what personality really is and yet, there are so many theories and definitions to it. Hjelle and Ziegler (1987) point out that there are most probably as many different meanings to the term "personality" as there are psychologists who have tried to define it. However, despite the many personality theories that do exist, they can easily be grouped on the basis of certain characteristics. In other words, the focus of each theory is well defined and offers most valuable insights in a particular area of personality study. Names of such theories include the approach and orientation of depth psychologists, learning theorists, dimensional theorists and humanistic psychologists such as Allport, Rogers and Maslow (Meyer et al., 1993).

All these approaches have a common objective and that is an attempt to develop a system for describing, explaining and comparing people (Meyer et al., 1993). It is this attempt that incorporates certain themes such as firstly, the view of man and the world, secondly the structure, dynamics and development of personality, thirdly optimal development and finally, psychopathology.

For the purpose of this research, the focus is however on personality in the humanistic paradigm only and therefore will exclude other paradigms as well as the development and pathology of personality. The discussion will centre around three humanistic theorists, namely Allport, Rogers and Maslow. For every theory, the view of man and the world, the structure of personality, the dynamics of personality and optimal development will be presented. Because the problem statement and aims of this research focus on optimal behaviour, the last mentioned will be integrated to serve as a basis for the discussion of the next concept, self-actualization (in chapter 3).

## 2.1. G W ALLPORT

Allport was an American psychologist who made profound contributions especially in the field of personality psychology. After his studies in the United States, Germany and Britain, Allport became a lecturer at Harvard for the period 1924 to 1966. His most important works were "Personality: a psychological interpretation" (1937) and "Pattern and growth in personality" (1961) (Gouws et al., 1982).

### 2.1.1. THE VIEW OF MAN AND THE WORLD

Allport (1961) sees man as a complex being whose behaviour is influenced by a wide variety of factors and these factors influence one another because the individual functions as a whole. This is further complicated due to man having a free will which indicates that behaviour is never entirely predictable.

Three specific aspects of Allport's view of man need mentioning. Firstly, Allport's emphasis on the uniqueness of the individual, secondly, his holistic approach and thirdly, his identification of two levels of functioning - the opportunistic level and the propiariate level (Meyer et al., 1993).

The uniqueness of the individual: Allport believes that every person has a unique genetic make-up and life history which means that each person develops behavioural tendencies that make him different from all other people. This uniqueness is further entrenched by Allport's assertion that each man has the capacity to make decisions freely.

The holistic approach: This holistic point of view by Allport means that the person functions as a whole. In other words, no single personal attribute should be seen in isolation from a person's other attributes because the functioning of each attribute is influenced by all the others.

The identification of two levels of human functioning: Opportunistic functioning: According to Allport (1961), this is

governed by the instinct for biological survival. In other words, it includes all behaviour that tries to encompass the satisfaction of individual's drives and ensuring his existence.

Propriate functioning: This entails the individual's inclination and ability to act in accordance with his own values and to take decisions that are not dictated by biological drives or the environment. This means that because of man's free will, the opportunistic functioning can be overruled by propriate functioning (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993).

### **2.1.2. THE STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY**

Allport (1937, p.48) defined personality as "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment".

The first emphasis in Allport's definition involves the usage of the term "dynamic organization". It stresses that personality is always an organized whole, but a whole that is constantly changing, in other words, dynamic. Personality is thus self-regulating and continually evolving (Monte, 1987).

Secondly, the term "psychophysical systems" refers to the fact that the personality is made up of components such as habits, attitudes, sentiments, traits, concepts, values and behavioural style, which in turn are organized (Meyer et al., 1993). The systems comprising the personality have a biological as well as psychological aspect.

The third aspect important in the definition is the phrase "unique adjustments to his environment" which emphasizes both Allport's conviction that psychology must attend to the individual personality in all of its singularity and Allport's concern that psychological generalizations be understood as subject to change (Monte, 1987).

In the 1961 revision of his major work, Allport somewhat modified

his personality definition by substituting a new phrase for the previous "unique adjustments to his environment". The modified definition now ended with the phrase, "characteristic behaviour and thought" (Allport, 1961, p.28). According to DiCaprio (1983), the alteration was designed to broaden the conceptualization of personality as involving more than adjustment to personal and physical environments as the first definition had implied.

It is stated by Monte (1987), that the definition implicitly suggests that persons may be studied by investigating their unique organization of psychophysical systems, that is, by investigation of their measurable traits.

According to Allport (1961), the organization of the individuals internal psychophysical structures plays a motivational and regulating role in all his behaviour, whether in response to environmental stimuli or arising from spontaneous proaction.

A psychophysical structure or trait is essentially a readiness or disposition to act in certain ways, either acting reactively or proactively (Meyer et al., 1993). It is a structural as well as a dynamic part of the personality.

#### **2.1.2.1. HIERARCHICAL ORGANIZATION**

The psychophysical structures that make up personality are hierarchically organized according to how pervasive they are (Meyer et al., 1993; Monte, 1987). In other words, the more pervasive structures incorporate less inclusive structures and thus regulate a greater number of behaviours. Allport (1961) allowed, that within the context of an entire network of traits that compose a personality, some traits should play major directing roles and some minor roles. Allport (1961) identified three classes of traits on the basis of their different degrees of pervasiveness: cardinal, central and secondary traits or dispositions.

A cardinal trait as explained by DiCaprio (1983) only applies to

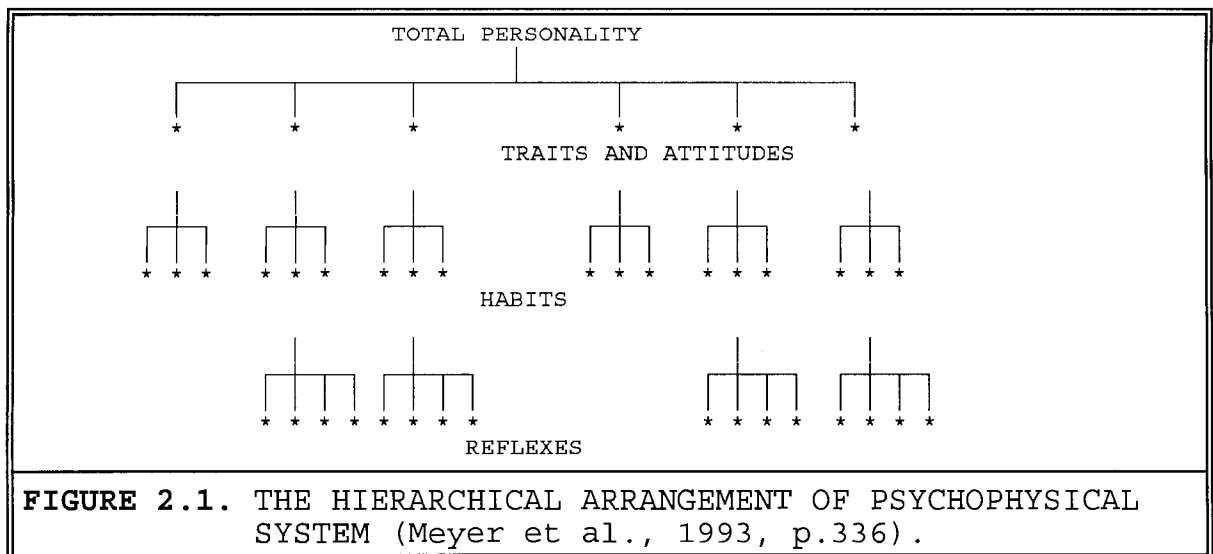
a few people because it exerts such a pervasive influence in personality as to affect all major areas of behaviour. It is so potent and singular that all other traits embodied in the same personality seem secondary and subservient to the strength of it.

At a level of influence somewhat less than of a cardinal trait are the central traits. They are according to Monte (1987) broad personality units that influence large segments of behaviour and are set off by a wide range of stimuli. Most people, however, do not have one cardinal disposition but a few central dispositions which control most of their behaviour, and which serve to describe them accurately and fully (Meyer et al., 1993).

Somewhat less conspicuous, less generalized, less consistent, and frequently less influential in the overall guidance of behaviour are the lowest level traits called secondary traits (Monte, 1987). According to DiCaprio (1983), secondary traits are evoked by a narrower range of equivalent stimuli and direct a more restricted range of equivalent responses.

The largest and most inclusive psychophysical structure is of course the whole personality, which encompasses all traits and other, less pervasive psychophysical structures (Meyer et al., 1993).

The following diagram sets out the hierarchical organization of the personality.



#### 2.1.2.2. CONCENTRIC ORGANIZATION

The structures in the personality are organized according to the principle of importance: how important or central they are for the personality and this arrangement according to Meyer et al. (1993) is called the concentric organization of personality.

All things are not of equal importance in an individual's life and therefore certain aspects are experienced as warm, intimate, central and important while others are more peripheral and experienced as less important (Meyer et al., 1993).

Allport (1961) uses the term "proprium" or "self" to indicate the central, warm and intimate aspect of personality. The development of propiuate or self-functions is a profoundly important aspect of Allport's theory (Monte, 1987). The central, propiuate aspects of the personality play an important part in the development of the personality (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993).

#### 2.1.2.3. TYPES OF TRAITS

Personality traits can be classified in a number of different ways (Monte, 1987). Allport (1966) introduced some terminological changes into his theory of traits. Allport (1966) regarded traits as unique psychophysical structures, as previously explained, that have a real existence within the individual. However, he also made provision for common traits, which are characteristics that may manifest themselves in a similar manner in different people. These common traits do not exist in the individual. To clarify, Allport (1966) called the individual's psychophysical traits personal dispositions, while the traits that are evident in several individuals, he called common traits.

Common traits are approximations of individual traits and are expressed as single terms and frequently measured by standardized tests which provide percentile scales (DiCaprio, 1983). For example, level of aspiration, degree of neuroticism and

introversion - extroversion.

Allport (1961, p. 373) defines a personal disposition as "a generalized neuropsychic structure peculiar to the individual with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to initiate consistent or equivalent forms of adaptive or stylistic behaviour".

Personal dispositions have their existence within the individual, and accordingly every disposition is unique (Meyer et al., 1993).

Allport (1961) points out that inconsistency as well as consistency can be seen in anyone's behaviour. Inconsistency can be caused by several factors. For example, a person has different opposing traits which cause him, to be friendly on one occasion and unfriendly on another. Changing circumstances can also create inconsistency or when an observer is coming to the wrong conclusions (Meyer et al., 1993).

Allport (1961) therefore distinguishes between pseudo, phenotypical and genotypical dispositions. A pseudo disposition refers to when an individual's behaviour is incorrectly interpreted and a certain disposition is mistakenly attributed to that person. It has no existence in the psychophysical organization of the person concerned, but only in the mind of the observer. The phenotypical and genotypical dispositions are however, genuine dispositions where the former are located at the periphery of the personality while the latter are more appropriate. Meyer et al. (1993) clarify the distinction by giving an example, saying that someone who is sometimes friendly and sometimes unfriendly or abrupt, may have the relevant opposing traits at a superficial, phenotypical level. However, the contradiction may itself be the outcome of a more fundamental, genotypical disposition such as insecurity. It is vital, in order to understand a person or be able to predict how he will behave, to find out what his dispositions are at the most appropriate, genotypical level (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993).

Finally, Maddi (1980) and Meyer et al. (1993) comment on the

relationship between genotypical and phenotypical dispositions on the one hand, and cardinal, central and secondary dispositions on the other. The distinction between genotypical and phenotypical dispositions is associated with the neuropsychological explanation of behaviour, while the distinction between cardinal, central and secondary dispositions simply refers to the description of the individual. The two do not conflict: the more central or cardinal a disposition, the more likely that it is also a genotypical disposition.

### **2.1.3. THE DYNAMICS OF PERSONALITY**

An individual's functioning is a very complex matter where apart from the interaction between the individual and the environment, there is a constant interaction between the different substructures of the personality (Allport, 1961). In other words, behaviour is the outcome of the interaction of the whole personality in all its complexity with an equally complex environment. As stated by De Carvalho (1991), the whole was to Allport more than just the sum of its parts. This meant that the individual's behaviour could only be understood when he was studied as a whole.

As indicated earlier, Allport was of the opinion that the organization of the individual's internal psychophysical structures plays a motivational and regulating role in all his behaviour, whether in response to environmental stimuli or arising from spontaneous proaction. Thus, a person often initiates behaviour, actively seeking opportunities to act, to satisfy his interests and to realize his goals. It is this proactive behaviour that forms the background to a more detailed examination of Allport's views on motivation.

#### **2.1.3.1. ALLPORT'S VIEW ON MOTIVATION**

Four prerequisites which a theory of motivation ought to fulfil are proposed by Allport (1961). Firstly, a theory of motivation should make allowance for the fact that the reasons underlying an individual's behaviour must be contemporary with the



behaviour. Despite there often being an association between experiences of the past and the motivation for behaviour in the present, behaviour can be prompted only by a motive that is active at the same time as the behaviour.

Secondly, there should be provision for the plurality of motives. All behaviour should be regarded as motivated, even if it is the most simplest act.

Thirdly, a theory of motivation must acknowledge intentionality. The individual is intentionally directed to the future: he knows what he wants to do and consciously makes plans for his future.

Fourthly, there must be recognition of the concrete uniqueness of the individual's motives. In other words, an individual's motivation is unique.

#### **2.1.3.2. ALLPORT'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION**

Allport (1961) maintains that no explanation that relies on a single principle, no matter how broad, can be adequate because it cannot do justice to the rich variety of individual motivation. Allport's theory of motivation consists of a number of broad principles and these are contained in the following words: "We maintain therefore that personality is governed not only by the impact of stimuli upon a slender endowment of drives common to the species. Its process of becoming is governed, as well, by a disposition to realize its possibilities, i.e. to become characteristically human at all stages of development. And of the capacities most urgent is individuation, the formation of an individual style of life that is self-aware, self-critical, and self-enhancing" (Allport, 1955, p.27).

The principles are based on man as an open system whose possibilities are not finally mapped out by genetic or environmental factors. The individual has not only a basic disposition to become just what he has the potential to be, but that he also evaluates himself, is self-critical and tries to improve himself (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993).

Allport (1961) distinguishes between two levels of motivation, namely opportunistic functioning and propiagate functioning.

Opportunistic functioning is based on drives and needs and serves the survival of the individual. It is similar to Maslow's deficiency needs and those motivations such as drive satisfaction and tension reduction (Meyer et al., 1993). According to Maddi (1980, p.124), "to be motivated by a welling up of tension and discomfort within you such that your actions are aimed at removing the tension, regardless of whatever that must mean you actually do, is opportunistic because it does not involve such psychological considerations as values and principles in the determination of behaviour".

Propiagate functioning is motivated by dispositions like values, interests and ideals, and is not necessarily focused upon survival (Meyer et al., 1993). Allport's theory assumes that one core tendency, namely propiagate functioning, is in the service of the highest development of the person, whereas the other core tendency regarding satisfaction of biological needs, merely ensures the physical survival of the organism (Maddi, 1980).

According to Monte (1987), in its role as the hub of conscious existence, the self is the proprietor or governor that senses ownership and responsibility for the outcome of one's life. Propiagate striving, therefore, is the culmination of a long line of development that began with the infant's realization that it is. The central theme of a life, the dominant and distant goals of a life history, are the essence of propiagate striving.

Thus, according to Monte (1987, p.483), "propiagate strivings are embodied in feelings of knowing what I want, who I want to become, and why I must be and have these qualities".

Allport (1961) had the view that it was incorrect to attribute all behaviour to a few immutable motives and in order to clarify this issue, he formulated the principle of functional autonomy. Allport (1961, p.229) defined functional autonomy as "referring to any acquired system of motivation in which the tensions

involved are not of the same kind as the antecedent tensions from which the acquired system developed". In other words, behaviour originally caused by a certain motive may continue even though the motive has disappeared.

To modify his original conception further, Allport (1961) proposed two levels of functional autonomy, namely perseverative and propriate functional autonomy. In the most primitive form of functional autonomy, a motive becomes perseverative or self-repeating because of its roots in some biochemical or neurological process (Monte, 1987). In other words, it is the automatic continuation of behaviour in the absence of the original stimulus or cause (Meyer et al., 1993).

Propriate functional autonomy, by contrast, does not depend directly on any feedback mechanism or biochemical process. It emerges when behaviour that was previously carried out on account of external or opportunistic factors, such as pressure from other people or to satisfy needs, becomes important to the individual and he continues it because of this "propriate" interest (Meyer et al., 1993).

In summary, any behaviour can eventually become appropriately motivated. This broadens the scope of motivation, because any behaviour, even behaviour originally carried out under coercion, can become self-initiated and consequently, motivated behaviour (Meyer et al., 1993).

#### **2.1.4. OPTIMAL DEVELOPMENT**

A personality theory is a changing, growing thing and according to Maddi (1980), it may well be that Allport was moving in such a direction; a direction where he was attempting to conceptualize components of personality that seem to be sets of personal dispositions which reflect the qualities of propriate functioning. According to DiCaprio (1983), examples of this type of unit are Allport's characteristics of maturity such as enduring extensions of the self; techniques for warm relating to others, stable emotional security or self acceptance; habits

of realistic perception; skills and problem centredness; established self-objectification in the form of insight and humour; and a unifying philosophy of life including particular value orientations, differential religious sentiment and a generic, personalized conscience.

The ideal personality for Allport (1961) is maturity and it refers as stated by De Carvalho (1991) to being fully functioning. In other words, the mature person has a well-developed and well-functioning proprium. Some of the criteria for maturity already mentioned are discussed below.

\* SELF-EXTENSION

A mature adult's life does not revolve solely around himself; he is deeply and personally involved in matters outside himself, such as friends, hobbies, ideas and his career. With such a person there are many indications of propiate functional autonomy as he does things because he regards them as important and not just because he has to satisfy his biological needs (Meyer et al., 1993; Monte, 1987).

Some of the activities or responsibilities might have had their origin in need satisfaction or external coercion, but have now acquired intrinsic value and are performed for their own sake and not in response to any external factor.

\* WARM RELATING OF SELF TO OTHERS

The emphasis for the mature person here is not to be exclusively self-absorbed, but also to have warm relationships with other people. In other words, a few intimate relationships with family members or close friends, but knowing when and how to maintain sufficient distance so not to become intrusive or possessive (Meyer et al., 1993). A mature person is therefore not obsessed with his relationships with other people or dependent upon them.

\* EMOTIONAL SECURITY

The mature person experiences setbacks and frustrations, but is able to control his emotions and live a life in a balanced manner. Allport (1961, p.188) says that, "the mature person puts up with frustration, takes the blame on himself, if it is appropriate to do so. It is definitely not true that the mature person is always calm and serene, nor is he always cheerful. His moods come and go; he may even be temperamentally pessimistic and depressed. But he has learned to live with his emotional states in such a way that they do not betray him into impulsive acts; not interfere with the well-being of others".

\* REALISTIC PERCEPTION

Allport (1961) groups as an important quality of a mature person the ability to perceive himself, other people and his environment in a realistic way. This means the mature person knows his own capabilities and can set himself tasks that are within his grasp (DiCaprio, 1983).

\* SELF-INSIGHT AND HUMOUR

Realistic self-insight in a mature person means the ability to understand himself and his motives and, together with his self-acceptance, he is able to laugh at himself and his faults (Meyer et al., 1993). Furthermore, the mature person is thus able to evaluate other people accurately and accept them with all their flaws. He accepts himself and therefore does not feel threatened by other people's weaknesses.

\* AN ALL-EMBRACING PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE

According to Allport (1950), someone who has reached an optimal level of development does not live only for the moment, but has an overall philosophy of life, a theory about the meaning and purpose of life. It may well be that such a philosophy is a ready-made system such as a religious doctrine, but the person accepts it because of his own conviction and not simply because of other people or because of social pressure. Such a

philosophy is in harmony with the mature person's values and the way he lives out his values.

## **2.2. C R ROGERS**

Rogers was an American psychologist and psychotherapist who after having studied at various universities, accepted a position as psychologist in the Child Study Department of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children in Rochester, New York.

Rogers is known for his unique nondirective or client-centered therapy. He postulated that the human organism has an actualizing tendency to develop all its capacities in order to maintain and enhance its existence. Rogers most known works are "Client-centered therapy" (1951) and "On becoming a person" (1961) (Gouws et al., 1982).

### **2.2.1. THE VIEW OF MAN AND THE WORLD**

According to Meyer et al. (1993), Rogers' fundamental view of man is humanistic - phenomenological. In terms of the humanistic approach, Rogers (1961) emphasizes the study of the individual as a whole and the active role which each person plays in actualizing his own inherent potential. As stated by Potkay and Allen (1986), the most important influence on personality is the person as a whole, including the individual's conscious awareness, freedom to choose, self determination, and quality of experiences in life.

In terms of the phenomenological approach, Rogers emphasizes the role of each person's subjective experience of his world and especially how self concept determines behaviour.

According to Rogers (1961), the purpose of all life is to become that self which one truly is. Man has an intrinsic compulsion to strive towards the actualization of all his potential. In other words, the natural development of human beings is towards the constructive fulfilment of their inherent possibilities (Potkay & Allen, 1986).

Man has the ability to be aware of his experiences and to evaluate them and therefore developed a specific view of himself, which Rogers (1961) called the self-concept.

The concept and the development of the self has become the cornerstone of Rogers's theory and is a major manifestation of the actualizing tendency which inclines the organism towards greater differentiation or complexity (Hergenhahn, 1984). As stated by Maddi (1980) and Meyer et al. (1993), the greater the congruence between the self concept and the true potential, the greater the possibility that the individual will actualize his potential. If the self concept is not a true reflection of or congruent with the individual's potential, he will tend to move in a direction that agrees with the image he holds of himself, and this can be a movement away from the actualization of his potential.

In summary, it seems that Rogers had in mind the creation of an environment which would allow man to see and accept himself exactly as he is so that he could fully actualize the whole of his potential (Meyer et al., 1993).

#### **2.2.2. THE STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY**

Three structural elements have been formulated by Rogers (1961) which he called the organism, the phenomenal field and the self concept.

The organism occupies the central position in Rogers theory and is its central structural element. It is the total individual with all his physical and psychological functions who interacts constantly with the dynamically changing world in which he lives. As stated by Meyer et al. (1993), his behaviour is determined by his specific subjective perception of his world and the meanings he attaches to this.

The second structural element in Rogers's theory is the phenomenal field. According to Rogers (1959), all people live in their own subjective world, which can be known, in any

complete sense, only to themselves. It is this phenomenological reality, rather than the physical world, that determines people's behaviour. In other words, how people see things is, for them, the only reality. The phenomenal field is the totality of all an individual's experiences and includes both his perception of external objects and events and his awareness of experiences related to himself (Meyer et al., 1993).

The self concept is the third structural element and is defined by Rogers (1959, p.200) as "... the organized, consistent conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the "I" or "me" and the perceptions of the relationships of the "I" or "me" to others and to various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions. It is a gestalt which is available to awareness though not necessarily in awareness. It is a fluid and changing gestalt, a process, but at any given moment it is a specific entity".

The definition reflects Rogers basic commitment to the phenomenological method for understanding human experience. Its emphasis is clearly on the perceptual origins of self, in which one's self is an abstraction - a set of perceptions, or one's self-concept (Potkay & Allen, 1986). It includes all of the individual's evaluations of his organism and relationships, by which he tends to order and interpret his internal and external experiences, along with the way in which these perceptions relate to other perceptions and objects in his whole external world (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993).

The ideal self is the self concept the individual would most like to have. In a psychologically healthy person the ideal self provides valuable guidelines for growth and development because it reveals the characteristics and ideals which the individual strives towards (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993; Potkay & Allen, 1986).

### **2.2.3. THE DYNAMICS OF THE PERSONALITY**

The basic motive which underlies all behaviour is the actualizing



tendency. In addition there are two other basic needs underlying and directing behaviour, namely the need for positive regard and the need for positive self-regard (Meyer et al., 1993).

#### **2.2.3.1. THE ACTUALIZING TENDENCY**

Rogers (1959) postulates one master motive, which he calls the actualizing tendency. It is "an inherent tendency of the organism to develop all its capacities in ways which serve to maintain or enhance the organism" (Rogers, 1959, p.196).

All humans, as well as all other living organisms, have an innate need to survive, grow, and enhance themselves. All biological drives are subsumed under the actualizing tendency, because they must be satisfied if the organism is to continue its positive development. This forward thrust of life continues in spite of many obstacles (Hergenhahn, 1984; Ryckman, 1989).

#### **2.2.3.2. THE NEED FOR POSITIVE REGARD**

Having briefly discussed and shown the strong need for actualization, the focus now shifts to the other two basic needs which also direct behaviour: the need for positive regard by others and the need for positive self regard.

Positive regard means receiving such things as warmth, love, sympathy, care, respect and acceptance from the relevant people in one's life. In other words, it is "the feeling of being prized by those individuals who are most important to us" (Hergenhahn, 1984, p.295).

From the need for positive regard comes the need for positive self-regard. A person requires that esteem from others in order to esteem and feel positive about himself (Meyer et al., 1993). As explained by Hergenhahn (1984), children develop the need to view themselves positively. In other words, children first want others to feel good about them and then they want to feel good about themselves. This need for positive regard plays an

important role in determining individual behaviour (Meyer et al., 1993).

#### 2.2.3.3. CONGRUENCE AND INCONGRUENCE

As discussed earlier, the overriding motive which underlies all behaviour is the actualizing tendency. However, the need for positive regard is also a very strong motive and can hinder the actualization process when the quest for appreciation by others is in conflict with the organism's actualization potential (Meyer et al., 1993; Potkay & Allen, 1986). It follows therefore that in the ideal situation there is no difference between the person's experiential world and his view of himself and this is what Rogers (1961) calls the state of being congruence.

Congruence is therefore the ideal in which the individual is open to and conscious of all his experiences and can incorporate them into his self concept (Potkay & Allen, 1986). In other words, the individuals perceptions of self may be more or less in agreement with his experience of what is really going on inside him.

As explained by Meyer et al. (1993), the congruent person sees himself as he really is and has a self concept that corresponds with his actual potential. When he behaves in a way which maintains and enhances his self concept he is striving towards the actualization of his potential. The ideal of congruence is seldom reached because the environment rarely allows full actualization.

Incongruence, by contrast, reflects an inconsistency between what people believe themselves to be like and how they actually are - between their self-perception and actual experience of self (Potkay & Allen, 1986).

Self-perceptions may be intensional or inaccurate, because of defensive tactics such as denial of experience and beliefs that are rigid, distorted, unrealistic or overgeneralized. According to Hergenhahn (1984, p.297), "incongruency exists when

individuals are no longer using their organismic valuing process as a means of determining whether or not their experiences are in accordance with their actualizing tendency".

#### **2.2.3.4. THE ROLE OF THE SELF CONCEPT IN EXPERIENCE AND DETERMINING BEHAVIOUR**

Any given experience can have any one of three factors, according to Hergenhahn (1984): it can be symbolized accurately in awareness; it can be distorted or denied so that it no longer threatens the self-structure or it can be simply ignored.

According to Meyer et al. (1993), the individual's specific needs and self concept determine which of these three possibilities is most appropriate.

Certain experiences may be symbolized when they correspond with the individual's needs. In other words, experiences are allowed into consciousness when they correspond with a person's self-concept.

Other experiences which are denied or distorted are those which are denied access to consciousness because they are contrary to the self-concept. In some cases denial and distortion is fairly conscious, but can also take place on an unconscious level when an organism has a need or an experience which cannot be symbolized because it is completely incongruent with the self concept. In this case the self concept is threatened and must be protected (Meyer et al., 1993).

Some experiences are just simply ignored because at that moment they are irrelevant to the person's needs, but at another time, however, they might well be allowed into consciousness.

Rogers (1961) is of the opinion that because behaviour is directed mostly by the self concept, a person behaves according to the image he has of himself. Problems arise, however, when an individuals' needs do not correspond with his self concept and when there is a denial of needs and experiences (Meyer et al.,

1993). Sometimes the denied needs become so strong that they evoke behaviour in which they are satisfied directly and not through channels which correspond with the self concept. When this happens, according to Meyer et al. (1993), the individual is not prepared to own his behaviour. For example, the mother who shouts "I hate you", when caught off guard will later say that she does not know what was wrong with her.

An individual functions ideally when his self concept is congruent with his needs and feelings. His behaviour then reveals and corresponds to the self concept, and also reflects his needs and feelings (Meyer et al., 1993).

#### **2.2.4. OPTIMAL DEVELOPMENT**

Rogers (1961) describes personality growth in terms of the "fully functioning person". The wider the spectrum of experience available to an individual and the more integrated these experiences are in the self concept, the better he will know himself and be able to use his abilities and talents, choose constructive action and realize his potential fully. Such a person is regarded as fully functioning (Rogers, 1961).

Hergenhahn (1984) states that positive self-regard allows people to develop their own values and satisfactions in accord with their real experiences, independently of approving others. Although they will be aware of expectations about what they should do, they will trust themselves and their judgements instead of being totally bound by conventions established outside themselves. They will become fully functioning individuals.

Such individuals are free to act in accordance with their own feelings and sensations. According to Rogers (1959, p.234), fully functioning individuals will display at least the following characteristics:

##### **\* OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE**

To live fully requires that we fully know what is really going

on within and outside ourselves. Openness to experience is the opposite to defensiveness (DiCaprio, 1983). It means an increasing readiness to accommodate experience which were previously regarded as being incongruent with the self concept and were therefore denied or distorted (Meyer et al., 1993).

\* AN INCREASINGLY EXISTENTIAL LIFESTYLE

Rogers (1961) believes that people should let their experiences tell them what they mean rather than force a meaning upon them. People living existentially can react flexibly to the total complex of internal and external experiences without imposing general constructs on their perceptions of events. The self should emerge from the complex of momentary experience rather than determine it. Each moment is new because the person does not know what he will be or how he will respond in the next moment (Meyer et al., 1993).

\* INCREASING TRUST IN THE SELF

A further characteristic of the fully functioning person is that he trusts himself increasingly when he has to choose behaviour appropriate to a specific situation (Meyer et al., 1993). Using his own experiences, Rogers (1961, p.22) attempts to convey what he means by trusting one's organism: "One of the basic things which I was a long time in realizing, and which I am still learning, is that when an activity feels as though it is valuable or worth doing, it is worth doing. Put another way, I have learned that my total organismic sensing of a situation is more trustworthy than my intellect".

The operation of the organismic valuing process functions optimally when a person is in a state of congruence. It cannot be trusted as a guide to living when a person is in a state of incongruence (DiCaprio, 1983).

\* FREEDOM OF CHOICE

Fully functioning people experience a feeling of freedom, a sense

of self-determination. They can choose to move in a direction of growth or stagnation, to be themselves or a facade, to open themselves to their experiences or shut them out (Potkay & Allen, 1986). In other words, a fully functioning person is free to do so because he feels responsible for his choices and that he plays a role in determining his own behaviour (Meyer et al., 1993).

\* CREATIVITY

Creativity is also associated with optimal functioning. When people are open to their internal and external experiences, when they do not fear being themselves and give up façades, when their constructs are flexible and can change with experience, these people are both spontaneous and creative (Rogers, 1961).

\* BASIC RELIABILITY AND CONSTRUCTIVENESS

A fully functioning person who is basically good and open to a wide variety of his own needs and to the demands of the environment and society can be trusted to act positively and constructively (Meyer et al., 1993). The person who is able to admit and accept all his needs is also able to maintain a realistic balance among them.

Rogers (1961) believes there is no danger of such a person's aggressive needs getting out of hand. Though Rogers does acknowledge the existence of aggressive needs, he believes that man's intrinsic goodness and his need to receive the approval of others and show love towards them are equally strong (Meyer et al., 1993).

\* A RICH, FULL LIFE

Finally, Rogers (1961) says that when humans are functioning properly, their behaviour is not fearsome, not antisocial and not self-destructive. "When man's unique capacity of awareness is thus functioning freely and fully, we find that we have, not an animal whom we must fear, not a beast who must be controlled, but an organism able to achieve, through the remarkable integrative

capacity of its central nervous system, balanced, realistic, self-enhancing ... behaviour as a resultant of all these elements of awareness" (Rogers, 1961, p.105).

Finally, Meyer et al. (1993) describes the process that Rogers (1961, p.195) calls "the good life" not by terms such as happy, blissful, content, enjoyable (although a person who is functioning fully can be characterized by these terms), but rather by terms such as enriching, exciting, rewarding, challenging and meaningful.

### **2.3. A H MASLOW**

Maslow was an American clinical psychologist who headed the department of psychology at Brandeis University. He was one of the pioneers of, and major contributor to, the so-called third force in psychology.

Maslow is especially known for his development of the self-actualizing theory as well as the hierarchy of needs. Some of his works include "Self-actualizing people: a study of psychological health" (1950), "Motivation and personality" (1954) and "Toward a psychology of being" (1962) (Gouws et al., 1982).

#### **2.3.1. THE VIEW OF MAN AND THE WORLD**

Maslow's view of man is essentially optimistic (Meyer et al., 1993). He acknowledges the positive aspects of human nature - man's dignity, his active will to develop and he stresses man's functioning as an integrated whole (Maslow, 1968).

The motive that underlies all behaviour is the tendency towards self-actualization (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993). Every person's inherent goal is to realize his or her inner potentialities. The person's inner striving is to become everything that he or she can become. What a person can be, that person must be, whether athlete, parent or community leader (DiCaprio, 1983; Potkay & Allen, 1986).

According to Maslow (1970), much of human behaviour can be explained in terms of need gratification. Man is presented as a being who is seldom satisfied because no sooner one need is taken care of, then the next one makes its appearance in awareness, and the person is motivated to deal with its gratification (Maslow, 1970).

According to Meyer et al. (1993), need gratification is not merely a means of relieving tension or frustration, it is also the basis for growth and the realization of an individual's full potential through self-actualization.

Maslow (1970) introduced an important concept, namely that man has certain basic needs which are hierarchically structured with different degrees of potency. They are biological, safety, love and esteem needs. These must be satisfied before the need for self-actualization, which is at the top of the hierarchy, becomes apparent (DiCaprio, 1983; Meyer et al., 1993).

Maslow's view of man is a holistic one. Man is an integrated whole and cannot be studied piece by piece. All aspects of his personality are closely interwoven (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993).

#### **2.3.2. THE STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY**

The structural elements which form the basis for Maslow's personality theory are the hierarchically arranged needs (Meyer et al., 1993). However, as the functioning of needs has to do with the dynamics of personality, Maslow's hierarchy of needs is discussed in the following section.

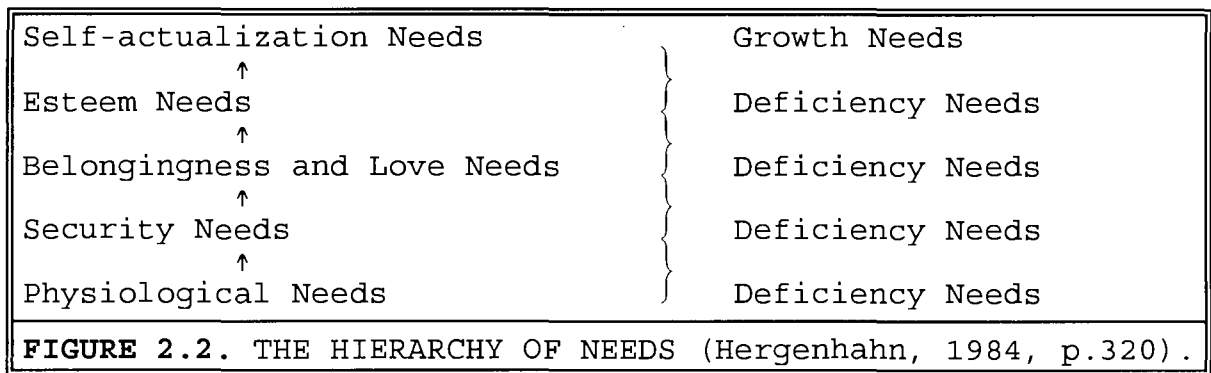
#### **2.3.3. THE DYNAMICS OF PERSONALITY**

According to Maslow (1970), the fact that needs are arranged in a hierarchy means that man's development progresses through successive stages of need gratification towards the goal of self-actualization.



When lower needs are taken care of, then the next higher needs make their appearance in awareness, and the person is motivated to deal with their gratification. Only when all of the lower needs are at least partially gratified can the person begin to experience the self-actualizing needs (DiCaprio, 1983). The lower needs are themselves arranged in a hierarchy; in order of potency and priority, they are physiological needs; safety needs; affiliation and love needs; self-esteem needs; self-actualization needs (Meyer et al., 1993).

Maslow (1968) distinguished between deficit motives and growth motives. Deficit motives include physiological needs, safety needs, love and belonging needs and esteem needs. The growth motives are encompassed by the general term self-actualization (DiCaprio, 1983; Maddi, 1980). Maslow (1968) believes that when a person's behaviour is being directed by deficiency motives, his cognitive abilities are actually being negatively applied because the objective is merely to evade unpleasant circumstances and to survive. This type of motivation will not lead to the realization of a person's true potential (Meyer et al., 1993). A more detailed discussion on the five levels of needs in the hierarchy follows.



\* PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS

These are the needs directly related to survival and included here are for example, the needs for food, water and sleep. According to Maslow (1970), they are the most potent needs of all, and yet the least significant for the self-actualizing person. When these needs are deprived for a relatively long

period, all other needs recede or fail to appear. Psychology has however, overemphasized the importance of such needs in determining the behaviour of humans in a modern society (Hergenhahn, 1984). For most humans, these physiological needs are easily satisfied and the real question therefore is, what happens after the physiological needs are satisfied (Hergenhahn, 1984). The answer according to Maslow (1970) is that the individual is then dominated by the next level or cluster of needs. It is important to note that Maslow (1970) did not feel that one set of needs had to be completely satisfied before the individual was released to deal with the next level. Rather one set of needs had to be consistently and substantially satisfied. In other words, a person can be periodically hungry or thirsty and still be able to deal with higher needs, but the person's life cannot be dominated by hunger or thirst (Hergenhahn, 1984).

#### \* SAFETY NEEDS

When the physiological needs are satisfactorily met, the safety needs emerge as dominant motives. Included here are the needs for structure, order, security, stability, protection and dependency (DiCaprio, 1983).

Safety needs may be revealed by fears such as fear of the unknown, of chaos, of ambiguity and of confusion. The person may fear loss of control over his or her circumstances, becoming vulnerable and weak, or being unable to meet the new demands of life (DiCaprio, 1983). In a crisis, people who are functioning on the level of safety needs will identify more easily with a leader figure because they are seeking some kind of protection (Maslow, 1970).

#### \* BELONGINGNESS AND LOVE NEEDS

Once the physiological and safety needs are being regularly satisfied, a person becomes aware of his need to belong somewhere and to belong with someone, to receive and to give love (DiCaprio, 1983; Meyer et al., 1993).

The failure to satisfy needs at this level is a major problem in society today and this explains why so many people are seeking psychotherapy and joining sensitivity or encounter groups (Hergenhahn, 1984). The typical person joining such a group is described by Maslow (1970, p.44) as "... motivated by this unsatisfied hunger for contact, for intimacy, for belongingness and by the need to overcome the widespread feelings of alienation, aloneness, strangeness and loneliness, which have been worsened by our mobility, by the breakdown of traditional groupings, the scattering of families, the generation gap, the steady urbanization and disappearance of village face-to-faceness".

#### \* ESTEEM NEEDS

Self-esteem refers to the need to evaluate oneself positively (Meyer et al., 1993). As soon as a person's physiological, safety, belongingness and love needs have been satisfied, the need for self-esteem will begin to dominate one's life. The esteem needs according to Maslow (1970) may be subdivided into two classes: firstly, personal desires for adequacy, mastery, competence, achievement, confidence, independence and freedom; and secondly, desires for respect or esteem from other people, such as attention, recognition, appreciation, status, prestige, fame, dominance, importance and dignity.

When the needs for self-esteem have been satisfied, the person feels confident, competent, strong, useful and needed in his world. By contrast, unfulfilled needs for self-esteem give rise to a feeling of inferiority, weakness and helplessness (Meyer et al., 1993; Potkay & Allen, 1986).

#### \* SELF-ACTUALIZATION NEED

The single, ultimate value is the overriding human need for self-actualization, through which every person's inherent goal is to realize his or her inner potentialities (Hergenhahn, 1984; Potkay & Allen, 1986).

Although self-actualization does not clearly emerge until there has been some prior satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs, gratification of basic needs is not sufficient to guarantee self-actualization (Hergenhahn, 1984). Self-actualization persons certainly show sufficient gratification of their basic needs, but also demonstrate freedom from illness, positive use of their capacities, and motivation that is linked to a set of personal values. Further, while self-actualization implies the fulfilment of all four basic needs, it is different from them because its direction is positive or growth-motivated rather than negative or deficiency-motivated (Potkay & Allen, 1986).

Self-actualization is an exciting idea because it encourages the person to discover and realize its highest potential, and, in doing so, to become a fully-functioning, goal-orientated being (Maddi, 1980; Meyer et al., 1993).

#### **2.3.4. OPTIMAL DEVELOPMENT**

Self-actualization is the ideal level of functioning and for people to achieve this, Maslow (1970) says that the individual must be able to regularly satisfy his needs on all four levels of the hierarchy. Furthermore, a person who functions optimally is therefore someone who has overcome the restrictions of the environment, can meet his deficiency needs regularly and has accepted the responsibility of self-actualization.

In his quest for fully understanding the concept of self-actualization, Maslow (1970) studied the best personalities humankind had to offer, defined as those he viewed as being the most psychologically healthy, mature, highly evolved and fully human. Maslow (1970) designated a few of these persons as self-actualizers. In other words, people who fulfilled themselves by making complete use of their potentialities, capacities and talents, who did the best they were capable of doing and who developed themselves to the most complete stature of which they were capable (Hergenhahn, 1984).

From his informal research, Maslow (1970) concluded that self-actualizing people exhibit certain characteristics. These are listed below:

\* THEY PERCEIVE REALITY ACCURATELY AND FULLY

Their perceptions are not coloured by specific needs or defenses. The unknown is readily accepted and arouses the greatest curiosity.

\* THEY DEMONSTRATE A GREATER ACCEPTANCE OF THEMSELVES, OTHERS AND/OR NATURE IN GENERAL

Because self-actualizers have accepted both the good and the bad in everything, there is no need to deny the negative aspects of anyone or anything.

\* THEY EXHIBIT SPONTANEITY, SIMPLICITY AND NATURALNESS

Self-actualizers work out their own sets of values which truly influence their conduct.

\* THEY TEND TO BE PROBLEM CENTRED

Self-actualizers are typically committed to some task, cause or mission towards which they can direct most of their energies. This is contrasted with the preoccupation with oneself often found in non-actualizers.

\* THEY HAVE A QUALITY OF DETACHMENT AND A NEED FOR PRIVACY

Because self-actualizing individuals depend on their own values and feelings to guide their lives, they do not need to be in constant contact with other people.

\* THEY ARE AUTONOMOUS AND THEREFORE TEND TO BE INDEPENDENT OF THEIR ENVIRONMENT AND CULTURE

Self-actualizers are growth-motivated rather than deficiency-

motivated people.

\* THEY EXHIBIT A CONTINUED FRESHNESS OF APPRECIATION

Self-actualizers continue to experience the events of their lives with awe, wonder and pleasure. Pleasures do not diminish with repetition.

\* THEY HAVE PERIODIC MYSTIC OR PEAK EXPERIENCES

In other words, states of unusual well-being, characterized by loss of sense of time and self; being transfixed, awe-inspired and in a state of wonderment.

\* THEY HAVE "GEMEINSCHAFTSGEFÜHL"

The concerns that self-actualizers have for other people do not extend only to their friends and family but to all people in all cultures throughout. In other words, a sense of brotherhood. Affection, understanding and sympathy are given freely.

\* THEY DEVELOP DEEP INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS WITH ONLY A FEW INDIVIDUALS

Self-actualizers tend to seek out other self-actualizers as their close friends. Such friendships are few in number but are deep and rich.

\* THEY TEND TO ACCEPT DEMOCRATIC VALUES

Self-actualizers do not respond to individuals on the basis of race, status or religion. They can be and are friendly with anyone of suitable character regardless of class, education, political belief, race or colour.

\* THEY HAVE A STRONG ETHICAL SENSE

Self-actualizers are certain about their convictions and lack confusion, chaos and conflicting beliefs. Means are easily

interchanged while ends remain fixed.

\* THEY HAVE A WELL-DEVELOPED, UNHOSTILE SENSE OF HUMOUR

Self-actualizers tend not to find humour in things that injure or degrade other humans. Rather, they are more likely to find humour in their own shortcomings and inconsistencies.

\* THEY ARE CREATIVE

Self-actualizers are inventive, original and spontaneous.

\* THEY HAVE AN INTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL

Self-actualizers are inner-directed people. Factors determining conduct come from within rather than from the external world. They are self-movers who view free will as an active process.

Maslow (1970) concluded that there was another distinguishing quality of self-actualized people. The above characteristics resulted behaviourally in these individuals being able to resolve polarities or opposites or dichotomies better than the average population. The transcendence of dichotomies means that opposite qualities are integrated and expressed by the same behaviour, not either/or, but both (Jones, 1977). According to DiCaprio (1983), most people are at either one end or the other of these dimensions; they distinguish between what is work and what is recreation, between acting childishly and acting adultlike, between being rational and being irrational. It is the integrated functioning of both that is a sign of health.

Having listed these positive characteristics, Maslow (1970, p.175) however, wanted to make it clear that self-actualizing individuals were far from perfect. "Our subjects show many of the lesser human failings. They are too equipped with silly, wasteful or thoughtless habits. They can be boring, stubborn, irritating. They are by no means free from a rather superficial vanity, pride, partiality to their own productions, family, friends and children. Temper outbursts are not rare."

Maslow (1970, p.176) concluded that as healthy, creative, democratic and spontaneous as his self-actualizers were, "there are no perfect human beings".

#### **2.4. INTEGRATION**

Allport, Rogers and Maslow as humanistic psychologists shared a conviction that a person is a "being-in-the-process-of-becoming" (De Carvalho, 1991, p.146). In this literature discussion, they displayed a person who, when at his best, is proactive, autonomous, choice-orientated, adaptable and mutable. He is a unique organism with the ability to direct, choose and change the guiding motives of his life's course. In the process of becoming, the person assumes the ultimate responsibility for the individualization and actualization of his own existence. In reaching the highest levels through the process of becoming, the person is fully functioning (Rogers) or functionally autonomous (Allport) and the self is spontaneously integrated and actualizing (Maslow).

The view of man underlying the three theorists was based on certain assumptions. As was pointed out by Allport, man is a complex and unique being whose behaviour is influenced by many factors and these in turn influence one another because man functions as a whole. He distinguished two levels of human functioning, namely the opportunistic and the propiarte level. It is here that man strived to achieve the goal of his own choosing. Rogers contended that man is basically good and that his behaviour was geared towards the development of his full potential. In other words, the purpose of life for man is to become that self which he truly is. Man has an intrinsic compulsion to strive towards the actualization of all his potential. According to Maslow, man functioned as an integrated whole who's inherent goal was to realize his inner potentialities. The tendency towards self-actualization was man's overriding motive.

All three, namely Allport, Rogers and Maslow believed that human nature was inherently good when given the proper environment and



opportunity for growth and self-actualization.

In terms of the structure of personality, Allport's contribution was in his definition of personality. He stressed that personality was an organized but dynamic whole, which was made up of various components. Personality has a biological as well as a psychological aspect and each individual's behaviour is unique. Rogers formulated three structural elements which included the total individual constantly interacting with his world, the totality of all an individual's experiences and the ideal self which in a psychologically healthy person, provided the guidelines for growth and development. The structural elements in Maslow's personality theory revolved around the hierarchically structured needs each with a different degree of potency.

The dynamics of personality is closely related to a theorist's basic view of man as well as his view of the structure of the personality. In Allport's view, behaviour was the result of interaction between an individual's psychophysical systems and the situation in which he found himself. Allport's theory of motivation formed a crucial part of his view on personality. Through concepts such as the functional autonomy of motives, Allport thought that in a healthy personality, the structural dispositions of the self underwent a continuous metamorphic process of transformation and alteration in the motives of action. There was a progressive internal organization of the person's motives and that is why Allport said that a healthy personality was a never-ending process of becoming. Rogers focus was on the innate actualizing tendency that was expressed through a number of specific motives that had the common purpose of maintaining and enhancing the organism. In addition, the need for positive regard and positive self regard also played an important role in determining behaviour. Rogers was of the opinion that a person behaved according to the image he had of himself. An individual functioned ideally when his self concept was congruent with his needs and feelings.

Maslow believed that man's development progressed through

successive stages of need gratification towards the goal of self-actualization. In addition, Maslow distinguished between deficit and growth motives; the latter being encompassed by the term self-actualization. Self-actualization was the overriding human need through which every person's inherent goal was the realization of his or her inner potentialities.

The description of the ideal personality and optimal development was the most important aspect in this discussion as it centred around the highest possibilities for humans. According to Allport, the ideal personality was maturity and this referred to being fully functioning. The mature person would have a well-developed and well-functioning proprium. Being a fully functioning person was also Roger's ideal. Rogers's concept of the fully functioning person was similar to Maslow's notion of the self-actualized personality. According to Rogers, fully functioning individuals displayed characteristics such as openness to experience, increased trust in the self, freedom of choice and unafraid of own feelings. Maslow saw the self-actualized person as someone who had overcome constraints of the environment and could meet his deficiency needs regularly. Similar to Rogers characteristics of the fully-functioning person, Maslow also recognized certain descriptive terms that a self-actualized individual should have. These included traits such as perceiving reality accurately and fully, being problem centred, acceptance of the self, spontaneity and simplicity, acceptance of others, resistance to enculturation and more intimate personal relations.

## **2.5. SUMMARY**

In conclusion, this chapter has outlined some of the aspects pertaining to personality in the humanistic paradigm, with special reference to Allport, Rogers and Maslow. It was these three theorists that emphasized man's continuous process of growing and striving to realize his full potential and to be truly himself.

With this, the first theoretical aim (as formulated in chapter

1.3.2.) is concluded.

It is this full potential, this psychological health, also known as maturity (Allport), fully functioning (Rogers) and self-actualization (Maslow), on which the focus in the next chapter will be.

**CHAPTER 3****SELF-ACTUALIZATION**

The emphasis of this chapter is on self-actualization. Consequently, the section on optimal development in the previous chapter should be read together for a thorough understanding of the concept self-actualization. The initial discussion will centre around the meaning of the concept as according to the humanistic theorists already mentioned. It will further examine and discuss self-actualization as a process as well as the characteristics of self-actualized individuals. In conclusion, this chapter will look at a critical evaluation and finally, discuss the various measuring instruments of self-actualization.

**3.1. THE MEANING OF SELF-ACTUALIZATION**

Self-actualization has received considerable attention in the form of research, theory and literature since the concept was introduced by the so-called "third force" humanistic psychology movement in the 1950's (De Carvalho, 1991).

Various definitions and descriptions of self-actualization or the self-actualizing individual exist. Illustrating this point, some of them are listed below. However, at the same time, it should be noted that for the purposes of this research, the main focus is on the meaning and relevance of the concept self-actualization as seen in humanistic psychology, especially by theorists such as Allport, Rogers and Maslow.

Knapp (1976, p.2) describes the self-actualizing individual as one "who utilizes one's talents and capabilities more fully than the average person, lives in the present rather than the past or the future, functions relatively autonomously and tends to have a more benevolent outlook on life and on human nature than the average person".

Hjelle and Ziegler (1987, p.373) defined self-actualization as "a person's desire for self-improvement, his or her drive to make

actual what he or she is potentially. In short, to self-actualize is to become the kind of person one wants to become -to reach the peak of one's potential".

According to Shostrom (1980), the self-actualizing person is seen as developing and utilizing unique capabilities, or potentialities, to a greater extent and as living a more enriched, fully functioning life than does the average person.

From these definitions, it seems that in simplistic terms, the common thread is in the notion of living to one's full potential and capabilities in order to become the kind of individual one wants to become.

The concept self-actualization is an important aspect in the theory of humanistic psychology as was clearly evident from the previous chapter discussion. Humanists believe that a person does not simply react to external environmental stimuli or merely submit to inherent drives over which he has no control. They emphasize that a person participates actively in determining his behaviour, his inherent inclination towards actualizing his potential and his creative ability. As pointed out by Maddi, (1980) and Meyer et al. (1993), humanists are not concerned with identifying internal or external causative factors whereby human behaviour may be manipulated and changed. They are more interested in the person's own contributions to growth and realizing his potential, in other words, becoming self-actualized.

Allport's view on optimal development is summarized by Meyer et al. (1993, p.348) as follows: "the mature person's personality is exceptionally well-integrated in the sense that his propiate development and his functional autonomy are highly evolved, with the result that he is able consciously to determine his own behaviour and future development to a far greater extent than the immature person for whom the environment and unconscious drives are the determining factors".

The meaning of optimal development or being fully functioning is

according to Rogers (1961), when an individual allows a wide variety of experiences and organizes them with his self-concept. The wider the range of experiences are in the self-concept, the better he will know himself and be able to use his abilities and talents, choose constructive action and realize his potential fully (Meyer et al., 1993).

It is clear from the previous discussion that self-actualization should be understood as an ever growing and evolving life process. A never-ending process of becoming a more fully functioning and mature individual who moves towards goals which once achieved are replaced with new ones (Weiss, 1991). Meyer et al. (1993, p.387) states that the "good life" referred to by Rogers (1961) is not a static nirvana in which the person experiences satisfaction, happiness and fulfilment or tension reduction, drive reduction and homeostasis. It is a process, not a static state; a direction, not a destination. "The good life...is the process of movement in a direction which the human organism selects when it is inwardly free to move in any direction" (Rogers, 1961, p.187).

Maslow (1954, p.91) had the following to say about self-actualization: "A musician must make music, as an artist must paint, a poet must write if he is ultimately to be at peace with himself. What a man can be he must do. This need we may call self-actualization".

Maslow attempted, as briefly touched upon in the previous chapter, to identify healthy human growth and functioning by studying people he knew personally, various contemporary public figures and historical personalities. Starting with a general definition of self-actualization, Maslow selected subjects from a large sample. He then reexamined his definition in the light of his clinical studies and changed it accordingly (DiCaprio, 1983). He made further clinical tests and observations and again modified his definition. The definition had according to Hergenhahn (1984) both a positive and a negative aspect: on the negative side he eliminated subjects who showed evidence of neurosis, psychosis and psychopathic disturbance; on the

positive side he looked for signs of health and self-actualization. Maslow (1970) admitted that his data was impressionistic and did not meet conventional scientific reliability, validity and sampling standards. From his informal research, Maslow (1970) concluded that self-actualizing people displayed or exhibited certain characteristics.

On a similar basis, Allport (1961) also expressed his views on optimal development by displaying a list of criteria for maturity. Rogers (1959), basing his observations on people who had been in therapy, also felt that fully functioning people displayed certain characteristics.

For the purposes of this research, self-actualization is defined as a never-ending growth process of purposeful striving, optimal development and becoming a more fully functioning and mature individual. It is described as an end or being state of fullest realization of one's potentials. Self-actualization is firstly, indicated by time competency, living effectively in the present while keeping the past and the future in perspective and secondly, by inner-directedness, taking independent action when necessary by the use of personally self-supportive, non-rigid application of values.

### **3.2. CHARACTERISTICS OF SELF-ACTUALIZING PEOPLE**

The manifold, systemic-interdependent and harmonious (Seeman, 1989) characteristics of self-actualized individuals comes out of the literature of growth psychology (Clinebell, 1981; Schultz, 1977) and the theories of Allport, Rogers and Maslow (as discussed in chapter 2).

This section has for operational purposes been divided into intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics (Shostrom, 1976; Walsh & Shapiro, 1983).

It is argued from a intrapsychic perspective that the interpersonal characteristics, for the purposes of this research, flow out of the intrapersonal characteristics (Boelen, 1978;

Hurlock, 1974; Wolberg & Kildahl, 1970). In other words, the intrapersonal attributes to be discussed are seen as prerequisites for the interpersonal characteristics.

### 3.2.1. INTRAPERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

These refer to physical, cognitive, affective and conative characteristics.

#### \* PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Individuals who are self-actualized and function optimally tend to exercise regularly to keep fit; they have sufficient energy and stamina and are generally physically healthy. They have a positive attitude towards their bodies and accept the nature and functioning of their bodies.

#### \* COGNITIVE CHARACTERISTICS

Such individuals are usually of above average intelligence, they are disciplined in their thinking and in their reasoning, are objective, flexible, imaginative, optimistic in their evaluation of people and situations, and they have a good memory and sound judgement. In other words, they do not allow inappropriate feelings such as guilt, shame or inferiority (or superiority) to influence their thinking.

Self-actualizers are certain about their convictions and lack confusion, chaos and conflicting beliefs (Maslow, 1970). Furthermore, these individuals are able to resolve polarities or opposites better than the average population. This means that opposite qualities are integrated and expressed by the same behaviour, not either/or, but both (Maslow, 1970).

Self-actualized individuals show realistic self-insight, thus have the ability to understand themselves and their motives. They are able to evaluate other people accurately and accept them with all their flaws (Allport, 1961). These individuals show openness to experience (Rogers, 1961). This means an increasing



readiness to accommodate experience which was previously regarded as being incongruent with the self concept and therefore denied or distorted (Meyer et al., 1993).

\* AFFECTIVE CHARACTERISTICS

Self-actualized individuals are aware of and sensitive to their own emotions and feelings (yet they are neither hypersensitive nor insensitive). They recognise such feelings and express them without defending against them or feeling embarrassed or guilty about them. This behaviour leads to self-knowledge and insight and realistic self-concept that is characterized by self-respect, self-acceptance, self-confidence and a sense of their own worth.

The self-actualized person has the ability to perceive himself, other people and his environment in a realistic way so that his own capabilities are known and the tasks set are within his reach (Allport, 1961). They demonstrate a greater acceptance of themselves, others and/or nature in general (Maslow, 1970).

The rich emotional life of these individuals leads to voluntary involvement in a variety of life situations, in which they pursue growth purposefully. Such individuals have a high tolerance for frustration and experience stress as something pleasant, exciting and adventurous. In other words, they experience setbacks and frustrations, but are able to control their emotions and live a life in a balanced manner. Such a person has "learned to live with his emotional states in such a way that they do not betray him into impulsive acts; not interfere with the well-being of others" (Allport, 1961, p.188).

Further characteristics of self-actualized individuals are emotional independence, autonomy and self-directedness (in terms of locus of control). Consequently such individuals experience life as meaningful and accept full responsibility for all their own and do not tend to blame others for the feelings they experience.

Individuals who have reached an optimal level of development do

not only live for the moment, but have an overall philosophy in life, a theory about the meaning and purpose of life (Allport, 1950). A further characteristics of the self-actualized individual is that he trusts himself increasingly when he has to choose behaviour appropriate to a specific situation (Rogers, 1961). These individuals have also a quality of detachment and a need for privacy. They exhibit a continued freshness of appreciation and have a well-developed, unhostile sense of humour (Maslow, 1970).

#### \* CONATIVE CHARACTERISTICS

Self-actualized individuals regulate and direct their own behaviour. They experience freedom of choice in terms of their internal locus of control, which means that they do not see themselves as victims of external forces. Self-actualizers are inner-directed, meaning that factors determining their conduct come from within rather than from the external world (Maslow, 1970). They can choose to move in a direction of growth or stagnation, to be themselves or a facade, to open themselves to their experiences or shut them out (Potkay & Allen, 1986). A fully functioning person is free to do so because he feels responsible for his choices (Rogers, 1961).

A mature adult's life does not resolve solely around himself; he is deeply and personally involved in matters outside himself, such as friends, hobbies, ideas and his career (Allport, 1961). These individuals, living existentially can react flexibly to the total complex of internal and external experiences without imposing general constructs on their perceptions of events (Rogers, 1961). Self-actualizers are typically committed to some task, cause or mission towards which they can direct most of their energies. They are growth motivated rather than deficiency motivated (Maslow, 1970).

#### 3.2.2. INTERPERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

The intrapersonal attributes discussed above are prerequisites for the following interpersonal characteristics: an optimistic

and unconditional acceptance of and respect for other people; a preference for quantitatively reduced interpersonal contact, but qualitatively more intimate, deeper, richer and more rewarding interpersonal relationships; responsible, spontaneous, natural, open, authentic and real behaviour in terms of their own feelings; and sensitivity, empathy, consideration and love towards others (Cilliers, 1984).

These characteristics lead to personal enrichment and the facilitation of growth in others through interpersonal contact, in that relationships are formed sensitively. The self-actualized individual has intimate, warm relationships with family members or close friends, but knows when and how to maintain sufficient distance so not to become intrusive or possessive (Allport, 1961).

Self-actualizers have "gemeinschaftsgefuehl" (Maslow, 1970). This means that the concerns they have for other people do not extend only to their friends and family, but to all people in all cultures throughout. These individuals do not respond to individuals on the basis of race, status or religion. They can be and are friendly with anyone of suitable character regardless of class, education, political belief, race or colour.

### **3.3. CRITICAL EVALUATION**

Although the humanistic emphasis on subjective experience and on the self is a major contribution, this emphasis creates some difficulties for the scientific study of personality (Potkay & Allen, 1986). The major limitations of the approach centre on firstly, the lack of an explicit definition of personality, secondly, the problem of operational definition of humanistic concepts and thirdly, problems involved in accepting self-reports.

According to Potkay and Allen (1986), neither Rogers or Maslow have provided a clear definition of personality.

Scientific studies require that important concepts be

operationally defined - that is, defined in terms of some observable and measurable phenomena that different observers can understand (Kerlinger, 1986). However, many humanistic - psychology concepts are difficult to define (Potkay & Allen, 1986; Rykman, 1989). Concepts such as "truth", "joy" and "beauty" are influenced by the eye of the beholder (Rykman, 1989) and definitions of "peak experiences" have varied (Mathes & Zevon, 1982).

Self-perceptions may be incomplete or inaccurate representations, related to inability to see oneself realistically (Potkay & Allen, 1986; Rykman, 1989). Accurate self-perceptions may not be reflected in self-statements if the individual is unwilling to communicate them and finally, both self-perceptions and self-statements may not correspond to a person's behaviour (Potkay & Allen, 1986).

Evaluations of Allport's theory have produced conflicting outcomes, on the one hand, often regarded as one of the most important personality theories, yet on the other hand, often severely criticized (Meyer et al., 1993). Criticism includes firstly, some of Allport's central concepts do not lend themselves to empirical examination (Potkay & Allen, 1986), secondly, it is argued that the concept of functional autonomy relies on interpretation of behaviour which cannot be empirically verified (Hall & Lindzey, 1978) and thirdly, Allport makes use of explanations of behaviour that rely on factors like values and goals that cannot be observed (Meyer et al., 1993).

In addition, Allport's rejection of the idea that there are similarities between the functioning of normal and abnormal people and between that of children and adults is held to be unjustifiable and in conflict with longstanding, proven experience (Meyer et al., 1993).

When looking at Rogers's belief that man is inherently good and he has the potential to actualize himself fully, the question arises whether Rogers also acknowledges the human characteristics that are bad such as hatred and selfishness, which are part of

human nature and can lead to destructive behaviour (Meyer et al., 1993).

Another criticism is that some concepts in Rogers's theory are difficult to define operationally and therefore difficult to verify (Potkay & Allen, 1986; Rykman, 1989).

According to Meyer et al. (1993), applying Rogers theoretical principles to everyday life can also be a problem. For example, accepting people unconditionally in day-to-day life as per Rogers theory is in practice difficult to meet.

As with any other theory, Maslow's also has not gone uncriticized. Beyond emphasizing the necessity of gratifying needs, Maslow did not specify the particulars for dealing with them (DiCaprio, 1983).

Researchers and psychologists such as Allport (1961) and Maddi (1965), have shown that in many instances of high human achievement, there was everything but easy gratification of needs. Maybe Maslow felt that gratification is not the only, but rather the best, way to deal with needs. However, in experimental applications of Maslow's needs hierarchy, conflicting results have been yielded. For example, in some work settings, providing conditions that seem to gratify higher needs produced evident improvement in performance and employee morale (Marrow, Bowers & Seashore, 1967); however, in other settings, there was no improvement (Hall & Nongaim, 1968). In other words, individuals have been seen to show characteristics of self-actualization even though their basic needs did not seem to have been satisfied.

The most obvious criticism to Maslow's ideas on self-actualization have been the accusations of them being unscientific - that is, of using uncontrolled and unreliable research techniques - of basing his conclusions about self-actualizing people on a very small sample of people and of selecting subjects of his research in accordance with his own intuitive criteria as to what constitutes a self-actualizing

person (DiCaprio, 1983; Hergenhahn, 1984; Meyer et al., 1993; Rykman, 1989). However, according to DiCaprio (1983), in Maslow's favour have been the observations that his characteristics of self-actualizing people resembled those proposed by other mental health experts.

The concept self-actualization has also not gone unscathed. Daniels (1988) argues that the primary function of a theory of self-actualization is to establish a myth of human development that provides conceptual support for individuals who are seeking fulfillment and offers clear normative guidance. Maslow's theory consists of ambiguities and contradictions and several conceptual elements may inhibit or corrupt the process of self-actualization (Daniels, 1988).

In conclusion, it needs to be said that in spite of all these criticisms, there can be no doubt that Allport, Rogers and Maslow have been significant figures in the humanistic psychology movement. Their theorizing and experimental works have directed attention to the highest potentials of which humans are capable.

#### **3.4. MEASUREMENTS OF SELF-ACTUALIZATION**

Any attempts to validate Maslow's major assertions were originally blocked due to lack of adequate instruments to measure self-actualization (Potkay & Allen, 1986). Since then, however, various tests and questionnaires have been designed which can be used to measure self-actualization. These will for the purposes of this research be described very briefly as the emphasis in this research falls on the Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrom, 1974) only.

The "Seeking of Noetic Goals Test" (SONG) was developed by Crumbaugh (Sweetland & Keyser, 1983) and the purpose of the test is to measure the strength of a person's motivation to find meaning in life. The SONG is described as a 20 item paper-pencil test consisting of statements which the subject rates from 1 to 7 according to his or her own beliefs. This test can be used in conjunction with another test which also measures self-

actualization, namely the "Purpose in Life Test" (PIL) by Crumbaugh and Maholick (Yarnell, 1971).

The manual of the SONG includes a discussion of the test's rationale, validity, reliability, administration, scoring, norms and other technical data.

Another instrument which could be used in this regard is the "Incentives Management Index" (IMI) by Hall and Seim (Mitchell, 1985). It is based on Maslow's need hierarchy with 5 scores: basic, safety, belongingness, ego-status and self-actualization. According to Mitchell (1985) however, no data on reliability or validity seem to be available.

The "Life Style Inventories" developed by Lafferty (Cooke & Rousseau, 1983) are a multi-level diagnostic system whose purpose is to provide accurate detailed information about healthy human behaviour. The Inventories consist of two levels. Level I, the Life Styles Inventory (Self Description), is an instrument which proposes to access one's self-concept. This instrument is intended to measure thinking styles, consequences of thinking, causes of thinking and time utilization. The Life Styles Inventory (Self Description) requires the respondent to evaluate and score himself/herself on 240 different personality characteristics. There are 12 scores: Humanistic-Helpful; Affiliative; Approval; Conventional; Dependence; Avoidance; Oppositional; Power; Competitive; Competence; Achievement and Self-Actualized.

Level II, the Life Styles Inventory (Description by Others) is an instrument which proposes to provide a composite profile which represents how others perceive the examinee's behaviour. Five individuals are selected with personal knowledge of the examinee, and they rate the examinee on the same 240 personality characteristics that appear in the Level I Inventory.

According to Cherrick (1985), the Life Styles Inventories represent an extremely thought provoking and interesting system, however, reliability and validity data are

strikingly inadequate.

Another instrument for possible use in testing self-actualization is the "Meta-Motivation Inventory" (MMI) by Walker (Mitchell, 1985). This Inventory is a 60-item commercial test designed to be self-administered and self-scored. Its purpose is to assist people in assessing their progress in personal and managerial development by making them aware of where they stand, in terms of 32 different scores, in relation to normative population. The scores are intended to provide feedback on personal and managerial styles concerning 20 subscales, each of which comprise three items. Four major scales (Determinism, Motivation to Achieve, Need to Control Others and Concern for People) are each made up of the 15 items of five of the subscales. Each additional scale, composed of various combinations of the 60 items, include Self-Actualization (16 items); Stress (22 items); Repression (9 items); Anger (8 items); Judgemental (14 items); Creativity (14 items); Growth Potential (11 items) and Fun (13 items).

The "Self-Actualizing Inventory" (SAI) by Reddin and Rowell (Mitchell, 1985) is another instrument which is purported to measure the degree to which the following needs are unfulfilled: physical; security; relationship; respect; independence and self-actualization.

Each of the 28 items consists of three statements and for each set of statements, a respondent is to decide to what extent he or she agrees with each statement, and to indicate that extent of agreement by allocating a total of 3 points among the three statements. The more points one assigns to a statement, the more one agrees with it.

Other published scales that are designed to measure or provide an index of self-actualization are the "Northridge Development" Scale (NRDS) by Gowan, the "Jones Self-Actualization Scale" (JSAS) by Jones and Randolph and the "Tennessee Self-Concept Scale" (TSCS) by Fitts (Jones and Crandall, 1986).



According to Hjelle and Ziegler (1987), it was however only with the development of the "Personal Orientation Inventory" (POI) by Shostrom (1974), which showed to be a reliable and valid measure of self-actualization, that an assessment of an individual's degree of self-actualization could be made. It is this Personal Orientation Inventory that will be the focus of the next chapter.

### **3.5. SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the main focus was on the concept self-actualization. At the outset, the meaning of self-actualization was presented, highlighting the relevance of the concept in humanistic psychology as well as the views of the humanistic theorists Allport, Rogers and Maslow.

Special attention was given to the intra- and interpersonal characteristics of self-actualizing individuals. A brief critical analysis in terms of humanistic psychology, its theorists and the concept self-actualization followed. The chapter concluded with a discussion on the various measuring instruments of self-actualization.

With this, the second theoretical aim (as formulated in chapter 1.3.2.) is concluded.

The measurement of self-actualization by means of the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) will be presented in the next chapter.

**CHAPTER 4****THE PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY (POI)**

The focus in this chapter will be on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI). The frame for presentation of this instrument will initially involve a discussion on the development and rationale of the POI. This will be followed by a detailed physical description of the POI including the scales and the administration of the instrument. Attention will also be given to the interpretation of the POI with special emphasis on previous research, especially that done on reliability and validity. In conclusion, the chapter will present a critical analysis on existing reliability and validity of the POI.

**4.1. DEVELOPMENT OF THE POI**

Although the aforementioned methodological problems plagued Maslow's position initially and prevented adequate research, investigations on certain aspects of the theory have been growing because of the construction of a more reliable and valid measure of self-actualization called the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (Ryckman, 1989). According to Hjelle and Ziegler (1987), the development of the POI by Shostrom (1963) as a reliable and valid measure of self-actualization resulted in empirical research relating to Maslow's theory being pursued at an accelerating rate.

The POI represents an effort to assess a number of variables involved in sound personal functioning or self-actualization (Coan, 1972). In the past, both theory and measurement in the personality realm have centred too much around concepts of psychopathology (Ryckman, 1989). Theorists have increasingly recognized the importance of focusing directly on sound functioning and therefore a need arose for instruments that can tap components of sound functioning, rather than just the presence or absence of pathology (Coan, 1972; DiCaprio, 1983).

This need was satisfied by Shostrom in his attempt to measure

values and behaviour related to positive mental health, using his own developed POI. As stated by Shostrom (1964), a diagnostic instrument such as the POI would give the new patient a measure of his current level of positive health or self-actualization. The patient would thus be provided with a launching pad for the process of therapy which would then suggest directions for growth towards health.

The POI was therefore developed to provide a standardized instrument for the measurement of values and behaviour hypothesized to be of paramount importance in the development of self-actualized individuals (Knapp, 1976). In other words, an instrument developed by Shostrom for the measurement of therapeutic growth.

The profile discussed in chapter 3.2 refers to the intrapersonal characteristics: physical, cognitive, affective and conative as well as the interpersonal characteristics of self-actualizing people. However, all the measuring instruments mentioned, including the POI, focus only on the affective, conative and interpersonal characteristics. It is therefore, for the purposes of this paradigm, that the physical and the cognitive are disregarded and that the affective characteristics, the internal motivation and effective human relations are emphasized.

According to Knapp (1976), the wide personal and social relevance of the value concepts measured by the POI, as well as the interpretation of scales in terms of positive concepts of self-development and the non-threatening character of the items, have been some of the main reasons for the application of the POI in a wide variety of settings.

#### **4.2. RATIONALE OF THE POI**

The POI, a self-report questionnaire, was devised in strict accordance with Maslow's thinking and provides an assessment of an individual's degree of self-actualization (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1987). The concepts measured by the POI reflect an actualizing model that has to a certain extent replaced the medical model for

most counsellor's and therapists (Shostrom, 1972). The medical model stresses movement from "illness" to a mean of "normalcy", whereas the self-actualizing model stresses a way by which "normal" people can become more effective and self-fulfilled (Knapp, 1976). As stated by Maslow (1971, p.28), "self-actualization can now be defined quite operationally, as intelligence used to be defined, i.e. self-actualization is what the test tests".

#### 4.3. DESCRIPTION OF THE POI

The POI is a self-report questionnaire consisting of 150 two-choice comparative-value-judgement items that purportedly reflect the values and behaviour of major importance in the development of a self-actualizing person (Knapp, 1976; Ryckman, 1989).

The POI consists of items logically grouped into two major scales and ten subscales. The ten subscales are again grouped into five sections known as values, feelings, self-perception, synergistic awareness and interpersonal sensitivity.

The two major scales in the POI are interpreted in terms of a Time Ratio and a Support Ratio. The Time Ratio (time-competence/time-incompetence ratio) measures the degree to which the individual lives in the present as contrasted with the past or future. As explained by Knapp (1976), it assesses the degree to which one is reality orientated in the present and is able to bring past experiences and future expectations into meaningful continuity. The Support Ratio (inner-directed/other-directed ratio) is designed to measure whether an individual's mode of reaction is characteristically "self" oriented or "other" oriented (Shostrom, 1974). In other words, an assessment of the balance between other-directedness and inner-directedness.

The ten subscales, grouped into five sections, measure concepts important to the development of the self-actualizing person:

#### \* VALUES .

Self-Actualizing Value (SAV)

Existentiality (Ex)

\* **FEELINGS**

Feeling Reactivity (Fr)

Spontaneity (S)

\* **SELF-PERCEPTION**

Self Regard (Sr)

Self-Acceptance (Sa)

\* **SYNERGISTIC AWARENESS**

Nature of Man, Constructive (Nc)

Synergy (Sy)

\* **INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY**

Acceptance of Aggression (A)

Capacity of Intimate Contact (C)

In terms of considerations for research design and statistical analysis, Knapp (1976) emphasizes that the POI is not a forced choice instrument as it does not meet the criteria of such. The scale scores of the POI are normative rather than ipsative, with the score on one scale in general not being dependent upon responses to another scale. Knapp (1976) continues in saying that the POI item format is more properly described as paired opposites, in which each concept is presented in terms of a positive and a negative statement of the continuum, or dichotomy, under consideration. Items of each scale are not paired with those of other scales; the scoring of each item remains independent.

#### 4.4. SCALES OF THE POI

The following is a list and description of the POI scales as well as the number of items per scale.

##### TIME COMPETENCE (TC): 23 Items

The Time Competence (TC) scale is used in the POI to measure the degree to which an individual is present tense oriented.

High score:

According to Shostrom (1974), the self-actualizing person is

primarily time competent and appears therefore to live in the present rather than the past or future. As explained by Knapp (1976), he is able to tie the past and the future to the present in meaningful continuity and his aspirations are tied meaningfully to present working goals. He also seems to be characterized by faith in the future without rigid or over-idealized goals.

Low score:

The time-incompetent person lives primarily in the past or the future and is bound either by past guilt, regrets, resentments and hostilities or by unrealistic expectations, goals, plans or fears of the future (Knapp, 1976; Shostrom, 1974).

INNER-DIRECTED (I): 127 Items

The Inner-Directed (I) scale is used in the POI to measure whether an individual's value reaction is primarily "self" or "other" oriented.

High score:

Shostrom (1974) reported that in an inner-directed person, the source of direction for the individual is inner in the sense that internal motivations are the guiding force rather than external influences.

Low score:

Other-directed people are primarily guided by their peers or other outside influences and tend to be dependent (Knapp, 1976).

A self-actualizing person tends to lie between that of the extreme other- and the extreme inner-directed person. They tend to be less dependency or deficiency-orientated than either the extreme inner- or the extreme other-directed person. They can be characterized as having more of an autonomous self-supportive or being orientation (Shostrom, 1974). Whereas they are other-directed in that they must to a degree be sensitive to people's approval, affection, and good will, the source of their actions

is essentially inner-directed.

In summary, growth towards personal self-actualizing may be said to involve both development of Time Competency and development of Inner-Directedness (Knapp, 1976). The relationship that exists between Time Competence and Inner-Directedness lies in the fact that a self-actualizing person, who lives in the present, relies more on his own self-support and his own self-expressiveness than does the person who lives more in the past or the future (Shostrom, 1974).

Of all the POI scales, the Time Competence (TC) and Inner-Directed (I) scales are classified as the two major scales and are seen, as already explained, in ratios covering the two most important areas in personal development and interpersonal interaction, namely time orientation and support orientation.

In addition to the two major scales mentioned, are ten subscales, grouped into the five sections. These ten subscales are intended to reflect a particular facet important in the development of self-actualizing and according to Knapp (1976), may be defined as follows:

**\* VALUES**

SELF-ACTUALIZING VALUE (SAV): (26 Items)

This scale measures the affirmation or acceptance of oneself in spite of one's weaknesses or deficiencies. In other words, the degree to which an individual agrees with the values of self-actualizing people.

High score:

A high score indicates that the individual holds and lives by values characteristic of self-actualizing people.

Low score:

A low score suggests the rejection of values characteristic of self-actualizing people.

EXISTENTIALITY (Ex): (32 Items)

This scale complements the SAV scale and measures the ability to situationally or existentially react without rigid adherence to principles. It measures one's flexibility in applying values or principles to one's life. It is a measure of one's ability to use good judgement in applying these general principles.

High score:

High scores on the Ex scale reflect flexibility in application to values.

Low score:

Low scores may suggest a tendency to hold to values so rigidly that they become compulsive or dogmatic.

According to Shostrom (1974), both the SAV and Ex scale may be considered to reflect the general area of valueing as the SAV scale measures the degree to which one's values are like self-actualizing people and the Ex scale measures the degree of flexibility in the application of values to living.

**\* FEELINGS**

FEELING REACTIVITY (Fr): (23 Items)

The Fr scale measures sensitivity or responsiveness to one's own needs and feelings.

High score:

A high score indicates the presence of such sensitivity.

Low score:

A low score suggests insensitivity to these needs and feelings.

SPONTANEITY (S): (18 Items)

Following Feeling Reactivity, the Spontaneity scale measures an individual's freedom to react spontaneously or to be oneself.



High score:

A high score reflects the ability to express feelings in spontaneous action.

Low score:

A low score suggests that one is fearful of expressing feelings behaviourally.

Due to the measure by the Fr scale of sensitivity to needs and feelings within one's self and the measure by the S scale of the ability to express feelings behaviourably, these scales may be considered to reflect the area of feeling (Shostrom, 1974).

\* **SELF-PERCEPTION**

SELF-REGARD (Sr): (16 Items)

This scale measures affirmation of self because of worth or strength.

High score:

A high score measures the ability to like oneself because of one's strength as a person.

Low score:

A low score suggests feelings of low self-worth.

SELF-ACCEPTANCE (Sa): (26 Items)

Closely allied to the Self-Regard scale, Sa measures the acceptance of oneself in spite of one's weaknesses or deficiencies.

High score:

A high score suggests acceptance of self and weaknesses.

Low score:

A low score suggests inability to accept one weakness.

Sa and Sr may seem to measure the same concept; although related, they are not mutually exclusive. It is easier to value one's strengths than concede one's weaknesses. The self-actualizer should possess a high measure of both self-regard and self-acceptance. These two scales therefore seem to reflect the general area of self-perception (Jones, 1977).

\* **SYNERGISTIC AWARENESS**

NATURE OF MAN: CONSTRUCTIVE (Nc): (16 Items)

The scale measures the degree of one's constructive view of the nature of man. If an individual feels that man is essentially good, his purposes worthwhile, and his causes just, then he or she will score high on the Nc scale.

High score:

A high scorer is able to resolve the inherent dichotomies in man: good-evil, masculine-feminine, selfish-unselfish and spiritual-sensual.

Low score:

A low scorer sees man as fundamentally evil, exploitative and self-centred.

SYNERGY (Sy): (9 Items)

This scale measures an individual's ability to transcend dichotomies.

High score:

A high score is a measure of the ability to see opposites of life as meaningfully related. For instance, to the self-actualizing individual, the concepts of work and play are not opposites, not antagonistic. Rather, they blend into a value that perceives work as enjoyable and purposeful; this resolution or blending is described as synergistic.

Low score:

A low score suggests that one sees opposites of life as antagonistic.

Scale Nc measures the good-bad dichotomy in man and scale Sy measures the ability to relate all objects of life meaningfully. They may thereby be considered to be complementary scales reflecting the general area of awareness or synergistic awareness (Shostrom, 1974).

**\* INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY**

ACCEPTANCE OF AGGRESSION (A): (25 Items)

The scale measures the ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness as opposed to defensiveness, denial and repression of aggression.

High score:

A high score on this scale indicates that the individual is able to accept anger, hostility or aggression as a natural force.

Low score:

A low score suggests denial of these feelings; a low scoring person would convert such human feelings into defensiveness, rejection and repression.

CAPACITY FOR INTIMATE CONTACT (C): (28 Items)

The C scale measures the ability to develop intimate relationships with other human beings, unencumbered by expectations and obligations.

High score:

A high score indicates the ability to develop meaningful, contactful, relationships with other human beings.

Low score:

A low score suggests that one has difficulty with warm

interpersonal relationships.

Scale A measures the acceptance of one's own aggressiveness which is necessary for human contact while scale C measures the ability for intimate contact. It is possible to be either assertive and aggressive or warm and loving in human contacts. Both are expressions of good interpersonal contacts and both may be considered to reflect the general area of interpersonal sensitivity (Shostrom, 1974).

#### **4.5. ADMINISTRATION OF THE POI**

The POI is essentially self-administering and can either be completed in group sessions or individually (Shostrom, 1974). The examinee must be instructed to print his or her name and the additional information required on the answer sheet. The examinee may then be asked to read the directions on the front cover of the POI booklet by himself or the examiner may read them aloud while the examinees follow in the booklet silently. Any questions that the examinee may now have should then be answered.

The POI has no time limit and may be completed in as little as twenty minutes. Usually testing time is about thirty minutes.

Any question the examinee may have regarding the definition of words in the POI, may be answered by the examiner. Questions dealing with concepts or interpretation of test items should usually be responded to by encouraging the examinee to use his own judgement in choosing the most appropriate alternative. Should any item be particularly troublesome, the examinee may leave it blank. This should however not be encouraged. Rather, where possible, the examinee should go back and try to answer the items he or she omitted the first time.

The examinee answers the 150 items of the POI by deciding which of the A or B items is most applicable to his or her behaviour.

The POI answer sheet may be scored by hand and when scored in this way, it is a straightforward clerical task. The raw score

for each scale can be obtained by placing the scoring template over the answer sheet and counting the number of blackened areas showing through the holes in the key. Each total is then entered on the corresponding line on the answer sheet.

The profile sheet for the POI was constructed from American student and adult norms (Shostrom, 1964). The raw scores are plotted on the profile sheet and the corresponding standard scores are printed in the extreme left and right vertical columns of the profile form. By connecting all the raw scores marked on the profile sheet with straight lines, the self-actualizing profile with the help of the standard scores can be plotted and determined.

#### **4.6. INTERPRETATION OF THE POI**

Interpretation of the POI may be accomplished on an individual basis or the meaning of profile patterns may be presented in group sessions (Shostrom, 1974).

The twelve POI scales give a combined profile of the respondent's self-actualizing, although the scales must be interpreted independently. After plotting the profile, the overall profile elevation must be noted. If the Time Competence and Inner - Directed scores or most of the scale scores fall above the mean standard score line based on the normal adult sample, the probability is that the person is one who is functioning relatively effectively and is comparatively competent in development towards a self-actualizing person. If most scores are below this mean, it may be that the individual is experiencing difficulty in personal effectiveness and that changes in value orientations would be beneficial in facilitating further personal development towards an actualizing individual (Shostrom, 1974).

A score between 50 and 60 points towards self-actualizing behaviour while scores lower than 50 indicate aspects of self-actualizing that are less apparent and on which the person should concentrate in order to increase the quality of his or her life.

#### 4.7. PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Since the publication of the POI as the first standardized inventory for the measurement of self-actualization, an extensive body of research has been accumulated overseas. This research refers to faking, interrelationships, factor analysis, reliability and validity. As already pointed out (in chapter 1.5), no recent literature on research relating especially to reliability and validity of the POI, could be found. All references made are therefore from a time period 1965 to 1978.

In terms of faking, several studies have investigated whether responses to the POI are seriously effected by the tendency to present oneself in a socially desirable light. Fisher and Silverstein (1969) and Foulds and Warehime (1971) found in their research that instructions given to subjects to fake responses in a favourable direction actually produced lower self-actualization scores in subjects. In other words, encouragement to present oneself in a good light would have no or even adverse effects upon POI scores.

Warehime, Routh and Foulds (1974) in determining how resistant to faking the POI is, gave their subjects information about the self-actualization concept. When the POI was administered, it was believed that those subjects who would have a tendency to respond in a socially desirable direction would be able to increase their self-actualization scores, but this was not demonstrated.

In summary, Knapp (1976, p.73) comments that "... the conscious attempt to present oneself in a favourable (socially desirable) light, results in a generally depressed POI profile, while intellectualized responses based on a knowledge of the underlying theoretical concepts result in a typically hyperelevated profile".

In terms of interrelationships among the POI scales, Knapp (1965) found that in a sample of 138 college students, most of the intercorrelations among the subscales were positive, ranging in

magnitude from - 0,04 up to 0,64 between Feeling Reactivity and Acceptance of Aggression. Results in detail are shown in Table 4.1.

**TABLE 4.1** INTERCORRELATIONAL MATRIX FOR PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY (N = 138) \*

POI SCALES		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. TC		49	26	31	20	38	44	43	19	29	17	25
2. I			54	70	58	71	62	63	37	41	61	55
3. SAV				21	23	45	56	03	41	58	32	15
4. Ex					32	42	32	57	27	36	39	48
5. Fr						44	25	21	-03	12	64	53
6. S							44	40	17	30	47	30
7. Sr								21	32	26	28	23
8. Sa									24	22	32	30
9. Nc										53	-04	-02
10. Sy											28	14
11. A												44
12. C												

Source: Knapp (1976, p.87). \* Decimals have been omitted

Knapp (1976) pointed out that the concepts measured by the POI were not conceived as being independent or orthogonal, but contained varying numbers of overlapping items. In addition, the development of the POI focused on maximizing convergent validity and interpretive usefulness rather than on homogeneity and factorial purity of the scales (Knapp, 1976).

In terms of factor analysis, most of the studies have been confounded by methodological difficulties. The overall conclusion is that the POI reflects a fairly complex aggregation of factors and is thus not designed for factor analytic approaches (Knapp, 1976).

#### 4.8. RELIABILITY OF THE POI

Much of research revolving around the POI has been concerned with establishing its reliability. Both test-retest and internal consistency have been amply studied (Ilardi & May, 1968; Klavetter & Mogar, 1967; Knapp & Comrey, 1973). According to Ilardi and May (1968), test-retest reliabilities for various samples were satisfactory, although the coefficients for certain subscales were low to moderate in certain studies.

Bloxom (1972, p.121) states that "the reliability coefficients range from a moderate 0,55 to a good 0,85. Only three subscales have coefficients that might be regarded as substandard (say, less than 0,70): A (0,55), Nc (0,66) and Fr (0,69). The A and Fr scales measure variables that are affect-related and, as such, may be measuring fluctuation in mood states from test to retest".

A one week interval test-retest study by Klavetter and Mogar (1967), using a sample of 48 college students, resulted in reliability coefficients for the major scales of Time Competence (TC) and Inner-Direction (I) as 0,71 and 0,77 respectively, and coefficients for the subscales ranging from 0,52 to 0,82. These results are shown in Table 4.2. According to Shostrom (1974, p.33), "in general, the correlations obtained in this study are at a level commensurate with other personality inventories".

**TABLE 4.2** TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR POI

POI SCALES		TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY
Time Competent	Tc	0,71
Inner Directed	I	0,77
Self-actualizing Value	SAV	0,69
Existentiality	Ex	0,82
Feeling Reactivity	Fr	0,65



Spontaneity	S	0,76
Self-Regard	Sr	0,71
Self-Acceptance	Sa	0,77
Nature of Man	Nc	0,68
Synergy	Sy	0,71
Acceptance of Aggression	A	0,52
Capacity for Intimate Contact	C	0,67

Source: Klavetter and Mogar (1967, p.423).

Ilardi and May (1968) administered a battery of tests to 64 entering female nursing students at the University of Tennessee College of Nursing. Of the 64 entering students, 46 finished the first year of the nursing programme and they were re-administered the same battery after slightly less than one year. One of the tests in the battery was the POI.

The range of test-retest reliability correlations was from 0,32 to 0,74 with a median  $r = 0,58$ , as is shown in Table 4.3.

**TABLE 4.3** TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY CORRELATIONS OF THE POI  
(N=46)

POI SCALE	TEST-RETEST
Time Competence (TC)	0,55
Inner-Direction (I)	0,71
Self-Actualization Value (SAV)	0,60
Existentiality (Ex)	0,74
Feeling Reactivity (Fr)	0,32
Spontaneity (S)	0,51
Self-Regard (Sr)	0,66
Self-Acceptance (Sa)	0,71
Nature of Man (Nc)	0,49
Synergy (Sy)	0,40
Acceptance of Aggressions (A)	0,64
Capacity for Intimate Contact (C)	0,58

Source: Ilardi and May (1968, p.70).

According to Ilardi and May (1968), the findings reported on the POI are well within the ranges of somewhat comparable MMPI and EPPS test-retest reliability studies.

A study by Wise and Davis (1975) revealed test-retest reliability coefficients, over a two week administration period, of 0,75 and 0,88 for Time Competence (Tc) and Inner Directed (I) respectively.

It needs to be noted when discussing test-retest reliability that according to Knapp (1976), the POI is highly sensitive to experiences during the interval between administrations.

In general, the time interval associated with test-retest reliability research on the POI was short. Ghiselli (1964) and Wise and Davis (1975) referred to test-retest studies with an interval of two weeks; Jones and Crandall (1986) used an interval of twelve days and studies by Klavetter and Mogar (1967), Shostrom (1973) and also Martin, Blair, Rudolph and Melman (1981), made use of a five day interval period.

According to Ilardi and May (1968), it is probably safe to say that the memory factor, at least, is not significant after a one-year interval. Huysamen (1990) feels, as already stated in chapter one, that it is desirable to have an interval of at least several days between the two test sessions in order to reduce the possibility of transfer effects. On the other hand, this interval should not exceed several weeks, since real permanent changes might then occur in the attribute measured.

In the only known reliability study of the POI in South Africa by Van Wyk (1978), the following results were given: The split-half reliability coefficient based on an odd-even split of the 150 items of the POI using the Spearman-Brown formula was found to be 0,73. In terms of internal consistency using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20), a co-efficient of 0,72 was obtained. The test-retest reliability, which is of particular relevance to this research, using a one year period before readministration of the POI showed coefficients of 0,59 and 0,56

for the two major scales. For the minor scales, Van Wyk (1978) reported test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from Synergy (Sy) = 0,15 to Feeling Reactivity (Fr) = 0,69. The data for the whole reliability study by Van Wyk (1978) is shown in Table 4.4.

**TABLE 4.4** RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS OF THE POI

METHODS OF RELIABILITY	N	RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS:	
		KR-20	R
1. Split-half Reliability	61		0,73
2. Internal Consistency	61	0,72	
3. Test-Retest Reliability	61		
- Time Competent			0,59
- Inner Directed			0,56
- Self-Actualizing Value			0,43
- Existentiality			0,48
- Feeling Reactivity			0,69
- Spontaneity			0,48
- Self-Regard			0,24
- Self Acceptance			0,39
- Nature of Man			0,46
- Synergy			0,15
- Acceptance of Aggression			0,51
- Capacity for Intimate Contact			0,59

Source: Van Wyk (1978, p.118).

In summary, it appears that according to most research on reliability of the POI, the two major scales can be described as displaying good reliability, although this cannot be said of the subscales (Bloxom, 1972). This could, according to Raanan (1973), most probably be attributed to the fact that the number

of items for some of the subscales are too low. In general however, the reliability of the POI seems to be satisfactory and compares well, as previously mentioned, with reliability coefficients of other personality questionnaires.

#### **4.9. VALIDITY OF THE POI**

The validity of the POI was initially determined by Shostrom (1974) and has been substantiated frequently since then. According to Jones (1977), the number of studies demonstrating concurrent, content and construct validity are many.

In a study by Shostrom and Knapp (1966), the POI was administered to two groups of outpatients in therapy, one a group of 37 beginning patients entering therapy and the other a sample of 39 patients in advance states of psychotherapeutic progress. The results showed that the POI significantly differentiated the groups on the two major scales and on nine of the ten subscales.

Numerous studies have been conducted to differentiate between groups possessing observable differences in status at the time of testing. In a study by Fox, Knapp and Michael (1968), the POI was used to differentiate between hospitalized psychiatric patients and the established normal adult samples identified by Shostrom. As predicted, the psychiatric patients scored significantly below the relatively high self-actualizing group and also below the normal adult group.

Similarly, the POI distinguished between outpatients beginning psychotherapy and those in advanced stages of therapy (Shostrom, 1974).

Warehime and Foulds (1971) did a study to determine the relationship of self-actualizing to locus of control and found a hypothesized significant relationship between POI measures of Inner-Directed support (I scale scores) and internal locus of control measured by the Rotter I-E scale. Correlations of greatest magnitude were against POI scales of Self-Regard (Sr) ( $r=-0,33$ ), Time Competence (TC) ( $r=-0,32$ ) and Nature of Man

(Nc) ( $r=-0,27$ ) for a sample of fifty-five female college students.

However, Durka (1973) did a study concerning self-actualization and its correlates in a sample of 65 students in a two-year nursing program and found that self-actualization of the POI and internal control orientation on the Rotter's I-E Scale are not closely related constructs.

In another study by Wall (1970), both the POI and the Rotter I-E scale were administered to a sample of 113 introductory psychology students. Pearson product-moment correlations between the I-E scale, scored in the internal direction and the 12 scales of the POI yielded 3 significant correlations, with the range of all correlations being between  $-0,04$  and  $0,26$ . The significant correlations were Self-regard (Sr) ( $r=0,26, p<0,01$ ), Self-actualizing Value (SAV) ( $r=0,25, p<0,01$ ) and Nature of Man (Nc) ( $r=0,21, p<0,05$ ). According to Wall (1970), values of this size on only 3 of 12 scales suggest that the POI and I-E scales are measuring conceptually different variables.

A number of studies have examined the relationship of POI variables to other personality constructs and scales. These studies are of special significance to this research. Knapp (1965) administered the POI and the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1963) to a college sample. Results showed that the EPI dimension of Neuroticism-Stability was negatively correlated with all POI scales, indicating that self-actualizing is related to the lack of neurotic tendencies and symptoms as supported by Maslow's theory in describing mentally healthy people.

In a similar study, Osborne and Steeves (1981) looked at the correlations between the scales of the POI and Neuroticism as measured by the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1963). They found that neuroticism scores correlated significantly with the POI scales of Time Competence (TC) ( $-0,47$ ), Inner-directedness (I) ( $-0,22$ ), Self-regard (Sr) ( $-0,37$ ), Self-acceptance (Sa) ( $-0,35$ ) and Capacity for Intimate

Contact (C) (-0,23).

Further construct validation of the POI was done by Knapp and Comrey (1973). They investigated the relationship between humanistic concepts of self-actualization, as measured by the POI and the scales of the Comrey Personality Inventory (CPI) (Comrey, 1970). Their results showed that POI scales Self-Regard (Sr), Spontaneity (S) and Acceptance of Aggression (A) were the three scales most highly related ( $r = 0,41, 0,37$  and  $0,34$  respectively) to the Comrey Personality Inventory extraversion versus introversion scale (E).

Bloxom (1972) reported that the Inner Directed (I) scale of the POI was found to be negatively correlated with neuroticism, dogmatism and the (D) depression, (Pt) Psychasthenia and (Si) social-introversion scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) (Hathaway & McKinley, 1970).

Concerned with finding personality correlates of self-actualization using the Cattell 16 PF test, Grossack, Armstrong and Lussiev (1972) reported a negative correlation of  $- 0,29$  between Self-Actualization (SAV) and Factor Q4: Tense, Driven and Overwrought.

In another study relating POI variables to the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16Pf) (Cattell & Eber, 1957), Meredith (1967) reported correlations ranging in magnitude up to  $0,44$ . Considering the major POI scale of Inner-Directed (I), significant correlations against 16PF scales depicted the self-actualizing students as active, ascendant, sociable, emotionally stable and objective (Meredith, 1967).

Correlations between the other major POI scale, Time Competence (TC) and 16PF temperament scales, showed that those whose primary orientations is in the present are described from the 16PF as assertive, happy-go-lucky, venturesome, trusting and self-assured (Meredith, 1967).

The results of this study are of great significance to this

research. The details of the results are presented in Table 4.5 and 4.6. Only the significant correlations between the POI scales and the 16Pf are summarized in these tables.

**TABLE 4.5** CORRELATIONS OF PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY SCALES AGAINST THE SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE \*

POI	SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE															
	A	B	C	E	F	G	H	I	L	M	N	O	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
TC	11	16	17	30	26	02	29	04	-31	02	09	-30	13	08	10	-29
I	09	05	19	42	32	-24	39	04	-14	05	03	-29	14	-08	-04	-15
SAV	15	10	15	31	22	00	40	02	-12	-07	00	-17	13	-12	03	-12
Ex	-05	-10	06	29	24	-39	13	06	-06	02	03	-18	05	03	-15	-05
Fr	-05	-10	11	30	18	-10	17	-01	-02	05	00	-15	10	-07	-03	02
S	07	03	17	35	33	-23	38	-01	-08	02	06	-23	13	-16	-11	-10
Sr	13	14	36	30	23	09	44	-05	-28	-12	12	-36	11	-12	24	-33
Sa	13	03	12	24	25	-18	22	08	-12	10	06	-19	06	00	-01	-09
Nc	12	16	18	00	08	-06	05	13	-26	-14	03	-21	10	-03	09	-13
Sy	09	13	14	19	17	-10	20	-07	-07	-06	05	-16	08	-07	-06	-03
A	01	-04	15	39	24	-08	30	-12	04	04	03	-08	04	-11	-08	07
C	-05	01	08	33	20	-20	25	01	-06	09	01	-19	13	-03	-10	-09

Source: Meredith (1967, p.27). \* Decimals have been omitted.

**TABLE 4.6** RELATIONSHIP OF SELF-ACTUALIZATION AS MEASURED BY THE PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY AND THE SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

**PART A:**

SHOSTROM (POI)	CATTELL (16Pf)
TC TIME COMPETENCE	Assertive (E: 0,30) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,26) Venturesome (H: 0,29) Trusting (L: -0,31) Self-Assured (O: -0,30) Relaxed (Q4: -0,29)
I INNER-DIRECTED	Assertive (E: 0,42) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,32) Expedient (G: -0,24) Venturesome (H: 0,39) Self-Assured (O: -0,29)
SAV SELF-ACTUALIZING VALUES	Assertive (E: 0,31) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,22) Venturesome (H: 0,40)
Ex EXISTENTIALITY	Assertive (E: 0,29) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,24) Expedient (G: -0,39)
Fr FEELING REACTIVITY	Assertive (E: 0,30)



## PART B:

S SPONTANEITY	Assertive (E: 0,35) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,33) Expedient (G: -0,23) Venturesome (H: 0,38) Self-Assured (O: -0,23)
Sr SELF-REGARD	Emotionally Stable (C:0,36) Assertive (E: 0,30) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,23) Venturesome (H: 0,44) Trusting (L: -0,28) Self-Assured (O: -0,36) Controlled (Q3: 0,24) Relaxed (Q4: -0,33)
Sa SELF-ACCEPTANCE	Assertive (E: 0,24) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,25) Venturesome (H: 0,22)
Nc NATURE OF MAN - CONSTRUCTIVE	Trusting (L: -0,26) Self-Assured (O: -0,21)
A ACCEPTANCE OF AGGRESSION	Assertive (E: 0,39) Happy-go-lucky (F: 0,24) Venturesome (H: 0,30)
C CAPACITY FOR INTIMATE CONTACT	Assertive (E: 0,33) Venturesome (H: 0,25)

Source: Knapp (1976, p.83).

Only relationships significant at the 0,01 confidence level or beyond are tabled. Factor titles are typed to reflect direction of relationship. Factor identification and the correlation coefficient is presented in parentheses following the title.

In summary, "the validity of the scales of the POI is good" (Coan, 1972, p.292-294). Jones and Crandall (1986) concluded that the validity studies of the POI have demonstrated its soundness as a research tool.

Since the development of the POI, a large number of validating

studies have been conducted and only a few have been mentioned for the purposes of this research. Maslow (1971, p.28) states that "self-actualization can now be defined quiet operationally, as intelligence used to be defined, i.e., self-actualization is what the test tests. It correlates well with external variables of various kinds and keeps on accumulating additional correlational meanings".

#### **4.10. CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF EXISTING RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY STUDIES OF THE POI**

Despite generally positive results, it cannot be concluded that the POI has no methodological flaws. Some of the issues mentioned below are the personal viewpoints of researchers and therefore should be seen and understood in such a way. One recurring problem according to Ryckman (1989), is that subjects can deliberately fake their responses in ways designed to elicit positive impressions from others. In other words, subjects that are familiar with the literature of humanistic psychology can deliberately present themselves as actualized when in fact they are not.

Another problem in the opinion of Ryckman (1989) is that subjects generally do not like to respond to forced-choice questionnaires because they feel that such instruments often do not provide them with an opportunity to present their feelings and opinions on a given topic fully and accurately.

- eg. a. I can cope with the ups and downs of life.
- b. I cannot cope with the ups and downs of life.

Ryckman (1989) points out that a subject might be able to cope with the downs of life when they involve schoolwork but not when they involve the loss of a close friend.

According to Weiss (1991, p.265), "the measurement of self-actualization is an elusive quest that cannot succeed until the extensive fragmentation and conflict about its theory and construct definition are resolved". Weiss (1991) feels that

validity of the POI has not been satisfactorily demonstrated. Also, reliance on correlation of proposed self-actualization measures with a network of accepted valid tests, measuring attributes other than self-actualization, was a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for validation. Weiss (1991) continues in saying that the POI itself may not be measuring self-actualization, but possibly some correlate(s) of it. Weiss (1991, p.265) concludes: "It is recommended that past research findings based on self-actualization tests of doubtful validity be reassessed to determine their present impact. It may be that previously unsupported hypotheses deserve another chance and that new directions for study may be discovered".

Ray (1986) is of the opinion that there is a lack of data on the reliability of the scales in the POI and says that the little data available shows the scales as being vastly less reliable than is usually required in an instrument used for individual diagnosis or even for research into group characteristics.

Hattie (1986) contrary to Ray (1986), claims that the POI has generally good psychometric properties. The factor structure is well identified and meaningful and the construct validity convincing.

In conclusion, the many investigations based on the POI, some of them discussed in earlier chapters, have established that it has satisfactory reliability and validity. However, cognisance needs to be taken of the criticism voiced regarding the POI. A new attempt has been made to improve the POI by extending and refining the concepts of self-actualizing as measured by it. The new instrument called the Personal Orientation Dimensions (POD) by Shostrom (1977) has many scales which are conceptually similar to ones in the POI and studies to establish the reliability and validity of the POD have been undertaken. In the opinion of Ryckman (1989), researchers will continue to use the POI until they are convinced that the POD has more adequate psychometric properties.

#### 4.11. SUMMARY

The main focus in this chapter was on the POI itself. The development, rationale and description of the instrument was discussed as a starting point. Thereafter, considerable emphasis was placed on the scales of the POI as well as the administration and interpretation. This was followed by previous research on the POI with special attention given to reliability and validity studies. It was pointed out that no recent literature on reliability and validity studies regarding the POI could be found. The chapter concluded with a critical analysis of existing reliability and validity of the POI.

**CHAPTER 5****EMPIRICAL STUDY**

Although the establishment of normative data for South African samples is a necessary stage in standardizing the local use of the POI, it is initially important to establish how reliable and valid the test is with regard to its use in South Africa. This is therefore a replication study to investigate the reliability and validity of the POI using a South African sample. The major purpose of this research would therefore be, to assess the reliability of the POI in terms of Test - Retest Stability Coefficients and secondly, to determine the validity of the POI, using the process of construct validation.

**5.1. AIM OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY**

The empirical aim of this research is:-

1. To ascertain the reliability of the POI using South African samples and to compare the results to similar studies administered overseas.
2. To ascertain the validity of the POI using South African samples and to compare the results to similar studies administered overseas.

**5.2. THE SAMPLE**

A total sample of 317 subjects was used for the purposes of the empirical study. This sample consisted of both male and female university and college students and also national servicemen, ranging in age from 17 to 22 years.

For the test-retest reliability research, 124 male and female subjects coming from the total sample of 317 were used while for the validity research, 193 male subjects, also coming from the total sample of 317 subjects, were used.

The choice of the 317 person sample was based on the need to cater for the following:-

- central location of i.e. University, College, Military Institution, thus enabling selection of volunteer subjects as well as easier administration of the testing instruments over the specified time interval.
- the POI seems to be an appropriate instrument to measure mental health in an undergraduate or college population (Frankenberg, 1972).

Constraint affecting the sample was difficulty in finding volunteers to take part in the administration of the testing instruments.

### **5.3. RESEARCH PROCEDURE**

The POI was initially administered to a total sample of 317 subjects under standard psychometric circumstances in order to obtain the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among the scores.

In determining the reliability and validity of the POI, the research procedure was carried out according to the following steps:-

1. A thorough understanding of the personality concept and optimal development as depicted in Humanistic Psychology was presented (as in chapter two).
2. The term self-actualization was explained and discussed in great detail (as in chapter three).
3. The Personal Orientation Inventory was described with special reference to previous research on reliability and validity (as in chapter four).
4. For determining the reliability, 124 male and female

subjects taken from the total sample of 317 subjects, were tested and then again re-tested with the POI, over an interval of ten days. Prior to the second administration, the subjects were instructed to respond to the items as they felt about them at the moment rather than trying to recall the responses which they recorded during the first administration.

5. For determining the validity, a sample of 193 national servicemen was used. Both the POI and the Sixteen Factor Personality Questionnaire (16PF) were administered to them.
6. From these administrations of the POI and the 16PF, the results will be reported.
7. From these results the conclusions and recommendations concerning reliability and validity of the POI will be formulated.

#### **5.4. THE SIXTEEN FACTOR PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE (16PF)**

The following is a summary of the 16PF. As the main focus in this research is on the Personal Orientation Inventory, only a summary of the relevant 16PF information will be given.

##### **5.4.1. DEVELOPMENT OF THE 16PF**

The 16 PF was developed in 1949 by Raymond Cattell through factor analysis of items that were designed to measure personality source traits. Source traits are believed to be inherent traits, underlying the more manifest behavioural traits (Spangenberg, 1990). The 16PF has undergone five revisions since its original publication and has been adapted for South African use (Gouws et al., 1979).

##### **5.4.2. RATIONALE OF THE 16PF**

The 16PF attempts through means of a multidimensional set of questionnaire scales, namely 16 primary (first order) and 8

secondary (second order) factors, to make information available about an individual's broad personality functioning (Cattell et al., 1970).

Rather than being seen as a clinical measuring instrument that looks at serious pathology and deviations from the normal mental health, the 16PF has been constructed for the measurement of strengths and weaknesses in the normal person. This information can be used in practice in order to facilitate an understanding and evaluation of general personal functioning in the clinical situation, vocational guidance, training and self-development (Cattell et al., 1970).

#### **5.4.3. DESCRIPTION OF THE 16PF**

The 16PF is, in a sense, a standardized, systematic, impersonal interview (Pervin, 1975). It is structured in that there are but three alternative responses to each item and it is voluntary in that the subject is free to choose his own response rather than to give a correct response. The test is direct and nondisguised in the sense that the subject knows that this is a test of his personality, and he may in some cases be able to discern the significance of an individual item, though in many cases the relevance of items to personality characteristics is not apparent (Cattell et al., 1970; Pervin, 1975). The response sheet of the subject is objectively scored by hand or as in the case here in South Africa, the scale itself is computerised for faster application, marking and specific profile printouts (Owen & Taljaard, 1988). The test yields scores for the subject on 16 personality dimensions or factors. These are assumed to take cognisance of the total personality in all of its main dimensions (Pervin, 1975).

The test material of the 16PF consists of a test booklet, an answer sheet (for either hand or machine scoring), set of scoring stencils, profile sheets and norm tables. The test booklet for forms A and B contains 187 items. Only these two forms have been standardized for South African purposes.



## 5.4.4. SCALES OF THE 16PF

The 16PF consists of the following bipolar factors:

- 16 primary personality factors or traits
- 8 secondary factors

The 16 primary personality factors are:

		<u>LOW SCORE:</u>	<u>HIGH SCORE:</u>
A:	Warmth:	Reserved	Outgoing
B:	Intelligence:	Less intelligent	More intelligent
C:	Emotional stability:	Affected by feelings	Emotionally stable
E:	Dominance:	Humble	Assertive
F:	Impulsivity	Sober	Happy-go-lucky
G:	Conformity:	Expedient	Conscientious
H:	Boldness:	Shy	Venturesome
I:	Sensitivity:	Tough-minded	Tender-minded
L:	Suspiciousness:	Trusting	Suspicious
M:	Imagination:	Practical	Imaginative
N:	Shrewdness:	Forthright	Astute
O:	Insecurity:	Self-assured	Apprehensive
Q1:	Radicalism:	Conservative	Experimenting
Q2:	Self-sufficiency:	Group-dependent	Self-sufficient

Q3: Self-discipline:	Undisciplined	Controlled
	self-conflict	
Q4: Tension:	Relaxed	Tense

Although the 16PF handbook (Cattell et al., 1970) describes eight second order factors, only four factors are commonly used, i.e. Extraversion (QI), Anxiety (QII), Tough Poise (QIII), and Independence (QIV) (Spangenberg, 1990).

The 16PF furthermore contains three validity scales, i.e. a fake-bad scale, a random response scale, and a motivational distortion (fake-good) scale. The fake-good scale is most valuable in personnel selection where applicants may attempt to create a favourable impression (Spangenberg, 1990).

#### 5.4.5. ADMINISTRATION OF THE 16PF

The 16PF questionnaire is a C-level test and can be completed within 50 - 60 minutes. The test can be administered to an individual or a group (Cattell et al., 1970). Instructions for application and completion of the 16PF appear in the reusable test booklet. The subject can read the instructions in the test booklet himself and then answer the questions on his own separate answer sheet by indicating to what extent every question is applicable to his behaviour. The test is marked with the aid of the scoring stencils. The raw scores are then converted to the sten scores by using the norm tables and a profile of the primary factors is plotted. The secondary factors and validity scores are calculated by using specific combinations of the above mentioned sten scores (Cattell et al., 1970).

#### 5.4.6. INTERPRETATION OF THE 16PF

The primary factors are with the help of the profile, and the secondary factors according to the scores, interpreted as follows: a sten score of one, two or three, points to the presence of a negative loading on the source trait, a score of eight, nine or ten to a positive loading and four, five, six and

seven to an average loading on the source trait.

For interpretive purposes, the subject's scores are plotted on a profile sheet. Interpretation, diagnosis and prediction can then proceed, with objective detachment, on the basis of a statistical analysis of profile scores (Pervin, 1975).

Further processing leads to the calculation of the second-order factors (a combination of scores from the primary factors). In practice, other types of combinations of scores or profiles are frequently calculated as an indication of specific types of behavioural traits such as interpersonal relations, leadership, neuroticism, accident proneness, potential for success, and ability to adapt (Krug, 1981).

For further interpretation purposes, each factor gets discussed in great detail in the handbook of the 16PF (Cattell et al., 1970).

#### **5.4.7. PREVIOUS RESEARCH**

The 16PF and the Personal Orientation Inventory have been used together in research (Cattell & Eber, 1957; Grossack et al., 1972; Meredith, 1967; Osborne & Steeves, 1981).

#### **5.4.8. RELIABILITY OF THE 16PF**

Scale reliabilities as measured by dependability and stability quotients seem acceptable (Spangenberg, 1990). Dependability coefficients (test-retest with less than two month interval) for form A (Canadian subjects,  $n = 243$ ) varied between 0,72 for Tension to 0,92 for Boldness with a median of 0,82 (Zuckerman, 1985). Cattell et al. (1970) refers to test-retest reliability correlations ranging from 0,58 to 0,88 with a two month interval between the administrations.

#### **5.4.9. VALIDITY OF THE 16PF**

The main evidence for validity lies in the factor analytic

construction of the test (Maas, 1980; Pervin, 1975). Many of the factors correspond to those derived from rating and experimental data, which lend support to their validity. Many potential applications of the test are cited (in clinical, educational, and industrial settings), and it is described as being preferable to the crystal ball guesses involved in the use of unreliable projective methods, but its validity in these areas remains to be demonstrated (Pervin, 1975). The 16PF has been described by Adcock (1965, p.197) as follows: "No other test covers such a wide range of personality dimensions and never before have the dimensions been so meticulously determined".

### 5.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Having evaluated all the different reliability methods already mentioned in chapter one, a decision was made, taking into cognisance the nature of this research, to concentrate on reliability determined from a repetition of the same test only. In other words, using the test-retest reliability method.

Support for this decision was given by Van Wyk (1978, p. 117) who said: "Aangesien die POI as 'n heterogene toets bestempel kan word, is 'n hertoetsbetroubaarheids-koëffisient 'n beter aanduiding van die betroubaarheid van die POI as 'n K-R 20 - koëffisient of 'n verdeelde - helfte betroubaarheidskoëffisient".

For the purposes of this research, the time interval in the test-retest administration was ten days. Support for this was given by previous research on the POI (as explained in chapter 4.8).

With reference to validity, Shostrom (1974) mentions that validity should discriminate between individuals who have been observed in their life behaviour to have attained a relatively high level of self-actualizing from those who have not so evidenced such development. This ideal validity was however due to various constraints, such as finding a sample of self-actualized individuals, beyond the scope and nature of this research.

Instead, concurrent validity was used to determine how well the POI correlates with other measures purporting to measure similar traits. Since there are no other instruments available specifically designed to measure the concept of self-actualizing (Knapp, 1976; Van Wyk, 1978), this evidence of validity must rely primarily upon correlations with other standard personality inventories such as the Sixteen Factor Personality Questionnaire (16PF). The POI was therefore, for the purposes of this research, correlated with the Sixteen Factor Personality Questionnaire.

The scores, comprising of 124 POI test-retest administrations and 193 POI and 16PF administrations, were captured onto a database. For the statistical analysis of the data, the SAS - programme (SAS - Institute, 1985) was used.

In choosing the significance level, the researcher had to decide on how small the probability of the sample result under the null hypothesis should be in order to warrant the rejection of the null hypothesis. According to Huysamen (1989), in social and behavioural research, the null hypothesis would be rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis, if the value of the test statistic has a probability under the null hypothesis of at most 0,05. Kerlinger (1986) reports that with 100 pairs of measures at the 0,05 level, a correlation coefficient of 0,16 is sufficient. If the correlation coefficient is less than this value, it is considered to be not significant.

For the purposes of this empirical study, it was therefore accepted to report and use all correlation coefficients greater than 0,18.

## **5.6. HYPOTHESIS**

The null hypothesis is denoted by  $H_0$  and the alternative hypothesis by  $H_1$ . The null hypothesis is the hypothesis which is being tested, and the alternative hypothesis is the hypothesis which will be tenable if the null hypothesis is rejected on the basis of sample evidence.

This section is presented in two parts, namely, the reliability hypothesis and the validity hypothesis.

#### **5.6.1. RELIABILITY HYPOTHESIS:**

**Ho:** No correlation exists between the first POI administration on all 12 scales and the second POI administration on all 12 scales (Ho 1 - Ho 12). Any correlation could be because of chance factors.

**H1:** There is a significant correlation between the first POI administration on all 12 scales and the second POI administration on all 12 scales (H1 1 - H1 12).

#### **5.6.2. VALIDITY HYPOTHESIS:**

**Ho:** No correlation exists between the scales of the POI and those of the 16PF. Any correlation could be because of chance factors.

**H1:** There are significant correlations between the POI scales and the scales of the 16PF.

### **5.7. RESEARCH RESULTS**

In this section, the results of the empirical study will be presented as per hypothesis - the reliability hypothesis and the validity hypothesis. The results for each hypothesis will be reported as per table and should the Ho be rejected, then the H1 will be accepted. Interpretation of results in terms of exactly what is being measured will be given and discussed as per hypothesis heading and then finally linked to the theory as given in chapters two, three and four.

The number of items, means and standard deviations for the sample of 317 subjects is given in Table 5.1 and Table 5.2. The intercorrelations among the POI scales are presented in Table 5.3. As this information doesn't form part of the empirical study, the interpretation and discussion regarding Table 5.1,

Table 5.2 and Table 5.3 will be of a limited scale. The focus will be on the reliability (Table 5.4) and validity (Table 5.5) results.

**TABLE 5.1** ITEMS, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS AMONG THE POI SCALES (N = 317): ALSO CONVERTED STANDARD SCORES FOR POI PROFILE

SCALE	M	STANDARD SCORES	SD
TC	15,72	43	3,43
I	79,60	44	11,38
SAV	19,25	47	2,88
Ex	17,49	42	4,83
Fr	14,53	47	2,98
S	11,96	51	2,49
Sr	11,88	49	2,04
Sa	14,87	45	3,47
Nc	11,30	44	1,88
Sy	6,60	46	1,50
A	15,48	46	3,41
C	16,98	45	3,89

Findings from the present study for the means and standard deviations as shown in Table 5.1, compare favourably with the POI profiles for an Entering College Freshman sample given by Knapp (1976). The results are slightly lower than those demonstrated by Shostrom (1974) for the POI profile of a normal American adult sample.

The research results are thus in this regard consistent with the observations made by Maslow (1970, p. 150), who in searching on a college campus for self-actualized subjects stated: "I had to conclude that self-actualization of the sort I had found in my older subjects perhaps was not possible in our society for young, developing people". As pointed out by Knapp (1976, p.35), "in

comparison to adult samples, early college mean scores fall generally in a T-score range of 40 to 45". This compares well with the present research results as shown in Table 5.1.

**TABLE 5.2** ITEMS, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS AMONG THE 16 PF SCALES (N = 193).

SCALE	MEAN	SD
A: Warmth	5,90	2,27
B: Intelligence	4,55	2,14
C: Emotional Stability	5,16	1,90
E: Dominance	5,23	3,76
F: Impulsivity	5,94	5,94
G: Conformity	5,84	6,19
H: Boldness	6,23	7,85
I: Sensitivity	6,63	7,69
L: Suspiciousness	5,22	2,78
M: Imagination	6,35	6,17
N: Shrewdness	5,69	4,81
O: Insecurity	6,19	4,07
Q1: Radicalism	6,47	4,63
Q2: Self-sufficiency	5,50	6,51
Q3: Self-discipline	5,68	2,18
Q4: Tension	5,67	1,67
Extraversion	5,23	5,23
Anxiety	6,35	6,36
Cortical Alertness	5,66	1,67
Neuroticism	5,50	6,52



**TABLE 5.3** INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY SCALES (N = 317)

	I	S A V	Ex	Fr	S	Sr	Sa	Nc	Sy	A	C
TC	58	48	52	35	45	46	50	24	47	40	53
I		68	81	74	72	62	73	46	58	74	83
S A V			46	44	58	59	34	44	63	45	49
Ex				58	52	36	63	15	54	62	75
Fr					56	34	48	14	34	71	66
S						48	49	20	39	53	58
Sr							35	36	36	35	46
Sa								11	36	58	62
Nc									43	10	18
Sy										44	45
A											64

**NOTE:** Decimal point has been omitted in the Table.

The intercorrelations among the Personal Orientation Inventory scales as shown in Table 5.3, compare well with other intercorrelation studies (Knapp, 1976; Martin, Blair, Rudolph & Melman, 1981).

On closer inspection of Table 5.3, it can be seen that the intercorrelations seem to be fairly high. Eight out of the eleven inter-correlations between Inner Directed (I) and the other scales exceed 0,6 and thirty intercorrelations are higher than 0,5.

According to Bloxom (1972), these higher inter-correlations among the Personal Orientation Inventory scales should be expected because of the larger number of shared items.

Some of the inter-correlations approximate the scale's reliabilities, indicating that a number of the subscales lack unique variance. Most striking are the consistently high correlations with Inner Direction (I) and to somewhat lesser degree with Time Competence (TC) and Self-Actualization Value (SAV).

Silverstein and Fisher (1968) pointed out that the POI really does not measure many orthogonal traits but rather several overlapping characteristics. As expected, present findings tend to show that the more items two scales share, the higher their correlation and that the more items within a particular scale, the higher its correlation with other scales.

#### 5.7.1. RELIABILITY HYPOTHESIS

Table 5.4 presents the test-retest reliability correlations as well as the means and standard deviations for both the test and retest administration of the POI.

The data shown in Table 5.4 presents the test-retest reliability coefficients for the two major scales Time Competence (TC) and Inner Directed (I) as 0,73 and 0,82 respectively. Both these reliability coefficients compare favourably with the study by Van Wyk (1978) and previous overseas research results (Klavetter & Mogar, 1967; Ilardi & May, 1968; Wise & Davis, 1975), as discussed in chapter four.

Somewhat lower reliability coefficients for the other minor scales were obtained. These reliability coefficients ranged from the lowest being the scale Nature of Man (Nc) (0,41) to Existentiality (Ex) (0,68).

According to the present research results, the two major scales can be described as displaying good reliability, although this cannot be said of the subscales. A possible explanation for lower reliability coefficients on the A and Fr scales, namely 0,47 and 0,50 respectively, could be that these scales measure variables that are affect-related and, as such, may be measuring

fluctuations in mood states from test to retest administration.

**TABLE 5.4** PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY SCALE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR FIRST AND SECOND ADMINISTRATIONS; TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR THE TWO ADMINISTRATIONS (N = 124)

SCALE	TEST SESSION	MEAN	STANDARD DEV.	TEST - RETEST
TC	1	15,96	3,53	0,73
	2	15,90	3,70	
I	1	82,31	11,53	0,82
	2	83,41	12,28	
SAV	1	19,70	2,85	0,58
	2	19,91	2,87	
Ex	1	18,92	4,67	0,68
	2	19,04	4,87	
Fr	1	15,12	3,11	0,50
	2	15,66	3,12	
S	1	11,96	2,68	0,62
	2	12,78	2,82	
Sr	1	12,07	2,04	0,50
	2	12,20	2,29	
Sa	1	15,09	3,50	0,66
	2	15,28	3,44	
Nc	1	11,54	1,83	0,41
	2	11,62	2,09	
Sy	1	6,75	1,55	0,63
	2	6,90	1,38	
A	1	15,62	3,61	0,47
	2	16,06	3,29	
C	1	17,65	4,21	0,57
	2	18,12	4,25	

In terms of the results presented in Table 5.4, the  $H_0$  (reliability) is rejected and the  $H_1$  (reliability) accepted.

The lower reliability of 0,41 on the Nc scale, is according to Bloxom (1972) not clear and unexplainable. In scoring answer sheets for the POI, Forest and Sicz (1980) however noted an apparent tendency for certain questions to be left blank or double marked more frequently than others. The subscale most appearing in this tendency was the Nature of Man (Nc) scale. It was found by Forest and Sicz (1980) that subjects had difficulty in answering items dealing with constructive view of man. This finding is also consistent with results in the POI manual (Shostrom, 1974, p.24) which indicated that the Nature of Man (Nc) scale was the only one that did not discriminate between nominated groups of self-actualizers and non-self-actualizers.

Another explanation for lower reliability results could be attributed to the fact, as also supported by Raanan (1973), that the number of items for some of the subscales are too low. Damm (1969) suggests that the scale of Inner Directed (I) most likely represents the best overall measure of the POI. It also contains the largest number of items (127) and overlaps most heavily with the other scales, which, as Tosi and Hoffman (1972) have suggested, may not be sufficiently discriminating.

Cohen et al. (1988) states that a low estimate of test-retest reliability may be found even when the interval between testings, as in the case of the present study, is relatively brief - this if the tests happen to be conducted during a time of developmental change or experience. An evaluation of a test-retest reliability coefficient must therefore extend beyond the significance of the obtained coefficient; it must extend to a consideration of possible intervening factors between test administration if proper conclusions about the reliability of the POI are to be made. As pointed out by Knapp (1976), the POI is highly sensitive to experiences during the interval between the first and second administration.

A possible intervening factor in the case of the sample used for the purposes of this research, could have been general university and college educational experiences. The test-retest administration took place early in the academic year, meaning that certain stressors, such as the new demands of the academic year lying ahead as well as having to deal with unfamiliar surroundings and exposures, especially for the first year students, could have affected the POI reliability results. As pointed out by Ghiselli (1964), even when the time period between the two administrations of the test is relatively small, various factors such as experience, practice, memory, fatigue and motivation, may be operative and render confounded an obtained measure of reliability.

With this, the first empirical aim (as formulated in chapter 1.3.2.) is concluded.

#### **5.7.2. VALIDITY HYPOTHESIS**

Table 5.5 presents the correlation of the POI scales to the dimensions measured by the 16PF. Due to the length of the data presented in Table 5.5, the Table is divided into three parts, namely the 16PF factors A - I (part 1), L - Q4 (part 2) and second order factors (part 3). In part 3, only four second order factors and six POI-scales are given.

**TABLE 5.5 CORRELATIONS OF PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY SCALES  
AGAINST THE SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE**

\* Decimal points have been omitted

**Part 1: \***

	A	B	C	E	F	G	H	I
Tc	11	12	29	32	20	00	21	- 06
I	09	04	22	30	26	00	36	01
SAV	10	09	19	21	28	02	34	09
Ex	- 04	- 07	07	12	19	- 24	12	02
Fr	01	- 05	23	32	16	01	16	03
S	09	02	07	38	21	- 11	29	02
Sr	21	16	21	23	26	10	26	- 03
Sa	16	- 02	18	17	24	02	19	05
Nc	08	16	14	- 01	01	02	10	13
Sy	08	11	10	19	15	- 06	15	- 10
A	11	- 04	22	31	27	- 07	26	- 07
C	- 11	03	06	34	11	- 10	33	09

**Part 2: \***

	L	M	N	O	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Tc	- 23	07	03	- 23	11	08	04	- 34
I	- 11	02	01	- 24	15	- 03	- 03	- 18
SAV	- 21	- 05	01	- 10	09	- 06	03	- 20
Ex	- 07	08	08	- 09	- 03	01	- 29	09
Fr	- 03	01	02	- 02	00	- 04	- 07	- 01
S	- 05	01	01	- 22	03	00	01	- 03
Sr	- 21	02	16	- 23	14	- 06	18	- 32
Sa	02	07	01	09	13	- 02	- 09	- 11
Nc	- 22	- 12	01	11	00	01	08	- 09
Sy	- 19	- 12	07	- 10	01	- 12	- 02	- 08
A	- 07	09	08	- 14	02	- 11	- 12	- 06
C	- 18	13	09	- 18	14	- 14	- 07	- 12

Part 3: \*

## SECOND ORDER FACTORS:

	EXTRA- VERSION	ANXIETY	CORTIC. ALERTN.	NEURO- TICISM
<b>Tc</b>	08	- 31	20	- 28
<b>I</b>	29	- 23	22	- 37
<b>SAV</b>	19	- 22	24	- 34
<b>Sr</b>	37	- 34	19	- 50
<b>A</b>	25	- 08	14	- 23
<b>C</b>	26	- 16	09	- 24

For easier reference and clarification, the results displayed in Table 5.5 are summarized and presented in Table 5.6. Only the significant correlations as discussed in chapter 5.5 have been given. Factor titles are typed to reflect the direction of the relationship and these also include the four selected second order factors of the 16Pf. Factor identification and the correlation is presented following the title.

**TABLE 5.6** SUMMARY OF CORRELATIONS OF PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY SCALES AGAINST THE SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

SHOSTROM (POI)	CATTELL (16PF)
Tc = Time Competence	Emotional Stability: C = 0,29  Dominant, Assertive: E = 0,32  Carefree Approach: F = 0,20  Venturesome: H = 0,21  Suspicious: L = -0,23  Insecure, Depressive: O = -0,23  Tense, Overwrought: Q4 = -0,34  Anxiety: -0,31 Neuroticism: -0,28 Cortical Alert: 0,20
I = Inner Directed	Emotional Stability: C = 0,22  Dominant, Assertive: E = 0,30  Cheerful, Enthusiastic: F = 0,26  Venturesome: H = 0,36  Insecure, Depressive: O = -0,24  Tense, Overwrought: Q4 = -0,18  Extraversion: 0,29 Anxiety: -0,23 Cortical Alert: 0,22 Neuroticism: -0,37



SAV = Self-actualizing	Emotional Stability: C = 0,19  Dominant, Assertive: E = 0,21  Carefree Approach: F = 0,28  Venturesome: H = 0,34  Suspicious: L = -0,21  Tense, Overwrought: Q4 = -0,20  Extraversion: 0,19 Anxiety: -0,22 Cortical Alert: 0,24 Neuroticism: -0,34
A = Acceptance of Aggression	Emotional Stability: C = 0,22  Dominant, Assertive: E = 0,31  Carefree Approach: F = 0,27  Venturesome: H = 0,26  Extraversion: 0,25 Neuroticism: -0,23
C = Capacity for Intimate Contact	Dominant, Assertive: E = 0,34  Venturesome: H = 0,33  Suspicious: L = -0,18  Insecure, Guilt proness: O = -0,18  Extraversion: 0,26 Anxiety: -0,16 Neuroticism: -0,24

Ex = Existentiality	Carefree Approach: F = 0,19  Persistent, Rule-bound: G = -0,24  Controlled, Compulsive: Q3 = -0,29
Fr = Feeling Reactivity	Emotional Stability: C = 0,23  Dominant, Assertive: E = 0,32
Sr = Self Regard	Sociable, Warm: A = 0,21  Suspicious: L = -0,21  Emotional Stability: C = 0,21  Dominant: E = 0,23  Cheerful, Enthusiastic: F = 0,26  Venturesome: H = 0,26  Insecure, Guilt proness: O = -0,23  Tense, Overwrought: Q4 = -0,32  Extraversion: 0,37 Anxiety: -0,34 Neuroticism: -0,50
S = Spontaneity	Dominant, Assertive: E = 0,38  Carefree Approach: F = 0,21  Venturesome: H = 0,29  Insecure, Guilt proness: O = -0,22
Sa = Self Acceptance	Carefree Approach: F = 0,24  Venturesome: H = 0,19
Nc = Nature of Man	Suspicious: L = -0,22

In terms of the results presented in Tables 5.5 and 5.6, the Ho (validity) is rejected and the H1 (validity) accepted.

The correlations between the POI scales and the dimensions of the 16PF had a range in magnitude from - 0,50 to 0,38. This was found to be between the POI scale Self-regard (Sr) and the 16PF second order dimension Neuroticism and between the POI scale Spontaneity (S) and the 16PF dimension Dominance (E).

With closer inspection, it seems to be that the correlations of the POI scales against those of the 16PF, as presented in Table 5.6, demonstrate results similar to those found in overseas validity research (Grossack et al., 1972; Knapp, 1965; Meredith, 1967; Osborne & Steeves, 1981) (ref. chapter 4.9).

The two major POI scales of Time Competence (TC) and Inner Direction (I) relate to emotional stability and calmness, extraversion, assertiveness, cheerfulness and enthusiasm as well as a lack of being suspicious, insecure and depressed or the showing of neurotic tendencies and anxiety symptoms. Results given in Table 5.6 show that the dimensions of Neuroticism and Anxiety are negatively correlated with all the POI scales, indicating that self-actualizing value is related to the lack of neurotic and anxiety tendencies and symptoms, as supported by Maslow's theory in describing mentally healthy people.

The personality profile of a neurotic person, emerging from a study by Osborne and Steeves (1981), reveals that he is likely to be time-incompetent, other directed, lacking self-regard, self-acceptance and the capacity for intimate contact. The results of Table 5.6 support this finding as can be seen by the overwhelming negative correlations between the POI scales and the 16 PF second order factor of neuroticism.

In addition, negative correlations were found between nearly all the POI scales and the 16 PF factors of Suspiciousness (L): Self-Opinionated; Insecure (O): Apprehensive and Depressive; and Tense (Q4): Driven and Overwrought. The TC scale of the POI showed negative correlations of - 0,23, - 0,23 and - 0,34 against the

16 PF factors mentioned above while the I scale of the POI revealed a negative correlation of - 0,24 against the 16 PF factor of Insecure (O): Apprehensive and Depressive.

With reference to the other scales of the POI, positive correlations were reflected against the following 16 PF factors: emotionally stable and calm (C), assertive (E), extraversion (2nd. order), warmhearted, sociable and outgoing (A), cheerful and enthusiastic (F) and venturesome (H).

Negative correlations were found between the POI scales and the 16 PF factors of suspicious and self-Opinionated (L), insecure, apprehensive, depressive and guilt proneness (O), tense and overwrought (Q4). Further negative correlations against the second order factors of the 16 PF were found, namely between the Sr scale and neuroticism (- 0,50) and also anxiety (- 0,22) as well as between the SAV scale and anxiety (- 0,22) and neuroticism (- 0,34).

It is fairly clear from the results presented in Table 5.5 that evidence of construct validity for the POI using South African samples can be claimed.

With this, the second empirical aim (as formulated in chapter 1.3.2.) is concluded.

## **5.8. AIMS REVISITED**

The general aim of this study was to investigate the reliability and validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory using South African samples.

Specific aims included two theoretical aims and two empirical aims. The theoretical aims were to provide a framework allowing firstly, for the understanding of personality as presented in the humanistic paradigm and secondly, for the classification of the concept self-actualization as depicted by the humanistic theorists, namely Allport, Rogers and Maslow. The empirical aims were to ascertain the reliability and validity of the Personal

Orientation Inventory, using South African samples and then to compare these results to similar studies administered overseas.

Chapter 2 achieves the aim of providing a framework for the understanding of personality in the humanistic paradigm. Chapter 3 fulfills the aim of classifying the term self-actualization. In Chapter 4, which forms part of the empirical aim, the measurement of self-actualization using the Personal Orientation Inventory is covered. Chapter 5 concludes the empirical aim by presenting the reliability and validity results.

The conclusion and recommendations are dealt with in the sections to follow.

#### **5.9. CONCLUSION**

On average, the reliability and validity coefficients for the POI as a whole have been found in research done in the United States of America and other countries, to range from moderate to high (Bloxom, 1972; Ghiselli, 1964; Grossack et al., 1972; Ilardi & May, 1967; Knapp, 1965; Knapp & Comrey, 1973; Meredith, 1967; Osborne & Steeves, 1981; Shostrom & Knapp, 1966). It could however not be assumed that these findings should also be applicable to the South African situation.

The present study was therefore designed to confirm previous research done overseas on reliability and validity of the POI. From the results, the Personal Orientation Inventory can be described as showing satisfactory reliability and validity coefficients for a South African sample.

#### **5.10. RECOMMENDATIONS**

There are however many issues with reference to reliability and validity research on the Personal Orientation Inventory in South Africa that were beyond the scope of this introductory presentation. There is a need to expand on the present findings by making use of a greater variety of cross-cultural South African samples and then applying, firstly, methods of

reliability such as the Split-Half, KR-20 Formula and Coefficient Alpha and secondly, methods of validity such as Content, Criterion-related and Construct validity. Such a study could then include a Factor Analysis which would ultimately lead to the establishment of norms and a standardized Personal Orientation Inventory for South African conditions and circumstances. This is supported by Van Wyk (1978, p.175) who said, "konsepte soos geestesgesondheid en terapeutiese doelstellings kom al meer onder die soeklig ten einde beter omskryf te word as bloot net die afwesigheid van psigopatologie. Aangesien die POI die enigste meetinstrument is wat gebruik kan word met die doel om hierdie eienskappe te meet, behoort die vraelys vir Suid-Afrikaanse omstandighede gestandaardiseer te word."

In conclusion, having taken cognisance of possible extraneous factors, the reliability and validity results of this research seem to have demonstrated that they fit the assumptions of the Personal Orientation Inventory, the various studies mentioned in this research and most important, the writings of the humanistic movement represented by Maslow, Rogers and Allport, whose theoretical formulations underline the items of the POI.

#### **5.11. SUMMARY**

In Chapter 1, the theoretical and empirical concerns gave rise to specific questions for exploration in this research. These concerned the reliability and validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory using South African samples and to what extent these results compared to similar studies administered overseas. In this chapter, these concerns were addressed.

Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory was assessed with firstly, a brief focus on the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations among the POI scales and secondly, a more in-depth analysis regarding test - retest reliability and concurrent validity. This was done in order to determine the reliability coefficients and to establish how well the POI correlates with another standard personality inventory, namely the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire.

The results of this research were then presented and discussed, followed with the aims, as given in chapter 1, being revisited. Finally, the conclusions were drawn and recommendations made for future research.

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