CHAPTER 2

HISTORY OF MEASUREMENT OF PERSONALITY

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2.1 **Definition of Personality**

Judging from the way in which the term 'personality' is used, it is endowed with considerable glamour and prestige. To laymen, generally, and to many professional individuals who deal with people, it is the answer to many problems. It is said to be the reason some persons are liked and others are disliked; it is the secret of popularity and unpopularity. It is said to be something that enables some individuals to 'put themselves over' and that fails to make others impressive; it is the secret to success, social or economic, and the reason for lack of success. It is supposed to determine whether one keeps one's balance and sanity. It, thus, keeps most of people out of mental institutions and is responsible for the few less fortunate ones who do not keep out of institutions. Anything so important deserves one's most serious attention.

The definition of any term is an arbitrary matter. There is no one correct definition, all others being wrong. The understanding of a selected definition is more adequate if it is compared with other definition. In England, it is said that an Englishman cannot fully understand his own country until he becomes acquainted with other countries. The same principle applies here.

It is natural that such a widely used word as 'personality' should have a variety of definition. After a survey of this
matter, Allport\(^1\) concludes that there are at least fifty different meanings of the term. He reports that 'personality' came from the Latin word 'persona', originally denoted the theatrical mask first used in Greek drama and adopted about a hundred years before Christ by Roman players\(^2\). A Greek player commonly held a mask before his face. The mask was called a 'persona' because he talked through it. Thus, personality was thought of as precisely what the mask of the actor implied a cover for the 'real' person behind it. In time, the term 'persona' came to apply to the actor and eventually to individuals in general, perhaps with the recognition with Shakespeare, that "All the world's a stage and all the men and women merely players".

Allport\(^3\) also reports that persona is used in at least four distinct senses in the writings of Cicero. It is worthwhile to note these meanings, because they embrace most modern conceptions. All of them have their roots in the theatre. First, a persona is regarded as an assemblage of personal qualities; in this sense, it represents what the person is really like. In this interpretation, personality pertains to the actor. Second, a persona is regarded as the way a person appears to others, not as he really is. In this sense, personality pertains to the mask. Third, persona is the role a person plays in his life; a professional, social or political role, for example. A role is a character in a drama. Finally, persona refers to
qualities of distinction and dignity. In this sense, it pertains to the star performer. Because of the evaluative connotation of this meaning of the term, one does not find such a definition in the scientific setting. In popular usage, a personality in a community is a man of distinction or worth.

**Some classes of Definitions**

Instead of quoting the definitions given by particular authors, typical examples that represent classes of meanings will be discussed.

**Personality as a stimulus**

A very few who study personality scientifically adopt the idea that personality is one's social-stimulus value. This comes dangerously close to the common, popular idea that personality is something that enables a person to 'put himself over'. He is impressive or he is not. He has much personality or little. From this point of view, personality then becomes almost identical with reputation. This is clearly a 'mask' definition.

**Omnibus definitions**

A type of definition that was more popular some years ago than recently, usually begins with the words, 'personality is the sum total.....' and then proceeds to list any of the
processes or activities which a human individual is capable of, for example, innate dispositions, impulses, appetites, instincts, tendencies, and habits. The chief sources of objection to this type of definition have come from gestalt psychology, which has had a violent antipathy for saying that an individual or anything about him is merely an aggregation of parts. This failure to integrate the parts of the personality is a logical defect.

Integrative Definitions

The integrative type of definitions emphasizes the organization of a personality; personality is more than the sum of its parts, and that 'more than' is its pattern of organization. As an example of this kind of definition, one can do no better than quote from Warren's Dictionary.4 "... the integrated organization of all the cognitive, affective, conative, and physical characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinctness to others." An objection to this particular statement might be made with regard to the kinds of characteristics listed. It should be noted that the end of the statement, "in focal distinctness from others," emphasizes the uniqueness of the individual, a specification that is commonly accepted in other conceptions of personality.

Totality Definitions

A 'totality' definition carries the emphasis upon integration - a large step further, almost forgetting the parts
entirely. Two statements of this type can be quoted from Warren's Dictionary. 5 ".... the general characterization, or pattern, of an individual's total behaviour", and ".... the field property or form of the individual's total behaviour-pattern". Taken seriously, such definitions would seem to make analysis and, hence a science of personality, logically impossible. If, however, they may be interpreted as merely integrative definitions with greater stress on organization; the way is still open for description of personalities and personality in general.

**Personality as adjustment**

It is quite common to define behaviour as adjustment of an organism to its environment. Individuals tend to develop their own unique procedures of adjustment. Personality from this line of thinking is an individual's characteristic pattern of adjustments. If all behaviour is adjustment, however, one could just as well say that personality is an individual's characteristic pattern of behaviour. Some definitions in this group would limit personality to social adjustment only, but to do so would introduce a limitation to the meaning of personality that most of those who deal with personality would reject.

**Some definitions**

The word 'personality' is a very complex term and can be defined in many ways. The investigator, here, would satisfy
himself just by giving two to three definitions:

(1) According to McDougall\(^6\) -

"Personality means integration of dispositions, temperament, temper, intellect and character."

(2) According to Pyreneck\(^7\) -

"Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique, which determines his unique adjustment to the environment".

(3) According to Allport\(^8\) -

"Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behaviour and thought."

As the present investigation is but the adaptation of Cattell's ESPQ, the definition accepted by the investigator is that of Cattell.\(^9\)

"Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation".

2.2 Early attempts to measure the personality

Efforts to evaluate and test non-intellectual traits of personality were apparent in the nineteenth century beginning with Galton in 1879 and followed by Pearson, who devised
questionnaire and rating scales. During the last decade of that century and the first of the twentieth, word-association tests were tried out by Jung of Switzerland, and Kent and Rosanoff in the United States in an effort to expose some of the 'deeper' personality traits and, if possible, to assist in differentiating among the various mental disorders.

With widespread use of individual tests of intelligence in schools, clinics and hospitals, it became increasingly clear that in some cases an individual's performance on a test, his successes and failures, and the content and quality of his responses, were not only evidence of intellectual functioning, but were also affected, in greater or lesser degree, by non-intellectual traits of personality. The recognition of this fact, in addition to the growing interest in the scientific and clinical study of personality per se provided the stimulus for the development of the several varieties of personality tests. Personnel problems during world war I provided impetus for their growth as well.

Upto the mid-years of the present century, many attempts were made to prepare different personality questionnaires, but they had no much structural concepts about constructing different items. Such men as Burt, Eysenck, Flanagan, French, Gibb, Guilford, Mosier, Hayburn, Thurstone, Vernon, Cattell and his colleagues did try to have structural concepts while framing different items to measure the personality.
In 1945, when Cattell surveyed the field for his 1946 book on the subject, the popular questionnaires were:
Woodworth's personal Data Sheet (1938), Maier's 'dominance' test (1940), C.R. Rogers' child adjustment items (1939), Strong's Interest Test (1943), Bernreuter's "social behaviour patterns" (1935-1938), Bell's Adjustment Inventory (1934-1939), Allport's Ascendence-Submission Scale (1928), and many others - none of which claimed to be, or could be considered, a factored test.

In the following ten years, however, several important questionnaires on an extensive factor-analytic basis appeared: the Guilford-Zimmerman Questionnaire, the Cattell 16 PF, and the Thurstone Temperament Schedule, as well as Kemmers and Schimberg's SRA Junior Inventory. In this creative midcentury moment, the well-known MMPI also appeared, which, although not factored, had a definite objective, statistical rationale intended to obtain maximum separation of clinical groups. Other questionnaires appeared, many based purely on clinical insights such as Mooney's Problem Check List and Gough's well-known California Personality Inventory.

Between that decade and the present, several important factored instruments appeared, notably the Comrey Scales; the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule; Dielman, Coan, and Cattell's Early School Personality Questionnaire; Eysenck's EPI (formerly MFI scales); D.N. Jackson's FRI Scales; Porter, Cattell, and Schaefer's Child Personality Questionnaire; Sells
and Cattell’s Clinical Analysis Questionnaire; Rotter’s Internal and External Control Scale; and so on - in all, probably over two hundred printed 'scales'.

2.3 **IPAT’S Contribution**

Cattell and his co-workers have produced many personality tests at Institute for Personality and Ability Testing (IPAT) in the last twenty-five years. Each test has had a fantastic amount of factorial work and in some cases represents many revisions. Here is a list of fourteen tests only, out of many more that Cattell and his co-workers have produced through their invaluable work at IPAT:

1. the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire
2. the Junior-Senior High School Personality Questionnaire
3. the Children’s Personality Questionnaire
4. the Early School Personality Questionnaire
5. the Contact Personality Factor Test
6. the Neuroticism Scale Questionnaire
7. IPAT Anxiety Questionnaire
8. the IPAT 8 - Parallel-Form Anxiety Battery
9. the Objective-Analytic Anxiety Battery
10. the Objective-Analytic Personality Test Battery
11. the IPAT Humor Test of Personality
12. the IPAT Music Preference Test
13. the Motivation Analysis Tests (MAT)
14. the School Motivation Analysis Test (SHAT)
Cattell has also constructed a mental ability test which he has called: the IPAT Culture Fair (or Culture Free) intelligence tests which have three scales.

Out of these fifteen tests, the four tests adapted and standardized on Gujarati subjects have now been discussed in somewhat detail.

The 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) measures 16 primary personality traits in the adult age range, from age 16 upward. The test is based on over 30 years of factor-analytic research, and is documented in more than 400 journals, articles and books. Combinations of 16 PF scores have been shown to predict a variety of important real-life performances, making the 16 PF, a valuable tool in business and industry, education, vocational guidance and clinical diagnosis. Sheela Emanuel standardized forms A and B of 16 P.F.Q. on Gujarati subjects and was awarded Ph.D. in 1936. The High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) assesses all major aspects of the teen-ager's personality and parallels the 16 PF adult questionnaire for ages 12 through 18. Rambahadur Thakur has adapted and standardized this questionnaire on Gujarati subjects and submitted his synopsis to Gujarat University.

Development of the children's personality series

Encouraged by the reception of the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire - IPAT's test of adult personality, IPAT authors began the basic research essential to the development of
personality tests for children. Essentially, what these investigations showed was that with few exceptions, the same traits found in adults can be demonstrated at work with children also. Two instruments resulting from this 20 year research programme are the 'Children's Personality Questionnaire' (CPQ) designed for children in the 8-12 year age range, and the "Early School Personality Questionnaire" (ESPO) intended for children aged 6-8.

The Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ) parallels the personality concepts used in the ESPQ and the 16 PF and extends personality measurement down to the 3 through 12 year old level. Ramesh S. Patel adapted and standardized this questionnaire on Gujarati subjects and was awarded Ph.D. in 1986.

The Early School Personality Questionnaire (ESPO) is a downward extension of the CPQ designed to measure personality in the 6 through 9 year age range. The present investigator adapted and standardized this questionnaire on Gujarati subjects, drawn from ten districts of Gujarat State.

This personality series makes possible systematic longitudinal testing of an individual or a group from early school to old age by test linkage across the age range. The tests are especially adapted to each age group and deal with essentially the same personality dimensions.

The CPQ and ESPQ are designed to tell the tester something useful about the school children, for use in counselling.
vocational guidance etc. They are broad-band tests of personality, planned to yield the maximum amount of information in the shortest time about the greatest number of personality dimensions. The CPC, revised and renamed in 1975, measures fourteen primary personality traits and the FSPC measures thirteen. Each scale, derived from extensive factor-analytic research, yields insights into some important facets of the child's personality and behaviour.

2.4 Measurement of Personality in India

From ancient time there were many attempts done by different people to measure the intelligence, but no such special effort was done for personality measurement in India.

The work of development of tests in the field of personality was started in the end of the fourth decade of the twentieth century.

In 1950, H.S.Asthana prepared an Adjustment Inventory. In the same year, the School of Psychology in Uttar Pradesh prepared a verbal group personality scale. Jayprakash prepared Adolescent Questionnaire. In 1950, H.S.Asthana prepared norms on Rorschach's ink-blot tests for Indian Culture. In 1952, Shanmungham prepared a personality inventory. In 1959, Madhusudanlal Saxena prepared a personality questionnaire in Banaras. Uma Chaudhari adapted the TAT and CAT Scales in Indian Culture. In 1964, K.D.Kapoor adapted Cattell's 16 PF in Hindi. In 1965,

Thus, quite considerable work in the field of personality testing, especially of adaptations of foreign tests, was done in India after 1950 and there are various types of personality tests available in India, mostly in Hindi language.
REFERENCES


2. Ibid, p.25.


5. Ibid.


