CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Of all the problems that have confronted human beings since the beginning of recorded history, perhaps the most significant has been the riddle of their nature. Attempts to answer the question "What is man?" are countless. Astrology, philosophy and the life-sciences are but a few of the many directions that the quest to understand human nature has taken. And today the problem is more pressing than ever. Since most of the world's ills - overpopulation, war, pollution, prejudice, racial discrimination, racism and caste-ecism - are brought about by the behavior of people. It may not be over-stating the case to say that the quality of human life in the future indeed our own survival may well depend upon our own increased understanding of human nature.

Since 1879 there has been a recognizable science of psychology, one important part of which is directly concerned with the problem of understanding the human personality in all its diversity. According to Hjelle and Ziegler (1976), the fundamental problem, for the study of personality is to contribute significantly to our understanding of human-beings from within the framework of the science of psychology. (Hjelle and Ziegler 1976).

Individuals in this field continue to develop different systems of internally consistent constellations of concepts called "Theories of Personality". Such theories actually represent elaborate speculations or hypothesis concerning why people behave as they do. They have both descriptive and predictive functions in psychology. A descriptive personality theory organizes human behavior systematically so as to render it intelligible. A good personality theory, provides a meaningful framework within which human behavior can be consistently described and interpreted. The predictive function of personality theory implies that its concepts are testable. A good personality theory directly stimulates psychological research.
The foundations of a personality theory are rooted in the basic assumptions of the theorist: The implication of the theory for what human beings are, extend far beyond the present scope of psychology as a science.

The earliest attempts of the conception of personality are found in the scriptures of the Hindus: the Vedas and Upanishads. Personality in the upanishads is conceived as a synthesis of matter (anna), life (prana) and mind (manas). (Bose 1930, Chennakesavan 1960, Sastry 1932, Sen 1943, 1957)

A clear account of personality is seen in the "samkhya" system of Indian philosophy. This system has two independent entireties namely, spirit (purusa) and nature (prakriti). (Chennakesavan 1960, Krishnamurthy 1961, Asthana 1966)

Majmudar (1968) studied personality traits necessary for success in supervisory jobs in industries. He investigated the interest pattern of technical persons, using questionnaire method. The results revealed important personality traits like discipline, cooperativeness, patience, self-confidence, leadership, acceptance, clear thinking to be essential for success in supervisory jobs.

The term 'personality' in English language is derived from the Latin term "persona." Originally it denoted the mask worn by theatrical players in ancient Greek dramas: thus the initial conception of personality was that of a superficial social image that an individual adopts in playing life roles - a "public personality".

Definitions of Personality:
The scientific conception of personality has been worked out to some extent by trial and error. A summary of the meanings attached to this term by some of the earlier psychologist has been stated below:
Kempf (1919) has defined personality as "the habitual mode of adjustment which the organism effects between its own egocentric drives and the exigencies of the environment". As phrased, this would include practically all of human behavior, since the vast majority of our responses do consist of just such habitual ways of adjusting.

According to Morton Prince (1924), "personality is the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites and instincts of an individual and the acquired dispositions and tendencies". This definition places a potentially useful emphasis on the inner aspect of personality.

Floyd Allport (1924), states that "personality traits may be considered as so many important dimensions in which people may be found to differ". Elsewhere he offers a more useful formulation, "personality is the individual's characteristic reactions to social stimuli and the quality of his adaptation to the social features of his environment".

Watson (1924) emphasized responses as a defining element of personality: he also believed that character is part of personality. According to Watson, "personality includes not only these (character - conventional) reactions, but also the more individual personal adjustments, and capabilities as well as their life histories".

Symonds (1928) has defined personality as "the portrait or the landscape of the organism working together in all its phases" and May (1929) speaks of "the social stimulus value of the individual".

Guilford (1959) considered personality to be "the unique pattern of traits" characterizing the individual. Gordon (1963), offers the following "personality consists of the specific contents and consequences of behavior and the processes responsible for these contents and consequences". (The above definitions are from Stagner 1978)
The cited definitions generally fall into two groups. Those which treat personality in terms of its “social stimulus value (the effect one has on others)" and those which emphasize “responses”. Yet another viewpoint is that personality could be identified as an “intervening variable”. A stimulus affects an organism as a whole, and the ultimate response is a function of both the stimulus and the organism, (when a child is hungry, an ice-cream cone elicits one reaction where as when he is satiated the response is quite different). There are certain intervening variables between the stimulus and the response that affect the nature of the final behavior pattern. Such variables are the persons intelligence, his motives at the moment, his past experience with the stimulus and his attitude toward the situation in which the stimulus appears.

Gordon Allport, after an extensive analysis of the possible definitions of personality found a definition in terms of intervening variables to be essential. His proposed formulations is as follows: “Personality is a dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behavior and thought”.

This definition covers most of the difficulties faced by the above definition. It recognizes the changing nature of personality, a dynamic organization: it focuses on the “inner” aspect rather than superficial manifestations, but it provides a theoretical basis for the social stimulus value of personality by stressing the person’s characteristics, behavior and thought. No one can study directly a “dynamic organization within the individual”, but it is possible to manipulate stimulus inputs and measure changes in responses, thus obtaining evidence as to the nature of this organization. (Stagner 1974).

A revision of Allport’s definition as suggested by Stagner (1961) - “Personality is the organization within the individual of all those perceptual, cognitive, emotional and motivational systems which determine his unique responses to his environment”. (Stagner 1974)
Personality is a scientific abstraction. To say that personality cannot be directly observed does not take it out of the realm of science. Electrons have never been directly observed but they can be studied by their effects. The psychologist develops a theory about personality, and from this theory he predicts what a person will do if a selected stimulus is applied. The value of the theory is indicated mainly by its success in predicting the response to that stimulus.

Personality should not be misunderstood as a "mask" assumed by an individual in an effort to produce some effect on an observer. There is real personality behind various masks. Charm schools and personality-improvement courses modify the mask; however, they do not make any difference in the underlying personality. One can acquire new responses without changing any fundamental desires, anxieties, hostilities or attitudes toward people.

Theories Of Personality

Historical development of Human Topology: The early ideas concerning human topology developed by the Greek writers, thinkers and physicians already contain, if only an embryo the three main notions which characterize modern work in personality. Behavior of conduct is to be described in terms of 'Traits' which characterize given individuals in varying degrees. These traits cohere, correlate and define certain more fundamental, all embracing 'types'. These types are essentially based on constitutional, genetic or inborn factors, which are to be discovered in the physiological, neurological and biochemical structure of the individual.

In 1798 Immanuel Kant published his famous "Anthropologie". He described people into four temperaments which served as a kind of fundamental and basic theoretical position. They are- Sanguine, Melancholic, Choleric and Phlegmatic (Eysenck and Eysenck 1969).
Constitutional Perspectives: What is it that is essentially postulated by Hippocrates, Galen, Kant and Wundt? They appear to maintain that if we observe a large number of people and assess in some vaguely quantitative way their degree of impulsiveness, reasonableness, carefulness, optimism, sociability, persistence, changeableness and so on, it will be found that some combination of these traits is more likely to appear in the same person than in other combinations of traits. The person who is active will also tend to be irritable, impulsive, histrionic and changeable; he will not be persistent, thorough, high principled, reasonable and steadfast. This is an empirical prediction, and can be tested empirically.

Phrenology was still another attempt to relate constitutional factors and individual differences in behavior. Personality and skull shape contours are considered to be related. The first proponent of phrenology was Hanz Gall.

Sheldon carried out research to examine the physiques of thousands of students in an attempt to determine whether or not there were any regularities among them. He differentiated three body types. Namely:

1. Endomorphy
2. Mesomorphy and
3. Ectomorphy.

Since then this general theory of personality has been subjected to more modern methods of investigation - which have been concerned essentially with improvements along two lines. The measurement or the rating of the traits themselves have been subject to a considerable degree of research. The main of which has been three fold:

1. An attempt has been made to establish the reality or otherwise of the various traits, postulated.
2. An attempt has been made to measure these along some qualitative continuum.

3. An attempt has been made to establish the validity of the instruments which have been constructed. (Eysenck and Eysenck 1969).

The other great improvements have been through the perfection of mathematical indices of similarity such as the correlation coefficient in the development of methods in analyzing large number of correlation coefficients and transforming them into smaller numbers of more fundamental variables, dimensions or factors.

Freud’s Psychoanalysis and Neo-Analytic Perspectives: Sigmund Freud’s theory of psychoanalysis provided the foundation for the psycho dynamic perspective. The theme of Freud’s theory is that - all mental activities take place unconsciously. Freud spoke of two processes the conscious and the unconscious. The unconscious processes cover the major portion of our psyche and contain material that has been actively repressed. Freud stated that the goal of psychoanalysis therapy is to make the unconscious conscious.

Freud later proposed the structural hypothesis, which divided the mind into three forces-the Id, the Ego and Superego that continually interact and often conflict. Freud viewed personality development as a process of childhood psycho-sexual development from the oral to the anal stage and then to the phallic stage. Anxiety connected with over-gratification or under-gratification at any of these stages can lead to mal-adaptive behavior. Projective techniques are the commonly used tools to study the Freudian interpretation of personality.

Carl Jung and Alfred Adler the post Freudian theorist de-emphasized sexuality, the Id and the stages of development, instead they emphasized self direction and social relationship. Jung believed that the libido and the unconscious contain broader and more positive forces than they do in Freud’s view.
He also argued for the existence of a 'Collective Unconscious' or a 'Set of Symbols' shared by human beings. Jungian psychotherapy involved individuation and integration of opposite forces. Adler claimed that all human behavior is an attempt to overcome 'inferiority complex' and that social relationships are the key to psychological help.

Sullivan agreed with Adler that psychological problems are caused by interpersonal ones and stressed the Parent - Child relationship. He pointed out the importance of the self concept.

Erick Fromm focused on the way in which a society's political and economic structures influence development. He retained the Freudian focus of inner conflicts and attempts to cope with them. He attributed the origin of these conflicts not so much to the underlying sexual and aggressive impulses as to the imposition of the social and economic controls on the individual.

Trait Perspectives: Trait classifications involve the use of graduated dimensions along which individual differences can be quantitatively arranged. For instance people may vary considerably in terms of laziness, intelligence and so. Among the major trait theorists are Cattell, Allport and Eysenck. They focus most of their attention and efforts on internal, underlying personality states. Since Allport believed that the trait concept was the most important in the construction of an adequate theory of personality, his position belongs within the trait perspective framework.

The major concept of Allport's theory revolves around the different kinds of state possessed by each of us and the different properties of the proprium or the self. For Allport, the trait is "... a generalized and focalized neuro-psychic system (peculiar to the individual) with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent, and to initiate and guide consistent (equivalent) forms of adaptive and expressive behavior". (Allport 1937).
The trait manifests itself through a variety of different responses. All these different responses are equivalent, for they serve the same function - as they are the expression of the trait. Allport spoke about cardinal, common and secondary traits characterized on the basis of their importance in a person's life.

The other trait theorist Cattell, believed that an adequate theory of personality must rest on solid measurement and statistical procedures. He made use of the complex Factor Analytic methods to discover the basic traits of personality. He talked about sixteen major factors or traits and the application of these traits in current research. Cattell made use of a specification equation as a means of combining traits and situation in an attempt to predict an individual's behavior accurately.

Eysenck (1947) put forth the Hierarchical System of Personality which describes four levels of behavioral organizations as shown in the figure below:

Diagram 2.1

Diagrammatic Representation of Hierarchical Organization of Personality.

(Source: Eysenck 1953 pg. no. 13)
At the lowest level, he placed specific responses SR1, SR2, SR3 ............. SRn. These are acts such as responses to an experimental test or to experiences in everyday life which are observed once and may or may not be characteristic of the individual.

At the second level is what he called habitual responses which can recur under similar circumstances, that is, if the test is repeated a similar response is given or if the life situation recurs the individual reacts in a similar fashion. This is the lowest level of organization; roughly speaking the amount of organization present can be measured in terms of reliability coefficient that is in terms of the probability in the repetition of a situation, behavior will be consistent.

At the third level he placed organization of habitual acts into traits, T1, T2, T3 ............. Tn. These traits, such as accuracy, irritability, persistence, rigidity are theoretical constructs based on inter-correlation between a number of different habitual responses.

At the fourth level, he had the organization of traits into a general type; like the introvert. This organization was also based on the observed correlations - on correlations between the various traits which between them make up the type under discussion. Thus in the example sociability impulsiveness, jocularity, carefreeness and various types of traits would form a constellation of traits, correlation amongst themselves and giving rise to a higher order construct, the type. These four levels of personality organization correspond closely to the four types of factors distinguished by analysts; error factor, specific factor, group factor and general factor.

Guilford and Cattell concentrated more on the trait level whereas Eysenck was interested in the type level. Thus there was an apparent contradiction between Eysenck discovering in his analysis very broad type factors of neuroticism and Cattell & Guilford apparently discovering no such type factors rather a multiplicity of primary factors.
Cognitive Perspectives: The focus of Kelly's theory on cognition was on the ways in which we process information as a means of increasing our understanding of the world. His is an intellectualistic view of personality which sees all of us acting as scientists in order to predict and control events.

Kelly believed that it is positively reinforcing when we predict events accurately and punishing when we do not. The fundamental assumption underlying his theory is, the philosophical stance called constructive alternativism.

Social Behavioristic Perspectives: The proponents of this theory assumed that most of our behavior was acquired and that the task of the psychologist was to specify the environmental conditions responsible for producing behavior. They were proponents of a simple stimulus - response (S-R) psychology in which an attempt was made to understand how given stimuli become linked to given responses.

The most important proponent of the S-R model in psychology was J.B. Watson. Watson believed that psychology was a study of observable behavior and that references to private events were unscientific and unworthy of scientific investigation.

Like Watson, Skinner had a basic aversion to the study of private events. Like Watson he was primarily concerned with trying to understand how environmental stimuli influence behavior in the hope of generating fundamental laws. Skinner believed that systematic observation and experimentation are necessary, and that experiments must occur under controlled conditions. The primary method of studying cognitive events is verbal reports, and Skinner accepts their use as do Rotter and Bandura.

The works of Rotter and Bandura have a number of features in common. Both Rotter and Bandura believe that most of our behavior is learnt. They also believe that the
advancement of psychology as a science will depend upon the establishment of precise measurement, procedures and the systematic observation of behavior under controlled conditions. Rotter and Bandura explained Watson's simple mechanistic model of Human functioning, by incorporating the role of organismic variables into their cognitive constructs - as expectancy imitation covert rehearsal of events, values, memory and habits. These S - O - R models attempt to deal with more complex phenomena than the ones studied by Watson.

From Hull and Tolman Rotter adopted the idea of trying to increase the understanding of behavior by utilizing the concepts of intervening variables and hypothetical constructs. These terms allow an investigator to discuss the role of organismic variables - for example hunger, motives, expectancies, habits, intelligence and so forth - in guiding or directing behavior. They are ways of discussing the operation of internal or private events that intervene between external stimuli and external responses.

Tolman referred to intervening events in terms of a mathematical relationship that could be measured. Hull's formula to predict the probability of occurrence of behavior was: 
\[ E = H \times D \]
E refers to the "excitatory potential" of behavior, H refers to habit strength and D refers to drive strength. Thus for Hull the probability of a given response or movement to word a goal was seen to be a function of the animal's drive multiplied by its habit strength.

Bandura's work like Rotter's places heavy emphasize on the role of cognitive mediation. He focuses on the role that observational learning plays a role in the acquisition, maintenance and modification of behavior. Morgan 1896, Tarde 1903 and MacDougall in 1908 believed that imitation was an innate tendency in human beings (Rychman 1933).
Humanistic - Existential Perspectives: The roots of this theory can be found in the writings of Jung, Adler, Fromm, Allport, Maslow, Rogers and May. It emphasizes the uniqueness of an individual and a belief that they should be free to make their own choices about the directions they want to take in their lives. Amongst the main proponents of the humanistic existential school of psychology are Maslow, Rogers and May.

Maslow put forth the theory of Self-Actualization. He proposed a need hierarchy in human beings consisting of basic and growth urges. The need for security is one of the lowest basic needs; if gratified, it frees the individual to pursue "higher" goals. Most of Maslow's attention was directed to the establishment of psychology of personal growth and creative striving. There are five basic needs identified by Maslow - physiological needs (hunger, thirst and sex), safety needs (security, protection, law, order and freedom), a need for belonging, a need for love and esteem needs. In Maslow's view the role of the environment is crucial in the early stages of development when the person is struggling to gratify basic needs. For example, it is clear that the needs for safety, love and belonging all depend upon the co-operation of other people for gratification. Later on, as the higher needs emerge, the person becomes dependent on the environment and realize on his inner experiences to guide behavior. This behavior is determined by his or her inner nature, capacities, potentialities, talents and creative impulses.

Rogers put forth the Self Theory. He believed that during infancy the person perceives his experience as reality. He operates from the internal frame of reference and is unencumbered by the evaluation of others. Rogers also believed that the person interacts with his reality in terms of his basic actualizing tendency - that is his behavior is directed towards the goal of satisfying his need for actualizing as he perceives it. As a result, the person engages in an organismic valuing process in which he uses the actualizing tendency as a criterion in making judgments about the worth of a given experience (Source: Rychman 1933).
Rollo May put forth the Existential - Analytic theory. His orientation is similar to that of Rogers. May’s discussion of the development process of personality centers around the physical and psychological ties, between us and our parents and their substitutes. According to May it is the psychological dependency which poses a major problem and the way in which the individual handles it, determines to a large degree whether or not he will move toward maturity and personal growth. He adds that though behavior is often determined by other events, we still have to make a choice (Rychman 1933).

Concluding remarks on the theories of Personality: Gough’s C.P.I. is essentially based on the trait theory, which assumes that behavior can be observed at the closest to the surface of personality, than any other theory can attain. Trait theorists believe that the self is nothing but a confluence of traits that can be differentiated. Longitudinal studies, retesting the same person after ten - to - twenty years period, have revealed that traits resist change. They are persistently stable features which together comprise the personality make - up. Since they are consistent and do not readily change, behavior can be seen as more predictable. If one has to predict what a person has to do in a particular situation, it could be predicted from what he has been in the past. Hence it is not only possible to predict what a person would do, given the similar conditions, but trait measures could give modestly helpful predictions of what the person would do in a novel situation. Such a theory has implications of going a step ahead and predicting behavior, which may not be so with the other theories, one of the higher order aims of a theory being to predict behavior.

If one has to infer and understand a person’s personality and predict future behavior, it would be useful to concentrate on his day - to - day behavior, which would tell us about his general approach in viewing situations. This gives us an idea of his response pattern over a period of time. All this put together highlights different traits he possesses which determines his overall personality dimensions - whether he is an introvert or a extrovert, whether he accepts norms or rejects them.
As the researcher went through all the theories the corresponding strengths and weaknesses were reviewed and based on this the trait theory was identified as the most appealing and convincing of the whole lot of theories. The other reasons why the study was based on the trait theory model are stated below:

1. The trait theory is easily convertible into day-to-day experiences.
2. It is clear and easy to apply, besides it deals with everyday behavior.
3. The standardization is easy and it lends itself easily to sophisticated statistical measures.

Keeping all the above factors in mind the California Psychological Inventory was selected for the study.
Summary: The table below provides the research findings collected from the studies of the past:

### Theories Of Personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>Name Of Psychologist(s)</th>
<th>Key Concepts</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constitutional</td>
<td>Sheldon</td>
<td>Three body types related to personality</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hippocrates</td>
<td>Historical typology</td>
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<tr>
<td>Psychoanalysis</td>
<td>Freud</td>
<td>Interpretation of the unconscious through dream analysis and free association</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Jung</td>
<td>Collective - unconscious</td>
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<td>Adler</td>
<td>Inferiority complex</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sullivan</td>
<td>Importance of parent child relationship and self - concept</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fromm</td>
<td>Social and economic basis of behavior</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trait Perspective</td>
<td>Allport</td>
<td>Cardinal, common and secondary traits</td>
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<td>Cattell</td>
<td>Factor analysis, 16 PF</td>
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<td>Eysenck</td>
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<td>Kelly</td>
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<td>Operant conditioning</td>
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<td>May</td>
<td>Existential - analytical theory</td>
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Review Of Indian Studies On Personality:

Introduction to Indian Industrialization and its linkages to the social framework: The evolutionary process of the social phenomenon of human existence has become very rapid. At least four transformations in the life space of man can be identified. These are:

1. Isolated hunting to group hunting.
2. Group hunting to cattle culture.
3. Cattle culture to agriculture.
4. Emergence of modern industrialization.

The traditional agrarian Indian society designed the life-space of the individual in the simultaneity of two systems:

1. The affiliative
2. The economic system. The individual's identity was primarily social and affiliative in nature.

The Indian movement towards industrialization was not indigenous. It was dominated by western influence.

According to Garg & Parikh (1978) there are two distinct phases of industrialization:

1. The mechanical traditional industrialization
2. Automated integrated modern industrialization.

Modern industry in India consisted of family units or small private companies dominated by members of one family, the member of the agency family usually occupying key positions. After independence when Public enterprises came into being, unprecedented growth occurred resulting in co-ordination problems. The organization structure according to Garg resembled a 'spider web' (Mittal, 1987). The structure was multi-level and the people heterogeneous. Such a structure saw the emergence of Human Resource Development Systems.
Social and Cultural factors: The identity of an individual lies in the roots of its family, the primary group of socialization whose value norms and beliefs are internalized to give the individual his sense of belonging, meaning membership and reality relations. Hence a study of the Indian family is very essential if one has to understand its impact on industrial leadership and interpersonal relationship.

The structure of the traditional joint family restricts each individual to a single role towards each member and makes all relationships permanent and in the relationships the totality is all lost. To a father, a son is a son forever. Disowned personhood, role boundedness and the concept of work as duty, dominated these relationships which permeate from the element of dependence rather than interdependence on the part of children on parents in the Indian culture.

The Indian family and social system seem to provide sanctions for the exercise of authority—the authority which grinds rather than coerces, and for critical, tolerant and co-operative peer relationships. According to Chaudhury (1970), the lack of competitiveness on the one hand and the strengths of peer relationships on the other are the distinctive factors in the Indian social system as compared to western cultures.

Problems of Identity: The study by Chaudhury and Kakar (1971), suggest that Indian organizations and managers adopt structure, task and technology of complex and large organizations but respond with behavioral processes which are congruent with the joint family system including the role attitudes of traditional social system.

One basic problem related to Indian culture is concerned with relationships. Due to a long feudal background Indians are comfortable with dependent relationships, hierarchical position determines relationships and these determine expectations, which in turn leads to conflicts. If relationships were considered as interdependent, people are likely to co-operate.
Chatopadhyay has thrown further light on the relationship conflict of Indian managers. Relationships emphasize dependence and not inter-dependence. Several reasons are suggested for this dependent perpetuation, among them are child-rearing practices and educational systems based on the theory of punishment rather than reward.

This results in high level of failure, poor self image and feelings of being rewarded only when imitating persons of authority.

The impact of this dependence permeates into the organizational set-up where the role of a thinker and decision maker at every juncture is played by the manager, even where the subordinates have the necessary information to take decisions, thus symbolizing the transference of the father-son role of the Indian manager.

Kumar and Singh (1978) note a predictable carry-over of earlier modes of inter-personal relationships acquired in a joint family to their place of work. This gets reflected not only in managerial thinking, but also in their personnel practice, leadership and supervisory styles, in the application of delegation, control and responsibility and all this creates conditions of trust - mistrust and co-operation as well as competition within the organization.

In a cross-cultural study on personal values, England, Dingra and Agrawal (1974) found that Indian managers see groups of people with whom they interact as a source of competition rather than a source of support and co-operative effort.

Udai Pareek (1975) related personality to co-operation and competition and proposed the concept of extension motivation, a concern for others - indicating the need to extend the self and the ego to relate to the larger group and its goals.
Sinha (1968) found that high N-ach leads to maximum group output only when resources are unlimited; when resources are limited persons with higher N-cooperation perform better in the test.

Garg and Parikh (1976) state that the role of an individual in an organization is a construct of an interface between the internalized role co-ordinates and their orientations reflected in performance - that is in the role acts. Five role co-ordinates are identified - Responsibility, Authority, Equality, Identity and Location. The role acts are - Dominance, Exercise of Authority, Communication, Evaluation, Reward & Punishment and Scanning and Control. (Mittal 1987).

Using the above mentioned role matrix, Parikh (1978) found that practicing managers have not fully resolved the dilemma of the two conflicting demands of social and work identity.

In another study Parikh found that the Indian manager’s concept was that of traditional small organizations. Very often managers understand the concept of job, task, role and performance as synonymous. Thus taking an initiative was seen as breaking role boundaries, thus leading to delay in completion of tasks and feeling of non-support of others. Thus leading to frustration, experience of constraints and lack of resource availability.

Garg stresses the point that an awareness of symbolic identities and psychological role models available through socialization in the Indian family is essential to understand individual and organizational behavior. Their roots lie in the traditional ethos of the agrarian society and are deeply embedded in the individual. They define his mode of relating to individuals and systems. Accordingly Garg proposes a kind of topological model.
The self and the situation are two opposites. The identity is anchored in the self. The problem the individual faces is to find an integration and harmony between the identity and the role. Successful socialization can lead to this integration. All four locations of displacement are illusionary. When the tension is displaced to role-situation, it results in inter-departmental conflicts and personality conflicts. When displaced to identity situation, the result is alienation and when tension is displaced to the self-role zone there are demands—"if others play their role I don't have to be angry". When the tension is displaced to the self-identity zone, the standard question asked is "how do I motivate my employees"? Since there is a management of positive feelings, motivation is the primary concern of management.

Apart from the above studies there have been a number of unpublished consultancy reports based on the CPI and other projective techniques (TAT and the Rorschach) that needs mention.

Parikh. I, Shah. N, Singh. N (1998) studied the personality profile of 75 middle managers of three medium sized Indian organizations. The study made use of a projective technique - The Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) to unfold the personality traits of these managers and their response patterns in social and organizational contexts.
The key findings are as follows:

- Managers were role bound and had no space to derive and to express their own meanings (identity) of work and family life.

- Managers sought acceptance and approvals from their seniors and were emotionally dependent on them. They were 'people oriented' rather than 'task oriented'.

- They were like "middle children" who felt marginalized and had little organizational (psychological) space.

- Both the primary and secondary socialization influenced role, definition and meaning of work, relationships, and interface with authority.

Apart from these, influences like context of growth and socialization, organizational culture, phases of organizational growth, leadership and management style were external factors influencing managerial behaviour. Internal influences like the ordinal position (birth order), experiences of growing up and upbringing (rural vs. urban) also influenced the personality of managers. (IIM-A, working paper, 1998).

As part of the Organizational Development intervention Parikh (1981) studied the personality profile of eighteen middle and senior managers. The average age group was about 40 years and they were professionally qualified, holding degrees in either accountancy or in engineering.

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and the Rorschach ink blot test were administered and the results are as follows:

- The Rorschach findings indicate that managers were intellectually superior (average number of responses were 40), in mobilizing their capabilities.
They had an integrated approach to life and were emotionally well balanced. (high W)

Results further indicated a high level of ego functioning (high M and F+ responses).

They had a practical and common sense view of things. The profile also indicates reasonable level of empathy and self acceptance.

However, they were aware of forces outside the control and saw them as threatening. They were seen as inhibited and had strong controls on behaviour. (M and m ratio).

The key findings on the CPI indicate that these managers were:

- Likely to personalize experiences and would be somewhat oversensitive to criticism
- They were activity oriented and prefer to deal with tangible and concrete rather than with concepts or abstractions.
- They were impulsive and impatient with routine or details.
- Managers would be worldly and calculative in relationships.

Parikh (1991) compared the personality difference between senior (N=37) and middle or junior managers (N=58) of a pharmaceutical company. This study was part of an ongoing Organizational Development (O.D.) study

Results indicated that out of the eighteen CPI factors senior managers differed and scored higher than their juniors on 5 of the factors, namely Socialization (p > .01), Self control (p > .01), Well Being (p > .01), Achievement via Conformance (p > .01), Achievement via Independence (p > .05). Thus the senior managers were more comfortable to accept and conform to rules and regulations. They had more control
over their emotions and temper and had an optimistic approach towards the future. The senior managers had a strong drive to do well and were efficient in use of their intellectual abilities. (Parikh, I. J Consultancy report).

Parikh's (1991) consultancy work was based on a Pharmaceutical Company in which the profile of 42 middle and junior managers was obtained. The original CPI was administered and the results of the entire group are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dominance</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cap for Status</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soc. Presence</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self - Accp</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well - Being</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialization</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self - Control</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good - Impressions</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communality</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ach. via Conformance</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ach. via Independence</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intell. Efficiency</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psycho. Mindedness</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>04.0</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Femininity</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive Profile Interpretation As Given By The Consultant (Parikh, I. J, 1991)
Here is a group of managers who are aggressive and visible, yet to what is expected from them by the system. They begin by being pushy but succumb to pressure from the organization. They work with very rigid frames and space for maneuverability is very low.

Their own sense of self - esteem is low and personally they are not assertive. Their actions are initiated by the system and they work well under directions. They are quite different from the other managers of other Indian organizations, because of the organizational norms. They work well within the framework of the organization. They are a result oriented group of managers. This is because the work culture is highly professional and the management expects very high standards of performance.

In the other study Gupta, (1992), studied the personality profile of managers and compared this to the profile of the general population. In the other part of the study age and work experience were correlated to personality factors, as measured by the 16 PF.

It was concluded that age and experience had some influence on some of the 16PF factors. Differences were found between managers and the general population. The table given on next page is based on the comparison drawn between the managers' profile and the general population.

Managers scored higher on 9 out of the 16 personality factors as compared to the general population. It is concluded that managers as a group are more intelligent and bright (factor B), more mature and calm (factor C), more enthusiastic and talkative as seen from factor F.

They are more conscientious and persistent as seen from factor G. They are more sensitive than the general population as seen from the factor I. Managers are more sophisticated and polished as compared to the general population as indicated by factor N. They are more experimenting and critical as seen from factor Q1 and more self sufficient and resourceful as seen from factor Q2. Lastly managers are more controlled and exact as seen from factor Q3.
No major findings emerged from the above mentioned studies on account of statistical inadequacy.
Other Relevant Study:
Suresh V and Rajendran K (1968) studied the self-esteem as a decision maker and styles of decision making of 99 middle level executives. Findings indicated a positive relationship between self-esteem as a decision maker and vigilant style and a negative relationship between self esteem as a decision maker and defensive avoidance, procrastination and rationalization style.

Ganguli (1957) studied the pattern of effective supervision and found that employee-centred supervisor seemed to go with worker satisfaction, morale and higher productivity. Sequeira (1962) outlined the characteristics of the effective supervision as being less ambiguous and less relative.

Bhatt and Pathak (1962) found high intelligence and dependability as important perceived characteristics of effective supervisors. Chatterjee (1961) obtained high positive correlation between democratic leadership and productivity.

Amin (1963) reports on the behaviour and traits of jobbers who were liked by the workers. Qualities perceived in successful jobbers were high technical knowledge and ability to coordinate supply of materials, good behaviour, politeness and on persuasive approach.

Chawdhry and Pal (1957) studied interaction of production, planning and management practices and their effects on the morale of the supervisory staff. Results indicated the interdependence of the technical and human aspects of organizational structure.

Ganguli’s (1964) extensive investigation of organizational structure and process has thrown light on the influence of organizational climate on productivity and employee satisfaction. High producing shops were perceived to be somewhat more bureaucratic and less autocratic than the low producing shops.
A number of studies have been done in the area of personnel selection and training. TV Rao (1975) reviewed the use of non-cognitive psychological tests for personnel selection and appraisal. Mukherjee (1972) made a methodological study of the relationship between supervisors’ rating of their subordinates and questionnaires with reference to each of the seven traits rated by them. Correlations were higher on traits where rating objectives were made clear. Dolke, Patel and Sharma (1975) found the usefulness of GATB in predicting on-the-job performance among technical and clerical personnel employed in textile industries.

Mehta (1994) studied a nationalized coal company. The sample consisted of supervisors, first line managers and skilled workers. They were made to write 6 TAT stories, under neutral conditions with standard instructions. The obtained stories were analysed for need for personal achievement, need for social achievement, need for influence and the four integrated needs.

It was significant that the same pictures evoked qualitatively different imageries in the workers and managers. While there was no difference in the level of need for personal advancement, they tended to significantly differ in their other need-states. Managers showed significantly greater need for personal achievement oriented influence. Another finding of this study was that despite the rhetoric of participative management, the leadership styles and work structures continue to be authoritarian.

Mehta’s two case studies on the Bharat Coking Coal Limited and Rourkela Steel Plant (BCCL and RSP) indicate that social attitudes and personality tendencies provide varying content and direction to individual needs.

Findings of studies by Mehta, P. suggest ‘the importance of structural variables in explaining the sense of dissatisfaction and alienation at the workplace. Over the years,
a large number of studies (Likert 1961, Argyris 1964, Blauner 1964) have shown that satisfaction and conflict at the workplace are linked to its structure and control mechanism’ (Mehta 1994, pg.175).

Most of the tests used in India for personnel selection and educational selection have not been properly validated. There has hardly been any effort to establish the predictive validity of the various selection tests as well as personality tests (Pareek, ICSSR report, pg 69).

Concluding remarks on Indian studies: No major conclusions can be drawn from the above studies for the following reasons:

1. The studies are more descriptive than qualitative, hence it is very difficult to conclude anything and replication becomes difficult.

2. Since the studies are not interpreted quantitatively, they do not lend themselves easily to statistical evaluations.

3. Some of the studies have started with personality as a starting point but have deviated to the task or function thus not giving personality its due place.

4. So far no pure research seems to have been undertaken with personality and managerial performance in focus, hence no conclusions are available such that given certain traits they would contribute positively to managerial effectiveness. Although behavioral scientists do acknowledge the fact that personality and certain competencies contribute to the success of managers. A lot needs to be done in this area of work.
Review of Past Studies On CPI And Performance Effectiveness:

Mohoney, Jerdee & Nash (1956) in their paper “Predicting Managerial Effectiveness”, sought the identification of predictors of managerial effectiveness, which would be valid in a variety of situations. The question, the study proposed to answer was: “What are the personal characteristics which differentiate between the “more effective” and the “less effective” manager?”. The aim of the study was to provide a basis for the development of predictors specific to given situations. 468 managers participated in this study representing thirteen companies from the U.S. The criterion employed in this study attempted to measure effectiveness in the performance of general managerial responsibilities rather than specific elements of performance peculiar to a single position.

A panel of six executives of the companies comprising of those who were familiar in the performances of managers in the samples were asked to prepare independent rankings of managers. Analysis of possible influences of the alteration ranking of effectiveness revealed a lack of relationship with age. Each ranking was converted into percentile form, and rankings were converted to composite scores for each manager.

A total of 98 specific measures of personality characteristics were analyzed for relationships with managerial effectiveness. Amongst these, thirteen measures of personality characteristics from the CPI were represented. Out of these 98 measures nineteen of these relationships were found to be significant. The Do scale of the CPI was found to be significantly higher amongst effective managers as compared to the less effective managers.

The study concluded that “The More Effective” managers is somewhat more intelligent than the “Less Effective Manager”........ He tends to be more aggressive and self-reliant, he has had more educational training and was more active in sports and hobbies as a young man, and his wife also has had more educational training and worked less after marriage.
In conclusions it can be stated that most of the above quoted studies have focused on one or a few areas of personality. The methodology is not clearly spelt out and lastly most of the studies lack statistical objectivity. Another dimension that was glaring in the studies was that these studies were more inclined towards the task rather than the personality. As the researcher scanned through the past research it was observed that pure personality studies on the organizational set-up were lacking, excluding a few studies which were a result of consultancy work for a particular organization. Hence there is a need for pure research in the field of organizational psychology. This study is an attempt to provide a synergistic view of individuals with their talents, potentials and core competencies in the context of the organizational set-up.

Goodstein and Schrader (1963), compared 1748 men in general with 603 managers and supervisors. The chi-square comparison indicated that 206 of the 480 CPI items reliably (p<.01) differentiated the two groups. All of the managerial and men-in-general CPI protocols were then scored using these 206 items as the managerial key. This key not only reliably differentiated the total managerial group from the men-in-general group but also differentiated personnel at 3 different levels of management: Top, Middle and First line supervisors.

This CPI managerial scale also significantly correlated (r=.233) with ratings of success within the total management group and within the top and middle management subgroup (R’s=.254 and .267 respectively).

Each individual in the management sample was rated by his immediate supervisor on the adequacy of his on-the-job performance. These ratings were secured in individual interviews with trained personnel technicians, using a typical five step, 20 attribute rating form, which yielded a single averaged numerical rating. These ratings were then used to validate the final CPI Managerial Key.
The results of the above study support the contention that an empirical approach to the assessment of managerial potential using the CPI is a useful one. Items from all the 18 published scales were included in the new CPI managerial scale with more than half the items from the tolerance (72%) achievement via independence (62%), dominance (52%) capacity for status, self-acceptance and achievement via conformance (all 50%) scales included. Femininity scale yielded a substantial number of items scored in the reversed direction (69%).

Successful management personnel would therefore appear to be non-authoritarian, achievement oriented, dominant, high drive, communicative, self-acceptance and non-feminine individuals.

The 206 item of the CPI “good manager” scale developed by Goodstein and Schrader (1963) was evaluated against criteria of managerial competence, as indexed by performance ratings of 200 military officers, and managerial interests, as indexed by item endorsement rates for 49 young bank managers, compared with high school, college and adult males. The resulting 34 item Managerial Potential (Mp) scale correlated .86 and .89 with the original measure in normative samples of 1,000 males and females respectively. Alpha reliability’s were .75 for both sexes. Mp correlated .20 with criterion ratings in a huge sample of 143 offices, Mp was diagnostic of behavioral effectiveness, self-confidence, cognitive clarity, and goal-orientation, for both sexes with no implications for self centeredness or exploitative tendencies.

The reliability of the Mp scale was viewed. In samples of 200 males & females, Alpha coefficients of .75 were obtained for each group. For 102 high school males and 128 high school females test on the entire CPI using the test-retest reliability coefficient of .65 & .58 were obtained respectively.
Work Orientation is the sense of self discipline, dedication to obligation and adherence to rule as envisaged by Weber’s concept of the Protestant ethics is a disposition worth assessing. Accordingly, a 40- item Wo scale was developed for the CPI Gough (1985) by means of analysis against two criteria:

(a) For 236 couples, adjectival description of each person by spouse or partners that embodied key elements of the Weberian concept and

(b) Job rating of 221 correctional officers, whose work may be presumed to require fidelity and attention to structure. High scores on Wo were found to be dependably moderate, optimistic, preserving and conservative. It was hypothesized that scores on Wo, in combination of managerial potential could identify styles or patterns of leadership.

Baron & Egan (1968) in their paper Leaders & Innovators of Irish management, studied 40 leading Irish managers, described in terms of psychological tests and assessment procedures. The basic aim of this study was descriptive. The managers had 14.37 years of education. They came from relatively privileged upper middle to upper class families. The average age of the group was 43.81.

A battery of tests used in the assessment included five sets of measures that yield scores on dimensions meaningful to the non-psychologist. The five different measures were as follows: intelligence, psychological type (MBTI based on Jungian Typology) personal philosophy, aesthetic discrimination and lastly personal & social qualities. The CPI was used to measure a variety of dimensions in effective personal and social functioning. The highly indicative dimensions on which the Irish manager scored significantly higher that the general U.S. male population are dominance, self acceptance and achievement through independence. The other indicative scores (approximately 60th to 75th percentiles) are achievement through conformance, communality and feminine nurturance.
Average or slightly above average scores were made by Irish Managers on the following factors - sociability, responsibility, sense of well being, socialization, self control, tolerance, good impression intellectual efficiency that of psychological mindedness and flexibility. In short an interesting combination of independence and conformity emerges.

Gough's (1991) paper primarily dealt with the relationship of personality to leadership. In regard to personality, one goal was to identify attributes that:

(a) Characterize leaders in all settings

(b) Cut across boundaries of age, gender & other classifications and

(c) Predict future attainment of leadership positions.

The finding revealed a strong trend for the CPI scales from the interpersonal sector (dominance through empathy) to be positively related to leadership in all instances. The scales in the realm of interpersonal values (responsibility through tolerance) has distinctively lower correlation's, although there was a trend towards positive coefficients. In the regression analysis only minimally presented, the interpersonal scales more consistently entered into the combination of variables affording maximized prediction than did the inter personal measures.

The 3 scales for the intellective and achievement modes (Ai, Ac, Ie) has positive correlation's in every instance, and the regressions usually added something to what was available in the interpersonal cluster. Psychologically mindedness was also positive in its correlation in every sample, but flexibility and femininity were either close to 0 or negative.
In regard to the CPI type/level theoretical model, Alphas were rated as having good leadership potential and as exhibiting leader like behavior. Alphas, enter happily into the interpersonal milieu and while doing so strive hard to maintain and advance consensual social values & tradition.

Osborn & Osborn (1992) studied the 'impact of personal style on the effectiveness of Latin American Executives'. These executives participated in a leadership development program completed the leadership style inventory (LSI) as a measure of leadership effectiveness and the California psychological inventory (CPI) as a measure of personal style. Significant differences in personal style were noted between leaders who impact positively and negatively in their management environment.

The samples consisted of 282 Latin American executives belonging to the top executives, upper middle & middle levels of management. Of importance to this study is an examination of the CPI profiles for the positive impact as compared to the "negative impact".

Statistically significant differences exist at the 95th percentile or higher on 12 of the 20 scales. Successful managers in Latin America scored significantly higher in dominance, sociability, self-acceptance, sense of well being, responsibility, socialization, self control, tolerance, good impression, achievement via conformance, intellectual efficiency and femininity.

Compatible results on CPI personality comparisons have been reported in research on groups in the U.S. In a study of 30 "highly successful" U.S. executives Rawls and Rawls (1974) found significant differences on 10 of the CPI scales. Four of their scales coincide with the findings of Osborn and Osborn's study in the same (positive) direction: dominance, sociability, self-acceptance and intellectual efficiency; two of their scales significant in the opposite direction are self-control and femininity: these were found to be lower in Rawls' more successful groups and higher in the Osborn and Osborn study.
The purpose of Penelope - Kegel - Flom's (1992) study was to determine the parameters of leadership in students entering one optometry school. To assess the relationship between personality types and leadership during optometry school, and forecast potential for leadership beyond school personality inventories of 269 students entering university of Houston college of optometry (UHCO) from 1988 through 1990 were analyzed for personality type according to Gough's two - vector system (V1 = extroversion/introversion) (V2 = norm favoring/norm - doubting) which results in four types or lifestyles: Alpha, Beta, Gamma and Delta.

Although some sex and ethnic differences were found, most (71%) optometry students were Alphas (extroverted norm-favoring), accepted leaders who strive to maintain and advance consensual values. Alphas' achieved well in class-room and clinic and were student leaders. A lesser number (10%), mostly women were Gammas; extroverted by norm-questioning. Gammas can provide creative and progressive leadership. Remaining types were Betas (15%) and Deltas (4%) both introverted types who avoid leadership positions. In sum, traditional and, to a lesser degree, innovate leadership potential appears strong among optometry students.

In terms of vector 3 scale which is a measure of a actualization of the positive potential, i.e. the level of integration, it was found that 81% of the optometry students had reached levels 5, 6 and 7; the mean level was 5.54. Hispanic and Black students had similar mean actualization levels, the mean level of Asian students were lower, 4.67. on the vector one and two scales, 58% of the Asian optometry students were Alphas, 27% were Betas, 6% were Gammas and 9% were Deltas.

Rawls & Rawls (1974) in their paper "Towards Early Identification and Development of Managerial Success" found similarities among 30 successful and 30 less- successful executives and dimensions of success for 350 male college students and for 694 grammar students. The problem simply is one of identifying an individual's managerial potential early in his career and tailoring training such that his talent is optimally utilized.
In phase 1 of the project 30 highly successful and 30 less-successful managers were selected from the executives in a large Southern Utilities Company. The two investigators and a member of the company’s personnel department independently ranked all 150 managers from the most successful to the least successful. Two personality inventories - The C.P. I. and the E. P. P. S. and a specially created biographical information blank were administered to the 60 executives.

Five (5) of the Fifteen (15) scales of the EPPS and Ten (10) of the Eighteen (18) CPI scales significantly differentiated successful and less successful executives (p< .05). Successful managers made significantly higher scores on the dominance, heterosexuality and aggression scales on the EPPS and on Do, Cs, Sy, Sp, Sa, le, Py, Fx. Less successful managers scored higher on the Sc and F/M scales of the CPI.

In phase 2, college students were selected and the authors sought evidence to support the possibility that seniors with the same college majors, personality characteristics and life history antecedents as those of successful managers would show behavior indicative of managerial potential.

The findings indicated that students resembling successful managers in college major, personality characteristics and personal life history appeared as though they had a well-rounded and more successful all-over college career than those resembling the less-successful managers.

The finding of phase 3 was based on grammar school students. Indicating that parents of successful managers, college students and child leaders are generally better educated. They were healthier, more physically active and more aggressive than their counter-parts. The above data suggests that not only can certain characteristics related to success in management be identified before a person is an employee, but some can apparently be identified quite early in life.
From a population of One Hundred and Fifty (150) executives employed by a medium-sized Utilities Company, 30 highly successful and 30 less-successful executives were selected by Rawls & Rawls (1968) on the basis of:

1. Salary level
2. Company Job Title
3. Job number as listed in the Haynes Salary Survey and

Age and length of service were controlled. The EPPS, the CPI and a One Hundred and Seventy Nine (179) - item Biographical Information Blank (BIB) were administered to all 60 subjects. A total of One Hundred and Ten (110) of the One Hundred and Seventy Nine (179) BIB items had one or more options that significantly differed the two executive groups.

A chi-square analysis was utilized to determine those BIB items that discriminated between successful and less successful executives. A total of One Hundred and Ten (110) of the One Hundred and Seventy Nine (179) items had one or more options that significantly differentiated the 30 less successful and the 30 successful managers at the .05 level or beyond.

In general the successful executive tended to be better informed and more efficient in his work, more self-reliant, independent and imaginative, more flexible and adaptable in his thinking. He appeared to be more responsive to the inner needs and motives of others. He was more persuasive and had greater leadership potential and initiative. He was more ambitious and competitive, dominant, aggressive, manipulative and opportunistic in dealing with others. He is more prone to emphasize personal pleasure and self-gain and to be more impulsive. He seemed to be more forward and outgoing and self-confident in social interaction and to have more hetero-sexual interests.
The mean profile of less successful executives indicated that he possessed less self-confidence than his successful counterpart. He was more likely to take suggestions from others and to accept the leadership of others. He tended to be orderly and organized in his work, stereotyped in his thinking and restricted in his interests. He conformed readily to customs, did what was expected of him, was respectful and accepting of others. He was less ambitious and somewhat lacking in self-direction but at the same time he was dependable and conscientious.

Relationships of administrative position, age, educational preparation to scores on the CPI scales were studied in 1018 randomly selected registered nurses from 31 VA Hospitals by Dyer, Monson, Drimmelen (1971). Significant correlation's (p<.05) were found between administrative position and Do, Re, Sc, Ai, Py, and Fx, between age and Sy, Sp, Sa, So, Sc, Gi, Cm, Ai, le & Fx.

Between educational preparation and Do, Sc, Sy, Sc, To, Ai, Py & Fx. High CPI profiles were obtained by older, better educated nurses in supervisory positions. Lowest profiles occurred in older supervisory nurses who had not pursued their education.

In a study of 200 registered nurses, Dyer (1967) found significant differences between the CPI profiles of the most effective and less-effective nursing supervisors on the CPI scales Sy, Wb, To, Ai & le.

In a sample of 283 Drug users, Grupp and others (1968) investigated the relationship of age and Gi, Sa, Sc & So by correlating the four scales. They found that age was significantly correlated to Gi, Sc & So and not to self-acceptance.

Monson (1970) studied the relationship of age to scores on the CPI and found statistically significant relationship on Ten (10) of the Eighteen (18) scales. Yet age amounted to such a small variance that its effect could be ignored for all practical purposes.
In a group of 1713 college applicants Plant & Telford (1966) studied the relationship between educational attainment and scores on the CPI scales, So, Sy, Sc, Ai, le & Re. They found that significantly higher CPI score changes occurred between a 5-year period for all S’s whether or not they had attended college.

Jacob’s (1992), analyzed the objectivity of the Mp scale, and other C.P.I. scales, for 126 men and 103 women in the AT & T Company. These people were tested in the late 1970’s, as applicants for managerial positions in the company. Then they were hired and followed up for 7 - 10 years. The finding are based on the C.P.I., the E.P.P.S. the T.A.T. and the three ratings of each candidate made in the 1970’s by the assessment staff. The results indicated that the Mp scale does forecast performance for both men and women. (p < .01 level for the entire group).

Given on the next page is the summary table of the major findings with regards to the CPI:
## Summary Of Findings Of Personality Studies Related To The CPI And Other Instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Psychologists</th>
<th>Title Of The Study</th>
<th>Groups Identified</th>
<th>Instruments Used</th>
<th>Major Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mohoney, Jerdee &amp; Nash (1956)</td>
<td>Predicting Managerial Effectiveness</td>
<td>Effective</td>
<td>CPI and others</td>
<td>Effective managers - higher on Do scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodstein &amp; Schrader (1963)</td>
<td>The empirically derived managerial key for the CPI</td>
<td>Managers and supervisors</td>
<td>CPI</td>
<td>Successful managers higher on non authoritarianism, achievement orientation, dominance, communication and higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gough (1984)</td>
<td>A managerial potential scale for the CPI</td>
<td>Bank managers High school and college adult males</td>
<td>CPI</td>
<td>34 item managerial potential scale diagnosing behavioral effectiveness and self confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baron and Egan (1968)</td>
<td>Leaders and Innovators in Irish Management</td>
<td>Irish managers US male population</td>
<td>CPI and others</td>
<td>Irish managers higher on Do, Sa, Ai, Ac, comm &amp; Fm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gough (1987)</td>
<td>Testing for Leadership with CPI</td>
<td>Leaders</td>
<td>CPI</td>
<td>Do, Cs, Sy, Sp, Sa, In, Em, Ai, Ac, le &amp; Py were positively related and Fx &amp; Fm were negatively related to leadership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osborn &amp; Osborn (1992)</td>
<td>The impact of personal style on the effectiveness of Latin American executives.</td>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>CPI and LSI</td>
<td>Successful managers higher on Do, Sy, Sa, Wb, Re, So, Sc, To, Gi, Ac, Ie &amp; F/m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penelope Kegel Flom (1992)</td>
<td>What kind of Leaders are Entering Optometry Schools?</td>
<td>Cross cultural optometry students</td>
<td>Vector 1, Vector 2 and Vector 3 scales of the CPI</td>
<td>71% alphas, 15% betas, 81% between the 5 - 7 levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rawls &amp; Rawls (1974)</td>
<td>Towards Early Identification of Development of Managerial Successful</td>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>CPI, EPPS and BiB</td>
<td>Successful managers higher on Do, Cs, Sy, Sp, le, Sa, Py, and Fx</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary and Conclusions:

Conclusions: A number of studies have successfully found a high correlation between managerial performance and personality factors, as well as between certain other variables (age, education qualification, position and so on). However it is observed that performance criteria is either not clearly mentioned which could mean the studies have relied on the criteria as defined by organizations where the data was collected, or simply not enough emphasis has been given to the criterion of measuring performance. Since the definition of performance would be different and often misleading if one strictly went according to prior definitions, this is perhaps one area that needs to be looked into. This issue has been discussed on page 24 in the first chapter.

Another area of discomfort was the way in which conclusions were drawn solely on the basis of the test scores, this could be very misleading. As pointed out in the earlier chapter, it is unfair to rely on measuring instrument completely as they are not free from errors and misinterpretations.

One caution that needs to be addressed which to my knowledge is the most important factors to be kept in mind, is to do with the cultural context in which the test is undertaken. Even though most of the tests claim to be culture fair and free, the results would have little value if the results are not interpreted in keeping with the socio-cultural context. Managers in the Indian context would operate differently as compared to managers in any other country. Being independent of others carries a negative connotation in our culture, whereas in America being dependent on others could mean a negative attribute since independence is encouraged right from childhood.

In the Indian context, no study has been published using the C.P.I. in the managerial context even though the CPI is used extensively in Recruitment and Training by Prof. I.J.Parikh in her consultancy projects (Core Pharmaceuticals, MRF, Gujarat Refineries, Mahindra & Mahindra).
Since the studies have not been reported and published there remains a dearth of such studies. One study has been reported, which is a part of the consultancy work undertaken by Parikh (1991) in which 44 middle and junior managers of a Pharmaceutical company were measured on the 18 dimensions of the original version of the C.P.I. The means of all the 18 personality dimensions were calculated. No other statistical treatment was given, since only one organization was studied results should be applied with caution. Since very little work in this direction has been undertaken in the Indian context, it was felt that such a study could serve as a beginning for other studies to follow.

Though the reliability and validity of the CPI has not been measured on the Indian population, it is widely acceptable and applicable in the Indian context. The results of similar studies (unpublished) in India are comparable to the Western research findings. Nevertheless, tremendous research work needs to focus standardizing the CPI on the Indian population. Efforts are already being made by the research in the working out the content and face validities of the test items based on samples drawn from managers and Business School graduates. (Singh N, 1996).