

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It is stated in the preface that the idea of the present work is outcome of the experience of the author and his guide on the projects on adolescent adjustment and students counselling. The adjustment problems of the adolescents needed probe regarding the underlying psychodynamics. However, no suitable devices for measuring various aspects of individuals capacities, interests, attitudes and personality were available. Work was hampered greatly due to the lack of suitable tests. Whatever tests were used, were mostly imported from abroad, and had to be interpreted cautiously. To meet the need for a device to measure personality, the author undertook to standardize a personality inventory.

Personality can be measured by different techniques, which are discussed in the next chapter.

Construction and standardization of the personality inventory was preferred to other techniques on the grounds of economy, large scale applicability, saving of time, and better reliability. Even in the hands of those who do not claim to be expert psychologists, inventories yield meaningful data. In India, there is a dearth of trained personnel in the field of psychology, who can use complicated devices. Simple paper and pencil tests, which do not involve much complications in the process of administration and interpretation have to be preferred for the time-being.

In such work, restrictions have to be imposed in terms of population, purpose, and even aspects to be measured. The present author decided to restrict the applicability of the inventory to the college-going population in the first instance and to those who had had at least some college education. This restriction was imposed, because, the primary purpose before him, was to use it with the university students in the Student Counselling Centre.

Many students who came to the Centre for help, did not know the local regional language. They came from the different parts of India. It was thought that English language would suit all of them better than any particular regional language.

Moreover, many of the students who came for counselling expressed their problems as shyness, emotional difficulties, difficulties in adjustment with people or surroundings, etc. It was, therefore, thought that some sort of measure of introversion-extra-version and emotional stability would be directly useful in the counselling work. It was with this purpose in the mind that the work was begun in this direction.

The contents of this report of the entire work are self-explanatory about all the decisions made and steps followed. In the remaining of this chapter is given the theoretical framework for the construction of the personality inventory. This is followed by the general discussion of the different

techniques of personality measurement and their evaluation. This is necessary to give a comparative picture of them as against the personality inventories which are discussed in details in the subsequent chapter. The different types including the latest developments along the forced-choice technique are reviewed in the third chapter on "personality inventories: a retrospect." This is followed by the general discussion of the forced-choice technique which has been followed in the standardization procedure of the present Inventory. The subsequent chapters describe in details the different steps taken, viz. construction of the items, pilot administration, selection of the external criteria and validation of individual items against them, norms and reliability studies, and general observations.

As stated above the remaining of this chapter deals with the theoretical background of the work. It is divided into the following sections for convenience:

- (i) Individual differences in personality,
- (ii) Definition of personality,
- (iii) Conceptual framework regarding personality,
- (iv) The factors of personality measured, and
- (v) Their organization.

1.1 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN PERSONALITY

Science of Psychology is young in the sense that as a systematic body of knowledge about the phenomena of behaviour it came to be studied very recently. Those who devoted fully, their time and energies helped to give it a self-contained shape. However, psychological thought as such can be traced back in the remotest antiquities, scattered through the writings of several ancient thinkers. The references to personality and individual differences date back to the Greek thinkers. Plato classified individuals into three categories: intellectuals, soldiers and labourers. Hippocrates and Galen

differentiated four temperamental types: sanguine, choleric, phlegmatic and melancholic, which were popularly used for a long time. In India, the Sankhya Philosophy described individual differences in terms of the predominance of "Satwa", "Rajas" and "Tamas" factors. The four-fold classification into Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudra was based on one's ability to perform 'Karma' appropriate to one of these four categories. Summarily, the fact of the individual differences in personality is not a new idea. It has always been there. However, it has been greatly substantiated and elaborated in the present century.

Individual differences were perceived, perhaps as contributions of persons to their own good as well as to that of a community. It means that some individuals were more successful than others in making their own lives richer and happier, and also in making some positive contribution to the welfare of the society in which they lived. In a -

competitive society of today these differences are greatly exaggerated, and are more conspicuously perceived and consciously felt. A university announces its results. A few come out with flying colours, certain percentage passes out while the others fail. An employer receives hundreds of applications for a post, interviews a few and finally selects one. Examples of this type can be multiplied indefinitely. They all point to but one fact that individuals differ. They differ in a number of aspects and the differences are manifest in all walks of life.

Within the individual himself there are different factors. One is good at a few, average at some, and inferior in others. The factors at which he is good are his assets on which he can generally capitalize and succeed in future.

There are, therefore, differences between personalities and also there are differences within personality. If it is possible to discover the strong and weak points of an individual and if his

energies and resources can be directed accordingly, perhaps the psychologists might be able to erase the word 'failure' from the dictionary.

A vocational counsellor says that in order to get success in a certain occupation, a person must have a certain level of intelligence, a special ability or aptitude, an inclination to do that kind of work which is involved on that job - this he calls the interest - and a particular set of personality characteristics. It has been proved by a number of research workers that every occupation has a minimum requirement in terms of intelligence or general ability. If a person having lower level of it than required enters it, his chances of failure are very great. Similarly, he must have a set of special abilities or aptitude. A man who is low on the mechanical aptitude may not be a successful engineer. If he is good at the musical aptitude he has good chances of becoming a successful musician. Same is true about interests also. Even though one

has an aptitude for a particular line, he may not be successful in it. Ability to do the job is a latent factor, just like the capacity of a steam-engine. But in order to exploit work from it, one needs motive power. The engine can work only if there is steam or any other power to operate it. A person's abilities may also remain unexploited or unused if he is not interested in using them. The interest provides motivation. As such it is a dynamic factor. It plays a great role in an individual's performance on his job. But perhaps even more important than his abilities and interests is his personality make-up. Broadly speaking, personality includes the other factors in its frame of reference. For convenience, ability part is always treated separately. Interests can be said to be dependent upon the underlying personality characteristics. At times they are taken as direct manifestations of an individual's personality traits. Therefore, personality is more fundamental to the study and understanding of an individual person.

The understanding or the insight gained into this internal structure of a man can help parents in bringing up children wisely, teachers in making their classroom instruction more effective, counsellors in planning the educational and vocational careers of their counsellees, in helping them through their various problems-personal, social or emotional in nature - in marriage counselling, and the selectors in the selection in school, college or for employment. These are the important areas of application of the personality measurement, but in fact it is applied in a much greater variety of situations. Like any other measurement, it is a problem of measurement of personality for the prediction and control of behaviour in the future with a view to fostering individual happiness and his social efficiency and worth.

1.2 DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

It is very difficult to define personality in such a way that it would be acceptable to all. -

"Allport, who has written the classic introduction to this field, discusses some fifty definitions without doing more than scratching the surface."¹ And it will not help very much to enter into this controversial theoretical issue. There are a number of textbooks on this subject and it is not of much practical value to quote from them the definitions and their elaborate discussions. However, for the necessary understanding of the term 'personality', a little discussion is inescapable. The word 'personality' is derived from the Greek word 'persona' meaning theatrical mask worn by the Greek actors to characterize their roles. "In time the term 'persona' came 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.'² According

1 H. J. Eysenck, *Sense and Nonsense in Psychology* (Harmondsworth: Penguin Books Ltd., 1957), p. 175.

2 J. P. Guilford, *Personality* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1959), p. 2.

to Allport,³ the term personality is used in four different senses in the writings of Cicero. First, personality is regarded as an assemblage of personal qualities; in this sense it represents what the person is really like. Second, a personality is regarded as the way a person appears to others, not as he really is. Third, personality is the role a person plays in life, for example, a professional, social, or political role. Finally, personality refers to qualities of distinction and dignity. All these four meanings have their roots in the theatre. In the first interpretation personality pertains to the actor, in the second to the mask he wears, in the third to the role or character he plays, and in the fourth to the star performer. In common sense, a personality in society is a man of distinction or worth. All these meanings except the fourth which has an evaluative connotation, and therefore, cannot be found in scientific setting, are still used in the most modern conceptions of the term. The definitions of personality can be classified into

3 G.W.Allport, Personality - A Psychological Interpretation (New York: Henry Holt and Co.,1949), p.26.

various ways. Here the classification adopted by Guilford is followed.⁴

Personality as a Stimulus

This class of definitions is a sociological interpretation of the term. The example of such definitions is May's interpretation of personality as a man's social-stimulus value. "It is the responses made by others to the individual as a stimulus that define his personality."⁵

Very few of those who study personality scientifically accept this point of view. In this sense it has an evaluative connotation in its meaning which is identical with reputation. If carried to its logical extreme it loses sense completely, because, in that event an individual's personality is measured not by studying the individual himself but the reactions, judgments and prejudices of

4 Guilford, Op.Cit. pp. 2-5.

5 M. A. May, "The Foundations of Personality", in *Psychology at Work*, P. S. Achilles, Chapter XIV, 1932, As cited in Allport, Op.Cit. p.41.

others who can pass remarks on him.

Perceptions vary according to the individuals, and therefore, an individual in question might be described as different by different judges. But none doubts today that every individual has in him a set of characteristics which exists, whether perceived or not by others.

Omnibus Definitions

Personality is "the sum-total of the reactions of an individual to all the situations which he encounters,"⁶ or "a constellation of the following event patterns - somatic reactions, autistic reveries, adjustive thinking, and object orientations",⁷ or "the sum-total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites, and instincts of the individual, and the acquired

6 H.D.Lowrey, in Proceedings of the Second Colloquium on Personality Investigation (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1930), p.151.

7 H.D.Lasswell, in Ibid., p.151.

dispositions and tendencies - acquired by experiences."⁸ These are the typical examples of the omnibus sort of definitions. Regarding these definitions anyone will agree that they define merely by enumeration. No attention is paid to the most outstanding characteristics of all mental life, namely, the presence of arrangement and organization. "The mere cataloguing of ingredients defines personality no better than the alphabet defines lyric poetry."⁹

Integrative Definitions

As the designation of this class signifies, such definitions stress the organization within personality, most unlike the omnibus definitions. Warren and Carmichael defined personality as, "the entire organization of a human being at any stage of his development."¹⁰ MacCurdy defined it as, "an

⁸ M.Prince, The Unconscious (New York: Macmillan, 1924), p.532.

⁹ Allport, Op.Cit. p.44.

¹⁰ H.C.Warren and L.Carmichael, Elements of Human Psychology (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1930), p.333.

integration of patterns (interests) which gives a peculiar individual trend to the behaviour of the organism."¹¹ According to Gesell it is, "the pervasive superpattern which expresses the integrity and the characteristic behavioural individuality of the organism."¹² The organizational aspect is given due importance in such definitions and also reference is made by some to its uniqueness. But still some are still vague when they use such phrases as "entire organization of a human being" or "integration of patterns", etc.

Totality Definitions

William James, McDougall, Bridges, Heider, Blondel, Martin, and many others¹³ view personality as an integrated whole with more elaborate organizational pattern, a sort of hierarchical one. There

¹¹ J.T.MacCurdy, Common Principles in Psychology and Physiology, 1928, p.263, As cited in Allport, Op.Cit. p.44.

¹² A.Gesell, Proc.Second Colloquium on Personality Investigation, 1930, Op.Cit. p.149.

¹³ G.W.Allport and P.E.Vernon, "The Field of Personality", Psychol.Bull., XXVII: 681-87, 1930.

are levels or layers of dispositions or characteristics usually with a unifying or integrative principle at the top. Literally taken again they create confusion due to lack of clarity in expressions but if taken simply as integrative ones with greater stress on organizational pattern they are useful. Eysenck has elaborated this concept recently and given it a very clear form. "Explicit in Eysenck's writing is the conception of personality as composed of acts and dispositions that are organized in a hierarchical fashion in terms of their generality or importance."¹⁴

Personality as Adjustment

When evolutionary interpretation is applied, personality becomes a way of adjustment, a mode of survival. Biologists and behaviourists are more inclined to attach this meaning to personality. It is fully developed by Kempf whose conception is, in

¹⁴ C.S.Hall and G.Lindzey, *Theories of Personality* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1957), p.384.

Allport's words, "the integration of those systems of habits that represent an individual's characteristic adjustments to his environment."¹⁵

There are other definitions such as, "Personality is the organized system, the functioning whole or unity of habits, dispositions and sentiments that mark off any one member of a group as being different from any other member of the same group."¹⁶ It is "that particular pattern or balance of organized reactions which sets one individual off from another."¹⁷ "Personality refers not to any particular sort of activity, such as talking, remembering, thinking or living, but an individual can reveal his personality in the way he does any of these things,"¹⁸ meaning

¹⁵ Allport, Op.Cit. p.45.

¹⁶ M.Schoen, Human Nature, 1930, p.397, As cited in Allport, Op.Cit. p.46.

¹⁷ R.M.Wheeler, The Science of Psychology, 1929, p.34, As cited in Allport, Op.Cit. p.47

¹⁸ R.S.Woodworth, Psychology (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929), p.553.

it is a style of his life. When revised, this was put thus: "Personality can be broadly defined as the total quality of an individual's behaviour, as it is revealed in his habits of thought and expression, his attitudes and interests, his manner of acting, and his personal philosophy of life."¹⁹ These definitions emphasize the uniqueness of the individual.

When Allport²⁰ summarises all these definitions in his monumental treatise, he puts forth his own, encompassing the essential characteristics of all of them. According to him, "personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment." By far, this definition still remains the most comprehensive expression and clear picture of what is understood by the

¹⁹ R.S.Woodworth and D.G.Marquis, Psychology (London: Methuen, 1947), pp. 87-88.

²⁰ Allport, Op.Cit. p.48.

term personality.

As far as the present work is concerned, this last definition serves the purpose very well. Here the concern is mainly with the adjustment of the individual and its measurement for the purpose of prediction and control of an individual's behaviour. Also the chief interest is in measurement of the individual's personality with reference to the group norms and as such the concepts of individual differences and individual uniqueness are significant for this work. All these points are covered by the abovementioned definition.

1.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Before an attempt is made to measure anything it is logical to begin first with defining the attributes to be measured. There is an implicit assumption that the attributes do exist and they are measurable. But the field of personality is characterized by a variety of approaches to its conceptual framework so that a novice in the field is likely to be

baffled about the very existence of such a thing as personality. This is true of many other psychological attributes such as intelligence, motives, attitudes, etc. However, the knowledge of the exact nature of these things is not necessarily an essential condition if our problem is only its measurement. This does not mean that we need not have any knowledge about it. As a matter of fact, when we have different points of view about a thing, we are likely to have all the knowledge, without actually knowing how much of it is relevant to our purpose. The physicists do not know the nature of electricity, still, its science is far advanced. In the same way, in the field of personality, even though there is no unanimity about the definition and the structure of human personality, measurement should be possible for all practical purposes.

The necessary principles and concepts which are useful in the present work are briefly mentioned below, without entering into their theoretical controversies.

"Through the interactions of the growing organism with its environment, an integrated psychological structure is built up which includes, the conscious sentiments, interest, and habits (as described by McDougall), and the unconscious "mechanisms" or complexes of the psychoanalyst."²¹ This integrated and relatively stable structure which determines the adult's behaviour in specific situations is, what is called his personality.

A man is not fully aware of his complete personality structure, because, part of it is embedded in the unconscious. Therefore, all the behaviour cannot be explained at a conscious level.

The personality structure is constantly undergoing change. New behaviour patterns emerge and become functionally autonomous.²²

²¹ P.E.Vernon, "The Assessment of Personality" in Halmos and Iliffe (eds.), Readings in General Psychology (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1959), p. 153.

²² Allport, Op.Cit. p.48.

The specific behaviour is determined by interaction between the personality structure as well as the environment surrounding the individual at that particular moment.

The above principles sound a note of caution for those who rely too much on the test results to describe or predict an individual's behaviour.

Personality is described in terms of traits, types, dimensions and so on. It is also described at different levels. The personality structure is conceived by Eysenck as a hierarchical structure as shown in figure I-1.

In the abovementioned scheme, the type level represents the highest order of abstraction and generalization, essentially in a statistical sense, because, it is based on intercorrelations.

These different terms used to describe personality such as type, trait, or dimension are not quite different in meaning from one another.

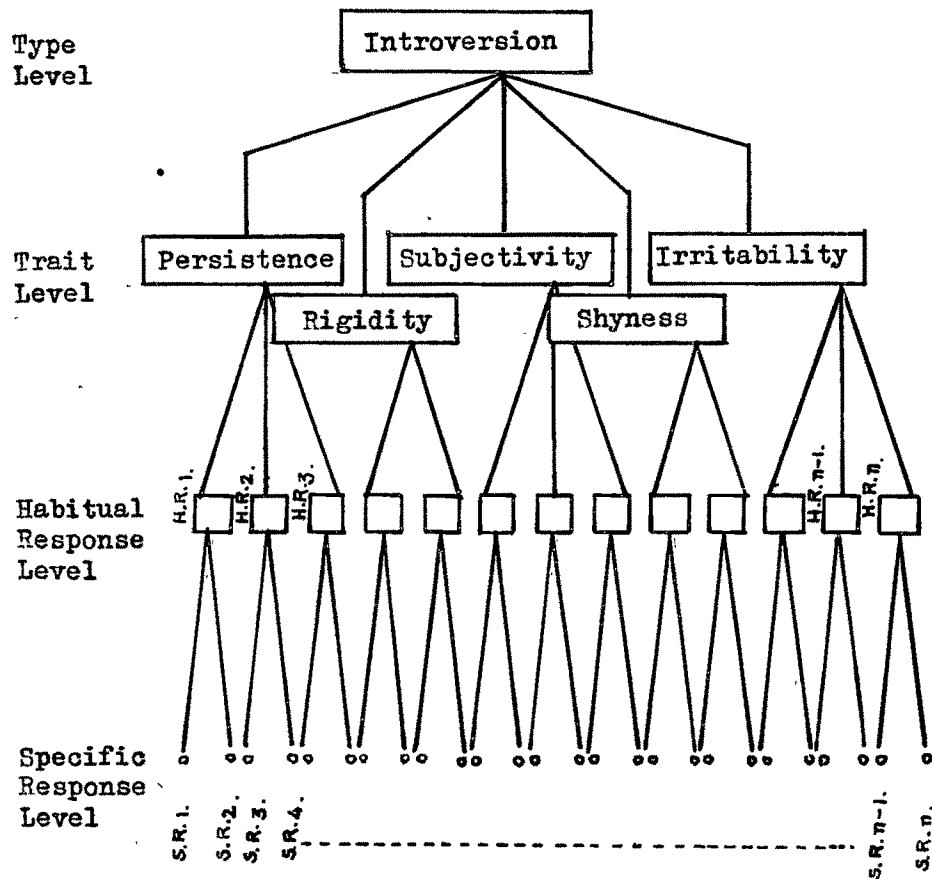


Figure I-1

Diagrammatic Representation of Hierarchical
Organization of Personality²³

²³ H.J. Eysenck, Dimensions of Personality
(London : Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1947), P. 29.

Introversion is called a trait by many, though Jung called it a type and Eysenck prefers to call it so. Secondly, trait approach and the type approach are not contradictory approaches which cannot be integrated into a logical system. In the above scheme these are but two different levels of generalization. Cattell has worked out a list of source traits on the basis of factor analytic studies, to describe personality. But he too reports some intercorrelations among these which give rise to second order factors. These second order factors resemble closely with the three basic dimensions or types that Eysenck has identified.²⁴

The investigator has to decide what level should he choose for his specific purposes. The present investigator was working in the field of adolescent adjustment and subsequently in that of student counselling and was interested in preparing

24 H.J.Eysenck, "The Measurement of Personality: A New Inventory." J.Indian acad. apply.Psychol. I: 1-11, 1964.

an instrument for use in his work. He also wanted to study the relationship between the personality patterns and modes of adjustment. And with this aim in view the inventory was designed in the way closely resembling that of Eysenck. Eysenck's Maudsley Personality Inventory measured two dimensions: Introversion-extraversion and Normal-neuroticism. The idea of preparing a similar tool appealed to the investigator for its direct utility and the idea was taken up with some extension. Of course, the planning and processing of it was done in complete independence from Eysenck's technique. To the dimensions mentioned above, one more was added: Psychoticism. This was the third of Eysenck's dimensions, making a complete scheme for describing personality structure. In the following section, all the three dimensions considered for measurement are defined and discussed.

1.4 FACTORS OF PERSONALITY TO BE MEASURED

The concepts of the three dimensions chosen for making the Inventory, belong originally to different people. For example, Jung was first to

introduce the introversion-extraversion typology.

Neuroticism has been used since long and psychoticism as a general factor was conceived by Eysenck as a result of his ^{factor} analytic studies. Here is an attempt made to discuss these three dimensions to make their meaning clear and precise and to remove some of the existing misconceptions regarding their interrelationships.

Introversion-extraversion

The credit of making the terms introvert and extravert popular goes to the analytical psychologist, Jung. He coined these terms to describe a bipolar typology. Historically, the similar typology can be traced back in the writings of Galen. He called the two types by the terms, 'habitus phthisicus' and 'habitus apoplecticus.'²⁵ Since Jung's description of the introvert and the extravert has been the basis for much subsequent work, it is

²⁵ H. P. Hildebrand, "A Factorial Study of Introversion-Extraversion", Brit. J. Psychol., XLIX: 1-11, 1958.

proper to discuss it in some details.

According to Jung²⁶, people can be divided along a continuum. While one class of them hesitate before making any reaction to the stimulation from the environment, another class reacts promptly with the confidence that they are absolutely right. The former class display a negative attitude, while the latter a positive one towards the objects. Jung called the former as the introverts and the latter, the extraverts. Eysenck²⁷ describes introversion as predominance of subjective values in taking decisions and making reactions. According to him introverts do pay attention to reality and objective environment, but these do not predominate in their behaviour. On the other hand, the extraverts are more positively oriented to reality and their decisions and behaviour are governed more by the objects

26 C.G.Jung, *Modern Man in Search of a Soul* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1933), p.98.

27 H. J. Eysenck, 1947, *Op.Cit.*, p. 56.

and objective facts rather than their subjective values.

On the basis of empirical findings Eysenck²⁸ describes the two types in their normal form as well as when they develop neurotic symptoms. It is his contention that the introverts and the extraverts develop different kinds of neurotic tendencies and symptoms. When they are put to test on some objective experiments, these facts come out clearly. On the basis of his findings, the elaborate description of the two types is done in the following manner:

Introverts: The introverts are self-conscious, nervous, irritable, emotionally apathetic, moody, persistent, accurate but slow, rigid, and withdrawing from social occasions. Their feelings are easily hurt. They suffer from feelings ^{of} inferiority, day-dream easily and suffer from sleeplessness. Vertical growth predominates over horizontal growth in their

28 Ibid. pp. 246-47.

body-build. Their intelligence is comparatively high, and vocabulary is excellent. Their salivary secretion is inhibited. Their aspirations are high but they underrate their own performance. They prefer the quiet old-fashioned type of picture and produce compact designs with concrete subjects. They do not appreciate jokes very much particularly sex jokes. The type of neurotic tendencies that they develop are anxiety and depression symptoms, and obsessional tendencies.

Extraverts: Horizontal growth predominates over vertical growth in the body-build of the extraverts. Their salivary secretion is not inhibited. They are quick but inaccurate, and show extreme lack of persistence. They are not rigid in their behaviour and show great intra-personal variability. Their intelligence is comparatively low, vocabulary is poor, level of aspiration is low and interests are narrow. They are inclined to overrate their own performance. They prefer the colourful modern type of picture, and produce scattered designs with

abstract subjects. They appreciate jokes very much, particularly sex jokes. The type of neurotic tendencies that they develop are hysterical conversion symptoms, a hysterical attitude to their symptoms, and hypochondriasis. They are troubled by stammering, stuttering, aches and pains. They are accident prone, and frequently keep away from work through illness. They have a bad work history. Their attitude is that of a disgruntled soul.

Further comparison of the two types leads to the understanding of a few more characteristics of them. The salient characteristics of each type are compared below.

The extravert adopt easily to the environmental conditions right from their early childhood, whereas the introvert are shy and afraid of the objects in their environments. The approach of the extravert is confident, whereas that of the introvert is cautious. The former welcome new situations while the latter try to avoid them. The contacts

with objects and situations are much more numerous in the former case than in the latter. The former are impulsive, the latter, reflective. Though, the extraverts impress upon others as more normal, aggressive and well adjusted persons, they also are thought of as trouble makers and nuisance at home and in school. On the other hand the shy, hesitant introvert is not easily noticed by others, and is considered a well-behaved person in the family as well as in school. These are all points of view in looking at these types. Both the types are as a matter of fact 'normal' from the clinical point of view. Sometimes introversion is confused with neuroticism by those who do not have an occasion to examine carefully these concepts.

There has been another misconception regarding the distribution of this trait. It was thought that these two types would display a bimodal -

distribution. But Burt²⁹ found no evidence of this in his study. Eysenck³⁰ also found the distribution to be very nearly normal and not bimodal. Thus the majority of persons would lie in the middle of this dimension with a few cases at either extremes. The middle ones are known as ambiverts. The figure No. I-2 represents this better.

Neuroticism

"Regarding the general factor of neuroticism we can find adumbrations of it in such theoretical concepts as McDougall's 'self-regarding sentiment' (1926), Janet's view of 'misere psychologique' (1903), Hollingworth's concept of 'reintegration' (1931), Pavlov's theory of 'strength of nervous functioning'

29 C.Burt, *The Factors of the Mind*, London: University of London Press, 1940. As cited by H.J. Eysenck, *Dimensions of Personality* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1947), p.58.

30 Eysenck, 1947, Op. Cit. p.59.

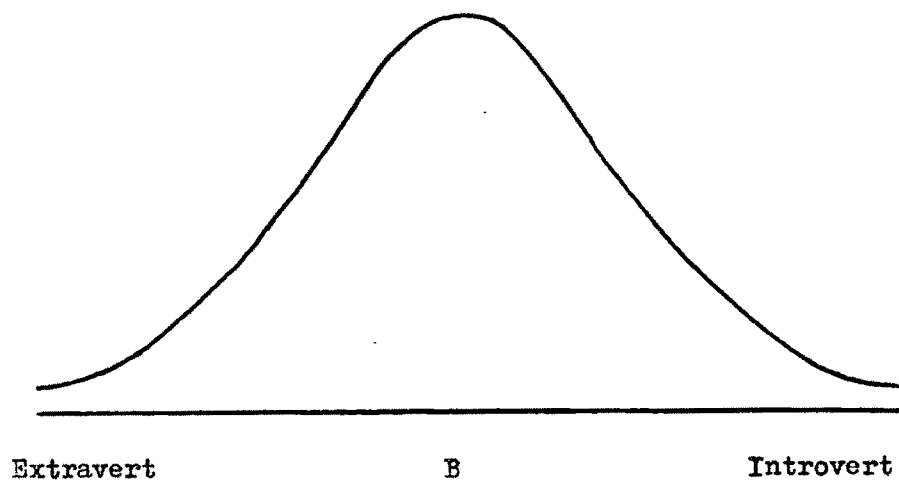


Figure I-2

Introversion-Extraversion Continuum³¹

³¹ H.J. Eysenck, The Structure of Human Personality (London : Methuen, 1953), P. 10.

(1941), Luria's view of a 'functional barrier' (1932) and the many similar concepts elaborated by psychologists and psychiatrists. The Slater's concept of 'neurotic constitution' (1944) would appear to come closest to our own findings."³²

Eysenck begins his discussion of the general factor of neuroticism with the above remarks and reviews the experimental literature related to it. As already mentioned he found this factor in his own researches and he confirmed its existence by large-scale investigations. He summarises the evidence from others in this connection by saying, "..... we believe that the first, general factor isolated in our analysis corresponds closely to Webb's 'w' and Maller's 'c' factors. It further corresponds to similar factors of emotional instability or neurotic tendency isolated by Hart (1943), Perry (1943), Kelley and Krey (1934), Studman (1935), Flanagan

32 Ibid. p.37.

(1935), McCloy (1936), Howie (1945), Chi (1937), Rexroad (1937), Vernon (1938), Reyburn and Taylor (1939), and Gibb (1942). It would appear that this factor might justifiably be labelled 'neuroticism', and indeed several of the authors quoted have used this term in attempts to designate the factor."³³

The general description of the neurotic persons is given below:

The neurotic individuals suffer from excessive worry and fear without apparent reasons. They are emotionally unstable, excessively sensitive, nervous, self-indulgent, and comparatively incapable to stand hard trials of life. They suffer from inferiority feelings, harbour frustrated strong urges, find it difficult to take failures, have faulty concepts of self, and lack sense of humour and confidence. They are below average in intelligence, will, emotional control, sensory acuity, and capacity to exert. They are also very suggestible, slow in thought and

33 Ibid. p.41.

action. They lack persistence and tend to repress unpleasant facts.

It was often believed that the neurotic tendencies were symptomatic of mental disease which either existed or did not exist, and that the normals as a group were qualitatively different from that of the neurotics. Recently, there has been a shift from this standpoint, and the hypothesis about the continuity of the scale or dimension of neuroticism with normality is being considered more favourably.

Eysenck³⁴ reports the results of his investigations to verify the above hypothesis, and concludes that the one which accepts the continuity from normality to neuroticism is the valid standpoint. He refutes the hypothesis which regards these two states as qualitatively different. According to his argument, the dimension of normal-neuroticism can be represented diagrammatically as shown in the figure I-3.

34 H.J.Eysenck, *The Scientific Study of Personality* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1952), p.56.

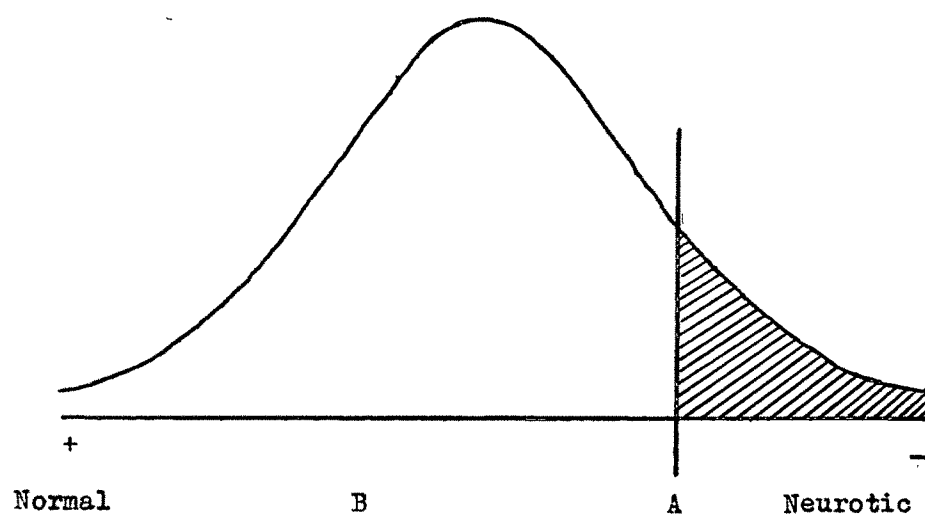


Figure I-3

Hypothetical Neuroticism Continuum³⁵

³⁵ H.J. Eysenck, The Scientific Study of Personality (London : Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1952), P. 52.

A few people lie at the plus end who are completely normal, well balanced, integrated and emotionally stable persons. A few at the minus end are the neurotics, poorly integrated, emotionally very unstable persons. The degree of neuroticism and instability increases from the plus end to the minus end. A person is likely to be labelled a confirmed 'neurotic' when he falls beyond some critical point A, when he is in need of psychiatric treatment of some sort. But there is no reason to believe that his behaviour differs qualitatively from one who lies at B, and who just manages to maintain more or less normal working relations with his environment. He too can improve by some kind of psychiatric treatment, but his condition is not as bad as the one who is labelled 'neurotic' by virtue of the magnitude of the trait present.

Psychoticism

Whether this factor is continuous with that of neuroticism or is qualitatively different from it has

always been a subject of controversy. Freud assumed only one continuum of regression along which the normals, the neurotics and also the psychotics lie. The psychotics as a class are the most regressed of all, the neurotics are less regressed than psychotics, the normals the least. More orthodox psychiatrists believed that the neurotics and the psychotics belong to two different classes of mental disorders which are qualitatively different from each other.

Kretschmer, who has done much by way of theorizing in the field of psychoses, proposed a dimension which he called cyclothymia-schizothymia. According to Eysenck³⁶ such a proposition is based on the assumption of essential continuity between normal and psychotic mental states. He examined the methodology as well as the results of Kretschmer's studies carefully, conducted his own investigations and arrived at the inference that the dimension of psychoticism is continuous with normal state and

³⁶ Ibid. p.199.

there is no evidence of the cyclothymia-schizothymia as a dimension so far as his studies are concerned. As he is the originator of the concept of psychoticism as a general factor, his description of this dimension on the basis of his experimental finding is as follows:³⁷

- (i) The psychotics are less fluent.
- (ii) They perform poorly on continuous addition and mirror drawing.
- (iii) They show slower oscillation on the reversal of perspective test.
- (iv) They are slower in tracing with a stylus.
- (v) They are more undecided with respect to social attitudes.
- (vi) They show poorer concentration.
- (vii) They have poorer memory.
- (viii) They tend to make larger movements.
- (ix) They overestimate distances and scores.
- (x) They read more slowly.

³⁷ Ibid. p.217.

(xi) They are slow on the tapping test.

(xii) Their levels of aspiration are much less reality oriented.

These are comparative statements about the psychotic individuals when they are compared with the normal group.

With the extension of the concept of psychoticism in the normal field, one is taken with little surprise. The distribution of people along this dimension takes the form shown in the figure I-4.

Just as described in case of the neurotic dimension here also the persons at the plus end are normal, those at the minus end are psychotic. The person lying at C is more psychotic than person at B. But perhaps none of them is labelled so. Only those who lie beyond some critical point A, are labelled psychotics and are referred to mental hospitals.

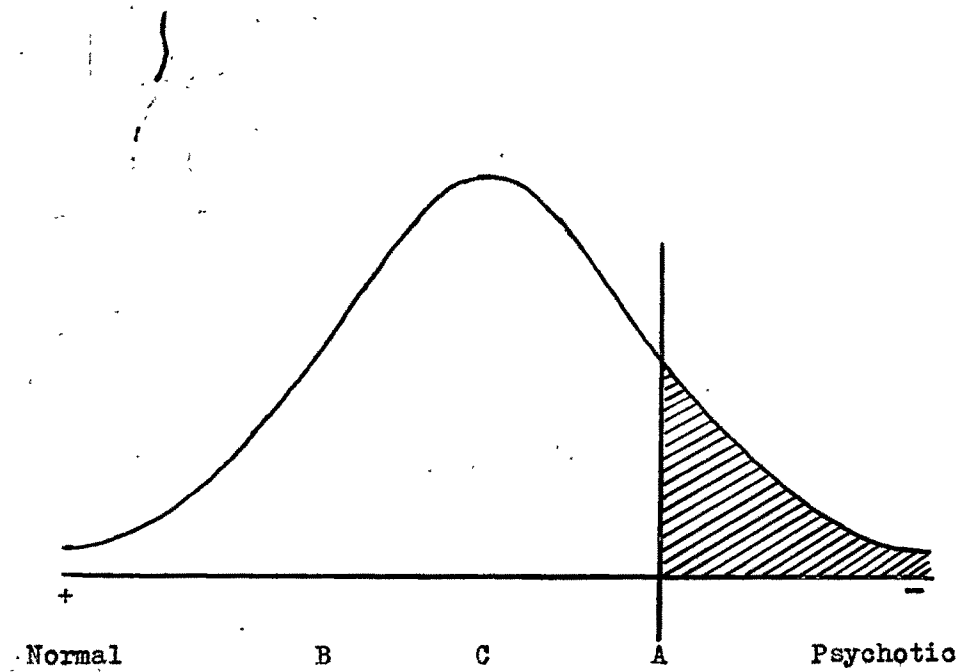


Figure I-4

Hypothetical Psychoticism Continuum³⁸

³⁸ H. J. Eysenck, *The Scientific Study of Personality* (London : Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1952), P. 213.

1.5 THE ORGANIZATION OF FACTORS

The three dimensions discussed so far have been isolated as independent and orthogonal factors by Eysenck. His scheme is remarkably simple and consistent with his findings and his pleas for theoretical parsimony.³⁹ He has discussed the ideas of different people regarding the relationship between these different factors and has evaluated them critically on the basis of experimental data and results. He establishes his findings firmly and as already mentioned finds support to his ideas from no less an authority on this subject than Cattell. Cattell also has agreed that there exist some inter-correlations among the primary source traits which give rise to second order factors. These second order factors are very much comparable to those found by Eysenck.⁴⁰

³⁹ C.S.Hall and G.Lindzey, *Theories of Personality* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1957), p.389.

⁴⁰ H.J.Eysenck, *Dynamics of Anxiety and Hysteria* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1957), p. 32.

Deeper discussion of these issues which are more of theoretical importance is perhaps not very pertinent here. The three factors, introversion-extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism are considered to begin with in the present work. The interrelationships of these is shown in the figure I-5.

All the three dimensions are orthogonal to each other. It means that there would be no correlation between any two dimensions whatsoever.

After considering the theoretical positions regarding the definitions of personality, the different factors or dimensions, their organization within personality, it is now proper to turn to techniques for their measurement.

It was known for sure that the first two factors have been measured by the inventory method. In the third chapter the review of some of the inventories, which have been used widely, shows that they had these scales. But no inventory has a scale on the general factor of psychoticism. Nor is there

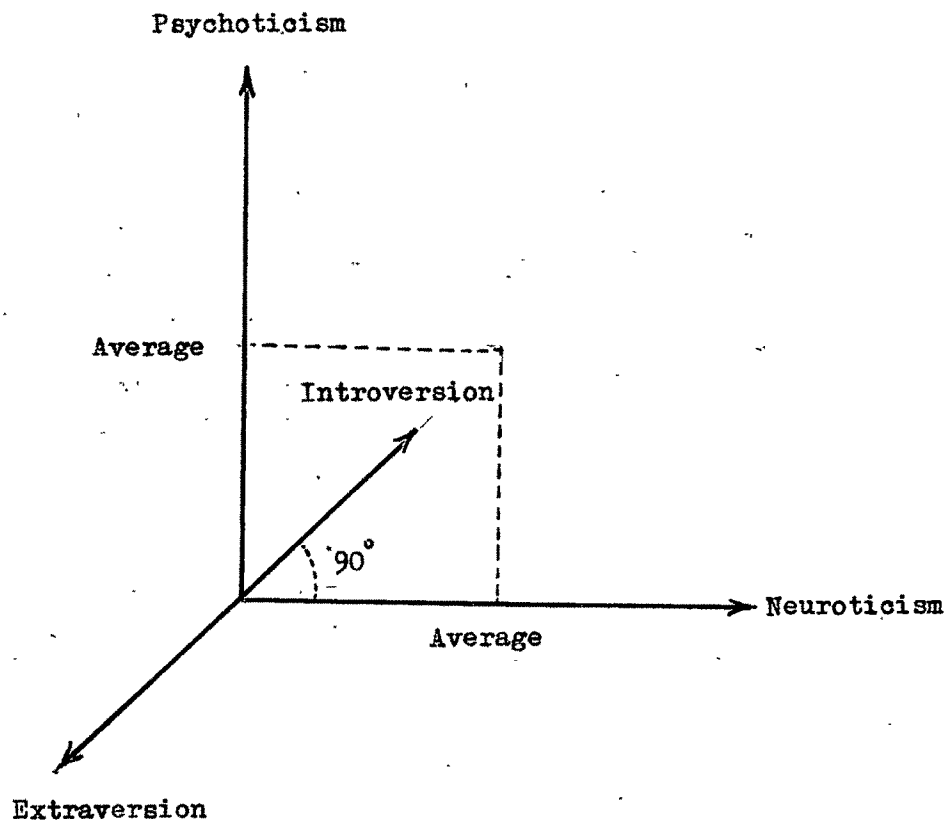


Figure I-5

Diagrammatic Representation of Three Dimensions:
Introversion-Extraversion,
Neuroticism, Psychoticism⁴¹

⁴¹ H.J. Eysenck, 'Organization of Personality' in L.Gorlow and W.Katkovsky (Eds.), Readings in the Psychology of Adjustment (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1959), P.233.

any reference in the literature about any attempts to measure this by means of the inventory method. The present investigator decided to make an attempt to assess this factor also along with the other two. Therefore, the present work can be viewed, in the first place, as a standardization of personality inventory to measure introversion-extraversion and neuroticism, and secondly, to explore the possibility of measuring the general factor of psychoticism. The description of the other techniques of assessment of personality factors is given in the following chapter and their relative merits and drawbacks are discussed.

1.6 SUMMARY

The purpose of the standardization of the present personality inventory was to produce a tool useful in the counselling of college students. To start with the work, some theoretical background was necessary. Of the many definitions, Allport's conception of personality as "the dynamic

organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment", was considered as adequate. The general principles of behaviour evolving out of the above definition are very important considerations while interpreting the test scores. Three factors of personality, viz. introversion-extraversion, normal-neuroticism and normal-psychoticism were considered for measurement. Detailed discussion of these factors was done to clarify their concepts with reference to the present work. Their organization within the personality structure was assumed to be orthogonal i.e., involving no interrelationships. This brief theoretical introduction was thought necessary to maintain the integrity of the subject.

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