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# Eeny, Meeny, Miny, Mo: Self and Close-Other Selection of Personality Test Interpretations

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AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF Sheela Word for the Master of Arts in Psychology presented February 12, 1988.

Title: Eeny, Meeny, Miny, Mo: Self and Close-Other Selection of Personality Test Interpretations.

APPROVED BY MEMBERS OF THE THESIS COMMITTEE:

Frank Wesley, Chairman	0
Edith Sullivan	
Hugo Maynard	

In a study investigating the ability of subjects and their close friends or relatives (close-others) to recognize subject personality test results under conditions which controlled for the Barnum effect, 64 male and female undergraduate psychology students were administered the California Psychological Inventory (CPI). Each subject later attempted to choose his or her own unidentified CPI profile from among three, and a close-other of the subject independently made the same selection. It was found that 57.81% of subjects and 45.31% of closeothers were able to correctly identify subject profiles; these results were significant at the .0001 and .05 levels respectively. The 53.12% rate of agreement between subjects and close-others in profile selection also proved significant,  $\underline{p} < .001$ . In contrast with results from a previous study (Carlson, 1985), it was found that subject selfperception and CPI description correspond to a highly significant degree.

## EENY, MEENY, MINY, MO:

## SELF AND CLOSE-OTHER SELECTION OF PERSONALITY TEST INTERPRETATIONS

by

SHEELA WORD

## A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

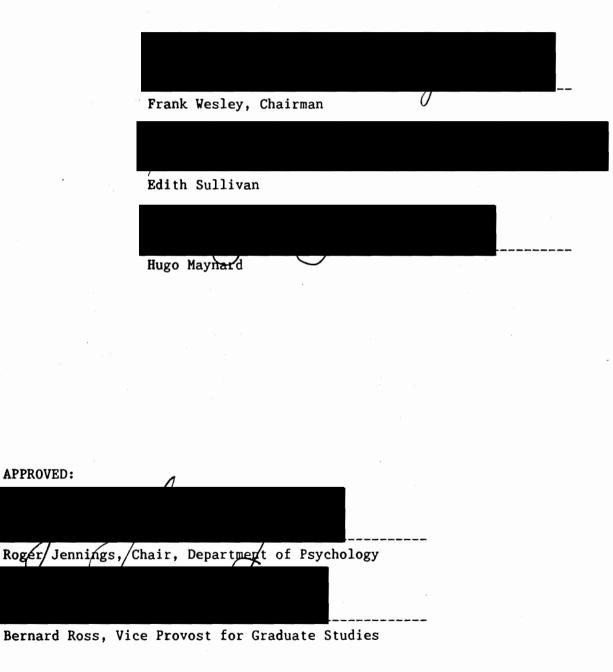
MASTER OF ARTS in PSYCHOLOGY

Portland State University

1988

TO THE OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH:

The members of the Committee approve the thesis of Sheela Word presented February 12, 1988.



#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the members of my thesis committee (Drs. Frank Wesley, Edith Sullivan, and Hugo Maynard) and also Dr. Dean Frost for helping me to plan and carry out my thesis experiment.

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#### INTRODUCTION

Personality tests are pervasive. They serve in clinical settings as tools for diagnosis and treatment. In business, they are used to assess personnel. Popular magazines print them under such headings as "How Jealous Are You?" for consumption by the general public.

But can even the most reputable personality test identify the special traits that comprise a human being? Could, for instance, an ordinary individual systematically and accurately distinguish her or his own test results from those of other people? Or would that individual be forced to resort to a chance selection strategy, such as "eeny, meeny, miny, mo..."? My study was an attempt to answer such questions.

The problem of validity has long plagued the field of personality assessment. As Hyman (1977) says:

...the scientific validity of personality tests, even under ideal conditions, rarely results in unequivocal or satisfactory results. In fact some of the most widely used personality inventories have repeatedly failed to pass validity checks. One of the reasons for this messy state of affairs is the lack of reliable and objective criteria against which to check the results of an assessment.

But the lack of adequate validation has not prevented the use of, and reliance, on such instruments. Assessment psychologists have always placed more reliance on their instruments than is warranted by the scientific evidence. Both psychologist and client are invariably persuaded by the results that the assessment "works". (pp 19-20)

Hyman believes that, like the psychic and the astrologer, the personality assessment psychologist may be both a victim and a perpetuator of personal validation, "...the state of affairs in which

the evaluation of an assessment instrument depends upon the satisfaction of the client" (p. 20).

Personal validation, also called the <u>Barnum effect</u>, has been investigated extensively since Forer's seminal study in 1949. Forer administered the Diagnostic Interest Blank (DIB) to a group of 39 students and later gave all of them the following general personality sketch:

- You have a great need for other people to like and admire you.
- 2. You have a tendency to be critical of yourself.
- You have a great deal of unused capacity which you have not turned to your advantage.
- 4. While you have some personality weaknesses, you are generally able to compensate for them.
- 5. Your sexual adjustment has presented problems for you.
- 6. Disciplined and self-controlled outside, you tend to be worrisome and insecure inside.
- At times you have serious doubts as to whether you have made the right decision or done the right thing.
- 8. You prefer a certain amount of change and variety and become dissatisfied when hemmed in by restrictions and limitations.
- 9. You pride yourself as an independent thinker and do not accept others' statements without satisfactory proof.
- You have found it unwise to be too frank in revealing yourself to others.
- 11. At times, you are extroverted, affable, sociable, while at other times you are introverted, wary, reserved.
- 12. Some of your aspirations tend to be pretty unrealistic.
- 13. Security is one of your major goals in life. (p. 120)

The subjects, believing that they had received individualized assessments based on their DIB results, rated the sketch as a good or excellent fit to their personalities and the DIB as a good or excellent testing device. This, despite the fact that several subjects accepted as few as 8 of the 13 statements as true of themselves.

Forer concluded that:

Using the method of personal validation, a fictitious personality sketch can easily deceive persons into approving

a diagnostic device even when there is incomplete acceptance of the sketch itself. A minimum degree of correspondence between the subject and self-evaluation appears to engender an attitude of acceptance of the total sketch and this attitude of acceptance is carried uncritically to the test instrument. (pp 122-3)

Since Forer, many investigators have attempted to determine the factors involved in personal validation. It has been found that subjects are most likely to accept a fake assessment if it is general and favorable (Collins, Dmitruk & Ranney, 1977; Hyman, 1977; O'Dell, 1972; Snyder & Shenkel, 1975; Snyder, Shenkel & Lowery, 1977; Weinberger & Bradley, 1980) and if they believe it has been prepared specifically for them (Hyman, 1977; Snyder & Shenkel, 1975; Snyder, et al, 1977). Type of assessment procedure and prestige of the assessor may have no effect on the acceptance of a generalized favorable sketch (Snyder & Shenkel, 1975; Snyder, Larson & Bloom, 1976; Weinberger & Bradley, 1980); however, administration of a reputable assessment device by a high-status assessor will increase acceptance of a sketch that is unfavorable or otherwise discordant with the subject's self-perception (Snyder, et al., 1977; Swanson & Weary, 1982).

No special traits have been identified which distinguish people vulnerable to the Barnum effect or those immune to it. Sophisticated as well as naive people can be deceived. (Snyder, et al., 1977)

Hyman believes personal validation misleads us by

...calling upon the normal processes of comprehension that we ordinarily bring to bear in making sense out of any form of communication. The raw information in a communication is rarely, if ever, sufficient in itself for comprehension. (p. 32)

Our interpretative skills betray us.

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Subjects in a 1955 experiment by Sundberg found generalized sketches as persuasive as specific descriptions based on their own MMPI results. When asked to choose between a fake sketch and a valid one, they could not do so at above a chance level. Some of the subjects gave the two descriptions to their friends, who also failed to discriminate between the sketches at a significant level.

Similar experiments, involving the Jackson Personality Research Form (Dies, 1972; Merrens & Richards, 1970), the Sixteen Personality Factor Quesitonnaire (O'Dell, 1972), and other reputable assessment devices (Snyder, et al., 1977) have yielded similar results. Invariably, the fake assessment is perceived by the subject as having equal or even greater validity than the real assessment.

O'Dell (1972) attempted to explain this disturbing finding:

...upon reflection, there can be little doubt that the Barnum effect statements, because of their extremely high base rate, should apply very accurately to everyone. Hence, they <u>should</u> be perceived as more accurate than statements constructed from less than perfectly accurate test scores....(p. 273)

Schroeder and Lesyk (1976), who found that expert judges (PhD candidates in clinical psychology) were able to discriminate between Barnum and real statements on the basis of information value and usefulness, while naive judges (introductory psychology students) could not, had a different explanation:

...in previous studies, judges responded to statements about themselves rather than about others. This procedure bears little resemblance to the typical clinical situation in which the subject of a report is unlikely to see his own report. Previous results may indicate only that individuals are poor discriminators when judging statements in which they are personally involved. (p. 473) A study investigating the validity of astrological predictions about personality (Carlson, 1985) lent support to Schroeder's and Lesyk's hypothesis that people really do not know themselves. In the first part of Carlson's study, subjects were asked to choose which of three astrological horoscopes was their own. They also were administered the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and later asked to select their own CPI profiles from among three. As the investigators had predicted, subjects could not identify their own horoscopes at above a chance level; contrary to expectations, they also could not select out their own CPI profiles.

The latter finding prompted the investigators to contact Harrison Gough, author of the CPI, and request that he conduct a literature search to determine if a similar experiment had been published. The search was fruitless. To his own and Gough's knowledge, Carlson stated,

... no other test of this kind has ever been done. Thus, we believe there exists presently no scientific evidence from which one can conclude that subjects can select accurate descriptions of themselves at a significant rate. (p 425)

Carlson suggested several possible reasons for subjects' failure to select their own profiles: (a) The graphical presentation of the information confused the subjects; (b) the subjects subconsciously recognized traits applicable to them, but did not want to admit to them; (c) the CPI does not test characteristics by which people can identify themselves; and (d) people cannot recognize accurate descriptions of themselves. With reference to (c) above, it should be noted that the CPI was designed to be accessible to the layperson. It measures what Gough calls <u>folk concepts</u>, "...descriptive terms now applied by people to one another to describe their everyday behavior patterns and traits..." (Megargee, 1972, p. 12).

Gough claims that an advantage in testing folk concepts is that:

...the variables are meaningful and readily comprehended by the user. Any scale will carry latent and potential implications which the skilled interpreter must learn to appreciate, but at the same time no special instruction or insight is required to recognize the main thrust of scales seeking to appraise such interpersonal qualities as dominance, sociability, responsibility, tolerance, social pressure, and flexibility..." (Gough, 1968, p. 58).

Carlson indicated (see (b) and (d) above) that individuals may be incapable of accepting or even recognizing their own test results. Would close friends or relatives (close-others) of subjects identify subject test profiles with higher accuracy? The evidence suggests not. Friends of subjects in Sundberg's 1955 study could not discriminate between generalized descriptions and descriptions derived from the subjects' own MMPI results; and it was found, in 1983 study by Furnham and Henderson, that subjects could correctly estimate four of their own scores on standard psychological tests (extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism, and self-monitoring), but only two scores of persons that they knew well (extraversion and neuroticism).

The purpose of Carlson's investigation was to determine the validity of astrology, not that of the CPI; hence, there was no

follow-up of the unexpected finding that subjects could not distinguish their own CPI test profiles from those of other people. Such results merit further study, however. One even wonders why personality assessment devices are not customarily subjected to this type of stringent trial at their inception. Self and other ratings of a new assessment device would be much more meaningful if, by submitting profiles of other individuals with the subject's own, a control for the Barnum effect were introduced.

My study was a replication and extension of that part of Carlson's study which was concerned with subject validation of CPI results. Each subject in my investigation was given the CPI and was later asked to choose his or her own profile from among three. A relative or close friend of the subject (<u>close-other</u>) also attempted to select out the subject's profile.

I predicted that, as in the Carlson study, subjects would not be able to identify their own CPI profiles at a level significantly above chance. I also predicted that the subjects' close-others would be unable to discriminate among the profiles with significant accuracy.

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#### METHODS

#### Subjects

The CPI was administered to four undergraduate psychology classes. At the end of each testing session, the purpose and procedures of the experiment were described, and students were offered extra credit for volunteer participation. There were 84 volunteers; of these, 64 (47 females and 17 males) completed the study.

#### Materials

Materials included the California Psychological Inventory (1956 version), the CPI traits summary which was published in Gough's 1975 edition of the <u>CPI Manual</u> (see Appendix B), and two brief questionnaires (see Appendices D and E). The graphical profiles of subjects' scores on the 18 different CPI traits were clarified by verbal descriptions typed next to the graphs (see Appendix A).

#### Procedure

The CPI was administered to all subjects, and the completed test answer sheets collected. The purpose of the study was then explained, and each volunteer subject was requested to recruit a close friend or relative, someone who knew the subject well, for participation in the second part of the experiment. After the answer sheets were scored, subject test profiles were constructed and sorted randomly into groups of three. One to four weeks after taking the test, each subject,

accompanied by a close other, met with me to complete the second part of the study. The subject was given three test profiles (her or his own and two others, identified solely by number), a questionnaire, and a copy of the CPI trait summaries. The subject's close-other received the same three profiles, a slightly modified questionnaire, and a copy of the summaries.

General instructions on CPI profile interpretation were given to each subject/close-other pair. Many participants appeared confused by the graph; these were urged to use the verbal description typed next to the graph, rather than the graph itself. All participants were advised to focus on extreme rather than on average scores, since, as stated in the <u>CPI Manual</u> (Gough, 1975, p. 12), "the more extreme...[the] scores..., the more adequately a particular set of adjectives in the summaries is likely to characterize a person."

Each subject/close-other pair was informed that the principal task was to select out the subject's profile from among the others. They were asked not to confer with one another, but to question me if any confusion regarding procedures arose. The subject and close-other were physically separated to ensure that they would make the profile selections and complete the questionnaires independently. After the questionnaires were returned, I revealed to both the subject and the close-other which profile was, in fact, the subject's own.

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#### RESULTS

It was found that 57.81% of subjects and 45.31% of close-others were able to select out the subjects' CPI profiles from among three. The subjects' selection accuracy was extremely significant,  $\underline{z} = 4.15$ ,  $\underline{p} < .0001$ , and the close-others were also accurate at an above chance level,  $\underline{z} = 2.03$ ,  $\underline{p} < .05$ . These results directly contradicted my original hypothesis that neither subjects nor their close-others would be able to identify the subjects' test results at a rate exceeding chance.

It was also found that a subject who failed to select her or his own profile as first choice had a 70.37% chance of ranking it second. This was significant at the .05 level,  $\underline{z} = 2.12$ . Close-others who made incorrect first choices were not significantly more likely to have accurate second choices, however.

An analysis by chi-square (see Table I) indicated that subjects who made accurate first-choice selections were significantly more

#### TABLE I

CHI-SQUARE: ACCURACY OF FIRST CHOICES BY SUBJECTS AND CLOSE-OTHERS

#### Close-Other

Incorrect

Subject	Correct	23	14	37
Subject	Incorrect	6	21	27

Correct

likely to have close-others who chose correctly,  $\chi'(1, \underline{n} = 62) = 8.50$ , <u>p</u> < .005. This was not surprising, since 53.12% of subjects agreed with their close-others on first choices, a finding significant at the .001 level, z = 3.36.

Overall concordance between subjects and close-others was tested using a complex chi-square analysis (see Table II). Two subjects were unable to make second and third selections; among the remaining 62 subject/close-other pairs, significant agreement in ranking the profiles first, second, and third was found,  $\chi'(4, n = 62) = 24.78$ , p < .001.

#### TABLE II

### CHI-SQUARE: FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD CHOICES BY SUBJECTS AND CLOSE-OTHERS

#### Close-Other

First Second Third

Subject
---------

62 First 32 19 11 Second 20 24 18 62 Third 10 19 33 62 62 62 62

Gender of participant did not appear to influence accuracy of profile selection. Female subjects ( $\underline{n} = 47$ ) were accurate at the rate of 57.45%, while male subjects ( $\underline{n} = 17$ ) had a correct first-choice rate of 58.82%. Female ( $\underline{n} = 37$ ) and male ( $\underline{n} = 27$ ) close-others had accuracy rates of 43.24% and 48.15% respectively; no significant difference was found.

Also of interest was whether type of subject/close-other relationship influenced close-other selection accuracy. Thirty-five close-others (including friends, girlfriends, boyfriends, roommates, and fiancees) were classified as <u>friends</u>, while 29 close-others (including spouses, family members, and step-relations) were termed <u>relatives</u>. Friends had known subjects from 1 to 41 years; duration of relative-subject relationships ranged from 5 months to lifelong. Accuracy rate of friends was 45.71%, which did not differ significantly from the 44.83% rate achieved by relatives.

The possibility that social desirability influenced profile selection was considered. In general, above-average scores on the CPI lead to a favorable interpretation, while below-average scores are undesirable. Profile favorability was roughly assessed by categorizing scores that were less than one standard deviation above or below average as <u>average</u>, and all other scores as either <u>above average</u> or <u>below average</u>. A participant choosing among three profiles might be inclined to select that which contained the greatest number of aboveaverage scores or that with the fewest below-average scores, or, perhaps, that profile containing the greatest number of average scores. However, no pattern of this kind was discovered. Subject and close-other accuracy in profile selection did not appear to be related to profile favorability.

Participants were required to rate, as well as rank, the profiles. A rating scale ranging from 1 (not accurate at all) to 5

(highly accurate) was employed. One subject and two close-others failed to complete the rating part of the questionnaire. Mean ratings by the remaining subjects and close-others for first, second, third, and correct choices are shown in Table III below.

#### TABLE III

n Correct First Second Third Subjects 63 Μ 3.41 4.05 2.98 1.56 0.52 SD 1.03 0.58 0.67 Close-Others 62 М 3.10 4.18 2.84 1.62 SD 1.32 0.61 0.73 0.65

MEAN PROFILE RATINGS BY SUBJECTS AND CLOSE-OTHERS

A repeated measures 3 x 2 ANOVA ( $\underline{n} = 61$ ) revealed that subjects did not significantly differ from their close-others in the ratings they accorded the profiles, and that the interaction between rater and choice was not significant; however, significant differences in the ratings accorded by all participants to first, second, and third choices were found (see Table IV). Follow-up t-tests for related measures indicated that first-choice ratings differed significantly from second-choice ( $\underline{t} = 15.71$ ,  $\underline{p} < .0005$ ) and from third-choice ( $\underline{t} = 27.74$ ,  $\underline{p} < .0005$ ) ratings, and that second-choice ratings were significantly different from third-choice ratings ( $\underline{t} = 17.90$ , p < .0005).

	Source	SS	df	ms	F	р
Total			365			_
Subjects			60			
Rater		0.006	1	0.006	0.014	n.s.
Choice		391.623	2	195.811	495.965	<.001
Rater x	Choice	1.295	2	0.648	2.352	n.s.
Error	Rater	27.286	60	0.455		
Error	Choice	47.377	120	0.395		
Error	Rater x Choice	33.038	120	0.275		

#### ANOVA: SUBJECT AND CLOSE-OTHER RATINGS OF FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD CHOICES

Items 2 and 4 of the questionnaire asked subjects and close-others to explain the reasons behind their selections. These items were included because it was expected that participants would be unable to correctly select subject profiles at a rate exceeding chance. Had that outcome occurred, responses to these items might have proved extremely valuable: they might have indicated that participants were choosing wrongly because they had difficulty in interpreting the profiles or because they did not approach the task seriously; contrariwise, they might have shown that though participants comprehended and conscientiously attempted the experimental task, they simply could not make accurate profile-to-subject matches. However, since subjects and close-others were able to choose correctly at a significant rate, response data from Items 2 and 4 was less informative than it might have been. In general, participants responded to these items by listing a few CPI traits and stating that high or low scores on these traits determined their choice of profile. For instance, a typical subject answered Item 2 as follows: "Re [responsibility], Fx [flexibility], Gi [good impression] are areas in which I feel uncomfortable and #8 reflects this feeling." A typical close-other's response to Item 4 was as follows: "The scores for Cs [capacity for status] and Re [responsibility] are too low on evaluation #20; therefore, #29 is my second choice." Responses to Items 2 and 4 indicated that most subjects and close-others were able to interpret the profiles adequately and make valid distinctions among them.

#### DISCUSSION

Though Carlson's subjects were unable to identify their own CPI test profiles at a significant rate, both subjects and close-others in my study were significantly accurate in profile selection. It seems probable that this difference in outcome was due to the greater care that was taken in my study to make the profiles intelligible to the participants. Carlson's subjects were not provided with typed descriptions of the profile graphs; as he himself suggested, the graphs may have confused some subjects. Moreover, Carlson's subjects, unlike mine, may not have received individualized verbal instructions on profile interpretation.

CPI profile interpretation is not a simple matter. Several participants complained that the <u>CPI Manual</u> trait summaries (see Appendix B) were confusing and contradictory. For instance, according to the trait summaries, an individual scoring low in Sy (sociability) and high in Ai (achievement via independence) would be seen as "submissive", yet "dominant"; "unassuming", yet "demanding"; "overly influenced by others' reactions and opinions", yet "independent" and "self-reliant"! Given the complexity of the material with which they were presented and their inexperience in dealing with such material, the 57.81% success rate of subjects in selecting their own profiles is all the more remarkable.

The ratings data provided information about the degree to which the profiles were accepted by subjects and close-others. On the average, first-choice profiles were seen as "fairly accurate", secondchoice profiles as "accurate to some degree", and third-choice profiles as midway between "fairly inaccurate" and "not accurate at all". The correct profiles were perceived, on the average, to be "accurate to some degree". The finding that first choices were rated significantly higher than second choices, and second choices were given significantly higher ratings than third choices indicates that subjects and closeothers were confident about the discriminations they made.

Also of interest was whether subjects would have a significantly greater or lesser overall tendency than their close-others to accept all of the profiles. In a 1985 study by Johnson, Cain, Falke, Hayman, and Perillo, each subject was given a set of personality traits which was <u>not</u> purportedly specific to him or her and was asked to rate each trait's applicability to himself or herself, to a close friend, and to an acquaintance; it was found that subjects rated both positive and negative traits as more true of themselves than of their close friends, and as more true of their close friends than of their acquaintances. However, the profile ratings by subjects in my study did not significantly differ from those by their close-others.

The close-other group in my study was very heterogeneous; friends, spouses, fiancees, and various family members were included. Although close-others classed as friends and those classed as relatives were found to be equally successful at subject profile identification, it is possible that type of subject/close-other relationship influenced profile selection accuracy in some way that my analysis did not reveal. Future researchers might find it advisable to use a clearly defined close-other group (spouses only, for example).

Social desirability may have affected profile selection in a way which eluded measurement in this investigation. Different participants may have been influenced variously by social desirability factors: one participant, for example, may have been biased towards the profile with the greatest number of above-average scores, while another may have preferred the profile containing the fewest below-average scores. Such biases, if they exist, might be counteracted in future investigations by rewarding participants for correctly identifying subject profiles.

The results of this investigation can be interpreted in a variety of ways, depending on one's perspective.

My view is that normal persons are in the best position for understanding their own traits, as they have had the deepest and most varied experience of themselves; their close friends and relatives, who have had the next best opportunity for observation, can also know them well. For skeptics like me, self-perception is reality, any test a distorted mirror.

Some clinicians, on the other hand, would argue that laypersons are not able to evaluate their own personalities objectively; internal conflicts and denial make this impossible. Personality assessment requires special skill and training and use of the proper tools. For them, the test is real, self-perception illusory.

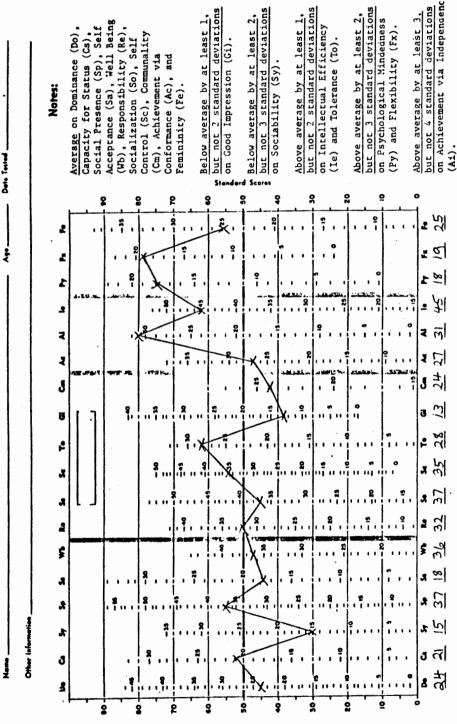
All of us extremists, whether in the camp of common sense or that of expertise, may find it advisable to rethink our positions in light of these new findings. This study investigated the ability of subjects and their close-others to recognize subject California Psychological Inventory test results under conditions which controlled for the Barnum effect. The fact that subjects were able to select their own profiles at a highly significant rate may persuade skeptics that the CPI has some genuine validity; likewise, since the CPI is a reputable assessment tool, subjects' success in profile identification may convince clinical purists that laypersons do know themselves to some degree.

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Standard Score

#### APPENDIX A

#### CPI PROFILE WITH DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY

## APPENDIX B

## CPI TRAIT SUMMARIES FROM CPI MANUAL

HIGH SCORERS	SCALE AND PURPOSE	Low scontisters
Class I. Measures of Poise	Ascendancy, Self-Assurance and I	nterpersonal Adcquacy
Argressive, confident, persistent, and planful; as being persuasive and verbally fluent; as self-reliant and independent; and as having leadership potential and initiative.	1. Do (dominance) To assess factors of leadership ability, dominance, per- sistence, and social initiative.	Retiring, inhibited, commonplace, indifferent, silent and unassuming; as being slow in thought and action; as avoiding of situations of tension and decision; and as lacking in self- confidence.
Ambitious, active, forceful, insightful, re- sourceful, and versatile; as being ascendant and self-seeking; effective in communication; and as having personal scope and breadth of interests.	2. Cs (capacity for status) To serve as an index of an individual's capacity for status (not his actual or achieved sta- tus). The scale attempts to measure the personal qualities and attributes which underlie and lead to status.	Apathetic, shy, conventional dull, mild, sim- ple, and slow; as heing stereotyped in think- ing; restricted in outlook and interests; and as being uneasy and awkward in new or unfa- miliar social situations
Outgoing, enterprising, and ingenious; as be- ing competitive and forward; and as original and fluent in thought.	3. Sy (sociability) To identify persons of outgoing, sociable, participative temperament.	Awkward, conventional, quiet, submissive, and unassuming; as being detached and pas- sive in artitude; and as being suggestible and overly influenced by others' reactions and opinions.
Clever, enthusiastic, imaginative, quick, in- formal, spontaneous, and talkative; as being active and vigorous; and as having an expres- sive, ebullient nature.	4. Sp (social presence) To assess fac- tors such as poise, spontaneity, and self-confidence in personal and social interaction.	Deliberate, moderate, patient, self-restrained, and simple; as vacillating and uncertain in decision; and as being literal and unoriginal in thinking and judging.
Intelligent, outspoken, sharp-witted, demand- ing, aggressive, and self-centered; as being persuasive and verbally fluent; and as pos- sessing self-confidence and self-assurance.	5. Sa (self-acceptance) To assess fac- tors such as sense of personal worth, self-acceptance, and capacity for inde- pendent thinking and action.	Methodical, conservative, dependable, conven- tional, easygoing, and quiet; as self-abasing and given to feelings of guilt and self-blame; and as being passive in action and narrow in interests.
Energetic, enterprising, alert, ambitious, and versatile; as being productive and active; and as valuing work and effort for its own sake.	tify persons who minimize their wor-	<sup>1</sup> Unambitious, leisurely, awkward, cautious, ayathetic, and conventional; as being self- defensive and apologetic; and as constricted in thought and action.

Class II. Measures of Socialization, Maturity, Responsibility, and Intrapersonal Structuring of Values

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Planful, responsible, thorough, progressive, capable, dignified, and independent; as being conscientious and dependable; resourceful and efficient; and as being alert to ethical and moral issues.	7. Re (responsibility) To identify persons of conscientious, responsible, and dependable disposition and tem- perament.	Inimature, moody, lazy, awkward, changeable, 4 and disbelieving: as being influenced by per- 5 sonal bias, spite, and dogmarism; and as un- 4 der-controlled and impulsive in behavior.
Serious, honest, industrious, modest, obliging, sincere, and steady; as being conscientious and responsible; and as being self-denying and con- forming.	8. So (socialization) To indicate the degree of social maturity, integrity, and rectitude which the individual has attained.	Defensive, demanding, opinionated, resentful, stubborn, headstrong, rebellious, and unde- pendable; as being guileful and dectiful in dealing with others; and as given to excess, exhibition, and ostentation in their behavior.
Calm, patient, practical, slow, self-denying, inhibited, thoughtful, and deliberate; as being strict and thorough in their own work and in their expectations for others; and as being bonest and conscientious.	9. Sc (self-control) To assess the de- gree and adequacy of self-regulation and self-control and freedom from im- pulsivity and self-centeredness.	Impulsive, shrewd, excitable, irritable, self- centered, and uninhibited; as being aggressive and assertive; and as overemphasizing per- sonal pleasure and self-gain.
Enterprising, informal, quick, toleranr, clear- thinking, and resourceful; as being intellectu- ally able and verbally fluent; and as having broad and varied interests.	10. To (tolerance) To identify per- sons with permissive, accepting, and non-judgmental social beliefs and atti- tude.	Suspicious, narrow, alcof, wary, and retiring; as being passive and overly judgmental in at- titude; and as disbelieving and distrustful in personal and social outlook.
Cooperative, enterprising, outgoing, sociable warm, and helpful; as being concerned with making a good impression; and as being dili- gent and persistent.	11. Gl (good impression) To identify persons capable of creating a favorable impression, and who are concerned about how others react to them.	Inhibited, cautious, shrewd, wary, aloof, and resentful; as being cool and distant in their relationships with others; and as being self- centered and too little concerned with the needs and wants of others.

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HIGH SCORERS	SCALE AND PURPOSE	Low scorens and the seen assessed

## Class II. Measures of Socialization, Maturity, Responsibility, and Intrapersonal Structuring of Values (Continued)

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Dependable, moderate, tactful, reliable, sin-cere, patient, steady, and realistic; as being honest and conscientious; and as having common sense and good judgment. .

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	(Continued)
1	12. Cm (communality) To indicate
ł	the degree to which an individual's
	reactions and responses correspond to
ł	the modal ("common") pattern estab
÷	lished for the inventory.

te Impatient, changeable, complicated, imagina-is tive, disorderly, nervous, restless, and con-fused; as being guilfful and deceitful; inat-tentive and forgetful; and as having interest conflicts and entities. conflicts and problems.

#### Class III. Measures of Achievement Potential and Intellectual Efficiency

Capable, co-operative, efficient, organized, re- sponsible, stable, and sincere; as being per- sistent and industrious; and as valuing intel- lectual activity and intellectual achievement.	13. Ac (achievement via conform- ance) To identify those factors of in- terest and motivation which facilitate achievement in any setting where con- formance is a positive behavior.	Coarse wobborn, aloof, awkward, insecure, and opinionated; as easily disorganized under stress or pressures to conform; and as pessi- mistic about their occupational futures.
Mature, forceful, strong, dominant, demand- ing, and foresighted; as being independent and self-reliant; and as having superior intel- lectual ability and judgment.	14. Ai (achievement via independ- ence) To identify those factors of interest and motivation which facili- tate achievement in any setting where autonomy and independence are posi- tive behaviors.	Inhibited, anxious, caurious, dissatisfied, dull, and wary; as being submissive and compliant before authority; and as lacking in self-insight and self-understanding.
Efficient, clear-thinking, capable, intelligent, progressive, planful, thorough, and resource- ful; as being alert and well-informed; and as placing a high value on cognitive and intel- lectual matters.	15. Ie (intellectual efficiency) To in- dicate the degree of personal and intel- lectual efficiency which the individual has attained.	Cautious, confused, easygoing, defensive, shal- low, and unambitious; as being conventional and stereotyped in thinking; and as lacking in self-direction and self discipline.
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Class IV.	Measures of Intellectual and Interes	t Modes
Observant, spontaneous, quick, perceptive, talkative, resourceful, and changeable; as being verbally fluent and socially ascendant; and as being rebellious toward rules, restric- tions, and constraints.	16. Py (psychological-mindedness) To measure the degree to which the individual is interested in, and respon- sive to, the inner needs, motives, and experiences of others.	Apathetic, peaceable, serious, cautious, and unassuming; as being slow and deliberate in tempo; and as being overly conforming and conventional.
Insightful, informal, adventurous, confident, humorous, rebellious, idealistic, assertive, and egoistic; as being sareastic and cynical; and as highly concerned with personal pleasure and diversion.	17. Fx (flexibility) To indicate the degree of flexibility and adaptability of a person's thinking and social behavior.	Deliberate, cautious, worrying, industrious, guarded, mannerly, methodical, and rigid; as being formal and pedantic in thought; and as being overly deferential to authority, custom, and tradition.
Appreciative, patient, helpful, gentle, moder- ate, persevering, and sincere, as being respect- ful and accepting of othere; and as behaving in a conscientious and sympathetic way.	18. Fe (femininity) To assess the mas- culinity or femininity of interests. (High scores indicate more feminine interests, low scores more masculine.)	Ourgoing, hard-headed, ambirious, masculine, active, robust, and restless; as being manipula- tive and opportunistic in dealing with others; blunt and direct in thinking and action; and impatient with delay, indecision, and reflec- tion.

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#### APPENDIX C

#### SUBJECT QUESTIONNAIRE

- NOTE: Please refer to each profile by the number printed in its upper right corner.
- Which of these profiles do you believe to be based on your own test results?
- 2. Please state your reasons for this choice (use the back of this page or a separate sheet of paper if necessary.
- 3. If your first choice were incorrect, which of the remaining two profiles would you judge to be your own?
- 4. Please state your reasons for this choice (use the back of this page or a separate sheet of paper if necessary.
- 5. Please rate how accurately each of these profiles describes your personality, on a scale of 1 to 5:
  - 5 = highly accurate, 4 = fairly accurate, 3 = accurate to some degree 2 = fairly inaccurate, 1 = not accurate at all

Profile #	Rating

#### APPENDIX D

#### CLOSE-OTHER QUESTIONNAIRE

What is your relationship to the subject?

How long have you known the subject?

- NOTE: Please refer to each profile by the number printed in its upper right corner.
- Which of these profiles do you believe to be based on your friend's or relative's test results?
- Please state your reasons for this choice (use the back of this page or a separate sheet of paper if necessary.
- 3. If your first choice were incorrect, which of the remaining two profiles would you judge to be your friend's or relative's?
- 4. Please state your reasons for this choice (use the back of this page or a separate sheet of paper if necessary.
- 5. Please rate how accurately each of these profiles describes the personality of your friend or relative, on a scale of 1 to 5:
  - 5 = highly accurate, 4 = fairly accurate, 3 = accurate to some degree 2 = fairly inaccurate, 1 = not accurate at all

Profile #	Rating