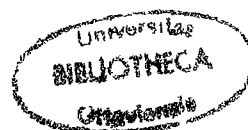


**SOCIALIZATION, AND PERSONALITY PROBLEMS AS DIMENSIONAL
CONSTRUCTS IN THE FREUDIAN AND MOWRERIAN HYPOTHESES**

by John Joseph O'Connor

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CURRICULUM STUDIOHUM

John Joseph O'Connor was born May 29, 1927, in Toronto, Ontario. He received the Bachelor of Arts degree in Theology from St. Augustine's College, Toronto, in 1952. He received the Master of Psychology degree from the University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, in 1966. He received a nine month Lilly Fellowship to do research with Dr. O. Hobart Mowrer at the University of Illinois, 1965-1966.

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INTRODUCTION

Freudian psychotherapy and psychoanalysis are widely regarded as potent therapeutic instruments. These two fields have gained a position of considerable prestige and eminence in our society.

However, various leaders in Psychology and Psychiatry feel that, in spite of Freud's outstanding genius and considerable positive contributions, more scientific research is required into his theoretical position. They believe that Freud himself has set the example by his own brilliant critical observations as well as his frequent requests for more research.

Constructive criticism does not imply destructiveness nor hostility, but rather intellectual fulfillment in man's search for knowledge and truth.

Some recognized experts in Psychology and Psychiatry have taken issue with Freud regarding his conception of the nature of neurosis.

O. Hobart Mowrer is one of those who has disagreed with Freud on the origin and nature of neuroticism. Freud maintained that anxiety arises when the ego apprehends a danger. The critical danger in the case of neurotic anxiety is that repressed impulses will get out of control. The neurotic's tendency to repress impulse derivatives is over-generalized and over-severe.

Mowrer has observed that anxiety comes not from acts which the individual would commit but dare not, but from acts which he has committed but wishes he had not. The superego is disregarded or repressed, not the instincts. Neurotics have a true guilt because of their behaviour.

From this framework, the following double implication is set up in operational form and put to experimental test:

- a) If the theoretical reasoning of Freud is valid, then three judged groups would be aligned on a Socialization (So.) measure from low to high in this order: first, the Conduct Problem group (C.P.), second, the No Problem group (N.P.), and third, the Personality Problem group (P.P.).
- b) On the other hand, if the theoretical reasoning of Mowrer is correct, the order from low to high on a So. measure would be: first, the C.P. group, second, the P.P. group and, third, the N.P. group.

The terms C.P. group, P.P. group, and N.P. group are defined operationally by the scores obtained on the Personality and Character Problem Checklist. Socialization is defined operationally in terms of scores obtained on the Socialization scale of the California Psychological Inventory.

As usual for studies where theories are experimentally tested through their implications, the question may be raised whether these implications are logically valid deductions from either Freud's or Mowrer's theoretical positions. It is because the writer believes they are valid that he feels justified in testing them. He feels little risk is taken since no single testing of a single implication can dispose of a theory.

This study may have great significance in relation to the treatment and prevention of behaviour disorders.

The first portion of this report is concerned with a review of the literature. The theoretical framework of the origins of anxiety as set forth by Freud is presented. This is followed by Mowrer's theoretical approach to the origins of neurotic anxiety. A review of research in these areas is outlined.

The experimental design is then set forth with emphasis on the tools and the sample used.

The results obtained from the statistical analysis are thereupon presented and discussed.

Finally, the theoretical referents are posited and their possible interpretations are discussed.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This century has been called "the age of anxiety."¹ Mental illness incapacitates more people than all other health problems combined. Mental patients occupy almost one-half of the hospital beds in the United States. It is estimated that approximately one person out of ten now living in the United States will at some time be hospitalized for mental illness if present trends continue.

The traditional means of helping the mentally ill have been greatly influenced by Freudian reasoning. In fact, Freud has so pioneered the development of contemporary psychoanalytical theory that it would appear difficult to engage in a study of this theory without first becoming aware of the penetrating and insightful contributions of this remarkable and courageous original thinker.

This first chapter will review Freud's theory of the origin of neuroticism, and the theoretical implications regarding treatment. Then Mowrer's analysis of Freud is set forth and Mowrer's own theory is developed and relevant research is delineated. Finally, the hypotheses for this present study are stated.

¹ James C. Coleman, Abnormal Psychology and Modern Life, Chicago, Scott Foresman, 1964, p. 1.

1. Freud's Theory on the Origin of Neuroticism.

Freud divided the total human personality into three parts. The id is the reservoir of the biologically given drives or instincts. Freud looked upon the superego as the internalized voice of the community. Freud described the superego in these words:

We have also heard how the severity of the superego, the rigour of conscience, is to be explained. It simply carries on the severity of external authority which it has succeeded and to some extent replaced.²

Finally, the ego is set forth as normally playing an executive or regulatory role in the sense of mediating between the id, the superego, and the external world. "The ego represents what we call reason and sanity, in contrast to the id which contains the passions."³

Freud maintained that anxiety arises when the ego apprehends a danger; and the critical danger, in the case of neurotic anxiety, is that repressed impulses, coming from the id, will get out of control. "Thus, anxiety then [...] is an affective state",⁴ which comes from

² Sigmund Freud, Civilization and Its Discontents, London, Hogarth Press, 1930, p. 111.

³ -----, The Ego and the Id, London, Hogarth Press, 1935, p. 30.

⁴ -----, The Problem of Anxiety, New York, Norton, 1936, p. 90.

evil wishes, from acts which the individual would commit if he dared. The affective states are incorporated as precipitates of primal traumatic experiences and they are evoked in similar situations, acting as memory symbols. Anxiety arises as a response to a situation of danger.

Freud maintained that the adult neurotic has unreasonably high moral standards:

In our investigations and our therapy of the neuroses, we cannot avoid finding fault with the super-ego of the individual on two counts; in commanding and prohibiting with such severity it troubles too little about the happiness of the ego and it fails to take into account sufficiently the difficulties in the way of obeying it--the strength of instinctual cravings in the id and the hardships of external environment. Consequently in our therapy we often find ourselves obliged to do battle with the super-ego and work to moderate its demands. Exactly the same objections can be made against the ethical standards of the cultural super-ego.⁵

Thus, according to Freud, the adult neurotic is over-socialized. He has learned to repress and inhibit socially unacceptable urges and ideas to a greater extent than normal individuals. Neurotics have learned society's lessons too well. Their moral criteria are unrealistically inflexible. These moral criteria are imposed by the cultural ideals of the society.

⁵ Freud, Civilization and Its Discontents, p. 139.

It was found that men become neurotic because they cannot tolerate the degree of privation that society imposes on them in virtue of its cultural ideas.⁶

This tendency to repress impulse derivatives is over-generalized and over-severe. Instead of the normal inhibition of the impulses and repression of fantasies about the urges, neuroticism occurs.

Freud admitted that people can feel disturbed after they have misbehaved, but he attached little importance to it in his theory of neurosis. However, he did stress the guilt that comes from even a mere intention of misbehaving.

A mere intention to commit an act of violence could then evoke a sense of guilt--so psycho-analysis has found--as well as one which has actually been committed--as all the world knows.⁷

It was the psychological reality of the guilt from a mere intention that was the hallmark of psycho-analysis. It was this guilt that Freud traced out in neurotic symptoms. The sense of guilt was the consequence of uncommitted aggressions. Freud's conclusion was "that perhaps every neurosis masks a certain amount of unconscious sense of guilt."⁸

⁶ Ibid., p. 46.

⁷ Ibid., p. 129.

⁸ Ibid., p. 132.

Freud⁹ spoke at great length of the sources of unhappiness, and concluded that sublimation is the only remaining source of happiness. Freud entirely neglected conscience in this regard.

2. Treatment and Goals of Psychoanalysis.

Freud¹⁰ has stated that psychoanalysis has two major purposes. One of these is to strengthen the ego so that it is "more independent of the superego."¹¹ In the neurotic, the superego is more highly developed and stringent. The superego overpowers the ego, and thus compels the ego to reject and repress the id. By strengthening the ego in psychoanalysis, its executive, mediating role is restored.

The second major purpose of psychoanalysis is based on a famous Freudian axiom, "where id was, there shall ego be."¹² Freud developed this thought when he stated:

⁹ Ibid., p. 7-144.

¹⁰ Sigmund Freud, New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis, New York, Norton, 1933, p. 111-112.

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² Ibid.

We have formulated our therapeutic task as one of bringing to the knowledge of the patient the unconscious, repressed impulses existing in his mind and to this end, of uncovering the resistances that oppose themselves to this extension of his knowledge about himself.¹³

At a later date Freud¹⁴ developed this concept slightly when he observed that psychoanalytic work is more effective when unconscious thoughts are transformed into conscious thoughts. This has three effects. The first is that the repressions are raised; secondly, the conditions of symptom-formation are abolished; finally, the pathogenic conflict is exchanged for a normal one. This goal was so important to Freud that he remarked, "where there is no repression or mental process analogous to it to be undone there is nothing for our therapy to do."¹⁵

It would appear evident that one of the therapeutic aims of psychoanalysis is a lessening of the strictness of the superego or, as Freud has emphasized, "the gradual demolition of the hostile superego."¹⁶

¹³ Sigmund Freud, Collected Papers, Vol. 2, London, Hogarth Press, 1933, p. 392.

¹⁴ -----, A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis, New York, Liveright, 1935, p. 377.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ -----, An Outline of Psychoanalysis, New York, Norton, 1949, p. 75.

Mowrer has placed Freud's hypotheses on a socialization dimension. He has placed the normal person in the centre; the sociopath at the left, that is in the position of least socialization; and the neurotic at the right, that is, at the extreme of high socialization or superego severity.¹⁷ Mowrer has depicted the distribution as roughly normal. The direction of psychoanalytic therapy is from neurotic to normal. This therapy attempts to undo some of the effects of the Freudian postulated over-socialization which has occurred in the neurotic individual. By thus describing Freudian neurotic theory, Mowrer has opened the way for research development in this area.

Freudian psychoanalysis, after overcoming disbelief and opposition, rose to almost universal acceptance. Freud's insights into human nature paved the way for men to plumb the inward and perhaps infinite depths of human consciousness as developed by Pierre Teilhard De Chardin.¹⁸ In recent years, rapid scientific growth has provided the tools to bring Freudian theory under more rigorous scientific scrutiny. The results of this scrutiny have not

¹⁷ O. Hobart Mowrer, The Crises in Psychiatry and Religion, Princeton, New Jersey, Van Nostrand, 1961, p. 236.

¹⁸ Joseph V. Kopp, Teilhard Le Chardin, A New Synthesis of Evolution, Glen Rock, New Jersey, Paulist Press, 1964, p. 52.

been as clear-cut as originally anticipated. These investigations have instigated a search for better therapeutic theory and methods to alleviate those suffering from mental illness.

It is the purpose of this study to seek further evidence to support either the Freudian or Mowrerian theory. The conclusions are important not only for treatment but also for their social ramifications.

3. Mowrerian Theory in Relation to Freudian Theory.

Mowrer has made various contributions to psychological theory particularly through his primary focus on learned behavior in a social context. This has given him a solid scientific reputation in orthodox areas of investigation, and consequently he has greatly influenced much of psychology for the past two decades. His many writings have gained him renown as an empirical researcher and prolific theoretician.

Regarding the importance of the Mowrerian hypothesis in the present study, it has been summarized by London in these words, "the theory of the origin and treatment of neurosis put forth by O. H. Mowrer may deserve more

serious attention than any such theory since Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis."¹⁹

During the past twenty years, Mowrer has questioned Freud on the origin and nature of neuroticism. According to Mowrerian theory the basic difficulty of the neurotic has not arisen from an excessively severe and hostile superego as Freud postulated, but rather, "that the super-ego itself has been repudiated and repressed."²⁰

As previously observed, Freud in essence held that neurotic anxiety has resulted from evil wishes, that is, from acts which the individual would commit if he dared. Mowrer has proposed his alternative view that anxiety has resulted as a consequence of acts which the individual has committed, but wished he had not.²¹ In other words, Mowrer has advanced a guilt theory of anxiety as opposed to an impulse theory.

These two views may be analyzed from a different approach. To clarify the issue, it has been found necessary

¹⁹ Perry London, The Modes and Morals of Psychotherapy, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964, p. 134.

²⁰ Mowrer, The Crisis in Psychiatry and Religion, p. 236.

²¹ -----, Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics, New York, Ronald Press, 1950, p. 537.

to restate Freud briefly. Freud²² held that anxiety arises from repression that has been turned toward the id. For the neurotic, the superego has overcome the ego which in turn has repressed the id. The ego has lost its independence and controlling functions. The dynamic forces of the id have continued to do battle with the ego and the superego. Thus, what had been repressed in the id threatened to return and it is this danger that has brought about depression, anxiety or panic. Since this has taken place in the unconscious, the neurotic person does not know why he is anxious.

Mowrer has noted that anxiety arises from repression that has been turned, not toward the id, but toward the superego or conscience. He has observed²³ that neurotic people are characterized by a universal trait, namely, they are inclined to withdraw from contact with other people. The difference in the amount of withdrawal is one of degree. If the superego was oversevere, the neurotic would be extremely well socialized and not exhibit withdrawal symptomatology. Such is not the case. Social alienation, not integration, has been the distinguishing mark of psychopathology.

²² Freud, New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis, p. 203-204.

²³ O. Hobart Mowrer, Conscience and the Unconscious, Address to the British Psychological Society, Swansea, April 1st, 1966, p. 38.

For Mowrer, the superego is not regarded as a monster, but rather a remedial and curative agent in the neurotic. The object of therapy is not to attack and undo the superego but to support it and try to get the ego to recognize that the superego is a potential ally.

The neurotic does not have a guilt feeling but rather a true guilt which has arisen because of his misbehavior. Impulses arose from the id and the neurotic did not inhibit them. This misbehavior has been confounded by concealment. Thus the blame for the neurotic's predicament does not centre around his parents or society or the church, but on his own misbehavior. The beneficial results of personal guilt should not be removed by tranquilizers, sedatives, and electro shock therapy. Rather personal guilt must be taken seriously by using it as an occasion for change. Mowrer has chosen an educational model instead of a medical model to effect this change.

Mowrer has depicted his character typology schematically. The baseline represents a continuum of socialization with the low end to the left and the high end to the right. The sociopath has been placed at the low end of the socialization scale.²⁴ The sociopath

²⁴ Mowrer, The Crises in Psychiatry and Religion, p. 237.

has acted in an anti-social manner and his superego has shown little compunction.

The neurotic is not seen as being over-socialized but rather as being in between the criminal psychopath or sociopath and the normal. Mowrer has placed the neurotic in the centre because, according to his theory, the neurotic has repudiated and repressed his superego. The neurotic "has an essentially normal, basically adequate superego but that it has been muted, disregarded, dissociated."²⁵ This condition has come about because of the neurotic's misbehavior and secrecy.

Much discussion has taken place as to whether Freud or Mowrer is more probably correct in their theoretical reasoning. Unfortunately, few empirical studies have been done. Some theoreticians have maintained that any scientific investigation in the area of psychotherapy has moral implications when it is employed pragmatically. London has expressed his view in this manner:

[...] that psychotherapy is a moralistic as well as a scientific undertaking to such an extent that it cannot be properly understood as the latter unless it is thoroughly evaluated as the former. Therapists use their technical skills and scientific opinions as the basis for studying and treating their patients, but it is in terms of moral concerns that they decide the ultimate goals and objectives of their treatment.²⁶

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ London, Op. Cit., p. v.

Other writers who are concerned with this problem, such as Lowe,²⁷ Smith,²⁸ Jessor,²⁹ Buhler,³⁰ and Mowrer,³¹ have adopted a similar position. Freudian psychoanalysts have been strict critics of socializing agencies such as the courts, churches, schools, homes, etc. These agencies have been frequently responsible for producing overstrict consciences with the consequent necessity of psychoanalysis. If Mowrer is correct their criticisms are harmful and injurious to society. Whether Freud or Mowrer is correct is therefore not only an important problem but a critical one.

4. Related Studies and Research.

A comprehensive review of the research related to the Freudian and Mowrerian hypotheses has shown that some

²⁷ Marshall Lowe, "Value Orientations: An Ethical Dilemma," American Psychologist, Vol. 14, No. 11, November 1959, p. 687-693.

²⁸ M. Brewster Smith, "Mental Health Reconsidered: A Special Case of the Problems of Values in Psychology," American Psychologist, Vol. 16, No. 6, June 1961, p. 299-306.

²⁹ J. Jessor, "Social Values in Psychotherapy," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 20, No. 4, August 1956, p. 264-266.

³⁰ Charlotte Buhler, "Some Empirical Approaches to the Study of Life's Basic Tendencies," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, Vol. 2, Fall 1962, p. 91-95.

³¹ O. Hobart Mowrer, (ed.), Morality and Mental Health, Chicago, Illinois, Rand McNally and Company, 1967, vii-669 p.

of the results are inconclusive and the rest tend to support Mowrer. Unfortunately, in spite of all the words written about this problem, not enough research has been done.

Funk³² and Mueller³³ were concerned with the Freudian and Mowrerian neurotic theories. Their findings do not support Freud's theory nor do they give clear evidence in favour of Mowrer's theory.

An investigation into the Mowrerian position was carried out by Swenson³⁴. He investigated the hypothesis that patients who seek psychotherapy with the purpose of alleviating psychological symptoms would have violated some well known moral scruples more often than a matched group of normal individuals. He obtained the case histories of the last twenty-five women students who had come to the Psychological Clinic of the University of Tennessee for therapy and compared them with the case histories of twenty-five matched controls. The high positive

³² M.F. Funk, Moral Judgments and Neurosis, unpublished doctoral thesis presented to the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1961, 72 p.

³³ Linda Lee Mueller, The Relationship of Moral--Social Values with Problem Groups, unpublished undergraduate honors thesis presented to the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1963, 24 p.

³⁴ Clifford H. Swensen, Jr., "Sexual Behaviour and Psychopathology: A Test of Mowrer's Hypothesis," Journal of Clinical Psychology, Vol. 18, No. 4, October 1962, p. 406-409.

correlations he obtained manifested a clear and apparently reliable connection between illicit sexual behavior and neurosis. His results supported the thesis that such a state is the result of actual misbehavior rather than mere wishes. He also found a high negative correlation between neurotic trends and indices of social affiliation. Swenson concluded that the group needing psychotherapy had engaged in significantly less social activity, but had had more extensive sexual experience than the control group. This research has been criticized because of the small number of twenty-five used.

McCord and McCord³⁵ have reported on a test of capacity to show guilt after misbehaving. The results showed: psychopaths, 46%; neurotics and psychotics, 67%; nondelinquent normal school children, 82%.

O'Daniel,³⁶ in a socialization study made with eighty-eight high school seniors, concluded that the normals were highest, and sociopaths were lowest, with the neurotics coming in between. The difference between the neurotic and normal was not significant. This may have been due to a

³⁵ W. McCord and Joan McCord, Psychopathology and Delinquency, New York, Grune and Stratton, 1956, p. 137.

³⁶ Regina G. O'Daniel, The Disturbed Adolescent: Over-Socialized or Under-Socialized?, unpublished Master's thesis presented to the University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky, 1965, p. 15.

methodological error as thirty-eight students were omitted in the final analysis.

Gough³⁷ has schematized a wide range of normals and sociopaths using the Socialization scale of the California Psychological Inventory for male and female samples. No neurotics were used in the samples. A significant difference was found between sociopaths and normals at the .001 level.

Peterson³⁸ carried out a research with junior high school students and grade school students, in order to determine if those with personality problems were over- or under-socialized. It was found that those with personality problems appeared to be poorly socialized in comparison with those who had no apparent problems. The resulting distribution was negatively skewed as Mowrer had predicted. This may be indicative of the general lowering of moral standards in our society. This research has been criticized because of the lack of test-retest reliability.

Peterson summarized his findings in these words:

³⁷ Harrison G. Gough, "Theory and Measurement of Socialization," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 24, No. 1, January 1960, p. 23-30.

³⁸ Donald R. Peterson, The Insecure Child, Over-Socialized or Under-Socialized, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1962 (to be published), 27 p.

Because the socialization scale has been validated with unusual care, it was employed here as a basis for inferring that the personal integrity and moral rectitude of children with personality problems were relatively limited, that conscience was weaker, or at least less effective in controlling conduct, than for children with no apparent problems. This is clearly in support of Mowrer's main proposition about psychopathology in neurosis.³⁹

Grater⁴⁰ was interested in Freud's typology and attempted to validate it empirically. This study did not find a significant difference between neurotics and non-neurotics. The results tended to support Mowrer's typology. Methodologically, this study may be considered weak because neuroticism is poorly defined.

A recent study was carried out as a doctoral project at the University of Hawaii by Fujita. He wrote as follows:

Recently Mowrer has proposed a dramatic new orientation in the psychotherapeutic process. [...] If the neurotic's basic difficulty is not that his superego is excessively severe but that the superego has itself been repudiated and 'repressed' a very different character typology results, in which the order runs: psychopath, neurotic, and normal. This conceptualization leads to a psychotherapeutic orientation that is diametrically opposed to the Freudian one and has important practical implications.⁴¹

³⁹ Ibid., p. 18.

⁴⁰ H. Grater, "Impulse Repression and Emotional Adjustment," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 24, No. 2, April 1960, p. 144-147.

⁴¹ George Y. Fujita, (no title), unpublished doctoral thesis presented to the University of Hawaii, Hawaii, 1963, p. 1, as cited in O. Hobart Mowrer, "New Evidence Concerning the Nature of Psychopathology," University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1966, (to be published), p. 13.

Fujita's population was the freshmen male and female students at the university. Using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and following the criteria set up by Kleinmuntz,⁴² he divided his population into two groups called Adjusted and Maladjusted. The Socialization scale of the C.P.I. was administered to those freshmen who were classified as adjusted and maladjusted.

When the 460 M.M.P.I. profiles were subjected to the decision criteria, 126 were judged as adjusted, 324 as maladjusted, and 30 were unclassified. The unclassified subjects were not used in the study. Then the two criterion groups were measured with the Socialization scale. Fujita found that the male students judged as adjusted obtained a mean score of 37.41 and the maladjusted, a mean score of 34.13. The female students who were categorized as adjusted had a mean score of 40.26 and maladjusted, a mean score of 37.30. Fujita concluded that for both sexes, the results were highly significant and strengthened the Mowrerian hypothesis. One criticism of this research was that some of the items of the C.P.I. Socialization scale and those on the M.M.P.I.

⁴² Benjamin Kleinmuntz, "M M P I Decision Rules for the Identification of College Maladjustment: A Digital Computer Approach," Psychological Monographs, Vol. 77, No. 14, 1963.

were the same, so there was a possibility of contamination. However, the author has contended that this contamination was relatively minimal.

Most of these studies mentioned above have stressed the necessity of further research to establish the generality of their findings. On this issue, Mowrer has written:

Fr. John J. O'Connor and Fr. Leo J. Hollis, of the University of Ottawa, Canada, have recently undertaken research specifically designed to bear upon the issues discussed in this paper with large scale sample groups; but findings have not yet been announced. If their findings are congruent with the various other research outcomes here discussed, one can conclude with near finality that the Freudian conception of psychopathology is invalid and that the alternative hypothesis warrants our confident acceptance.⁴³

The present empirical investigation studies the relation and order between a group classified as having Conduct Problems, a group judged as having Personality Problems, and a group categorized as having No Problems, on a Conduct and Personality Problem Checklist and on a socialization scale. It was primarily based on the research of Gough, Fujita, Swenson and Peterson. Their research was emphasized because of its applicability and experimental composition.

⁴³ O. Mowrer, "Cumulative Evidence Concerning the Nature of Psychopathology," University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1966, (to be published), p. 22.

The terms Conduct Problem group, Personality Problem group, and No Problem group are defined operationally by the scores obtained on the Conduct and Personality Problem Checklist. Socialization is defined operationally in terms of scores on the Socialization scale of the California Psychological Inventory.

5. General Hypotheses.

1. There is no relation between socialization and conduct problems and personality adjustment.
2. From Mowrer's theory, it was reasoned that a Conduct Problem group, a Personality Problem group, and a No Problem group, differ with respect to each other in their ability to socialize as measured by a socialization scale. The No Problem group would seem to be more socialized than the Personality Problem group, and the Personality Problem group more socialized than the Conduct Problem group.

The following chapter will present systematically those elements and procedures which will be used to test these hypotheses.

CHAPTER II

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The central problem with which this research is concerned, as stated in chapter one, is the relation and order between a group judged as having Conduct Problems, a group judged as having Personality Problems, and a group judged as having No Problems, on a Conduct and Personality Problem Checklist and on a socialization scale. It is the purpose of this chapter to put forth the materials and techniques used to conduct the experimental investigation.

This chapter commences with a description of the sample used in the study. Then the tools used are described. After that, the procedures used in the testing of the sample are set forth. Finally, the specific experimental hypotheses are delineated and the statistical procedures used to test them terminate the chapter.

1. The Sample.

As dimensional constructs, personality problems in late adolescence seem clearly analogous to neurotic tendencies among adults. Late adolescence refers to the college population employed in this research. The conceptual resemblance between adolescent conduct problems

and adult psychopathy seems equally apparent. In any case, neither Freud nor Mowrer has restricted his formulation to adults however much adult manifestations of disorder may have been in the mind of each theorist as he wrote. The present research is based only on the assumption that the classes of subjects employed resemble neurotics, psychopaths and normals as discussed by Mowrer and Freud. Certainly they appear to do so.

The female sample for this research was chosen from a midwestern liberal arts college for girls. Since the entire college, that is, the freshman, sophomore, junior and senior years were employed, no matching was required. Because of sickness and absence from class, thirteen girls of the total sample of 404 were not included. This left a total of 391 in the sample. Their ages ranged from eighteen to twenty-eight years. Their socioeconomic background was mostly middle-class. Part-time students were not used in this study because the professors felt that they did not know them sufficiently well.

A male sample was also chosen because of well known sex differences in problem expression¹ and

¹ Donald R. Peterson, "Behaviour Problems of Middle Childhood," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 25, No. 3, June 1961, p. 205-209.

socialization.² This male sample was selected from a mid-western liberal arts college for boys. The total college population was employed. Due to sickness and absence from class, twenty-one boys of the total sample of 573 were not included. This left a total of 552 in the sample. Their ages ranged from eighteen to twenty-nine years. As in the female sample, the male socioeconomic background was mostly middle-class. Likewise, part-time students were not included in this study because the professors maintained that they did not have sufficient knowledge of these students to complete accurately the rating scale.

2. The Tools.

Following a general introduction to the California Psychological Inventory (C.P.I.), emphasis has been placed on the Socialization (So) scale because it has been employed in this study. The measure of character and personality adjustment is then discussed.

a) The California Psychological Inventory.- The purpose³ of the C.P.I., according to its author, was

² Harrison G. Gough, "Theory and Measurement of Socialization," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 24, No. 1, February 1960, p. 23-30.

³ -----, Manual for the California Psychological Inventory, Palo Alto, California, Consulting Psychologists Press, 1960, p. 7.

twofold. The first goal was to develop descriptive concepts of a broad personal and social relevance. The second goal was to devise brief, accurate, and dependable subscales for the identification and measurement of the eighteen variables chosen for inclusion in the inventory. The variables selected represented dimensions of personality which arise organically out of social living and hence to be found everywhere, in all societies and cultures.⁴

The test booklet contains 480 items and yields eighteen standard scales. The eighteen standard scales provide a comprehensive survey of an individual from a social interaction point of view.

The basic manner of scale construction was the empirical technique. In this method the criterion dimension which one seeks to measure is first defined. Inventory statements which seem to bear a psychological relevance to the criterion dimension are assembled in a preliminary scale. These questions are then given to individuals who can be shown by some technique entirely independent of the test to be strongly characterized by this trait or dimension.

⁴ Harrison G. Gough, "A Cross-Cultural Study of Achievement Motivation," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 48, No. 3, June 1964, p. 191-196.

Three test-retest reliability studies⁵ on sixteen of the eighteen scales varied between .57 to .67.

Regarding the validity of the C.P.I., extensive evidence drawn from cross-validation studies has indicated that the validity of the individual scales is quite high.

Kelly, after a review of the C.P.I. in the Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, has stated:

All in all, however, the C.P.I. in this reviewer's opinion is one of the best, if not the best available instruments of its kind. [...] The degree of professional acceptance of the C.P.I. and its impact on personality research is reflected in the large number of references which have appeared since the last edition of the MMY.⁶

b) Socialization Scale of the C.P.I.- In this research, socialization was measured by the results obtained from the So scale of the C.P.I. for all 391 female and 552 male subjects in the sample. Because the final analysis only has significance to the extent that the So scale is a good measure of the factors it was designed to measure, namely, moral rectitude, social maturity, and personal integrity, the merits and faults of the scale must be considered in some detail.

⁵ Gough, Manual, p. 22.

⁶ O.K. Buros, The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, Highland Park, N.J., Gryphon Press, 1965, p. 71-72.

The So scale⁷ was originally conceived on the conceptual basis of role theory. The less-socialized person was hypothesized to be less skillful in sensing and interpreting subtle and covert cues in social interaction and, hence, less likely to evolve dependable and veridical internalized systems of control.

As originally developed, the So scale consisted of sixty-four questionnaire items which differentiated reliably between delinquents and nondelinquents.⁸ It was subsequently cross-validated by comparing Air Force stockade prisoners with a sample of recruits, and its discriminatory effectiveness was maintained.

Since then it has been given to at least fifty-eight different groups, well over twenty-five thousand people, of both sexes, in various occupations, from various backgrounds, and in ten different countries around the world.⁹

7 Harrison G. Cough, "Conceptual Analysis of Psychological Test Scores and Other Diagnostic Variables," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, Vol. 70, No. 4, August 1965, p. 204-302.

8 H.G. Cough and D.R. Peterson, "The Identification and Measurement of Predispositional Factors in Crime and Delinquency," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 16, No. 4, June 1952, p. 207-212.

9 Donald R. Peterson, The Insecure Child: Over-Socialized or Under-Socialized?, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1962, (to be published), 27 p.

Cross-cultural validation has been high. For a sample of 203 institutionalized delinquents in India, tested in Hindi and Punjabi, the So scale correlated +.73 with court-assigned classifications of the severity of the offense.¹⁰

Data from Austria, Costa Rica, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Puerto Rico, South Africa, and Switzerland have shown that the So scale has differentiated significantly between delinquents and nondelinquents both male and female.¹¹

The non-test basis for inferring the degree of socialization has been available for most of the research on the So scale. In a rather impressively dependable manner, So scores have emerged as they should if the scale is a valid measure of integrity and moral rectitude. In a recent research based on forty-one research samples totalling 1,295 male delinquents and over nine thousand nondelinquents, as well as 784 female delinquents and over nine thousand female nondelinquents, Gough¹² made

10 Harrison G. Gough and Haijit S. Sandhu, "Validation of the CPI Socialization Scale in India," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 68, No. 5, May 1964, p. 544-547.

11 Gough, "Conceptual Analysis of Psychological Test Scores and Other Diagnostic Variables," p. 296.

12 -----, "Theory and Measurement of Socialization," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 24, No. 1, February 1960, p. 23-30.

a socialization continuum. The samples covered a wide range, going from those nominated "best citizens" through various occupational and professional groups, through disciplinary samples, to known delinquents and prison inmates. The rank ordering of samples by the Sc scale accorded exactly with what would occur if they were ranked sociologically for socialization.

Time and again, the scale has appropriately distinguished between subjects who were in trouble with the law and who were not. It functions as well for high socioeconomic groups as for low ones. It does such unexpected and reassuring things as differentiating between unwed mothers who have had one illegitimate child from those who have had two or more. It distinguishes boys whose first commitment to a reformatory occurred at age fifteen or before and those whose first commitment came at age sixteen or over.

Reliabilities are very high. Validity as demonstrated could not be this high with an unreliable instrument. Test-retest reliability is .30. Gough in a recent study of the scale has noted:

The scale itself, one may conclude, has a sufficient degree of validity so that it may be recommended as a generally useful tool for study of any problem falling within the domain of socialization.¹³

¹³ Harrison G. Gough, "Cross-Cultural Validation of a Measure of Asocial Behavior," Psychological Reports, Vol. 17, No. 5, October 1965, p. 379-387.

In summary then, the So scale has been applied extensively in studies of delinquency and asocial behavior.¹⁴ It is based on an interactional or role-taking theory of delinquent behavior. It has proved to be valid for forecasting asocial behavior among children, incidence of delinquency among military personnel, rate of delinquency among military personnel, severity of asocial behavior, delinquency in other cultures and even such specific criteria as cheating on course examinations in college. Because of these facts, this scale has been chosen in the present study.

3. A Measure of Character and Personality Adjustment.

The measure of character and personality adjustment used in this study was prepared by Peterson.¹⁵ He tabulated the referral problems among 427 representatively chosen children attending a guidance clinic. Frequencies were recorded for all problems mentioned more than once. The fifty-eight most common problems were selected for general investigation.

¹⁴ Harrison G. Cough, Ernest A. Wenk, and Vitali V. Rozyenko, "Parole Outcome as Predicted from the CPI, the MMPI, and a Base Expectancy Table," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, Vol. 70, No. 6, December 1965, p. 432-441.

¹⁵ Peterson, "Behaviour Problems of Middle Childhood," p. 205-209.

These fifty-eight variables were ordered randomly and then assembled in a format requiring ratings of 0 (no problem), 1 (mild problem), or 2 (severe problem). This was then submitted for completion to twenty-eight teachers of 531 students in six different grade schools in Illinois.

For analysis, Peterson divided the sample into four groups and performed four separate factorizations. Two factors emerged with striking invariance in all four analyses. The first factor was identified as a Conduct Problem. In this case impulses are expressed and society suffers. The highest loadings were on the following variables: disobedience, disruptiveness, boisterousness, fighting, attention-seeking, restlessness, negativism, impertinence, destructiveness, irritability, temper tantrums, hyperactivity, profanity, jealousy and uncooperativeness. From these, the obvious phenotypic pattern is of flagrant misbehavior in open defiance of authority. Peterson postulated aggression and limited control as the most important dynamic bases for covariation of the problems.

The second factor was identified as a Personality Problem. In this case impulses are inhibited and the person suffers. This dimension was defined by the following variables: feelings of inferiority, lack of self-confidence, social withdrawal, proneness to become flustered,

self-consciousness, shyness, anxiety, lethargy, inability to have fun, depression, reticence, hypersensitivity, drowsiness, aloofness, and preoccupation. The emotional nucleus of this factor appeared to be a feeling of insecurity.

An interjudge r of .77 was found for the Conduct Problem dimension, and .75 for the Personality Problem dimension. The correlation between factors was .18. This is low enough to meet requirements for independence. A sizeable share of students are said to display problems along both dimensions, and these may contribute partially to the low positive correlation between the factors.

The generality of these two factors appears to be outstanding. Not only do they emerge with clear uniformity in this study, but they have appeared in similar studies with the recorded problems of treatment cases despite wide differences in subjects, variables, and analytic procedures.^{16,17} The same factors have appeared on the questionnaire behavior of delinquent boys.¹⁸

¹⁶ L.E. Hewitt and R.L. Jenkins, Fundamental Patterns of Maladjustment: The Dynamics of Their Origin, Springfield, Illinois, Green, 1946, p. 34-57.

¹⁷ Hilde T. Himmelweit, "A Factorial Study of Children's Behavior Problems," as cited in H.J. Eysenck, The Structure of Human Personality, London, Methuen, 1953, p. 88.

¹⁸ D.R. Peterson, H.C. Quay, and G.R. Cameron, "Personality and Background Factors in Juvenile Delinquency as Inferred from Questionnaire Responses," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 23, No. 5, October 1959, p.395-399.

Considering all studies, age has varied from early childhood to late adolescence. Problem status has varied from none, through clinical attendance, to being jailed for delinquency. Data sources have varied from case history records, to standard ratings, to questionnaire responses. Methods to extract factors have also varied from cluster inspection to centroid analysis. Rotational methods have varied from none, through visual shifts, to both orthogonal and oblique solutions, to analytic techniques. Through all of this, the factors have stayed the same. Peterson¹⁹ has found that these two verbally defined personality factors remain the same throughout life. Other studies by Eysenck,²⁰ Black,²¹ and Mowrer²² have confirmed the dominant position of these two factors. Peterson²³

19 D.R. Peterson, "The Scope and Generality of Verbally Defined Personality Factors," Psychological Review, Vol. 72, No. 1, January 1965, p. 48-59.

20 H.J. Eysenck and S.D.G. Eysenck, "A Factorial Study of an Interview Questionnaire," Journal of Clinical Psychology, Vol. 28, No. 3, July 1962, p. 286-290.

21 M.S. Black, The Development of Personality Factors in Children and Adolescents, unpublished doctoral thesis presented to the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1964, p. 47.

22 O. Hobart Mowrer, "Cumulative Evidence Concerning the Nature of Psychopathology," University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1966, (to be published), 29 p.

23 Peterson, The Insecure Child: Over-Socialized or Under-Socialized?, 27 p.

used the same measure of character and personality adjustment as employed in the present research, with high school students. Peterson recommended its use in the present study.²⁴ This measure of Character and Personality adjustment has been inserted in Appendix I.

4. Testing Procedures.

The actual testing with the So scale of the C.P.I. took place towards the end of April. It was believed that the professors would know their students better toward the end of the academic year and consequently more accuracy would be obtained on the measure of Character and Personality adjustment.

For both the male and female student populations, identical testing procedures were followed. The freshman class of students, the sophomore, the junior and senior years were tested separately. Test administrators and proctors were made up of psychologists, along with members of the guidance and testing offices. Administrators were told how to handle any questions which might be asked by the students. The time allotted was enough for everyone to finish the form.

²⁴ D.R. Peterson, Personal Correspondence with the Author, April 27, 1966.

An innocuous announcement was made that we were trying to measure some tendencies among college students. The subjects were told about the mechanics of the operation. They were assured that their performance would not affect their grades; the teachers would not know how they answered; the scores would have no bearing on their futures.

The professors were requested to rate all of the students on the measure of Conduct and Personality Problem Checklist.

From the female sample, a random selection of one hundred students was made from the entire college, and two professors rated these students separately. Three weeks later another rating was obtained on the ninety-eight freshman students by the same professors who had previously rated them. The students were not aware of the professors' ratings. Separate rating sheets were given to each faculty member who would rate the student independently.

For the male population, a random selection of eighty students was made from the whole college, and two professors rated these students separately. Three weeks after the ratings had been completed, another rating was procured on a random sample of sixty-five freshman students by the same professors who had previously rated them. As with the female population, the male students were unaware

of the professors' ratings. Each faculty member received a separate rating sheet, so that an independent rating would be given to each student.

Scores for Conduct Problems (C.P.) and Personality Problem (P.P.) were obtained by assigning one point for each relevant problem indicated, and three groups of subjects were selected. One group consisted of pupils for whom no problems at all were checked. This is referred to as the No Problem group (N.P.). A group of Conduct Problems was chosen by including those for whom the ratio of C.P. scores to P.P. scores was at least five to one. Analogous criteria were applied to designating Personality Problems.

5. Specific Experimental Hypotheses.

Now that the sample, tools and testing procedures have been described, the specific experimental hypotheses are stated in the null form.

1. There are no significant relations between scores on the Socialization scale of the C.P.I. and scores obtained on a Conduct and Personality Problem Checklist in the areas of Conduct Problems and Personality Problems.
2. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the Conduct Problems group and the No Problem group on the Socialization scale of the C.P.I.

3. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the Conduct Problem group and the Personality Problem group on the Socialization scale of the C.P.I.
4. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the Personality Problem group and the No Problem group on the Socialization scale of the C.P.I.
5. There is no significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for the Conduct Problem group, the Personality Problem group, and the No Problem group on the Socialization scale of the C.P.I.

6. Statistical Procedures.

Reliability was determined twice for the rating scale of Character and Personality adjustment using the male and female samples. Inter-judge reliability was found from a random selection of one hundred female students and likewise for eighty male students. Test-retest reliability was found for the first year freshman female students whose number totalled ninety-eight. It was also calculated from a random sample of sixty-five first year freshman male students.

Inter-judge reliability was found by computing a Pearson r^{25} correlation coefficient between two groups of raw scores representing the ratings of two distinct

²⁵ J.P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1956, p. 140.

judges on conduct problems. The identical procedure was employed to obtain a Pearson r correlation coefficient for those judged as having personality problems.

Test-retest reliability was then determined for the rating scale by computing a Pearson r correlation coefficient between the raw scores as judged by the same judges on the first and second administration.

Scores for the Socialization scale of the C.K.I. were computed for the subjects with no problems, for those with conduct problems, and finally for those with personality problems. Distributions of these scores were then formed. The means and standard deviations for each of the three subgroups, that is, the No Problem group, the Conduct Problem group, and the Personality Problem group were then calculated for both the male and female populations.

Individual t tests²⁶ were applied to the means of the Socialization scores between the No Problem group and the Personality Problem group; between the No Problem group and the Conduct Problem group; and finally between the Personality Problem group and the Conduct Problem group. These individual t tests were calculated to determine whether the differences between the groups were statistically

²⁶ Lawrence T. Dayhaw, Manuel de Statistique, Ottawa, Canada, Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1963, p. 358-359.

significant. When the t tests have demonstrated that there are significant differences between the means of the three subgroups, the amount of these differences is still unknown. The point-biserial r was then employed to determine the extent of the statistical significance. Cohen recently recommended that the t test be carried one step further to reveal how great in correlation terms the differences indicated by the t tests may be. He has stated his recommendation in this manner:

The principle being advocated here is that routinely, whenever a T value is reported, the ρ value should also be reported. This restores symmetry in the demands of good practice in reporting psychological research, since this has always dictated that every ρ value be accompanied by the relevant T value and its statistical significance. Present practice is invariably to report T values, ρ values being reported only when the design happens to yield a correlation coefficient.²⁷

A Pearson r correlation coefficient was obtained for the 391 girls in the total sample between each individual's rated Conduct Problem score and the corresponding Socialization score. An identical procedure was carried out for the 552 male students in the total sample.

Likewise a Pearson r correlation coefficient was determined for the 391 girls in the total sample between

²⁷ Jacob Cohen, "Some Statistical Issues in Psychological Research," as cited in Benjamin B. Wolman, (ed), Handbook of Clinical Psychology, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1967, p. 95-121.

each individual's rated personality score and the corresponding Socialization score. The same calculations were also computed for the 552 male students.

Fisher's t formula²⁶ was then applied to each of these last two correlations to investigate whether the correlations were statistically significant.

The next chapter will present and discuss the findings of these procedures in relation to the specific experimental hypotheses.

²⁶ Daynard, Op. Cit., p. 367.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The results obtained from the statistical calculations are presented and discussed in the present chapter. The female sample is presented first followed by the male sample, and finally a comparison between the results computed for the female and male samples is set forth. Further research suggestions are delineated.

The preliminary considerations for both the female and male samples are concerned with the test-retest reliability, and the inter-judge reliability of the Personality and Character Problem Checklist. Then the relations between scores calculated on the Socialization (So) scale of the California Psychological Inventory (C.P.I.) and scores acquired on the Personality and Character Problem Checklist are set forth and examined. This has been done for the three groups, namely, the No Problem (N.P.) group, the Personality Problem (P.P.) group, and the Conduct Problem (C.P.) group. Following this, the differences between the means scores of the three typological groups on the So scale of the C.P.I. are described and evaluated. The Freudian and Mowrerian hypotheses, relevant to this study, are examined in relation to the statistical conclusions.

Finally the male and female samples are compared and the chapter is terminated with various recommendations for further research.

1. The Female Sample: Preliminary Considerations.

In order to determine the stability of the Personality and Character Problem Checklist, a test-retest reliability was calculated. This had been suggested by Peterson.¹ The time between tests was three weeks. The college professors were not aware that they would be asked to fill out the Checklist a second time. Only the freshman class was used to establish the test-retest reliability. This class consisted of ninety-eight students. Their ages varied from eighteen to twenty-three. For the Conduct Problem group the test-retest reliability was .58. For the Personality Problem group it was .91.

Inter-judge reliability was also computed. A random sample of one hundred students was selected from the entire college population. Two judges were asked to rate these students independently. The student age range in this sample varied from eighteen to twenty-eight. The inter-judge reliability for the Conduct Problem group was .76. For the Personality Problem group it was .72.

¹ L.H. Peterson, Personal Correspondence with Author, April 27, 1966.

2. Interrelations of the Female Conduct and Personality Problem Groups.

The statistical method of correlation is a comprehensive analysis. It sets forth a relationship between deviations of score points about a line.² The Pearson correlation coefficients between the scores obtained on the So scale of the C.P.I. and those on the Personality and Character Problem Checklist are presented in Table I. For those judged as having a Conduct Problem, a Pearson correlation coefficient of $-.44$ was found between their scores on the So scale of the C.P.I. and their scores on the Personality and Character Problem Checklist. This was statistically significant at $p = .001$ level of confidence.

A Pearson correlation coefficient of $-.25$ was calculated from the scores on the So scale and the Personality and Character Problem Checklist for those judged as having Personality Problems. This was found to be significant at the $p = .001$ level of confidence. Both relationships are low. However, the null hypothesis, namely, there are no significant relations between scores on the So scale of the C.P.I. and scores obtained on a Personality and Character Problem Checklist in the areas of Character and Personality Problems must be rejected.

² Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics, Third Edition, New York, Wiley, 1962, p. 119-123.

Table 1.-

Correlation Coefficients between the Scores on the So Scale of the C.P.I. and the Personality and Character Problem Checklist for the Conduct and Personality Problem Female Groups.

Female Groups	N	Pearson r Coefficients	t Test Significance of the "r"
Conduct Problem	391	-.44	9.66 ^a
Personality Problem	391	-.25	5.07 ^a

a Significant at the .001 level of confidence.

The minus signs of the correlation of $-.44$ for the Conduct Problem group and of $-.25$ for the Personality Problem group indicate a tendency for both groups to be under-socialized.

The Pearson correlation coefficients of $-.44$ and $-.25$ were computed from the entire population of 391 girls. According to Freudian hypothetical reasoning, measures of socialization should correlate positively with indices of Personality Problems, but negatively with measures of Conduct Problems.

If Mowrerian theory is supported, both the correlations should have the same minus signs. Mowrer's proposition has been substantiated by the present findings. Those with Personality Problems would appear to be under-socialized as Mowrer, not Freud, had postulated.

3. Comparison of Mean Socialization Female Scores.

The means, standard deviations, t tests and point-biserial correlations obtained on the 50 scale of the G.P.I. for the No Problem group, the Personality Problem group, and the Conduct Problem group are presented in Table II. The means calculated for the three groups were 41.45 for the No Problem group, 37.80 for the Personality Problem group and 32.38 for the Conduct Problem group. The difference between the means of the No Problem and

Table II.-

Means, Standard Deviations, t Tests, and Point-Biserial Correlations* for the Socialization Scale of the C.P.I. for Females.

Female Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Groups Compared	t Test	Point-Biserial Correlation
No Problem (N.P.)	190	41.45	3.84	N.P. vs P.P.	3.24 ^a	.21
Personality Problem (P.P.)	51	37.00	4.74	N.P. vs C.P.	6.32 ^b	.49
Conduct Problem (C.P.)	26	32.00	5.04	P.P. vs C.P.	4.00 ^b	.43

a Significant at the .01 level of confidence.

b Significant at the .001 level of confidence.

* Cohen's point-biserial correlation formula $r_{pb} =$

$$\sqrt{\frac{t^2}{t^2 + df}}$$

Personality Problem groups was found to be significant at the $p = .01$ level of confidence. The difference between the means of the No Problem and the Conduct Problem groups, as well as the Personality Problem and Conduct Problem groups was found to be significant at the $p = .001$ level of confidence.

The number of those judged as having a Conduct Problem was twenty-six. There were fifty-one students judged as having a Personality Problem. In order to be classified in either of these two groups, a ratio of five to one was needed. The number in the No Problem group was 190. These were selected from those students rated by the judges as having no Conduct Problems or Personality Problems.

Therefore, the second, third, and fourth null hypotheses must be rejected, namely, there are no significant differences in mean scores between those judged as having Conduct Problems and those judged as having No Problems, between those judged as having Conduct Problems and those judged as having Personality Problems, and between those judged as having Personality Problems and those judged as having No Problems, on the S_0 scale of the C.F.I.

The mean scores and standard deviations computed in this research conform with the findings of other

studies.^{3,4,5} Those with Conduct Problems showed slightly more variance than the other two groups. The least deviation from the mean was computed for the No Problem group.

The point-biserial correlations were computed from the *t* scores. The size of the effect of the difference between the means is influenced by the degree of difference between the socialization variable and the criterion variable. The point-biserial correlation was calculated to set forth, as every correlation does, the extent or strength to which a relation exists, if it exists, as shown by the *t* test.

The amount of relationship was the greatest in a comparison of the No Problem group with the Conduct Problem group. This resulted in a point-biserial correlation of $r_{pb} = .40$. This relationship indicates the chances are greater that those belonging to the No Problem group would obtain a higher score on the socialization measure than those in the Conduct Problem group.

³ Donald R. Peterson, The Insecure Child, Over-Socialized or Under-Socialized?, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1962 (to be published), 27 p.

⁴ Harrison G. Gough, "Theory and Measurement of Socialization," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 24, No. 1, February 1956, p. 23-30.

⁵ H.G. Gough and D.R. Peterson, "The Identification and Measurement of Predispositional Factors in Crime and Delinquency," Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 16, No. 3, June 1952, p. 207-212.

When the No Problem group was compared with the Personality Problem group, a point-biserial correlation of $r_{pb} = .21$ was computed. The Personality Problem group versus the Conduct Problem group resulted in a $r_{pb} = .43$. There is a possibility that the differences in the means, found among the three groups, may be due to the fact that they are differentially related to socialization. This differential relationship is seen in the three point-biserial correlations mentioned.

The location of the Personality Problem group in between the No Problem and Conduct Problem groups has supported Mowrer's hypothesis. According to Freudian reasoning, the Personality Problem group would have been more socialized than the normal group, and thus would have obtained higher scores on the socialization measure. Mowrer's theoretical position that the Personality Problem group would be under-socialized has been supported by the present findings.

4. The Male Sample: Preliminary Considerations.

A test-retest reliability of the Personality and Character Problem Checklist was obtained again in order to establish its stability. Three weeks elapsed between the tests. The college professors were not informed that they would be requested to complete the Checklist a second time.

A random sample of sixty-five freshman students was used to determine the test-retest reliability. Their ages varied from eighteen to twenty-nine years. For the Conduct Problem group the test-retest reliability was .87. For the Personality Problem group it was .85.

Inter-judge reliability was also calculated. A random sample of eighty students was chosen from the entire college population. These students were rated independently by two judges. In this sample, the age range of the students varied from eighteen to twenty-eight years. The inter-judge reliability for the Conduct Problem group was .72. For the Personality Problem group it was .75.

5. Interrrelations of the Male Conduct and Personality Problem Groups.

The Pearson correlation coefficients between the male scores obtained on the So scale of the C.P.I. and those on the Personality and Character Problem Checklist are presented in Table III. For those judged as having a Conduct Problem, a Pearson correlation coefficient of $-.38$ was calculated between their scores on the So scale of the C.P.I. and their scores on the Personality and Character Problem Checklist. This was statistically significant at the $p = .001$ level of confidence.

Table III.-

Correlation Coefficients between the Scores on the So Scale of the C.P.I. and the Personality and Character Problem Checklist for the Conduct and Personality Problem Male Groups.

<u>Male Groups</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Pearson r Coefficients</u>	<u>t Test Significance of the "r"</u>
Conduct Problem	552	-.38	9.63 ^a
Personality Problem	552	-.17	4.04 ^a

^a Significant at the .001 level of confidence.

For those judged as having Personality Problems, a Pearson correlation coefficient of $-.17$ was obtained between their scores on the So scale and the Personality and Character Problem Checklist. This was found to be significant also at the $p = .001$ level of confidence. Although these relationships are low, the null hypothesis, namely, there are no significant relations between scores on the So scale of the C.P.I. and scores obtained on a Personality and Character Problem Checklist must be rejected. The minus signs of the correlation of $-.38$ for the Conduct Problem group and $-.17$ for the Personality Problem group indicate a tendency for both groups to be under-socialized.

The entire population of 552 males was employed to calculate these Pearson correlation coefficients. Freud had theorized that measures of socialization should correlate positively with indices of Personality Problems, but negatively with measures of Conduct Problems.

On the other hand, Mowrer has hypothesized that both correlations should have the same minus signs. This proposition has been supported by the present findings. Those with Personality Problems would appear to be under-socialized as Mowrer, not Freud, had theorized. Both Freud and Mowrer had postulated that the Conduct Problem group would have a negative correlation with a socialization measure.

6. Comparison of Mean Socialization Male Scores.

In Table IV are presented the means, standard deviations, t tests, and point-biserial correlations for the No Problem group, the Personality Problem group, and the Conduct Problem group. The mean computed for the No Problem group was 38.09, for the Personality Problem group 31.95, and for the Conduct Problem group 27.23. A significant difference at the $p = .001$ level of confidence was found between the means of the No Problem and Personality Problem groups as well as the No Problem and Conduct Problem groups. The difference between the means of the Personality Problem and Conduct Problem groups was significant at the $p = .01$ level of confidence.

The number in the No Problem group was 258. This group was chosen from those students rated by the judges as having no Conduct Problems nor Personality Problems. In order to be placed in the Personality Problem or Conduct Problem groups, a ratio of five to one was required. The number of students judged as having Personality Problems was sixty-five. There were thirty-nine judged as having a Conduct Problem.

Since the differences between the three groups were statistically significant, the second, third, and fourth null hypotheses must be rejected, namely, there are no significant differences in mean scores between those judged

Table IV.-
Means, Standard Deviations, t Tests, and Point-Biserial
Correlations* for the Socialization Scale of the C.P.I.
for Males.

Male Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Groups Compared	t Test	Point- Biserial Correlation
No Problem (N.P.)	258	38.09	4.91	N.P. vs P.P.	5.24 ^a	.28
Personality Problem (P.P.)	65	31.95	9.00	N.P. vs C.P.	3.10 ^a	.43
Conduct Problem (C.P.)	37	27.23	8.06	P.P. vs C.P.	2.73 ^b	.26

a Significant at the .001 level of confidence.

b Significant at the .01 level of confidence.

* Cohen's point-biserial correlation formula $r_{pb} =$

$$r_{pb} = \sqrt{\frac{t^2}{t^2 + df}}$$

as having Conduct Problems and those judged as having No Problems, between those judged as having Conduct Problems and those judged as having Personality Problems, and between those judged as having Personality Problems and those judged as having No Problems, on the So scale of the C.P.I.

The No Problem group had the least deviation from the mean, while the Personality and Conduct Problem groups manifested considerably more deviation.

The point-biserial correlation was computed to set forth the extent or strength to which a relation exists, if it exists, as shown by the t test.

The point-biserial correlation of $r_{pb} = .43$ indicated that the amount of relationship was the greatest when the No Problem group was compared with the Conduct Problem group.

The No Problem group versus the Personality Problem group resulted in a $r_{pb} = .28$, and a $r_{pb} = .26$ was calculated for the Personality Problem group versus the Conduct Problem group.

In conclusion, there is a possibility that the differences in the means, found among the three groups, may be due to the fact that they are differentially related to socialization. This differential relationship is seen in the three point-biserial correlations mentioned.

7. Comparison of Mean Socialization Scores for the Male and Female Samples.

The means, standard deviations, t tests, and point-biserial correlations, calculated from a comparison of the three male and female groups according to their mean scores on the So scale of the C.P.I. are presented in Table V.

The results obtained in the present study are in conformity with studies by Gough⁶ and Fujita.⁷ The mean female socialization scores were higher for all three groups when compared with the mean male scores. The difference between the means of the male and female No Problem groups and Personality Problem groups was found to be significant at the $p = .001$ level of confidence. The difference between the means of the male and female Conduct Problem groups was significant at the $p = .01$ level of confidence. Therefore, the fifth null hypothesis must be rejected, namely, there is no significant difference between the mean scores of males and females for the No Problem groups, the Personality Problem groups, and the Conduct Problem groups on the So scale of the C.P.I.

⁶ Gough, Op. Cit., p. 24-25.

⁷ George Y. Fujita, (no title), unpublished doctoral thesis presented to the University of Hawaii, Hawaii, 1963, p. 1, as cited in O. Hobart Mowrer, "New Evidence Concerning the Nature of Psychopathology," University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1966, (to be published), p. 13.

Table V.-

The t Tests and Point-Biserial Correlations* for the Female and Male Scores on the Socialisation Scale of the C.P.I.

Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Test	Point-Biserial Correlation
H.P. Females	190	41.45	3.04	8.13 ^a	.36
H.P. Males	258	38.09	4.91		
F.P. Females	51	37.50	4.74	4.47 ^a	.39
F.P. Males	65	31.95	4.00		
C.P. Females	26	32.08	5.04	3.40 ^b	.39
C.P. Males	39	27.23	6.06		

^a Significant at the .001 level of confidence.

^b Significant at the .01 level of confidence.

* Cohen's point-biserial correlation formula:

$$r_{pb} = \sqrt{\frac{t^2}{t^2 + df}}$$

The deviation from the mean was less for the three female groups than for the three male groups. The highest deviation from the mean was calculated for the male Personality Problem group. The No Problem female group manifested the least deviation from the mean.

A point-biserial correlation of $r_{pb} = .36$ was computed when the No Problem female group was compared to the No Problem male group. For the Personality Problem females versus the Personality Problem males and the Conduct Problem females versus the Conduct Problem males, the same point-biserial correlation of $r_{pb} = .37$ was obtained. There is a possibility that the differences in the means, found among the three groups, may be due to the fact that they are differentially related to socialization. This differential relationship is seen in the three point-biserial correlations mentioned.

In conclusion, the So scale was employed in this study because it has been validated with unusual care. Two objections have been raised against personality inventories. These objects have been called "acquiescence"⁶ and "social desirability."⁷ Acquiescence has

⁶ A. Couch and K. Keniston, "Yeasayers and Naysayers: Agreeing Response Set as a Personality Variable," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 60, No. 2, March 1960, p. 151-174.

⁷ A.L. Edwards, The Social Desirability Variable in Personality Assessment and Research, New York, Dryden, 1957, p. 18.

regard to the testee answering "yes" to personality inventory statements in spite of the content of the items. Social desirability has regard to the giving of socially desirable responses irrespective of whether the socially desirable response is true or false. Block¹⁰ has answered these objections in a thorough investigation and has applied his conclusions to all personality inventories.

The So scale was used as a measure for deducing that the personal integrity and moral uprightness of those having personality problems were relatively restricted in scope. This would tend to indicate that their superego was less effective as a conduct measure, than for those having no evident problems. Mowrer's main contention regarding psychopathology in neurosis is plainly supported by the present findings.

8. Further Research Suggestions.

The present study has led to some statistically significant evidence in support of Mowrer's hypothetical reasoning. Since any one study only gives some probability, a similar research to the present one, using various criterion measures of socialization, may yield significant results. In spite of the many difficulties involved,

¹⁰ Jack Block, The Challenge of Response Sets, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965, vi-142 p.

an important dimension would be contributed by the use of clear-cut clinical neurotics and psychopaths.

Mowrer has developed a new type of therapy based on his theoretical position. An outcome study, in which a comparison would be made of the results obtained from Mowrerian and Freudian therapy, would perhaps offer some evidence pertaining to the theoretical issues involved in the present study.

A further research suggestion could be made in the area of process studies. These might take either of two forms. One form could consist in psychometric evaluations of persons before and after Freudian and Mowrerian therapy. Another form of process study could involve the actual study of both therapeutic processes by means of tape recordings, interviews, etc.

Very little clearly acceptable evidence has been set forth on either side of the Freudian and Mowrerian theoretical positions. The importance of the issues involved can be seen in the implications for the treatment and prevention of behavior disorders. If the results of other studies again support Mowrer, important social and moral implications would be involved.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Down through the centuries, mental health has always been treasured as a precious jewel. The problem of helping the mentally ill back to normal functioning has frequently led into a maze of blind alleys and twisting freeways. Many leaders in the fields of psychiatry and psychology are searching for even more effective theories and improved modes of therapy. There is a growing concern with the existential man, his goals, his values, his inter-personal relationships.

During the first three decades of this century, Freud made his remarkable contributions to the advancement of mental health. For the past twenty years, there has been an increasing re-appraisal of Freud's position regarding the nature and origin of neuroticism. According to the Freudian theory, anxiety arises when the ego apprehends a danger. The crucial danger in the case of neurotic anxiety is that inhibited impulses will get out of control. The neurotic's tendency to repress impulse derivatives is over-generalized and over-severe. This has resulted in a useless expenditure of psychic energy. Freud has theorized that the neurotics have learned the lessons of society too well.

Various theoreticians have disagreed with Freud on the origin of neurotic anxiety. One of these has been

O. Hobart Mowrer. He has observed that anxiety comes not from acts which the person would commit but dares not, but from acts which he has committed but wishes he had not. The superego is repudiated not the instincts. Neurotics have a real guilt because of their misbehavior.

This study has investigated the basic contentions of the Freudian and Mowrerian theories. In the present investigation, a socialization measure was administered to three male and three female groups, judged as having No Problems, Personality Problems, and Conduct Problems. A significant negative correlation between the socialization measure and the indices of Personality Problems was found. This finding has supported the Mowrerian hypothesis that the neurotic was under-socialized. According to the Freudian postulate, there should have been a positive correlation between the two measures because the neurotic was hypothesized as being over-socialized. The Mowrerian theory has contended that those with Personality Problems were under-socialized, and the correlation should have been negative. The minus sign of this correlation has added probability to the Mowrerian theory.

The mean differences between the three male and three female groups on the Socialization scale of the C.P.I. were found to be significant. The position of the

mean of the Personality Problem group was centered between the means of the No Problem group and the Conduct Problem group. The results of this study with large sample groups have produced further evidence to increase the probability of the Mowrerian position.

In conclusion, modern medicine has conquered many of the major physical illnesses which have ravaged mankind for countless thousands of years. Through the patient and dedicated research of untold thousands of scientists the present high level of physical health has been reached. Due to the work of men like Freud and Mowrer and innumerable other research workers, it is hoped that the same high level of mental health will be attained.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Block, Jack, The Challenge of Response Sets, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965, vi-142 p.

The response sets of "acquiescence" and "social desirability" on the MMPI and all personality inventories are rejected after careful scientific research. This book should be read by anyone using personality inventories.

Coleman, James C., Abnormal Psychology and Modern Life, Chicago, Scott Foresman, 1964, 694 p.

This book gives a clear view of the entire field of psychology. It was useful in the present study because of its accurate portrayal of mental illness today.

Freud, Sigmund, A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis, New York, Liveright, 1935, 412 p.

This book is an excellent review of Freud's evolving theory on psychoanalysis. It is a prime source for the understanding of Freud.

-----, An Outline of Psychoanalysis, New York, Norton, 1949, ix-127 p.

This is a brief review of the Freudian psychoanalytical approach. It is also a prime source for the understanding of Freudian thought in this study.

-----, Civilization and Its Discontents, London, Hogarth Press, 1930, 144 p.

The author sets forth his analysis of the effects of superego formation in society. The socialization agencies are roundly condemned. Strongly recommended for this study.

-----, New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis, New York, Norton, 1933, xi-257 p.

In this book, Freud clearly outlines the nature and goals of psychoanalysis. The interrelationships and roles of the id, ego, and superego are clearly delineated. Excellent and necessary reading.

-----, The Ego and the Id, London, Hogarth Press, 1935, 88 p.

Much of the author's contribution to personality theory is set forth in clear and concise style. For the present research, this is necessary reading.

Freud, Sigmund, The Problem of Anxiety, New York, Norton, 1936, 165 p.

The author sets forth a complete treatise on the nature, sources, and development of anxiety. Necessary reading for this research.

Funk, M.F., Moral Judgments and Neurosis, unpublished doctoral thesis presented to the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1961, 72 p.

This investigation into the Freudian and Mowrerian hypotheses was inconclusive. Fair reading.

Gough, Harrison G., "Cross Cultural Validation of a Measure of Asocial Behavior," in Psychological Reports, Vol. 17, No. 5, issue of October 1965, p. 379-387.

For anyone using the Socialization scale of the California Psychological Inventory, this is necessary reading. Its validity would appear to transcend national boundaries.

-----, "Theory and Measurement of Socialization," in the Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 24, No. 1, issue of February 1960, p. 23-30.

Gough outlines his concepts underlying socialization. Necessary reading in the present context.

McCord, W. and Joan McCord, Psychopathology and Delinquency, New York, Grune and Stratton, 1956, x-230 p.

This book contains a large amount of research into the nature of sociopathy and its effects on social life. Fair reading.

Mowrer, O. Hobart, Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics, New York, Ronald Press, 1950, xviii-776 p.

This book is regarded by many as a classic in its field. The valid conclusions of learning theory are applied to the mechanisms of personality. Those parts of the book dealing with the moral and social implications of neurosis and psychosis are extremely relevant to the present study.

----- (ed), Morality and Mental Health, Chicago, Rand McNally, 1967, x-669 p.

The author has collected a number of writings from journals and other sources which treat of the importance of morality and values in psychotherapy. Some of these are of interest regarding the present thesis.

Mowrer, O. Robert, The Crises in Psychiatry and Religion, Princeton, New Jersey, Van Nostrand, 1961, vii-264 p.

Mowrer sets forth his ideas regarding Freudian psychoanalysis. Mowrer criticizes psychiatry and those religions that have adopted a Freudian approach. Necessary reading.

-----, The New Group Therapy, Princeton, New Jersey, Van Nostrand, 1964, ix-202 p.

Mowrer's brilliant mind has developed a new approach for the cure of those who are mentally sick. This book should be read by all.

O'Daniel, Regina G., The Disturbed Adolescent: Over-Socialized or Under-Socialized?, unpublished Master's thesis presented to the University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky, 1965, 25 p.

This socialization study was done with eighty-eight high school students to investigate the Freudian and Mowrerian theories. Due to the small number used, as well as the fact that thirty-eight students were omitted in the final analysis, this study may be considered poor and not worth reading.

Peterson, Donald R., "The Insecure Child, Over-Socialized or Under-Socialized?," University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1962, 27 p. (to be published)

Peterson administered the socialization scale of the California Psychological Inventory to 680 junior high school students. His results favored Mowrer. Peterson's study was one of those which laid the groundwork for the present study.

-----, "The Scope and Generality of Verbally Defined Personality Factors," in the Psychological Review, Vol. 72, No. 1, issue of January 1965, p. 48-59.

Peterson's excellent statistical genius has led to this interesting exploration into the two-factor versus the many-factor controversy. Peterson brilliantly defends the two-factor theory and concludes that these two factors are more general and continuous throughout life than formerly believed.

APPENDIX 1

PERSONALITY AND CHARACTER PROBLEM CHECKLIST

APPENDIX 1

PROBLEM CHECKLIST

For the purpose of securing information which will prove beneficial to both the teaching profession and psychological research in understanding the emotional problems of students, please check this student for the characteristics which you honestly believe apply to him or her. If an item does not constitute a problem, encircle zero; if an item constitutes a mild problem, encircle the one; if an item constitutes a severe problem, encircle the two. Please complete every item.

NAME OF STUDENT COLLEGE YEAR. . .
NAME OF PROFESSOR.
DATE

- C 1 2 1. Restlessness, inability to sit still.
- C 1 2 2. Attention-seeking, "show-off" behavior.
- C 1 2 3. Doesn't know how to have fun; behaves like a little adult.
- C 1 2 4. Self-consciousness; easily embarrassed.
- C 1 2 5. Disruptiveness; tendency to annoy and bother others.
- C 1 2 6. Feelings of inferiority.
- C 1 2 7. Boisterousness, rowdiness.
- C 1 2 8. Preoccupation; "in a world of his own".
- C 1 2 9 Shyness, bashfulness.
- C 1 2 10. Social withdrawal, preference for solitary activities.
- C 1 2 11. Jealousy over attention paid other students.
- C 1 2 12. Lack of self-confidence.
- C 1 2 13. Easily flustered and confused.

- O 1 2 14. Fighting.
- O 1 2 15. Yasper tantrums.
- O 1 2 16. Reticence, secretiveness.
- O 1 2 17. Hypersensitivity; feelings easily hurt.
- O 1 2 18. Anxiety, chronic general fearfulness.
- O 1 2 19. Disobedience, difficulty in disciplinary control.
- O 1 2 20. Depression, chronic sadness.
- O 1 2 21. Uncooperativeness in group situations.
- O 1 2 22. Aloofness, social reserve.
- O 1 2 23. Hyperactivity, "always on the go".
- O 1 2 24. Destructiveness in regard to his own and/or other's property.
- O 1 2 25. Negativism, tendency to do the opposite of what is requested.
- O 1 2 26. Impertinence, sauciness.
- O 1 2 27. Sluggishness, lethargy.
- O 1 2 28. Drowsiness.
- O 1 2 29. Profanity, swearing, cursing.
- O 1 2 30. Irritability, hot-tempered, easily aroused to anger.

APPENDIX 2

ABSTRACT OF

Socialization, and Personality Problems as Dimensional
Constructs in the Freudian and Mowrerian Hypotheses

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Socialization, and Personality Problems as Dimensional Constructs in the Freudian and Mowrerian Hypotheses¹

Freud has maintained in his theory of neurosis that the neurotic person is over-socialized. Threatening impulses are inhibited and repressed in a severe and excessive manner. Mowrer has advanced the proposition that neurotics are under-socialized. For the neurotic individual, there has been only a partial integration between his behavior and socialization. Mowrer has hypothesized that the emotional disturbances of the neurotic have their basis in a real guilt due to actual misbehavior.

The present study has investigated these antithetical viewpoints.

A measure of socialization was obtained for three large sample groups of female and male university students. One group was judged by the professors to be free of problems; another group was judged as having Personality Problems; and the third group was judged as having Conduct Problems. The dominant characteristics of those judged as having conduct problems were manifest disobedience,

¹ Joan Joseph O'Connor, doctoral thesis presented to the Faculty of Psychology of the University of Ottawa, Ontario, March 1968, viii-69 p.

defiance towards authority, and aggression. For those judged as having personality problems, the dominant characteristics were anxiety and insecurity.

Mowrer's hypothesis was supported by the results of this study. Those with personality problems would appear to have a tendency to be poorly socialized when compared with those who have no apparent problems. The socialization scores of those judged as having personality problems differed significantly from those judged as having conduct problems and those judged as having no problems.

If the results of this study are substantiated by further studies, then the implications for the treatment and prevention of mental illness may be considered of utmost importance.

