Changes in the relationship between a delinquent's self-concept and ideal self-concept produced by intensive counseling: a thesis...

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CHANGES IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A DELINQUENT'S
SELF-CONCEPT AND IDEAL SELF-CONCEPT
PRODUCED BY INTENSIVE COUNSELING

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE INVESTIGATION

Self-acceptance is shown by the degree of the relationship between a person's self-concept and his ideal self-concept. Increased self-acceptance is shown by an increase in the correlation between the two concepts. The Q-sort has been used as an instrument to measure the results of therapy. Therapy would be considered successful if the correlation of the self-concept and ideal self-concept following therapy was significantly greater than it was before therapy.

The Q-sort has been used primarily with persons who revealed a neurotic personality pattern. A noticeable difference exists between the acting out behavior of a delinquent and the inhibiting behavior of a neurotic. Many factors enter into the causation of both types of personality reactions. Because many factors in both types of personality etiologies are similar, it could be assumed that the pattern of low correlation between the self-concept and the ideal self-concept that is raised following therapy of a neurotic person, would be revealed in a delinquent personality.

This study is an attempt to determine whether or not the correlation between the delinquent's self-concept and his ideal self-concept is raised during a six months period of therapy.
I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. The problem under investigation was whether or not intensive counseling as defined by the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization at Deuel Vocational Institution would bring about a significant change in the relationship between a delinquent's self-concept and his ideal self-concept. The Q-sort was the instrument used to measure change as a result of therapy.

Importance of the study. Literature points to the necessity for more personality research in areas of delinquency and criminology. Much has been done in this area, but much more must be accomplished.

Although the ideal situation would be to provide a thorough program of prevention and to eliminate the causes of delinquency, this remains a utopia that does not seem possible for years to come. At present, methods must be found to rehabilitate delinquents. The Pilot Intensive Counseling Program is a research project which attempts to measure the effect of intensive counseling on young adults. Whether or not intensive counseling does aid in rehabilitating delinquents must be measured. The Q-sort gives a quantitative index of the improvement or change resulting from intensive counseling.

Also, since the Q-sort is a fairly new technique, a definite need exists to employ this method with other than
neurotic individuals. Up until the present time, this technique had not been used in an institution for delinquents. It is this investigator's opinion that this instrument should be applied in this type of institution to determine whether or not this instrument could be used efficiently and economically as a measure of the effectiveness of counseling with a delinquent population.

II. THE HYPOTHESES

One hypothesis of this experiment was that there would be no significant changes in the relationship between delinquents' self-concepts and their ideal self-concepts as a result of six months of intensive counseling in the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization.

A further hypothesis was that in a control group of delinquents of Deuel Vocational Institution who did not have intensive counseling, there would be no significant changes in the relationship between delinquents' self-concepts and their ideal self-concepts for this same six months period.

III. THE METHODOLOGY

Inmates at Deuel Vocational Institution were randomly divided into an experimental group and a control group. Both groups arranged a set of one hundred self-referent statements on a continuum from least descriptive to most descriptive
according to their self-concepts and ideal self-concepts. The sortings were made when the inmates first entered the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization and again six months later. These sortings were correlated which gave an index of self-esteem for both periods. The correlations were converted to z'scores. Means were obtained for four groups of correlations. The experimental group had a mean z'score obtained from correlations before therapy and another mean z'score obtained from correlations following therapy. The control group had two similar mean z'scores, one for the same time of the experimental group's entrance into the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization and another six months later. These four mean scores were treated statistically to determine if significant differences existed. Chi Square was used as the method of determining the significance of the differences between the groups.

IV. THE FINDINGS

The null hypotheses were proved in that there were no significant changes in the relationship between delinquents' self-concepts and their ideal self-concepts as a result of six months of counseling in the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization. Also, the control group showed no significant changes in the relationship between self-concepts and ideal self-concepts for the two periods. The mean of the correlations between the delinquents' self-concepts and ideal
self-concepts for both groups was low shortly after entering the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization and continued to be low after a six months period.

V. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

**Self-concept.** The self-concept or self-structure as defined by Carl Rogers is "... an organized, fluid but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the 'I' or the 'Me', together with values attached to these concepts."\(^1\)

**Ideal self-concept.** The ideal self-concept as defined by John Butler and Gerald V. Haigh, is "the organized conceptual pattern of characteristics and emotional states which the individual consciously holds as desirable (and undesirable) for himself."\(^2\)

**Delinquency.** James M. Reinhardt defines delinquency as:


1. Failure of an individual to perform a socially designated task; violation of a social obligation.

2. Used in juvenile court law to define juvenile offenses which come under the jurisdiction of the court. The juridically accepted distinction between a "criminal" act and a "delinquent" act is inherent in the theory that juveniles are not motivated by the same responsible considerations as are assumed to actuate adults. Legally and socially the distinction is justified by a recognition of the need for differential treatment of juvenile offenders.

**Delinquent.** Mabel A. Elliott defines a delinquent as:

1. A person guilty of antisocial conduct which, generally speaking, is considered less serious than the type of misconduct designated as "criminal."

2. In American penology the term "delinquent" usually refers to the juvenile offender whose misconduct is an infraction of the law. Such conduct is generally considered less offensive than an adult's misconduct because of the child's immaturity and unfortunate environmental circumstances which so frequently occasion his behavior.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Research with the Q-sort as applied to the self-concept theory of Carl Rogers has greatly increased during the past few years. Relatively significant findings of this research will be discussed in this chapter. Also, the principles of delinquency as they are related to the self-concept and its formation will be discussed in this chapter.

I. LITERATURE ON SELF-CONCEPTS AND IDEAL SELF-CONCEPTS

Self-concept theory. The following paragraphs will discuss the self-concept theory of Carl Rogers as it applies to this present investigation.

The self-concept is built up from infancy. During this time, the child begins to differentiate between those experiences which he likes and those which he does not like.

He appears to value those experiences which he perceives as enhancing himself, and to place a negative value on those experiences which seem to threaten himself or which do not maintain or enhance himself. Thus the child's own experiences create his beginning phenomenal field or perception of reality, but it is not

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2 Ibid., p. 499.
long before the evaluations by others and other social experiences add to his phenomenal field or perception of reality. Certain experiences which the child enjoys are disapproved by others. The disapproval of others produces a threat as it does not enhance, is not consistent with the self-concept. When an inconsistency arises between what is perceived and the perception of the self-concept, a person can either admit that he enjoys an experience but that others do not approve of it, or he can distort the experience so that he perceives the experience as unsatisfactory to his own sensory and visceral equipment. The former solution leads to better mental health as control becomes easier. Carl Rogers says in part that this is true because:

All the sensory and visceral experiences are admissible to awareness through accurate symbolization, and are organizable into one system which is internally consistent and which is or is not related to the structure of the self.

In the latter case above, attitudes of others rather than positive or negative sensory or visceral reactions form the bases of what is to be regarded as enhancing the self or opposing the self. Thus, the child learns to deny the admittance to consciousness of certain of his needs which are not approved by others. Discrepancy is found between the experiencing organism as it exists and "the concept of self

3Ibid., p. 513.
which exerts such a governing influence upon behavior." In this case, in part:

Conscious control becomes more difficult as the organism strives to satisfy needs which are not consciously admitted, and to react to experiences which are denied by the conscious self. Tension arises in the individual, and he begins to feel anxious. He feels threatened. This leads to defensive behavior aimed at lessening the discrepancy between the experience and the structure of the self. A vicious circle develops due to the fact that the defensive behavior cannot eliminate the threat but only can reduce the awareness of it. This results in more material that is not admitted into consciousness. This increases the susceptibility to threat which in turn increases the amount of defensive behavior needed to ward off the threat.

The above paragraphs explain the manner in which the self-concept is formed and the manner in which personality difficulties arise when the self-concept is not based upon reality.

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4 Ibid., p. 510.
5 Ibid., p. 512.
6 Ibid., pp. 510-12.
Ideal self-concept and development of a measuring instrument. Butler and Haigh devised an instrument for measuring the change in the relationship between one's self-concept and ideal self-concept resulting from psychotherapy.

These authors assumed that the definition of self-concept by Carl Rogers implied that it is possible for an individual to judge and to order his own self-perceptions, which stand in relation to each other, along a psychophysical continuum from "unlike me" to "like me." This subjective arrangement did not indicate the value attached to the person's self-percepts. To give a quantitative descriptive value, the ideal self-concept was formed. Therefore, in addition to making judgments about one's self-concepts and ordering them along a continuum of value from "unlike me" to "like me," a person is assumed to be able to do the same with his ideal self-concepts. The arranging of these two continuums by a person would give a discrepancy. The discrepancy is the index of self-value or self-esteem.

Butler and Haigh tested these assumptions by having three groups of subjects sort one hundred self-referent statements into a forced normal distribution consisting of

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nine piles or columns along the above continuum for both the self-concept and ideal self-concept. The statements were taken from the therapeutic protocols at the University of Chicago Counseling Center and reworded for clarity. As each of the nine columns had an assigned value, it was possible to analyze the data by means of correlation. These authors felt that by introducing a set number of ties, the nine piles, into the ranking of these statements, fatigue and carelessness that might otherwise occur, would be prevented.  

The results of this study by Butler and Haigh were based upon a statistical comparison of the three groups, which were a client group, an equivalent-control group, and an own-control group, for pre-counseling tests, post-counseling tests, and follow-up tests. The one group which had psychotherapy, the client group, was the only one that revealed a significant change. Thus, the authors concluded that the Q-sort does measure the discrepancy between the self-concept and the ideal self-concept. The degree of discrepancy is the measure of a person's self-esteem. Also, these authors concluded that the discrepancy between self-concept and ideal self-concept does decrease as a result of psychotherapy.  

10 Ibid., p. 57.  
11 Ibid., pp. 74-75.
Adjustment levels. Nahinsky used the ideas of Butler and Haigh to measure a person's adjustment or "acceptance or rejection of certain roles in the external world." One group of thirty-five junior Navy officers who chose to remain in the Navy and have a Navy career and another group of seventy-four junior Navy officers who chose to leave the Navy and not have a Navy career, made three forced sortings of one hundred self-referent statements based upon the self-concept theory. The sortings were: (1) to describe himself, (2) to describe a typical career Navy officer, and (3) to describe an ideal career Navy officer.

A statistical comparison revealed that although the differences between (2) and (3) above were strong, they were not significant. When (1) above was compared with (2) and with (3) above, significant differences were found. The largest discrepancy was between (1) and (3) which seems to indicate, according to Nahinsky, that "the feeling of inadequacy or not measuring up, may be the most important correlate of adjustment." Also, Nahinsky felt that the significant difference between (1) and (2) indicated "that a

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13 Ibid., pp. 360-61.
14 Ibid., p. 361.
feeling of 'fitting in' is an important correlate of situational adjustment."  

The author concludes that the Q-technique was useful in measuring levels of adjustment between the two groups of junior Navy officers.  

An adequate personality. Arthur Combs used the self-concept and ideal self-concept to contrast an adequate personality with an inadequate personality. He says that a person's feeling of adequacy based upon one's self-concept determines one's degree of adjustment. A person who sees himself as adequate will behave adequately. But, a person who does not see himself as adequate, will do the opposite.  

Combs says in part that:  

It is the people who see themselves as unliked, unwanted, unacceptable, unable, who fill our jails, our institutions and our mental hospitals. . . . People who see themselves in negative ways are the frightened, easily influenced, potentially dangerous people of the world.  

On the other hand, an adequate personality "suffers no delusions of grandeur or undue humility, nor does he "battle ghosts or goblins." He feels a oneness with other people  

15 Ibid.,  
16 Ibid., p. 364.  
18 Ibid., p. 316.  
19 Ibid.
and feels responsible for them. Therefore, he will act in ways that are good for other people as well as for himself.

Maladjustment types. Philip Chase made a study comparing two groups of male hospital patients using the Q-technique to measure adjustment. All the men had at least an eighth grade education. The men were divided into two main groups. One group, the maladjusted group, was further divided into three groups according to the type of maladjustment. This group consisted of nineteen classified as psychotic, twenty classified as neurotic, and seventeen classified as having character disorders. The other group, the adjusted group, consisted of fifty men who were hospitalized for medical or surgical reasons without evidence of personality disorders. All subjects sorted fifty self-referent statements according to self-concept, ideal self-concept, and average other person.

Significant differences were found in the relationship of self-concept and ideal self-concept for the maladjusted group. Also, this group had significant differences in the

20Ibid., p. 317.
21Ibid., p. 319.
relationship between the self-concept and the average other person. No significant differences were found for the so-called adjusted group. The author felt that the maladjusted group saw themselves as different from their ideals and from the average other person. This appears to be a further indication that the Q-sort does distinguish between adjusted and maladjusted groups.23

An attempt was made to distinguish between types of maladjustments by degree of correlation between self-concept and ideal self-concept and between self-concept and average other person. No significant differences between correlations were found indicating degree of correlation could not be used as a means of distinguishing maladjustment types.

Self-satisfaction related to ego-control. Block and Thomas used ego-control as a basis for comparing three groups of individuals who were called: (1) the undercontrollers, (2) the overcontrollers, and (3) the appropriate-controllers. According to these authors, ego-control is "the individual's characteristic mode of dealing with his needs and impulses in the face of the social reality."24 The overcontroller is a person who does not admit his feelings of tensions to

23 Ibid., p. 496.

consciousness and uses indirect means and repression to ward them off. He is overly cautious and overconforming.\textsuperscript{25}

The undercontroller is a person who does not control or hold in his tensions sufficiently. According to these authors:

The undercontroller manifests a large degree of emotional fluctuation. In a new situation, he shows variable and transient attempts to structure. He is relatively nonconforming and tends toward immediate gratification of his own needs when such gratification is inconsistent with the total situation or his ultimate goals. He underestimates actual probabilities in planning for the future. In situations of motivational importance, instead of manifesting the immobility of conflict, the uncontroller evidences an oscillation in his behavior. The problems of the undercontroller tend to be visible, since, by definition, he does not have the capacities to keep them hidden or displaced.\textsuperscript{26}

A total of fifty-six students from San Francisco State College sorted eighty adjectives with a self-administering Q-sort according to their own description and their ideal description. The evidence of the experiment supported the two hypotheses of the study in that:

\begin{itemize}
  \item[a.] The degree of self-satisfaction is curvilinearly related to the social dimension of adjustment.
  \item[b.] The degree of self-satisfaction is ordinally related to the conceptual dimension of ego-control.\textsuperscript{27}
\end{itemize}

\textsuperscript{25}Ibid.
\textsuperscript{26}Ibid., p. 255.
\textsuperscript{27}Ibid., pp. 258-59.
II. LITERATURE ON DELINQUENCY

Causes of delinquency. Abrahamsen says that motives of the criminal when he performs some antisocial act are usually linked to past experiences. Most of the time, only a few of the criminal's real motives are conscious. Criminals are "individuals who are unable to adjust emotionally and whose conduct is determined by their inner conflict rather than by social circumstances." 28 It is not the situation that causes the antisocial behavior, but it is the individual himself. Abrahamsen says in part that:

If we were to delve into the personality of these individuals, who by mere apparent external circumstances were forced into crime, we would in an overwhelming number of cases, find some inadequacy in the mental make up. 29

"Crime, like mental disease, is a result of a failure to adjust to life or a compromise to it." 30 Many factors interplay to determine the type of personality that will be able to adjust to the demands of society or to life. Conflicts in the early home of the child, diseased body, environment consisting of antisocial individuals, 31 early unsuitable

29 Ibid., p. 29.
30 Ibid., p. 51.
31 Ibid., pp. 44-49.
impressions of social conduct created by the home of the child, deprivations, and lack of love are some of the things that lead to inner conflicts and frustration.

Criminal acts are symptoms of inner conflicts. Psychotherapy should be able to reduce antisocial acts by reducing these inner conflicts.33

Additional causes of delinquency. In spite of the fact that the McCords, in their study, found that their treatment which included a type of individual counseling and individual attention did not prevent crime or reduce the number of crimes, they did discover facts that seem relevant to the field of delinquency.34

These authors found that 75 per cent of the boys who had severe cases of acne, later committed a crime. The authors felt that this might be an indication that the acne was symptomatic of the actual emotional stress underlying the boy's personality that could lead to antisocial acts.35

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32 Ibid., pp. 138-39.
33 Ibid., p. 197.
35 Ibid., p. 66.
Also, these authors found that the atmosphere of the home was significantly related to crime. The mother's love for the child was the most important indicator. The manner in which the mother showed her love, through over-protectiveness, or through moderate or over-strict discipline was not as important as the fact that she did love the child. If the mother loved the child, the child was not likely to become delinquent. Also, the father's personality proved important in preventing delinquency. The warm and passive father produced less delinquents than any other type of father.\textsuperscript{36}

**Comparison of delinquents and non-delinquents in the same neighborhood.** The Gluecks found that the few differences that appeared on the surface between the delinquent boys and their families, and the non-delinquent boys and their families, increased to important significant differences when the two groups were closely studied.\textsuperscript{37}

The two groups were matched according to age, general intelligence, ethnic or racial factors, and place of residence. This latter was the underprivileged neighborhood.\textsuperscript{38}


Differences between the two groups pointed to the internal conflict in the parents of the delinquents. The homes of the delinquents had a less favorable physical condition with less sanitary provision and less internal cleanliness. More families of the delinquents needed financial assistance as more were on relief; more families of the delinquents had fewer bread winners; more families had unskilled workers; and more families had lower per capita income. The parents, grandparents, and siblings of the delinquents exceeded the families of the non-delinquents in the amount of "serious physical ailments, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, drunkenness, and criminalism." The delinquent had more often come from broken homes, been raised by substitute parents, foster or step-parents, or had lived with relatives. In the delinquent group, the relationship with the parents and siblings had more emotional deprivation caused by indifference or actual hostility towards and by the members of the families. The delinquents felt that their parents cared little for their welfare. The father's discipline of the delinquents was more erratic and administered more by the use of physical punishment. The delinquent

39 Ibid., pp. 82-83.
40 Ibid., p. 88.
41 Ibid., p. 107.
42 Ibid., p. 133.
disliked school more than the non-delinquent. This was reflected in the conduct of the delinquent at school. Contrasted with the non-delinquent, the delinquent spent most of his recreation time away from his home, hanging around street corners, pool halls, etc., and mostly in gangs. Environmental stresses caused much more mental conflict for the delinquent, and he reacted to emotional tension, conflicts, and stress situations by extroversion. The non-delinquent usually reacted by introversion.44

The Gluecks say in part:

In the exciting, stimulating, but little-controlled and culturally inconsistent environment of the underprivileged area, such boys readily give expression to their untamed impulses and their self-centered desires by means of various forms of delinquent behavior. Their tendencies toward uninhibited energy-expression are deeply anchored in soma and psyche and in the malformation of character during the first few years of life.45

It is clear from the evidence that in the home and in the parent-child relations are to be found the crucial roots of character which make for acceptable or unacceptable adjustment to the realities of life in society. . . . We must break the vicious circle of character-damaging influence on children exerted by parents who are themselves the distorted personality products of adverse parental influence.

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43 Ibid., p. 153.
44 Ibid., p. 275.
The answer is that deeply-anchored, subsurface, and frequently unconscious forces are too powerful to be modified by a kindly talk with a judge or probation officer, or by the threat of punishment.46

Treatment of delinquency. Eissler explains that the difference between a delinquent and a neurotic is basically the manner in which aggression is expressed. The delinquent turns his aggression outside of himself and onto reality; whereas the neurotic turns his aggression inward upon himself. Because of his personality make up, the delinquent does not suffer consciously. He feels that there is nothing wrong with him. He feels that he does not need psychiatric help. This makes psychotherapy with the delinquent very difficult. Therefore, the first step in psychotherapy with the delinquent would be to treat him so that he would turn more of his feelings of aggression inward upon himself. This should produce enough tension within himself that he would want to change his personality structure.47

Greenacre says that the long range goal of therapy should be to help the delinquent develop a better concept of reality and a more beneficial conscience which would include a "realistic self-critique" and a realistic set of ideals.

46Ibid., pp. 287-88.
This will take a long time which would probably be from many months to years.

**Summary.** A review of the literature pertaining to the self-concept and ideal self-concept has shown that the correlation between these two concepts can point to a person's adjustment or maladjustment. A low correlation, indicating maladjustment will increase if psychotherapy is successful.

A review of the literature pertaining to delinquency has shown that the delinquent is a maladjusted person with inner conflicts causing antisocial behavior. Psychotherapy, although difficult with a delinquent, is recommended.

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CHAPTER III

SELECTION OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

I. SETTING OF TESTING

A knowledge of the setting of the testing and the type of population being tested is necessary to understand this experimental study. Therefore, this chapter will describe Deuel Vocational Institution, The Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization, the specific population used in this experiment, and the method of random selection of the population.

Deuel Vocational Institution. The Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization is located at Deuel Vocational Institution. Deuel, a California correctional facility, is an intermediate security-type correctional institution. At the time of this experiment the population usually approximated 1,200 inmates with about two-thirds of the population being wards of the Youth Authority and one-third being wards of the Director of Corrections. This is one of California's newer institutions, having been moved to the present location in Tracy, California, as a permanent installation in 1953. 1 The primary purpose of Deuel is "to provide custody, care,

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1 Allen Cook, "Deuel Vocational Institution" (Deuel Vocational Institution: California Department of Corrections, 1959), p. 1. (Mimeoographed.)
industrial, vocational and other training, guidance, and reformatory help for young men too mature to be benefited by the programs of correctional schools for juveniles and too immature in crime for confinement in prisons. When a youth is placed at Deuel, he is considered to be placed in a training institution, not a prison. Therefore, this placement does not constitute punishment of a crime.2

Part of the philosophy of Deuel is to develop in the inmate a new attitude toward society. Vocational training, academic education, recreation, appropriate discipline, religion, and counseling are used as a means of developing this attitude.

Deuel has always had counseling as a fundamental part of its program. Approximately eight hundred inmates participate in group counseling on a volunteer basis. Ten to fifteen men comprise a group. The group leader is an employee who follows an indirect pattern of leadership. Inmates are allowed to express feelings and hostility. An attempt is made to help the inmate to see himself as he really is and to help him find a way of self-improvement. The most maladjusted inmates are segregated and given both individual and group psychotherapy.3

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2 Ibid., pp. 1-2.
3 Ibid., pp. 8-9.
The Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization. The Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization is located within the larger framework of Deuel. The California State Department of Corrections established early in 1955, the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization Project to "demonstrate and evaluate the effects of an intensive utilization of counseling as a rehabilitative device." This was a pioneer research effort along these lines, but since that time, other similar programs have been developed.

The experimental-control group research design was specified, and the purposes of the project were stated in a report by the Legislative Auditor to the Joint Legislative Budget Committee which states as follows:

These positions are posed for the purpose of establishing an experimental pilot program of inmate counseling to determine whether specific personal attention to the causes of inmate anti-social behavior can reduce the incidence of such behavior and contribute to the earlier and more stable rehabilitation of inmates. The Project is intended to be controlled by specific measurements of performance by both counseled and non-counseled groups.

A Planning Committee, chaired by Director of Corrections, Richard McGee, determined the structure of the Project operations to be as follows:

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5 Ibid.
1. The study would be limited to Youth Authority wards placed at Deuel Vocational Institution;
2. inmates would be selected for the experimental (counseled) and control (non-counseled) groups by a random method;
3. emphasis would be placed upon quality, rather than quantity, of counseling, and staff would determine caseload size;
4. and, the Project would be expected to yield such measurements of institutional experience as could be obtained, in addition to an evaluation of parole performance and recidivism statistics.  

Intensive counseling at the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization consisted of individual and group counseling. Individual counseling was conducted by professionally trained men. All men had a minimum of two years of graduate work in the area of interpersonal relations. All had a Master's degree in Sociology except one who had a Master's degree in Psychology. Each counselor had a caseload of approximately twenty-five inmates which permitted a minimum of one interview hour per week for each inmate and allowed more time if an inmate needed it. Therapy was provided to meet the specific needs of the inmates. Treatment was Neo-Freudian and oriented toward Sullivan's theory of Psychology. The individual therapy was dynamically oriented and the group therapy was based on client-centered therapy. Attention was given to the developmental history of the individual. The therapy could involve dealing with problems that were easily solvable to those that were more serious in nature. One of

Ibid.
the aims in the therapy program was, when necessary, to develop attitudinal changes so that the inmate altered his concept of himself and others.

Also, trained supervision and psychiatric consultation are available for the counselors.7

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF POPULATION

In this part of the chapter, a description of the population is given. Certain items are shown that include only one figure or classification. This figure represents the entire population at Deuel Vocational Institution and was included to give a background for understanding the delinquent population included in this study. When only one figure is shown, the details for the experimental and control groups are not shown as no differences pertinent to the study would be revealed by indicating these details.

When details are given for the experimental and control groups, they are included to show differences that might be significant to this study.

Sex. The sex for both groups was male.

Age. The median age was 19.5. The age range was from seventeen to twenty-four.

7Ibid., pp. v-vi.
Crimes committed. The inmates committed, as a group, all of the types of crime included in the Penal Code.

Confinement duration. The average length of confinement at Deuel Vocational Institution was ten months.

Original residence. Of the entire population at the institution, 65 per cent originally resided in southern California. This was in accord with the distribution of the population of California as a whole.

Commitment sources. About two-thirds of the inmates in the institution were Youth Authority wards committed from either Superior or Juvenile Court. The majority were committed from the Superior Court.

Vocational training. Most of the inmates were untrained and had worked at unskilled vocations. The least common type of unskilled work was agriculture.

Race. There were only minor differences between the entire population at the institution, the experimental group, and the control group, as to the various races represented.

At the time of the experiment the entire population was 69 per cent Anglo-American, 16½ per cent Mexican-American, 14 per cent Negro, and 2½ per cent other cultures. The experimental group was 78 per cent Anglo-American, 17 per cent Mexican-American, 5 per cent Negro, and no other
cultures. The control group was 76 per cent Anglo-American, 8 per cent Mexican-American, 4 per cent Negro, and 12 per cent other cultures.

**Intelligence.** The breakdown for intelligence is given for the experimental and control groups only. The experimental group had 4 per cent superior, 9 per cent bright average, 48 per cent average, 39 per cent dull normal, and no mentally deficient. The experimental group had 15 per cent more below average than did the control group. The control group had no superior, 4 per cent bright average, 72 per cent average, 20 per cent dull normal, and 4 per cent mentally deficient. This would mean that nine inmates in the experimental group and six inmates in the control group were below average in intelligence. This could have a slight effect upon the results of the experiment.

**Education.** Of the inmates in the institution, 35 per cent claimed to have an eighth grade education or more; whereas achievement test results showed that only 20 per cent had eighth grade or above ability. This same wide discrepancy was true for both the experimental and the control groups. In the experimental group, 91 per cent claimed to have an eighth grade education or better, but only 43½ per cent measured up to or above an eighth grade education on achievement tests. In the control group, 100 per cent claimed to
have an eighth grade education or better, but only 60 per cent measured this high on an achievement test. As one can see from these figures, the control group did have slightly better achievement scores than did the experimental group.

**Prior crimes.** Of the entire population in the institution, 94.5 per cent had prior records of crimes. This represented 31.5 per cent with records of arrests but no commitments and 63 per cent with prior commitment to some institution. Of the experimental group, 91 per cent had prior records of crimes, and of the control group, 92 per cent had prior records of crime.

**Family unit.** Of the population at the institution, 30 per cent of the inmates had families that were still intact. Of the experimental group, 48 per cent of the inmates had families that were intact. Of those who had families that were not intact, 9 per cent were disrupted, and 43 per cent had an artificial family. In the control group, only 36 per cent had families who were intact. The 64 per cent who did not have families who were intact, had an artificial family.

**Personality factors.** Personality patterns of the inmates at Deuel Vocational Institution had been investigated and results showed that on the California Psychological Inventory given to 502 inmates, during a previous research
project, these inmates had a high De (delinquency) Scale with a mean T score of 64.42 and low Re (responsibility) and Do (dominance) scales. The mean T score for the responsibility score was 40.52 and for the dominance score was 45.56. The Im (impulsivity) scale with a mean T of 47.19 was low.³

Results from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, given to 491 inmates revealed a very high Pi (psychopathic deviant) score with a mean T score of 71.73. This score reflected anti-social responses. High mean T scores were found in the F (validity) scale with a mean T score of 60.71, the Sc (schizophrenic) scale with a mean T score of 61.53, and the Ma (manic) scale with a mean T of 62.25. These latter scores pointed to a preponderance of schizoid thinking.⁹

Results from The Opinion and Attitude Survey, developed by a research team headed by Dr. Douglas Grant,¹⁰ indicated in part, that the average inmate was predominantly,

³ These quoted T scores for the CPI are related to the pre-publication scoring procedures which have since been revised.


¹⁰ Ibid., p. 62.
Con-man or conformist type individual whose personality development seems to have stopped just prior to the period of identification with important others. Additionally, along with other personality characteristics, he denies feelings both in regard to himself and others.\textsuperscript{11}

III. SELECTION OF POPULATION

The designation of an inmate to either the experimental or control group was on the basis of random selection. The subjects for this study were taken as soon as they were assigned to the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization and put into the experimental or control group as had previously been designated by the people making the random selection for PICO.

Before the random selection was made for PICO some inmates were eliminated. If an inmate received a psychotic label by the Reception Center Psychiatrist, he was not selected for that Project.

Intensive counseling was the independent variable used to produce the measured change for both PICO and this experiment.

The PICO research staff had made an earlier study which supported the assumption that randomness of their selection procedure had been achieved.\textsuperscript{12}

\textsuperscript{11}Ibid., p. 70.
\textsuperscript{12}Ibid., pp. 25-28.
Summary. A background of the setting for the testing was given in this chapter. Important features of Deuel Vocational Institution as a treatment-centered institution, were mentioned. An explanation of the formation and structure of PICO were given. Objective and subjective characteristics of the inmates were given, followed by the method of selecting the population for this experiment.
CHAPTER IV

APPLICATION OF THE Q-SORT

In this chapter the preparation of the testing instrument is discussed. Also, the method of testing and retesting the population is described.

I. THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The set of one hundred self-referent statements used in this study was devised by Butler and Haigh and listed in a study by Julius Segal. These statements are reproduced in the Appendix.

Due to the fact that the set used by Butler and Haigh appeared to be based upon a middle class cultural standard and upon a higher educational level than that possessed by most of the inmates, the statements were reworded so that they could better be understood by this population. The reworded set is shown in the Appendix. Members of the research team of the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization

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assisted with the rewording and used terminology that had been taken from counseling sessions with the inmates.

One of the inmates was given the set of one hundred self-referent statements and was asked for suggestions for improvement. Several of his suggestions were incorporated into the rewording of the statements.

II. METHODS OF PROCEDURE

The testing for the two groups was as nearly alike as possible. In fact, some tests were given to groups consisting of both experimental and control subjects.

During the first part of the testing, the group size for testing depended largely upon the number of inmates that were assigned to PICO at one time. An attempt was made to test the inmates soon after they came from the Reception Center. It was soon realized that five boys made up a good group size. Close supervision seemed necessary during the first part of the test. Also, since the boys needed quite a bit of room for the card sorting, an attempt was made to keep the number of boys in the testing room small enough so that the cards would not get mixed up. After one group of five boys had finished the first sorting, another group of boys was brought in for testing. The first group by this time understood the directions and did not need as much close supervision. This method proved to be very valuable for saving time in test administration.
An attempt was made to follow the suggestions of investigators who had previously given the Q-sort as to the wording of the instructions and the method of giving the tests. This was not possible. Therefore, the instructions and method of administration were altered to meet the needs of this population. Giving all of the instructions at one time appeared to be too confusing to this population. In fact this bothered several inmates to the extent that they asked to be excused from taking the test. From this point, instructions were given for only one step, and before continuing, time was allowed for the completion of this step by all of the boys.

Each subject was given the set of one hundred self-referent statements and a sorting chart for recording the results of the testing. The sorting chart is shown in Figure 1. The group was told to fill in the information at the top of the page, to fill in Youth Authority number for identification, and to omit job information.

The group was told to shuffle the cards and to read the statements after shuffling. As each inmate read, he was asked to think whether each statement was or was not like him. The cards next were divided into two piles, one being the cards that were judged like the inmate making the judgments and the other pile the ones that were not like him. The wording "most descriptive" and "least descriptive" was
Identification: __________
Date: __________
Sex: __________
Job: __________

FIGURE 1
QUASI-NORMAL CURVE FOR RECORDING SELF-IDEAL SORTS
changed as this wording was not meaningful for most of this population. The pile of cards that was not like each inmate was put aside for later use. Next, the one card that was most like each inmate was found. After each boy had found the card, the number was put in column eleven. It was emphasized that the statements should represent how the individual actually felt that he was, rather than how someone else said or felt that he was. The inmates in this group were told to put the card most like themselves into a discard pile as it would not be used again on this chart. Next, the two cards from the remaining pile most like the inmate, were found and instructions were given to insert the numbers from these cards into column ten.

Due to the varied abilities of this population, different rates of speed developed among the group for doing each test and for recognizing the pattern of the graph. Many needed instruction for almost every step of the first graph. Instructions for each column continued until the majority of the inmates saw the pattern of the graph.

After columns eleven through seven were filled, the inmates were instructed to put the remaining cards from the first pile used, into column six. When an inmate did not have enough cards to fill columns eleven through seven, he was told to go through the cards that he felt were not like him and to select from that pile enough of the cards that were most like him to fill columns eleven through seven.
With the exception of the substitution of the words "less like" and "not like" for the words "most like", the subjects were given the same instructions for columns one through six on the other side of the chart.

When the subjects tried to think in terms of "less like" or "not like", a double negative was produced by the statements having "not" or "no" in them. This confused many of the subjects.

Some of the group asked for the meanings of words. When the statements were reworded, an attempt was made to eliminate words that the group might not know; but due to the wide range of ability of the subjects, this was impossible. When interpretations were requested, and the investigator felt that the subject did not know the meaning of the word or when the word produced a double negative, the meaning was given. When the investigator felt that the subject knew the meaning, he was told that the manner in which he interpreted the question was important to the test results.

Due to the different rates of speed that the subjects worked the first Q-sort, instructions were given on almost an individual basis for the method of doing the second Q-sort. The group was told to reshuffle the cards and proceed as for the first Q-sort except to substitute the phrase "would most like to be" for "most like" and "would not like to be" or "would less like to be" for "less like" or "not like". Individual help was given where needed.
Although it was realized the value derived from giving sort number two the day following the first sort, practical limitations prevented this; therefore, both sorts were given during the one testing session.

The third and fourth sorts were given six months after the first two sorts. Some instruction was needed for sort three, but not as much as was necessary for sort one. Much less instruction was needed for sort four. The instructions for these last sorts were the same as for sorts one and two.

III. THE POPULATION TESTED

Sorts one and two. The group tested for sorts one and two consisted of seventy-two subjects. The experimental group consisted of thirty-four subjects and the control group thirty-eight subjects.

Sorts three and four. The group tested for sorts three and four and included in the final results, consisted of forty-nine subjects. The experimental group consisted of twenty-four and the control group of twenty-five.

Discrepancy between numbers tested. Several reasons existed for the difference between the number of subjects tested for sorts one and two and for sorts three and four.

The reason for most of this discrepancy was that the subjects were not available for retesting. Nine subjects,
four from the experimental group, were released on parole. Three boys, two experimentals, were transferred elsewhere. Since taking the test was voluntary, six boys, three from each group, were excused from taking the retest upon their request.

Due to the close supervision possible in the small groups, errors that the boys made while taking the test were noted. Four tests, one was experimental, were considered invalid due to the gross mistakes that the subjects made while doing the first two sorts. These four subjects were not retested. The last test for one experimental subject was considered invalid due to the omission of too many statement numbers and was not included in the results.

When the reduction of time was weighed against having a smaller sample, the investigator felt that more accurate results would be produced by having the larger sample; therefore, an attempt was made to test some of the subjects before the six months period was completed at the time they were scheduled to leave the institution. Eighteen subjects, seven of these experimentals, were tested from two to nine days short of the six months period. This resulted in an average loss of one or two hours of counseling time for each inmate.

Two experimentals were tested after only four months of counseling as they had to leave the institution at this time. This resulted in a loss of about eight to ten hours
of counseling time for each inmate. The short period between testings and loss of counseling time could have an effect upon the test results. One of the subjects had an r of .327 for the first testing and an r of .530 for the second testing. The other subject had an r of .599 for the first testing and an r of .607 for sorts three and four.

Summary. Differences in the preparation and application of the Q sorts when applied to this population as compared to other types of populations were discussed in this chapter.
CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter, the method of the statistical analysis and the results from the data are given.

I. STATISTICAL PROCEDURE

The Pearson r correlation method described by Lacey\(^1\) was used as the first step in the statistical analysis of the null hypotheses. Correlations for each person were made between self-concept I and ideal self-concept I at the beginning of the six months period and between self-concept II and ideal self-concept II following this period for both groups.

Next, the correlation coefficients were converted to z' scores by the use of Edwards' table of r values and the corresponding values of z'.\(^2\) Four z' arrays were produced from these: (1) pre-counseling experimental group, (2) post-counseling experimental group, (3) pre-six months period control group, and (4) post six months period control group. Mean z' scores were found for each z' array.

The standard error of difference between means was computed for three sets according to the method suggested by

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The level of confidence was determined by entering the table of \( t \).

Also, the Chi Square method was used to determine whether deviations of individual scores from the average could inversely affect the results. To determine the significance of the probability, the Chi-square table was entered.

II. THE RESULTS

Randomness of sample. To determine whether both the control group and the experimental group were drawn from the same population, a \( t \) test was made between the mean \( z' \) scores from \( z' \) arrays from self-ideal relationship I for the experimental and the control groups. This revealed a \( t \) value of .0251 which was not significant for twenty-one degrees of freedom at the 5 per cent level of confidence; therefore, it was assumed that a valid randomness of the sample existed.

Experimental group results. The distributions of the two self-ideal relationships and the \( z' \) arrays for the experimental group are shown on Table I. The self-ideal relationship I, sorts one and two, shows a range of correlations from -.040 to .689. The mean \( z' \) of this distribution was .468 with a corresponding \( r \) of .435.

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\(^4\)Lacey, op. cit., pp. 137-140.
The range of the self-ideal relationship II, sorts three and four, shown on Table I, shows correlations from -.122 to .847. This was a wider range than the self-ideal relationship I for this group. The mean z' score was .464 with a corresponding r of .435.

To test the effect of the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization's program of intensive counseling, a t test was made between the mean z' scores for the correlations for self-ideal relationship I and for self-ideal relationship II. A t value of 1.054 was obtained which was not significant for twenty-one degrees of freedom at the 5 per cent level of confidence.

Control group results. The distribution for the self-ideal relationships I and II for the control group are shown on Table II, page 48. The range of correlations for self-ideal relationship I, sorts one and two, is from -.234 to .763. This is a wider range than the self-ideal relationship I of the experimental group. The mean z' score for the control group self-ideal relationship I is .451 with a corresponding r of .423.

Table II shows the self-ideal relationship II, sorts three and four, to have a correlation range of .020 to .884. This is a smaller range than the self-ideal relationship II of the experimental group. The mean z' score for the control group's self-ideal relationship II is .681 with a corresponding r of .593.
### TABLE I

CORRELATIONS AND CORRESPONDING z' SCORES FOR SELF-CONCEPTS AND IDEAL SELF-CONCEPTS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

<table>
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<th>Self II and Ideal Self II</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>z'</td>
<td>r</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
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<td>B</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>0.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>0.655</td>
<td>0.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>0.345</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td>-0.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td>0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.725</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>-0.040</td>
<td>-0.040</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>0.449</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>0.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>0.678</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td>0.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.548</td>
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<td>U</td>
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<td>V</td>
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<td>0.297</td>
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<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>0.565</td>
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<td>0.602</td>
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<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>0.689</td>
<td>0.848</td>
<td>0.565</td>
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</table>

\[ z' = 11.230 \]
\[ z' = 11.144 \]
TABLE II
CORRELATIONS AND CORRESPONDING z' SCORES FOR
SELF-CONCEPTS AND IDEAL SELF-CONCEPTS
FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Self II and</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Ideal Self I</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ideal Self II</td>
</tr>
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<td>r</td>
<td>z'</td>
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<td>z'</td>
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<td>.274</td>
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<td>.729</td>
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<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.261</td>
<td>.757</td>
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<td>s</td>
<td>.582</td>
<td>.662</td>
<td>.749</td>
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<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>-.234</td>
<td>-.239</td>
<td>.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>.469</td>
<td>.510</td>
<td>.638</td>
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<td>v</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>.373</td>
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<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>.277</td>
<td>.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>1.008</td>
<td>.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y</td>
<td>.503</td>
<td>.701</td>
<td>.706</td>
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</table>

\[ r^2 = 11.284 \quad z' = .451 \]
\[ r^2 = 17.014 \quad z' = .681 \]
To test the effect of institutionalization without
the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization's intensive
counseling program, a t test was made between the mean z'
scores on the self-ideal relationship I and self-ideal rela-
tionship II. A t value of .351 was obtained which was not
significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence for twenty-
two degrees of freedom.

Differences between the experimental and control
groups. To test the differences between the experimental
and control groups after the former had treatment, a t test
was made between the mean z' scores of the self-ideal rela-
tionship II of the experimental group and the self-ideal
relationship II of the control group. A t value of .329 was
obtained which was not significant at the 5 per cent level
of confidence for twenty-two degrees of freedom.

Also, the Chi Square method was used to measure dif-
fferences between the two groups after one had treatment. Each
subject's correlation from self-ideal relationship I was com-
pared with his correlation from self-ideal relationship II
to determine the total number of changes upward, changes
downward, and no changes for each group. Twenty of the
twenty-five controls had changes upward, while only thirteen
of the twenty-four experimental had changes upward. Five of
the controls and nine of the experimental had changes down-
ward. Of the control group and the experimental group only
two inmates from the experimental group produced no changes.
The Chi Square revealed an $f$ score of 4.624 which was signi-
nificant at the 10 per cent level of confidence but was not
significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence for two
degrees of freedom.

**Summary.** This chapter has described the statistical
methods that were used in this investigation and the results
obtained. The only significant difference was the one veri-
fying randomness of sampling procedures. All other sta-
tistical procedures resulted in differences that were not
significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings from the previous chapters are summarized in this chapter. Conclusions of this investigation are presented and recommendations for further studies are made.

I. SUMMARY

This study has been an experimental study in which seventy-two male inmates from the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization at Deuel Vocational Institution were given Q-sorts to measure the relationship between their self-concepts and their ideal self-concepts. The subjects were divided into an experimental and a control group according to a classification procedure which had been made previously by the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization. The experimental group had intensive counseling. The control group did not have. The Q-sort consisted of one hundred statements taken from the Segal study and reworded for clarity for the population in this experiment. The subjects sorted the statements into a forced quasi-normal curve according to the

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statements judged to be like them and the statements judged not to be like them. First and second sortings were made shortly after the subject first entered the Pilot Intensive Counseling Organization, giving the self-ideal relationship I, and again approximately six months later, giving the self-ideal relationship II, to determine if six months of intensive counseling produced a significant change in the self-concept and ideal self-concept relationship. Intensive counseling would be assumed to be effective in producing an increased adjustment if the experimental group, not the control group, had a higher mean correlation at the end of the six months period than it did at the beginning of the six months period.

In the final statistical analysis, twenty-four subjects were included in the experimental group and twenty-five in the control group. The individual correlations derived from the self-ideal relationship I and the ones from self-ideal relationship II were converted to z' scores and arranged into z' arrays according to group and self-ideal relationship. Four mean z' scores were obtained. Randomness of sampling, effect of intensive counseling, and differences between the experimental and control groups were determined by use of significant differences between the mean z' scores. The only difference which was significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence was the test of randomness of sampling for twenty-one or twenty-two degrees of freedom.
To make certain that no few scores were affecting the total score, the Chi Square statistic was used to compare changes upward, changes downward, and no changes for both groups. No significant difference was found at the 5 per cent level of confidence for two degrees of freedom.

II. CONCLUSIONS

The statistical analysis of this investigation bore out the null hypotheses. The randomness of sampling was verified by the significant difference found in this test; therefore, it is assumed that the sample for both groups was drawn from the same population.

Since all other tests of differences proved not to be significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence, it is assumed that: (1) a six months period of intensive counseling at Deuel Vocational Institution does not produce a significant change detectable by the methods used in the relationship between a delinquent's self-concept and his ideal self-concept, and (2) a six months period of institutionalization without intensive counseling at Deuel Vocational Institution does not produce a significant change in the relationship between a delinquent's self-concept and his ideal self-concept.
III. RECOMMENDATIONS

In the review of the literature, a mention was made of the long period of time necessary for effective treatment with the delinquent; therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated with another delinquent population but having a longer interval of time between self-ideal relationship I and self-ideal relationship II.

It is further recommended that a larger population sample be used. One advantage of having a larger sample would be that the experimental group could be divided into two subgroups on the bases of the success of therapy. Each counselor would judge whether or not his case had sufficient personality change to be considered successful. If statistical significant differences resulted between the scores of the successful therapy experimental group and the control group, the assumption could be made that the change in the self-ideal concept resulted from the successful therapy. Also, it could be assumed that the Q sorts would be a valid instrument for measuring this change.
BIBLIOGRAPHY
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APPENDIX
ORIGINAL SELF-REFERENT STATEMENTS

1. I feel uncomfortable while talking with someone.
2. I put on a false front.
3. I am a competitive person.
4. I make strong demands on myself.
5. I often kick myself for the things I do.
6. I often feel humiliated.
7. I am much like the opposite sex.
8. I have a warm emotional relationship with others.
9. I am an aloof reserved person.
10. I am responsible for my troubles.
11. I am a responsible person.
12. I have a feeling of hopelessness.
13. I live largely by other people's values and standards.
14. I can accept most social values and standards.
15. I have few values and standards of my own.
16. It's difficult to control my aggression.
17. Self-control is no problem to me.
18. I am often down in the dumps.
19. I am really self-centered.
20. I usually like people.
21. I express my emotions freely.
22. Usually in a mob of people I feel a little bit alone.
23. I want to give up trying to cope with the world.
24. I can live comfortably with the people around me.
25. My hardest battles are with myself.
26. I tend to be on guard with people who are somewhat more friendly than I expected.
27. I am optimistic.
28. I am just sort of stubborn.
29. I am critical of people.
30. I usually feel driven.
31. I am liked by most people who know me.
32. I have an underlying feeling that I am not contributing enough to life.
33. I feel helpless.
34. I can usually make up my mind and stick to it.
35. My decisions are not my own.
36. I often feel guilty.
37. I am a hostile person.
38. I am contented.
39. I am disorganized.
40. I feel apathetic.
41. I am poised.
42. I just have to drive myself to get things done.
43. I often feel resentful.
44. I am impulsive.
45. It's important for me to know how I seem to others.
46. I don't trust my emotions.
47. It's pretty tough to be me.
48. I am a rational person.
49. I have a feeling I'm just not facing things.
50. I am tolerant.
51. I try not to think about my problems.
52. I have an attractive personality.
53. I am shy.
54. I need somebody to push me through on things.
55. I feel inferior.
56. I am no one.
57. I am afraid of what other people think of me.
58. I am ambitious.
59. I despise myself.
60. I have initiative.
61. I shrink from facing a crisis or difficulty.
62. I just don't respect myself.
63. I am a dominant person.
64. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
65. I am assertive.
66. I am afraid of full-fledged disagreement with a person.
67. I can't seem to make up my mind one way or another.
68. I am confused.
69. I am satisfied with myself.
70. I am a failure.
71. I am likable.
72. My personality is attractive to the opposite sex.
73. I have a horror of failing in anything I want to accomplish.
74. I feel relaxed and nothing really bothers me.
75. I am a hard worker.
76. I feel emotionally mature.
77. I am afraid of sex.
78. I am naturally nervous.
79. I really am disturbed.
80. All you have to do is just insist with me and I give in.
81. I feel insecure within myself.
82. I have to protect myself with excuses, with rationalizing.
83. I am a submissive person.
84. I am intelligent.
85. I feel superior.
86. I feel hopeless.
87. I am self-reliant.
88. I often feel aggressive.
89. I am inhibited.
90. I am different from others.
91. I am unreliable.
92. I understand myself.
93. I am a good mixer.
94. I am adequate.
95. I am worthless.
96. I dislike my own sexuality.
97. I am not accomplishing.
98. I doubt my sexual powers.
99. I am sexually attractive.
100. I have a hard time controlling my sexual desires.
1. I feel uncomfortable while talking with someone.
2. I put on a false front.
3. I am a person who likes to compete.
4. I try hard in everything I do.
5. I often kick myself for the things I do.
6. I often feel shamed or disgraced.
7. I don't mind doing housework.
8. I like others and they like me.
9. I don't like to mix with others.
10. I am responsible for my troubles.
11. I am a responsible person.
12. I have a feeling of hopelessness.
13. I try to live up to the standards set by other people.
14. I can accept the standards set by other people.
15. I have few standards of my own.
16. It's difficult to avoid quarreling with people.
17. Self-control is no problem to me.
18. I am often down in the dumps.
19. I think I am more important than most people.
20. I usually like people.
21. I express my emotions freely.
22. Usually in a mob of people I feel a little bit alone.
23. I feel like giving up.
24. I can usually live comfortably with the people around me.
25. My hardest battles are with myself.
26. I tend to be on guard with people who are somewhat more friendly than I expected.
27. I am hopeful, cheerful.
28. I am just sort of stubborn.
29. I am critical of people.
30. I feel something inside pushing me.
31. I am liked by most people who know me.
32. I have the feeling that I'm not doing enough in life.
33. I can't help myself.
34. I usually make up my mind and stick to it.
35. I feel other people make up my mind for me.
36. I often feel guilty.
37. I am a hostile person.
38. I am contented.
39. I am disorganized.
40. I am without feeling.
41. I am balanced, calm.
42. I just have to drive myself to get things done.
43. I often feel resentful.
44. I am impulsive.
45. It's important for me to know how I seem to others.
46. I don't trust how I feel.
47. It's pretty tough to be me.
48. I am a thoughtful, logical person.
49. I have a feeling I'm just not facing things.
50. I can like people with whom I don't agree.
51. I try not to think about my problems.
52. I have an attractive personality.
53. I am shy.
54. I need somebody to push me through on things.
55. I feel inferior.
56. I don't know what I'm good for or what I want to do.
57. I am afraid of what other people think of me.
58. I am ambitious.
59. I have a low opinion of myself.
60. I often get things started.
61. I can't face up to trouble.
62. I just don't respect myself.
63. I am a leader.
64. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
65. When I make my mind up, I stick to it.
66. I am afraid of disagreeing with a person all the way.
67. I can't seem to make up my mind one way or another.
68. I am confused.
69. I am satisfied with myself.
70. I am a failure.
71. I am likable.
72. My personality is attractive to the opposite sex.
73. I have a horror of failing in anything I want to accomplish.
74. I feel relaxed and nothing really bothers me.
75. I am a hard worker.
76. I feel grown up in my feelings.
77. I am afraid of sex.
78. I am naturally nervous.
79. I really am uneasy, inwardly upset.
80. All you have to do is just insist with me and I give in.
81. I don't feel very sure of myself inside.
82. I have to protect myself with excuses.
83. I give in to others easily.
84. I am intelligent.
85. I feel superior.
86. I feel hopeless.
87. I can take care of myself.
88. I often feel like pushing people around.
89. I don't express my feelings very well.
90. I am different from others.
91. I am unreliable.
92. I understand myself.
93. I am a good mixer.
94. I feel fully able to deal with things.
95. I am worthless.
96. I dislike my own sex feelings.
97. I am not getting anything done.
98. I doubt my sexual powers.
99. I am sexually attractive.
100. I have a hard time controlling my sexual desires.