



1975

## Assessment of the Male Alcoholic's Response to Women Through the Use of Visual Stimuli

Ernest Piron  
*Loyola University Chicago*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc\\_diss](https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss)

 Part of the [Psychology Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Piron, Ernest, "Assessment of the Male Alcoholic's Response to Women Through the Use of Visual Stimuli" (1975). *Dissertations*. 1549.

[https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc\\_diss/1549](https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss/1549)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at Loyola eCommons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Loyola eCommons. For more information, please contact [ecommons@luc.edu](mailto:ecommons@luc.edu).



This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 3.0 License](#).  
Copyright © 1975 Ernest Piron

ASSESSMENT OF THE MALE ALCOHOLIC'S RESPONSE  
TO WOMEN THROUGH THE USE OF VISUAL STIMULI

by

Ernest Piron

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School  
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

July

1974

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer would like to express his appreciation to the members of his dissertation committee, Doctors Leroy A. Wauck, Chairman, Alan S. Dewolfe, James E. Johnson, and Ronald E. Walker for their advice and assistance in the preparation of this paper.

## VITA

The author, Ernest Piron, was born August 11, 1930, in Cincinnati, Ohio. He was graduated from Rhodes High School, New York City, New York, in 1948.

In September, 1950, he entered St. John's College in Annapolis, Maryland, where he completed his freshman and sophomore years. After serving several years in the Armed Forces, he continued his undergraduate education at Columbia University, New York City, New York, receiving the degree of Bachelor of Science with a major in mathematics in June 1958.

Following graduation he worked as a computer systems analyst and as a manufacturing consultant to industry. As a result of a growing interest in psychology, he enrolled as a night student at the Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago, Illinois. In June, 1968, he was awarded the degree of Master of Science in Psychology.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	ii
VITA .....	iii
LIST OF TABLES .....	v
 Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .....	1
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE .....	3
III. DESIGN OF THE EXPERIMENT .....	25
IV. METHODS AND PROCEDURES .....	30
V. RESULTS .....	34
VI. DISCUSSION .....	46
VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS .....	60
REFERENCES .....	64
APPENDIX I .....	71
APPENDIX II .....	80

# LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Means and Standard Deviations of Hits per Type by Group .....	36
2. Means and Standard Deviations per Set by Subject Group .....	37
3. Results of 2-Way Analysis of Variance of Hits .....	39
4. Means and Standard Deviations for Type of Picture Preferred by Group .....	40
5. Frequency Distributions for Type of Picture Preferred Most by Group as Determined by Inquiry and Values of Chi-square ( <u>df</u> = 2) .....	42
6. Frequency Distributions for Type of Picture Preferred Least by Group as Determined by Inquiry and Values of Chi-square ( <u>df</u> = 2) .....	44
7. Means, Medians, Ranges, and Variances for Response Time by Group (in seconds) .....	45

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

For centuries society has looked upon the alcoholic as an outcast whose uncontrolled or compulsive drinking was the result of a moral defect in character. Today, however, a public policy emphasizing treatment and rehabilitation is well established. This change has come about mainly as a result of the recognition of alcoholism as a major social problem with definite physiological, psychological, and ethical dimensions.

The incidence of alcoholism is uncertain but estimates from various sources place the number of alcoholics in the United States between six and nine million. Its toll in human misery is incalculable but its cost to industry can be estimated and is measured in billions of dollars every year. While not known with certainty, the ratio of male to female alcoholics in our society is thought to be about three to one, with social factors playing an important part in determining the ratio between them. As a result of changing attitudes that are contributing to greater equality between the sexes, however, it may be surmised that the proportion of women alcoholics is increasing.

Research devoted to the origin, treatment, and prevention of alcoholism has been belated but prolific. The results achieved to date, although justifying the belief that progress has been made,

provide no basis for expecting early resolutions and thus serve to emphasize the need for continuing effort. The complexity of alcoholism, with its far reaching medical, psychological, and social consequences, has encouraged its consideration from different viewpoints, making this enterprise the concern of many disciplines.

One perspective from which the psychologist views the problem has its clearest statement in the orientation of Harry Stack Sullivan, and lays stress on the idea that alcoholism, like other forms of deviant behavior, does not develop in isolation but evolves within the context of interpersonal relations. The present study was conceived as an effort to explore these relations in the belief that knowledge regarding them would serve to further our understanding of the disorder and have a bearing on questions relating to its treatment and dynamics. Its specific purpose, as an empirical investigation, was the assessment of the male alcoholic's response to women through the use of visual stimuli.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The reader who reviews the literature on alcoholism meets with much uncertainty and controversy. Although all major perspectives on deviant behavior have contributed to a better understanding of this phenomenon, their differences are radical and perhaps irreconcilable. One major point of agreement, however, seems to be that alcoholism involves the complicated interplay of physiological, psychological, and sociological factors. Numerous attempts have been made to integrate these factors into a theory that would balance them appropriately and adequately account for the phenomenon of alcoholism. Some have proven more successful than others, but none has met with universal acceptance. These theories are usually grouped according to whether physiological, psychological, or sociological factors are emphasized.

Among those that stress the importance of psychological factors, viz., intrapsychic, behavioral, and phenomenological theories, none appears to have treated the problem more thoroughly than has the intrapsychic or psychoanalytic. Of immediate relevance to the issue of the present study is the psychoanalytic theory of character formation, which has led to a clearer conceptualization of the personality structure of the male alcoholic and the traits which inevitably bear upon his interpersonal relations with and attitude

toward women.

According to this theory the formation of character is closely related to the vicissitudes of instinctual life during the period of infantile sexuality. The constellation of traits, tendencies, and attitudes that play so decisive a role in determining the way in which a person will relate to others in later adult life is viewed as a derivative of these early experiences of libidinal development. It is within this context that the genesis of alcoholism is traced to an early and severe disturbance in the relationship between the mother and her infant. This disturbance has led psychoanalytic writers to say that the alcoholic is characterized by a premorbid personality structure fixated at the oral phase of development. Its importance lies in the fact that it sets in motion a series of disordered developmental trends culminating in a set of traits which is considered to comprise a necessary condition for alcoholic addiction in later life. This viewpoint was alluded to by Freud (1924a) and elaborated upon by Abraham (1948b). It has since become the standard position within psychoanalysis (Fenichel, 1945).

In the review of the literature that follows, some of the major traits associated with alcoholism will be considered as they contribute to the purpose of this study. These traits are: dependency, ambivalence, immature sexuality, and narcissism. Although first introduced by psychoanalytic writers, they have assumed an importance for writers of different orientations as well, and have thus become dominant and persistent themes throughout the literature generally. While it is recognized that other traits have

been associated with alcoholic addiction, those cited would seem to hold a special relevance in any discussion concerning the male alcoholic's relationships with and attitudes toward women. The review will also extend to the literature on wives of alcoholics in view of the close connection that subject bears to the one under investigation.

Dependency. In the psychological make-up of the male alcoholic the concept of dependency is nuclear. This dependency manifests itself in different ways. It may vary from an attitude of carefree indifference to the demands of reality that has the effect of making others assume responsibility for him, to a demanding attitude that makes others feel they must gratify his wishes to the point of indulgence. In either case, the net result is usually the same - others do for him well beyond the limit of normal give and take.

The origin of these attitudes is assigned by Abraham (1948a) to the first or sucking stage of the oral phase of psychosexual development. If the infant is over-indulged during this period, he may continue throughout life always expecting a mother surrogate to care for him and administer to his needs. On the other hand, the infant who leaves this period feeling deprived or ungratified will develop a demanding attitude and in his social behavior will always appear to be asking for something. But whether over-indulged or deprived, the life style of the individual becomes characterized by unrealistic expectations.

In his discussion of the psychodynamics of alcoholism, Knight (1937) presents a somewhat similar viewpoint. According to Knight

psychological predisposition to become an alcoholic is the result of continued indulgence and protection by the mother. Like Abraham, he believes the pattern of over-indulgence begins during the nursing period. Increasing strictness and demands for independence by the father will often aggravate the situation.

In a study using data primarily from psychiatric interviews and social histories, Zwerling (1959) found several traits common to the 46 male alcoholics of his sample group. Among them was dependency, which he described as an adaptive approach to achieve security through the efforts of others to provide care. He elaborates interestingly on this trait: "In view of the schizoid patterns noted, this is only seldom reflected in a direct passive-receptive attitude toward a particular person. Most frequently it is a concealed and diffuse aspect of ambivalent relationships with people or institutions; rather than a trusting, dependent relationship, they will form guarded, taking or grasping relationships." Zwerling concludes his study with the speculation that "...this character disorder reflects a disruption of the mother-child relationship in an early period of dependency...", a position consistent with that expressed by Abraham and Knight and other early psychoanalytic writers.

Further evidence in support of the belief that dependency is a personality trait characteristic of alcoholics, and a dominant aspect of his psychological deviation, is found in results from psychological tests, including both projective techniques and more objective instruments such as personality inventories, and measures

of conscious self-perception. For example, on the basis of Rorschach studies, Halpern (1946) pointed out that through his extreme passivity, a characteristic closely allied to dependency, the alcoholic is frequently successful in assigning responsibility for his life to others. Following a trend in MMPI research towards measuring personality variables rather than psychiatric nosologies, Button (1956c) made use of the Dependency Scale, a rationally derived scale developed by Navran and comprising 57 items on the MMPI. In this study he referred the records of 64 subjects, all diagnosed as having chronic alcoholism without psychosis, to the published norms and concluded that "there is some support...for the hypothesis that dependency is a relevant variable for people who become alcoholics."

Although most frequently discussed in terms of clinical observations, theoretical considerations, and test results, dependency in alcoholism has also become the subject of an increasing number of experimental investigations. In recent years, for example, interest in cognitive styles of perception as manifestations of broader dimensions of psychological functioning have contributed to our understanding of the psychological make-up of the alcoholic. Using perceptual techniques to assess personality characteristics, witkin, Karp, and Goodenough (1959) found support for their hypothesis that alcoholics are significantly more dependent than non-alcoholics. Some investigators, however, (e.g., Alexander & Gudeman, 1965) have questioned the validity of an approach that equates indices of perceptual functioning with psychological characteristics which are the result of complex developmental processes.

In one of the few longitudinal studies to appear in the literature, McCord and McCord (1962) compared childhood records and psychological data on 29 boys who later became alcoholics to those of 158 boys from the same neighborhood who did not. Their reported results included the finding that the use of alcohol in the first group was related to the attempt to resolve conflicts between dependency needs and the pressure from society to be independent.

Although the association between dependency and alcoholism seems well established on the basis of studies and case histories reported in the literature, little has been written on the implications of this dependency for the alcoholic's interpersonal relations with women. Several writers believe that the alcoholic's exaggerated dependency needs lay the basis for marital conflict in later life. Navratil (1959), for example, says that the future alcoholic chooses a wife in his mother's image with the unconscious expectation that the former will spoil him as the latter did and that while he may "at first desire to be dependent on a dominating 'mother-image,' in the long run, the woman's superiority becomes unbearable for him...." That dependency needs are the source of his desire to seek a mother in his wife is also suggested by the observation of Korman and Stubblefield (1961) that "the alcoholic manifests dependency needs in the sense of wanting some authority figure, parental figure, or surrogate to take over the responsibility of guiding him, directing him, and making decisions for him." Bergler (1969) implies that the alcoholic chooses a wife in his mother's image but suggests a difference in motivation. He regards the alcoholic as a psychic

masochist who "...needs constant inner confirmation that everybody behaves as 'badly' toward him as his bogey-man, the 'bad' mother. That is why he often chooses a shrew for a wife."

While Bergler's viewpoint may not be fanciful, it does not carry the conviction of Navratil's, perhaps because the latter offers a perspective that can be integrated into a broader context. That the alcoholic should rebel against or be in conflict about his dependency would appear to have a basis in social considerations, since dependency in males is in opposition to the male stereotype. Menninger (1938, p. 158) seems to have this point in mind when he observes that the normal wife rebels against having to assume a role of maternal solicitude "to a grown man supposedly her protector and master." Should the wife fail to provide the wanted affection, care, and love, the alcoholic assumes an attitude ranging from feeling abused to conscious hostility toward her and women in general.

It would appear, therefore, that the dependency needs of the alcoholic constitute a built-in source of conflict in any close relationship he may have with a woman. Their recurrence requires him to seek constant gratification for them at the expense of meeting those of his partner. At the same time, however, his own self-esteem demands that he deny them as being irreconcilable with the masculine role prescribed for him by society, and which places greater emphasis on his gratifying the dependency needs of the woman than his own.

Ambivalence. Although originally used by Heuler to describe oscillation in the affective, conative, and cognitive spheres of behavior, the term ambivalence is used most frequently today in the

first of these senses, i.e., to denote conflicting emotions toward the same person, object, or event. According to Abraham (1948a) ambivalence emerges during the second or biting stage of the oral phase of libidinal development and underlies the object relationships of this period. Among psychoanalytic writers it is generally associated with disappointment in these early relationships, especially those with the mother. It is further believed that the frustration experienced as a result of this disappointment engenders an aggressive attitude which takes the form of revengeful behavior in later adult relationships (Fenichel, 1945, p. 511). While more characteristic of the child, ambivalence is also found in normal adult relationships. When the source of persisting conflicts, however, it is regarded as evidence of pathology or a sign of a poorly integrated personality.

The presence of ambivalent feelings and attitudes in alcoholics has been reported by many writers. Menninger (1938), for example, in discussing this conflictual and confusing oscillation between love and hate, observes that

...the alcoholic suffers at the same time from the wish to destroy his love-objects and the fear that he will lose them. He also fears the consequences of the aggressions which he is constantly impelled to make against them and from which he deters himself only by fierce internal restraint which in time accumulates to the point of leading him to seek a form of anesthetization which indirectly achieves the very aggressions and other consequences which he so feared he would succumb to.

Knight (1937) also sees aggressiveness in the excessive drinking of the alcoholic, regarding it as "...a potent means of carrying out hostile impulses to spite his parents and friends...." In discussing



impulse neurotics, of which alcoholics are considered an example, Fenichel (1945, p. 369) states that "Being fixated on the oral phase, they tend to react to frustration with violence. Their main conflict is one between this tendency toward violence and a tendency to repress all aggressiveness through fear over loss of love, that is, fear of receiving still less in the future."

Evidence that ambivalence is a characteristic of alcoholics is also found in the results of empirical research. Gynther, Preshner, and McDonald (1959), for example, used the Leary Interpersonal System to analyze MMPI profiles, Interpersonal Check List ratings of self and others, and TAT stories of 50 hospitalized male alcoholics and observed considerably more underlying ambivalent feelings among them than in a comparison group of non-psychiatric patients. On the basis of projective test results Machover and Puzzo (1959a) attribute a general ambivalence to the alcoholic, embracing cognitive, conative, and affective processes. Gliedman, Rosenthal, Frank, and Nash (1956), in their study of addictive drinkers in group therapy, reported that ambivalence characterized much of the behavior of alcoholics in their marital relationships. Although not an empirical study, Lisansky's review of the literature (1960) on psychological predisposition in alcoholism makes clear that ambivalence is an important component in addictive drinking, serving as a unifying conception which brings together the contradictory aspects of the behavior of alcoholics.

The effects of ambivalence on the alcoholic's interpersonal relations with women can only be seen as destructive. The inability to maintain a consistent attitude toward another person tends to

foster insecurity and uncertainty, undermining the very possibility of establishing a lasting and positive relationship. As noted earlier, several writers associate ambivalence with hostility and acts of aggressiveness. While these aggressions are not specified, one may surmise they include the acts of verbal and physical abuse which inevitably begin to occur as the pattern of excessive drinking becomes more pronounced. Less immediately obvious, perhaps, is the threat addictive drinking makes against the security of wife and family in respect to their financial and social status. As is so often the case, however, this threat becomes a reality through loss of job and friends.

Immature sexuality. The sexual behavior of the male alcoholic has been the focus of attention in several studies. Aspects considered include homosexual tendencies and experiences, level of heterosexual drive, and disturbance in potency.

Homosexuality appears as a theme in the work of several of the early psychoanalytic writers on alcoholism. Although Freud (1924a) postulated a relationship between homosexuality and alcoholism, it was Abraham (1948b) who first attempted to work out the psychological relations between sexuality and alcoholism in a comprehensive way. In his study he argued that alcohol serves to eliminate or reduce the mental inhibitions associated with the sublimation of sexual energy, with the result that limitations on the expression of behavior relating to homosexuality, as well as other deviations, are either weakened or removed.

Brill (1946) also implicated homosexuality as a factor of

special significance in alcoholism. His work led him to conclude that chronic alcoholics either fail to attain genitality or sooner or later regress from that level to an earlier autoerotic phase. They give histories of bad experiences with women, including unhappy love affairs and marriages, and invariably show a wish to run away from heterosexuality. Loneliness becomes an excuse for excessive drinking and leads them to seek companionship in bar rooms and taverns where the satisfaction of homosexual impulses is glaringly evident. In the special case of severe delusional jealousy associated with alcoholism, the delusion represents an effort to defend against strong homosexual tendencies. The jealousy represents the outward projection of the repressed homosexuality.

Ferenczi (1950) linked alcoholism to homosexuality as a step in the pathogenesis of paranoia. Excessive drinking is seen as a coping device in the conflict between conscious heterosexual and unconscious homosexual desires. The repressed homosexual desires which are allowed to surface as a result are then rejected from consciousness through the mechanism of projection.

According to Fenichel (1945) childhood frustrations, created by difficult family constellations, give rise to oral fixations and a turning away from the frustrating mother, the consequences of which lead to repressed homosexual tendencies in male alcoholics.

The affinity between addictive drinking and repressed homosexuality postulated by psychoanalytic writers was the subject of an empirical investigation by Gibbons and Walters (1960). In their investigation three experiments were carried out. In the first two,

measures of verbal recognition thresholds for neutral and experimental words having a homosexual connotation were obtained from a group of alcoholic patients and compared with those of overt homosexuals and normal control subjects. In the third experiment, similar groups were compared with respect to their preferences for pictures symbolizing male and female genitals. In all three, the responses of the alcoholics were intermediate between those of the homosexual and normal subjects with statistical significance observed in the third or last experiment. The authors summarized their findings by stating that "While the experiments as a whole do not provide strong evidence for the psychoanalytic theory, the results suggest that this theory should not be lightly discarded."

Not all investigators, however, agree that homosexuality is a factor in alcoholism. Using data from a longitudinal study, McCord and McCord (1959), for example, found that boys who were markedly feminine and presumably with latent homosexual tendencies did not have a greater tendency toward alcoholism. Machover and Puzzo (1959c) did not find support for the hypothesis that homosexual trends are more prevalent among male alcoholics than among non-alcoholic non-homosexual controls. They did, however, find evidence for their hypothesis that homosexual trends are more in evidence among remitted than unremitted alcoholics. Scott (1958) in his investigation of the psychosexuality of the alcoholic found the fundamental characteristic of the alcoholic was immaturity and not homosexuality. Korman and Stubblefield (1961) found no signs of homosexuality, latent or overt, in alcoholics but concluded that they were "inadequate in sexual roles."

The theme of inadequacy and immaturity with its implications of reduced drive and disturbance in potency is treated by several writers. Menninger (1938, p. 158) comments on the alcoholic's disinclination for heterosexual activity, relating it to fear and a greater need for maternal solicitude than sexual gratification. In a somewhat similar vein, Fenichel (1945, p. 376), in discussing drug addicts, says that the effect of the drug means the fulfillment of a desire "more urgently felt by them than are sexual or other instinctual longings by normal persons." Zwerling (1959) characterized the sexual behavior of the alcoholic subjects of his study as immature. This behavior is reflected in a failure "to establish a secure masculine identification" and ranged from "markedly reduced heterosexual relations and mild to moderate symptoms of impotence to active homosexuality." This finding offers support to the earlier work of Button (1956b) on the genesis of alcoholism whose study of the projective and anamnestic data of 87 male alcoholics showed incomplete and attenuated masculine identification. Feminine identification was found in results from projective techniques used in a study by Machover and Puzzo (1959b).

The consequences of this lack of masculine identification and sexual immaturity may well be a reduced drive or a disturbance in potency. In this regard, however, Bergler (1969) made an interesting point in observing that what at first might appear to be a disturbance in potency may turn out to be simply a matter of refusal. Refusal in sex is viewed as one more manifestation of the refusing attitude which he believes is the main characteristic of the

personality of the alcoholic addict. The aggression underlying the refusal is seen as an inner defense mechanism serving to negate or deny the unconscious masochistic attachment to the fantasy of a "refusing" mother, projected upon the wife. Abraham (1948b) states that since the re-emergence of repressed sexual impulses stimulates sexual activity, the alcoholic experiences an increase in his sexual capacity. Although this feeling of increased potency is illusory and not reflected in performance, he continues to identify alcohol with his sexuality and uses alcohol as a surrogate for it. There is seen in this an analogy to certain sexual perversions in which a stimulus that might normally serve as an introduction to the sexual act is substituted for it.

Perhaps the most sweeping statement on the sexual behavior of alcoholics has been made by Benda (1969), who claims that "in all people addicted to alcohol, a deep seated disruption of their heterosexual relationships is present." The alcoholic is prevented from enjoying women as a source of happiness and relief from tension because he experiences sex as something "deeply wrong and dangerous." Although he is not explicit on the point, Benda seems to implicate the mother as the source of this feeling. Earlier, Wilkins (1956) stated that "The relevance of sexual maladjustment should not be overlooked for it is almost ubiquitous among alcoholics. Whether this maladjustment develops both before and after conditions leading to alcoholism appear to be worth further study." Lisansky (1967) states that "the clinical observation of psychosexual immaturity and the inability to maintain a stable and responsible role in a heterosexual

relationship" provides a promising lead for further investigation on personality characteristics of alcoholics.

While agreement on specific conclusions is seldom reached, there does seem to be a consensus that the pattern of sexual behavior of alcoholics can be characterized as immature. Among psychoanalytic writers this immaturity is viewed as a consequence of the early pre-genital disturbance in the mother-infant relationship. But whatever its origins, it inevitably would hold negative consequences for his interpersonal relationships with women. Latent homosexuality, reduced sexual drive, disturbance in potency, and an attitude of refusal of sex as a way of expressing hostile feelings against his wife, all conspire to make the area of heterosexual behavior one of conflict with little prospect of gratification for either party.

Narcissism. In the early formulation of his theory of sexuality, Freud postulated two stages in libidinal development: autoeroticism, in which the separate instinctual components of sexuality function independently finding gratification in the subject's own body, and alloeroticism, in which an object external to the self is chosen. This theory was later amended to include an intermediate stage to which Freud gave the name of narcissism. In this intermediate stage, "the hitherto isolated sexual instincts have already come together into a single whole and have also found an object. But this object is not an external one, extraneous to the subject, but it is his own ego, which has been constituted at about the same time (Freud, 1924b)."

Freud not only believed that narcissism constitutes a transitory phase in the psychosexual development of every normal person

but also that aspects of it remain in the character structure of every adult (Brill, 1955, p. 247). Thus, his use of the word represents a broadened and modified meaning of the term as originally used by Nacke, who employed it to describe the perversion of obtaining complete sexual gratification from one's own body. Although still used in the psychoanalytic sense of meaning erotically tinged egotism, narcissism will also be used in the present discussion in its derivative sense to mean a kind of "closedness" in personality make-up that acts to inhibit growth producing exchange with others.

The connection between narcissism and alcoholism, though not explicitly traced out, seems implicitly evident in the work of the early psychoanalytic writers. For narcissism has been closely allied to immature sexual behavior and latent homosexual tendencies (Brill, 1955, p. 247 ff.) and, as earlier sections of the review of the literature have attempted to show, these behavioral characteristics are deeply implicated in alcoholic addiction. The position of later psychoanalytic writers is summarized by Fenichel (1945, p. 379), who states that alcoholics are characterized by narcissistic pre-morbid personalities. This belief is confirmed by persons in recent clinical practice. Selzer (1967), for example, reported finding egocentricity and narcissism to a pathological degree in many of the addictive drinkers seen by him in therapy.

The presence of narcissism in alcoholics receives further support from psychological test results. According to Schafer (1948, p. 49) narcissistic persons emphasize W's and amass CF responses on the Rorschach. Although more than a normal percentage of such



responses in the protocols of alcoholics has been reported by several authors, the evidence on this point is not consistent (Sutherland, Schroeder, & Tordella, 1950).

In commenting on the results from no fewer than 25 studies of alcoholics with the MMPI, Lisansky (1967) reported that "alcoholics have consistently shown more or less significant elevation on Scale 4." This observation would appear to have relevance for any discussion focussing upon narcissism and addictive drinking. The scale was developed by contrasting normals with persons who, among other things, were regarded as showing an absence of deep emotional response and an inability to profit from experience (Dahlstrom & Welsh, 1960, p. 60). If we accept this as implying a closedness, then the relationship between this scale and narcissism becomes more apparent. That is, the effect of this closedness would tend to preclude or limit interaction between the individual and his environment. The isolation of the individual from external influence would seem to be at the core of narcissism. This closedness is dramatically made clear to the therapist when encountering an alcoholic, separated from his family, who has no idea where his children are and who shows no feeling of concern about not knowing.

The implications of a narcissistic personality for interpersonal relations, especially with women, is suggested by Fenichel (1945, p. 377) in his description of addicts in general:

Patients who are ready to give up all object libido necessarily are persons who never estimated object relationships very highly. They are fixated to a passive-narcissistic aim and are interested solely in getting their gratification, never in satisfying their partners nor, for that matter, in

the specific personalities of their partners.

Thus it seems apparent that the narcissism of the male alcoholic requires a relationship in which his needs take precedence over those of his spouse or partner. For the woman this condition means imposing limits on her growth as a person and can only serve to foster resentment in her.

Wives. An important source of additional data on the male alcoholic's interpersonal relations and attitudes toward women is found in articles about their wives. The expectation that the several personality traits discussed above play a significant role in the marital relationship is generally confirmed in these articles. They have also presented evidence in support of the belief that the alcoholic's wife may either unconsciously foster or actively promote the addictive drinking of her spouse because of her own pathology.

Whalen (1953), for example, in discussing her work in a family service agency, contends that the alcoholic wife, though often seen as a helpless victim of circumstance, is not an innocent bystander in an unfolding sequence of marital misery but an active participant in the creation of the disharmony. While usually functioning more acceptably in the eyes of the community, she may well have as poorly an integrated a personality as her husband. Whalen reports observing many striking similarities in women who marry alcoholics and men who subsequently become alcoholic. These similarities are the negative and unhealthy needs the wife of an alcoholic often seeks to satisfy in the marriage. They include the need to punish, suffer, and compensate for her own feelings of inadequacy. They also include

the need to control in which the role of dependency is frequently implicated.

Futterman (1953) summarizes his clinical experience by observing that in many instances the alcoholic's wife encourages her husband's drinking because of her own needs. Although he does not go so far as to say that wives of alcoholics foster dependency in their husbands, Futterman believes that the wife chooses a dependent male so that she can easily project her own weaknesses on him and deny them in herself. These feelings of inadequacy derive from and are accentuated by an ego ideal formed from her identification with a dominant mother. Other interesting and relevant clinical observations which have emerged from Futterman's case material relate to the frequency with which wives of alcoholics enter occupations which may be considered "maternal," sometimes seen as a defense against their inadequate femininity; their apparent tendency when remarrying to seek another alcoholic husband; and their illusion that they are indispensable to their alcoholic husband.

In working in group therapy with wives of alcoholics, Igersheimer (1959) observed that they displayed a marked need to control their husbands, often to the point of infantilizing them. Since it would appear that the wife has a neurotic investment in her husband's dependency, greater independence on his part would be experienced as a threat to her own self-esteem or feeling of adequacy.

That such is the case has been observed by several writers. Futterman (1953), viewing the alcoholic marriage as a particular kind

of symbiotic relationship, made the general observation that improvement on the part of the alcoholic will cause decompensation in the wife. While consciously combatting the unpleasant reality caused by her husband's alcoholism, she, nevertheless, seems to provoke it and unconsciously controverts his efforts at recovery in an attempt to preserve the kind of relationship which offers her a feasible solution to her own underlying problems. When this relationship is disturbed by an improvement in her husband, the wife decompensates and develops symptoms that not only reveal her own pathology but also frequently cause the husband to drink again. Relating this phenomenon more specifically to the issue of dependency, Igersheimer (1959) noted that marked anxiety occurred in wives at points when their alcoholic husbands were doing better and seemed to be more mature and independent. The belief that the personality of the alcoholic's wife decompensates with improvement of her husband's condition also receives some support from the work of MacDonald (1956) who studied 18 female patients admitted to a state mental hospital, all of whom were or had been married to alcoholics. Of the 18, 11 manifested mental disorder following a decrease in the husband's drinking. The decrease is interpreted as a precipitating factor in the onset of the mental disturbance.

In focussing on the dynamics that mediate the marital relationship, the articles on the wives of alcoholics have contributed to a better understanding of the male alcoholic's interpersonal relations and attitudes toward women. Equally important, however, are the implications they hold regarding treatment of alcoholism. More

specifically, the data seem to show that in many instances the effect of the wife's personality on the marital relationship is to produce a psychological climate inimical to sobriety in her husband. In order for a treatment plan to be effective, therefore, it would seem necessary for it to include provisions for treating the wife.

From the review of the literature on dependency, ambivalence, sexual immaturity, and narcissism, it seems fair to conclude that these characteristics, as they are observed in the male alcoholic, bear an important influence on his interpersonal relations with and attitude toward women. The literature on wives of alcoholics not only supports this impression but also contributes to a picture in which women are seen as having a dominant influence in the life of the alcoholic. The role of the mother seems crucial in the early formation of character that leads to addictive drinking in later adult life, while that of the wife seems important in maintaining it.

Despite the fact that many writers are of the opinion that the male alcoholic's relationships with and attitudes toward women play an important part in the development of addictive drinking and in its continued persistence, a review of the literature fails to reveal studies that deal both centrally and comprehensively with this issue. Discussions related to it are either concerned peripherally with these relationships and attitudes or with limited aspects of them. Yet their importance is repeatedly affirmed, either implicitly or explicitly in many studies, especially in those concerned with the etiology and dynamics of alcoholism. These studies thus suggest the need for further investigations. The present study, designed to assess

the male alcoholic's response to women through the use of visual stimuli, was undertaken in response to this need.

### CHAPTER III

#### DESIGN OF THE EXPERIMENT

It is seldom possible to evaluate an adult's interpersonal relations through direct observation of actual life situations and, at the same time, satisfy the requirements of scientific inquiry for objectivity and adequate sample size. Such an effort must usually be undertaken indirectly within the context of an experimental setting that allows a procedure to be specified and limits imposed. In the present study, the problem of evaluating the male alcoholic's attitude toward women was met by assessing his responses to them as evoked by means of visual stimuli. The visual stimuli were pictures showing women in certain roles or images in which they either naturally or inevitably appear. The roles selected were: 1) motherly, nurturant, or protective; 2) erotic or overtly sexual or seductive; 3) mature with no explicit reference to either of the first two roles; and, finally, 4) immature or adolescent. To some extent these roles were suggested by the literature, but to a greater extent by the nature of the problem. The attempt to adequately define the various roles which a woman can assume is made difficult by the fact that her roles change not only with the social situation but with the passage of time as well. The issue is how these roles can be separated one from the other and yet in combination present the best composite picture of the whole person. It is believed that the four roles

as defined in the present study represent an acceptable resolution of this problem, for, though rather arbitrarily defined, they seem comprehensive yet separate enough to allow for discrimination among them. The pictures were presented in pairs to subjects, who were then asked to indicate which of the two they preferred. The subjects comprised three groups: alcoholics, normals, and schizophrenics.

Hypotheses. In general, it was anticipated that the alcoholic group would significantly differ from the two non-alcoholic comparison groups in the pattern of their indicated preferences. This expectation seemed justified on the basis of the relevant literature previously reviewed. To determine the direction of preference, however, was a very speculative matter because the notions about the alcoholic's interpersonal relations and problems are so many and various that a rationale for almost any preference could be found and justified. In the present instance, it was believed that the order of preference for the alcoholic group for the four different independent variables or roles, from high to low, would be: mature, overtly sexual or erotic, nurturant or motherly, and finally, adolescent or immature. This order was based on considerations regarding the alcoholic's exaggerated dependency needs and his misgivings about his masculinity as suggested by the review of the literature. It led to the following specific hypotheses regarding the order of preference: mature preferred over nurturant; mature preferred over sexual; mature preferred over adolescent; sexual preferred over nurturant; sexual preferred over adolescent; and nurturant preferred over adolescent. The nurturant and sexual



comparison was viewed as an opportunity for the alcoholic to deny his dependency needs and, at the same time, to assert his masculinity. Thus, when these two pictures were paired it was supposed that the nurturant picture would carry a negative valence and the sexual picture a positive valence, resulting in the preference of the sexual over the nurturant. When these pictures were compared with a picture presenting a woman in a mature role or image, however, their valences were considered negative and that for the mature one more or less neutral. It was believed, therefore, that in both the mature and nurturant and the mature and sexual comparisons, the mature would be preferred over the other two on a default basis, i.e., negative or conflictual feelings about dependency and masculinity would be elicited by the nurturant and sexual pictures, while the mature would produce essentially neutral feelings. In both instances the mature picture provided an acceptable alternative. In the remaining comparisons, however, (sexual and adolescent, mature and adolescent, and nurturant and adolescent), it was believed that the adolescent role did not offer an acceptable alternative to the others. In these cases, therefore, sexual over adolescent, mature over adolescent and nurturant over adolescent preferences were expected. No specific hypotheses concerning the order of preference of the two comparison groups were made, other than the general one that these groups would significantly differ in this respect from the experimental alcoholic group.

Independent variable. For several reasons the visual mode was preferred over the verbal as the medium of presentation. First, a

visual presentation avoided any complications due to language, an important consideration, since one of the comparison groups in the study comprised schizophrenic subjects. Secondly, it was felt that a more valid representation of the four roles could be achieved through visual means rather than verbal material. While this point is certainly debatable, it is not without support in the literature (Geist, 1959).

Dependent variable. An appropriate way of measuring responses to the stimuli was the next consideration. Generally speaking, methods used in the measurement of attitudes fall into two categories. The first is the traditional rating method exemplified by the Likert-type scale by which a subject indicates the degree of his acceptance or rejection of a statement (in the present instance, a visual stimulus) by checking the appropriate position on a numbered scale. The less traditional method is the paired-comparison, forced-choice technique which requires the subject to choose one statement from a pair or several statements, usually no more than three or four. Several considerations led to the decision to use a paired-comparison, forced-choice technique, i.e., paired visual stimuli, in the present study rather than a simple rating technique. The work of several authors (Bartlett, Quay, & Wrightsman, 1960; Ghiselli, 1954; Gordon, 1951) suggests that a forced-choice technique has greater validity than a simple rating technique. It was also felt that asking the subject to indicate a preference in a comparison situation would give him a greater sense of personal involvement in the task and reduce the difficulty of performing it, especially for the group of

schizophrenic subjects.

As in most studies involving several different groups of subjects, the investigation carried out in this study was designed so that any contrast between the experimental group and the comparison groups could be observed through an appropriate analysis of the functional relationship between the independent and dependent variables. While a demonstration that alcoholics respond differently to women than do normals would be consistent with discussions in the literature, it is emphasized that the main concern of the study was to explore and clarify and not to offer empirical support to any given theory or long held clinical conjectures.

## CHAPTER IV

### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Subjects. Seventy-two male subjects, ranging in age from 35 to 55, participated in the study and were divided into 3 groups of 24 subjects each. With but one exception, a second generation Chinese, all subjects were Caucasian. The experimental group comprised patients with a primary diagnosis of chronic alcoholism and accepted for treatment in the Alcoholic Rehabilitation Unit of the Veterans Administration Hospital in Downey, Illinois. Patients manifesting severe psychopathic attitudes or psychotic behavior, as determined through a screening interview, psychological testing, and examination of medical history, were excluded from this group. The first comparison, or normal group, consisted of non-alcoholic employees of the hospital. In an effort to control for the possibility of alcoholism within this group, only data on subjects with good attendance records, as indicated by their superiors, were used in the study. These subjects participated in the experiment on a voluntary basis. The second comparison, or psychiatric group, comprised schizophrenics, whose medical records revealed no history of alcoholism or organicity. This group was included so that whatever findings were observed to differentiate alcoholics from normals could be more justifiably associated with the fact of alcoholism rather than the presence of psychopathology more generally. In this respect it

is relevant to note that several authors have reported a high incidence of schizophrenic reactions and schizoid tendencies or processes among alcoholics (Button, 1956c; Zwerling, 1959). The three groups were matched on age and, as far as possible, on educational background. The mean age and standard deviation for the alcoholic, normal, and psychiatric groups were: 45.1, 6.1; 45.8, 6.1; 45.6, 4.8. An analysis of variance showed no significant differences among groups in respect to age ( $F < 1.00$ ;  $df = 2,69$ ). The mean and standard deviation for education for the three groups were: 11.3, 2.4; 14.1, 3.4; 11.8, 2.5, respectively. An  $F$  ratio of 6.91 ( $df = 2,69$ ) showed a significant difference among groups. Since inspection of the means made clear that the level of education of the normal group was the source of this difference, a correlation between education and response was obtained to determine if this variable had any significant effect on the dependent variable. The observed coefficient of .08 was small enough to conclude that education was not significantly related to the dependent variable.

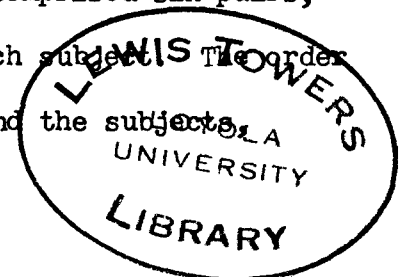
Materials. The materials used in the experiment comprised high quality black and white reproductions of paintings, selected from various artistic styles, and presenting women in different roles or images as follows: (N) nurturant, protective, or motherly, (S) overtly sexual or erotic, (M) mature but neither motherly or overtly sexual, and (A) immature or adolescent. Each of the four roles or images were represented by four paintings, making a total of 16 different stimuli. The pictures were divided into four sets, each set containing an N, S, M, and A picture by the same artist. The

pictures were paired in all six possible combinations, viz., NS, NM, NA, SM, SA, and MA, and mounted on heavy manila colored 8 x 10 inch sheets of cardboard. Since six pairs were made from each of the four sets, a total of 24 pairs were produced and used as stimuli in the experiment. The pictures, themselves, were approximately 3 x 5 inches in size with no observable variation between those of any given pair. As far as possible, the pictures of each pair were matched on shading and did not include reproductions of well known or popular paintings. The 16 pictures used were selected from a group of about twice that number rated for content validity by a panel of five judges, holding responsible positions outside the mental health field, and whose ages reflected the high, middle, and low portions of the age range of the subjects. The final selection of pictures was made from those on which agreement regarding content was reached by at least four of the five judges. In 11 out of 16 instances, agreement was unanimous. The instructions to the judges read as follows:

The pictures you have been given to look at present women in different roles or images. Please look at them carefully and divide them into groups as follows: (1) nurturant, protective, or motherly; (2) overtly sexual, seductive, or erotic; (3) mature but neither motherly nor overtly sexual; (4) immature or adolescent; (5) none of the above.

Copies of the 16 pictures, arranged by type and set, are included in Appendix I.

Procedure. Since each of the four sets comprised six pairs, a total of 24 pairs of pictures was shown to each subject. The order of presentation of the stimuli was randomized and the subjects.



themselves, were scheduled in a random order. The runs were counter-balanced to take into account left-right positional effects. After the S was seated and made to feel at ease, he was given verbal instructions, explaining that he would be shown a series of pairs of pictures and that he was to indicate his preference for one picture of each pair by saying either "left" or "right." Having assured himself that the S understood the requirements of the task, the examiner proceeded to show the 24 pairs of pictures to the S, recording his preference and reaction time to each. The latter was recorded with a standard stop watch and was defined as the period between presentation of the stimulus and the subject's response to it. When all 24 pairs had been shown, the subject was then shown the middle 12 pairs again and asked to give a reason for each of his preferences to that set. These reasons were recorded by the examiner. Finally, 3 x 5 copies of the 16 different pictures used were spread out over the table and the subject was asked to select the one he liked best or preferred most and the one he least preferred. In both cases he was asked to give a reason for his selection.

## CHAPTER V

### RESULTS

For the sake of brevity and clarity it will be convenient in presenting the results and in the later discussion of them to observe the following conventions:

1. Instead of using descriptive words or circuitous phrases the capital letters N, S, M, A will be employed to refer to the four roles or images used as the independent variables in the study as follows: N = nurturant or motherly; S = overtly sexual or erotic; M = mature; and A = adolescent or immature.

2. The colon, ":", will be used to indicate a comparison, i.e., a pair of pictures without specifying which of the two was preferred. For example, "A:N" would simply mean the comparison of an adolescent type of picture with that of a nurturant one. No significance is to be given to the order of appearance of the letters used to designate the pictures.

3. The slash symbol "/", will be used to mean "preferred to" in a comparison requiring the selection of one picture over another. Thus, for example, the expression "M/N" would mean that a subject preferred a picture showing a woman in a mature role or image rather than a nurturant or motherly one.

4. The Arabic numerals, 1, 2, 3, 4, will be used to designate the four sets of pictures used in the study.



5. Particular pictures will be referenced by the appropriate combination of numerals and letters. For example, 4N would refer to the nurturant type of picture in the fourth set of pictures.

6. Finally, the term "hit" will be used to refer to a preference indicated by a subject which occurs among those hypothesized for the alcoholic group, as discussed earlier. Thus, a hit is defined as any preference in the set M/N, M/S, M/A, S/N, S/A, and N/A.

Hits per Type by Group. For each subject in the experiment a raw score was computed, representing the total number of hits obtained by that subject. Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations for type of hit for each of the three groups. In respect to this table, it may be noted that, since a given comparison occurred four times during a run and could be preferred in one or two possible directions, the average number of times a given hit could be selected on a chance basis was two.

Hits per Set by Group. Table 2 shows the mean and standard deviations for hits per set by subject group, without regard to type of hit. Since each set comprised six comparisons and half of the directions in which selections could be made were defined as hits, the mean number of hits per set on a chance basis was three.

Group and Set Effects. The raw scores were arranged in a 3 x 4 table in which the three rows represented the three different groups participating in the experiment (alcoholic, normal, and schizophrenic), and the four columns the four different sets of pictures used. Since each group comprised 24 subjects, each cell in the table contained 24 raw scores or observations. These data,

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Hits per Type by Group

Type of Hit	Group					
	Alcoholic		Normal		Schizophrenic	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
M/N	2.33	1.37	2.33	1.14	2.79	0.77
M/S	2.08	1.58	2.16	1.12	1.45	1.52
M/A	1.58	1.17	1.45	1.05	1.79	0.93
S/N	2.08	1.28	1.91	1.41	2.95	1.15
S/A	1.45	1.14	1.62	1.37	2.54	1.35
N/A	1.16	1.00	1.45	0.93	1.50	1.17

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Hits per Set by Subject Group

Set	Group					
	Alcoholic		Normal		Schizophrenic	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
1	3.04	1.22	3.20	1.28	3.58	0.92
2	2.04	1.36	2.12	0.85	2.75	1.18
3	2.75	1.02	2.66	1.16	3.45	1.10
4	2.87	1.15	2.95	1.30	3.25	0.90

rearranged to conserve space, are given in the tables of Appendix II. In order to determine the presence of group and set effects, and their possible interaction, a 2-way analysis of variance was carried out. As shown in Table 3, significant main effects were observed for groups ( $F = 5.54$ ,  $df = 2,69$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and sets ( $F = 11.14$ ,  $df = 3,207$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

To investigate the differences existing between the means for both groups and sets, additional probing was done using Duncan's new multiple range test. The expected shortest ranges for groups ( $\alpha = .01$ ,  $df = 60$ ) were as follows:  $R_2 = .51$  and  $R_3 = .53$ . The observed ranges were:  $R_2 = .52$  and  $R_3 = .58$  and indicated that the schizophrenic group differed significantly from both the alcoholic and normal groups in producing a greater number of hits (mean number of hits per group were: Schizophrenic = 13.02, Normal = 10.92, Alcoholic = 10.68).

The expected shortest significant ranges for sets ( $\alpha = .01$ ,  $df = 120$ ) were  $R_2 = .45$ ,  $R_3 = .47$ , and  $R_4 = .49$ . The observed significant ranges were  $R_2 = .65$ ,  $R_3 = .72$ , and  $R_4 = .97$  and indicated that set 2 differed from sets 1, 3, and 4.

Type of Picture. Table 4 shows the means and standard deviations for the type of picture preferred by each group. To test the null hypothesis that the different types of pictures had no differential effects within groups, a 2-way analysis of variance was carried out. Since Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variance did not support the assumption that the sample groups were drawn from populations having the same variance ( $B = 30.44$ ,  $df = 11$ ) at the .10

Table 3

## Results of 2-Way Analysis of Variance of Hits

Source				
Between Groups	19.69	2	9.85	5.54*
within Groups (error term)	122.72	69	1.78	
Between Sets	37.12	3	12.37	11.14**
Groups x Sets	2.14	6	.36	<1.00
Sets x Subjects within Groups (error term)	229.99	207	1.11	
Totals	411.66	287		

\*  $p < .01$ \*\*  $p < .001$

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Type of Picture  
Preferred by Group

Type of Picture	Group					
	Alcoholic		Normal		Schizophrenic	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
N	4.75	2.77	5.21	2.87	3.75	2.43
S	5.46	3.52	5.38	3.42	8.04	3.62
M	6.00	2.99	5.96	1.78	6.04	2.42
A	7.79	2.04	7.45	2.35	6.17	1.73

level of significance, the Friedman non-parametric analysis of variance by ranks was performed. The raw scores were put into a 2-way table, having 3 rows and 4 columns. The rows represented the 3 groups and the columns the 4 types of pictures. These data appear in appendix II where they have been rearranged for the sake of conciseness. The analysis yielded a value of 6.6 for chi-square ( $df = 3$ ) with an associated probability of  $p < .10$ . While this finding does not support rejection of the null hypothesis, it does suggest the presence of a trend toward significant differences. Inspection of Table 4 indicates that this trend reflects a preference for sexual pictures on the part of schizophrenics and a preference for adolescent pictures on the part of normals and alcoholics.

Type of Picture Preferred Most by Inquiry. Table 5 shows the frequency distributions for type of picture preferred most by each group, as determined by direct inquiry at the close of the experiment. To test the hypothesis that group and type of picture were possibly related variables, the chi-square statistic was computed for each type of picture independently. The obtained values, also given in Table 5, indicate that the observed distribution of type of picture across groups did not differ from that expected by chance at an acceptable level of significance. Thus, while the alcoholic group selected the adolescent picture most often, the normal group the mature, and the schizophrenic group the sexual, it is not possible to say that these preferences distinguished the three groups from each other.

Type of Picture Preferred Least by Inquiry. The same analysis

Table 5

Frequency Distributions for Type of Picture Preferred Most  
by Group as Determined by Inquiry and Values  
of Chi-square (df = 2)

Type of Picture	Group			Chi-square	p
	Alcoholic	Normal	Schizophrenic		
N	2	4	2	1.04	n.s.
S	4	5	10	3.26	n.s.
M	4	8	6	1.33	n.s.
A	14	7	6	4.22	n.s.



was also carried out for the type of picture preferred least as determined by inquiry. The frequency distributions and chi-square values are shown in Table 6. Significance was not found so that, as in the previous case, it is not possible to say that the observed results distinguished the three groups from each other.

Response Time. For the purpose of this study, response time was defined as the latency period between the presentation of a pair of pictures to a subject and his indicated preference for one of them. Table 7 shows the mean, median, range, and variance of response time for each of the three groups of the experiment. To test the hypothesis that the three groups differed significantly in respect to this variable, an analysis of variance was carried out, using the raw scores in Appendix II. Since Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variance did not support the assumption that the sample groups were drawn from populations having the same variance at the .10 level of significance ( $B = 32.96$ ,  $df = 2$ ), a distribution free test was made. Of the several tests available for this purpose, the Kruskal-wallis test was chosen, since it seemed to be the most efficient one in making use of the data. The obtained result of  $H = .237$  ( $df = 2$ ) was not significant at an acceptable level, preventing rejection of the null hypothesis.

Table 6

Frequency Distributions for Type of Picture Preferred Least  
by Group as Determined by Inquiry and Values  
of Chi-square (df = 2)

Type of Picture	Group			Chi-square	p
	Alcoholic	Normal	Schizophrenic		
N	8	6	10	1.00	n.s.
S	8	9	4	2.00	n.s.
M	6	2	5	2.00	n.s.
A	2	7	5	2.71	n.s.

Table 7

Means, Medians, Ranges, and Variances for  
Response Time by Group (in seconds)

Group	Mean	Median	Range	Variance
Alcoholic	111.4	87.5	47 - 275	3804.8
Normal	93.0	87.5	56 - 165	812.1
Schizophrenic	125.1	89.0	46 - 442	11238.4

## CHAPTER VI

### DISCUSSION

The discussion in this chapter will be divided into three sections as follows: 1) results of the statistical analyses of the raw data and their interpretation; 2) factors contributing to the failure to obtain support for the main hypothesis that the alcoholic group would differ significantly from the normal group; and 3) implications of the findings and experience of this study for future research of a similar kind.

Results. As shown in Table 3, a significant main effect was observed for groups in respect to the number of hits per subject ( $F = 5.54$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Further probing using Duncan's multiple range test showed that the source of this effect lay in the difference between the schizophrenic group, on the one hand, and the alcoholic and normal groups, on the other. The figures of Table 1 make clear that this difference reflects the fact that schizophrenics made more hits than either alcoholics or normals (mean number of hits per group were: Schizophrenic = 13.02, Normal = 10.92, Alcoholic = 10.68). Accounting for the presence of the significant main effect observed for groups, therefore, is essentially a matter of explaining this fact. The first thing to note in this regard is that it does not appear related to sets, since schizophrenics made more hits than alcoholics or normals on all sets, as inspection of Table 2 shows.

It may also be noted that results from the analysis of variance failed to show significant interaction effects between groups and sets.

The possibility that the greater number of hits made by the schizophrenic group is related to type of picture was then explored. The evidence bearing most directly upon this point is found in the results shown in Table 4. Although the chi-square of 6.6 ( $df = 3$ ,  $p < .10$ ) yielded by the Friedman two-way analysis of variance by ranks did not support rejection of the null hypothesis, it did suggest a trend toward significant differences. A simple ordering of the group means shown in Table 4 suggests several interpretations of the data in light of this trend. It should be emphasized, however, that these interpretations must be considered very tentative, since statistical analysis failed to show significant differences between the means.

Inspection of Table 4 indicates that the schizophrenic group showed a greater preference for sexual pictures than either the alcoholic or normal groups (mean number of preferences for sexual pictures per group were: Schizophrenic = 8.04, Alcoholic = 5.46, Normal = 5.38). This preference may be related to several factors. Rapaport (1968, pp. 414-415), for example, in discussing content on the Rorschach, implies that frequency of sex responses is an index of psychopathology. The explanation for this, according to Rapaport, lies in the fact that sexuality is still taboo in our culture. Because normals have achieved a greater degree of integration between personal values and those of their culture, sex responses are less

likely to occur among them. In contrast, relative lack of psychological integration accounts for the relative ease with which they are given by many psychotics. This viewpoint seems consistent with the psychoanalytical theory of schizophrenia in which the regressive behavior of the patient is seen not only as a security measure but also as an expression of impulse life largely free from ego constraints. That schizophrenics are out of touch with acceptable social norms is also suggested by the results of the present study, since the pattern of preferences of the schizophrenic group markedly deviated from that of the normal group. Another factor in the schizophrenics' preferences for sexual pictures may relate to the emotional and social deprivation associated with long-term hospitalization.

Although less pronounced than the preference for sexual pictures, a tendency for schizophrenics to reject motherly or nurturant pictures is also suggested by the data of Table 4. This trend was also evident in the least preference picture data in Table 6. Schizophrenics chose the nurturant picture as least preferred twice as often as any other picture. The tendency to reject N pictures carries the implication that the schizophrenic subject has negative feelings about his mother and may reflect some belief on his part that his own inadequacy or lack of personal fulfillment is related, at least partially, to his experience with her. Since the mother is associated with growth and development into a socially competent adult, the schizophrenic may feel that his failure to achieve social maturity had something to do with how his

mother raised him. The studies of Bradford (1966) and Farina and Holzberg (1967) on the parents of schizophrenics support this interpretation, as well as the investigation on orality among schizophrenics, neurotics, and normals by Olson (1960), who found that a distinguishing characteristic of the schizophrenic group was the concept of the mother as "bad."

The combination of an attraction to sexual pictures and an aversion for motherly pictures does much to account for the general overall pattern of comparison preferences produced by the schizophrenic group as shown in Table 1. In particular, it accounts for the high number of hits scored on pairs matching sexual and motherly pictures (S:N). The schizophrenic group averaged 2.95 hits on this comparison, a figure greater than the chance expectation of 2. The mean average of 1.80 for the M:A comparison suggests that schizophrenics regarded M and A pictures in a more or less neutral light.

In respect to the remaining groups, inspection of Table 4 also indicates that both alcoholics and normals showed a greater preference for adolescent pictures than schizophrenics. The generally positive response of alcoholics to this type of picture was contrary to hypothesis, according to which the adolescent role did not offer an acceptable alternative to the other three. A review of the inquiries revealed that several alcoholics regarded the A pictures of sets 1, 2, and 4 as showing adolescents who were in trouble and needed help. It may be surmised that, because of their own situation, those alcoholics could readily empathize with the

adolescents of these pictures. Their preferences could be interpreted, therefore, as a projection of their own felt need for help. Similar feelings were also shown by several normals but not so intensely as to suggest identification through projection. Rather, they seemed to reflect sympathy and concern felt by an older person for a growing adolescent approaching the threshold of adulthood. Several alcoholics were inclined to think of the adolescents as desirable or potential mates, attributing virtues of innocence, constancy, and domesticity to them. This way of perceiving the adolescents may well have reflected an attitude of escapism for their own domestic unhappiness, reflected in the high number of reported divorces and separations. It may also have revealed the wish to relate to women who would be less threatening and make fewer demands than mature or adult women. Such an interpretation is consistent with the portrayal in the literature of the alcoholic as a person who has difficulty in meeting the demands of reality and the responsibilities of adult living.

If the hit results for the groups found in the present study were primarily due to the tendency of schizophrenics to prefer sexual pictures and the tendency of the alcoholics and normals to prefer adolescent pictures, then 1) schizophrenics should produce more hits than either alcoholics or normals in respect to S:N and S:A comparisons where theory predicted hits for the alcoholics; 2) alcoholics should make fewer hits on M:A, S:A, and N:A comparisons, contrary to what theory predicted, and, finally; 3) the net effect of these tendencies would be most pronounced in the S/A hit, i.e., producing a greater difference between schizophrenics and alcoholics



than any other comparison pair. The results in Table 1 show that such expectations did, in fact, occur. Specifically: 1) the mean number of hits produced by the schizophrenic group for S:N and S:A comparisons were 2.95 and 2.54, respectively, while the corresponding figures for the alcoholic group were 2.08 and 1.45, and for the normal group, 1.41 and 1.37; 2) the mean number of hits made by alcoholics for M:A, S:A, and N:A comparisons were 1.58, 1.45, and 1.16, respectively, all of which are below chance expectation; and, finally, 3) the largest difference between corresponding means of the alcoholic and schizophrenic groups for any of the six hits was 1.09 and occurred on the S:A comparison.

Thus, the hit rates of the various groups appear to be related to the proportionally greater preference for sexual pictures shown by the schizophrenic group, coupled with the unexpectedly higher preference for adolescent pictures shown by the alcoholic and normal groups.

Factors contributing to negative results. The results of the present experiment indicated the presence of significant differences between the schizophrenic group, on the one hand, and the alcoholic and normal groups, on the other. They did not support the main hypothesis that significant differences would be observed between the alcoholic group and the normal group. Although these results provide no basis for concluding that differences between these groups exist in respect to the variable under investigation, failure to reject the null hypothesis requires the researcher to consider the factors that may have contributed to that outcome. Of the several factors to be

examined that which seems to have the broadest implications in terms of its possible effects on all subjects of the experiment is the factor of social desirability.

As reported in the review of the literature, the clinical and psychometric data on alcoholism further the belief that substantial differences in respect to personality make-up exist between alcoholics and normals. The same data also support the belief that alcoholics are very dependent and have a strong need to receive approval from others, despite the seemingly contrary intent of their behavior. Thus, while responses of normals may have occurred on an unconscious or preconscious level in accordance with established cultural norms, those of the alcoholics may have been made in a conscious effort to court approval. It may be, of course, that the question of conscious awareness is not germane here and that alcoholics and normals have the same social desirability sets with equivalent levels of awareness. In any event, it is possible to cite several comparisons where preferences may have been made more on the basis of commonly shared cultural or social considerations rather than underlying differences in personality make-up. For example, in respect to pictures 2N and 3N, both of which show a mother nursing her baby, 26% of the inquiries from the alcoholic group and 31% of those from the normal group indicated that the subjects regarded the depicted behavior as socially inappropriate or offensive. In respect to the schizophrenic group, it seems evident that, on the basis of observable behavior, schizophrenics in general are less conforming to patterns of social desirability or cultural norms than either

alcoholics or normals. Consistent with this belief is the finding that only 6% of the inquiries from schizophrenic subjects indicated rejection of pictures 2N and 3N as showing socially inappropriate or offensive behavior, a figure noticeably smaller than those cited for the alcoholic and normal groups. These considerations lead to the conjecture that, insofar as social desirability may have influenced the response sets of subjects in the present study, its effects would tend to mask differences between the alcoholics and normal groups but accentuate those between these groups and the schizophrenics. Although the extent to which the social desirability variable may have influenced the outcome of this study is unknown, its presence as a factor contributing to the results appears to be a reasonable assumption to entertain, especially in view of the failure of these results to support rejection of the null hypothesis.

Another factor which may have served to mask differences between the alcoholic and normal groups relates to the degree of clinical homogeneity of the alcoholic subjects. The idea that alcoholism is not a single entity but, like schizophrenia, comprises a group of syndromes is a hypothesis made attractive by the many inconclusive and conflicting results from studies on the alcoholic personality. If alcoholics are less homogeneous as a group than has been commonly supposed, then further differentiation among them would seem to be necessary before characteristics associated with alcoholism could be identified. For the combined effects of meaningfully different types of alcoholics in the general group could conceivably wash out those of any particular one and thus make the group as a

whole less distinct when compared to another. The possibility that this kind of situation is present in the current study cannot be discounted.

The comparison to schizophrenia suggests that, in terms of the onset and progress of their addiction, alcoholics could be categorized as process or reactive, a distinction which has proved useful in the study of schizophrenics. In his review of the literature, Herron (1962) concluded that it was possible to demonstrate differences between process and reactive schizophrenics in respect to physiological measures and psychological dimensions and that the result of such an approach has been to clarify many of the heterogeneous reactions found in schizophrenia. Higgins and Peterson (1966), in a later review, and Garnezy (1970), similarly concluded that the process-reactive classification of schizophrenia revealed differences in performance which otherwise would have been masked. Jellinek's (1960) division of alcoholism into various subtypes represents another attempt at categorizing which might prove useful in identifying significant differences in the psychological make-up of alcoholics.

Although all pictures were rated for their content validity by a panel of five judges, the fact that the sequence of preferences varied within groups across sets suggests inconsistencies in the qualitative values of the pictures used. For example, picture 2M, which presents a mature woman, was frequently seen by alcoholics as a masculine, stern, and domineering woman and was thus often rejected by them. Normals, however, were more inclined to see her as an

efficient and independent kind of woman. By contrast, the corresponding picture in set 1 was seen in a more favorable light by the alcoholics and was thus selected more often than the one in set 2. Some subjects responded to the presence of shading in the pictures, while others, despite instructions to the contrary, based their preferences on what they considered to be the artistic merits of the pictures.

Finally, it is possible that responses may have been determined to some extent by relations between the examiner and the subject. The mere fact that a male examiner was part of the experimental situation may have encouraged a response that might not have emerged if the tests had been self-administered or if the examiner had been a woman. While in the present case this is only speculation, the importance of interpersonal variables in various test situations has been well established (Harris, 1971; Hettick & walker, 1970; Masling, 1971; walker, Davis, & Firetto, 1968).

The results of the hits analysis showed that the pattern of preferences observed for schizophrenics was significantly more like the predicted pattern for alcoholics than were those for normals or alcoholics. Since the alcoholics produced the lowest number of hits, it is evident that the theoretical ordering of preferences for types of pictures which predicted the pattern for alcoholics fell short of the mark. This predicted order of preferences from most to least was 1) mature, 2) sexual, 3) nurturant, and 4) adolescent. Results of the actual preferences as indicated in Table 4 showed that for alcoholics the relationships among mature, sexual, and nurturant

pictures were as predicted and that if the adolescent type of picture had been predicted to be most preferred rather than least, all of the relationships would have been correctly predicted. This theoretical order would most likely have resulted in alcoholics showing more hits than schizophrenics who showed a disproportionately high preference for sexual pictures but would probably have not differentiated normals from alcoholics as both showed the same ordering of preferences by type of picture.

Implications for future research. Issues in experimental design and directions for further study are both topics which fall within the bounds of any discussion focusing upon implications for future research as suggested by the findings and experience of the present investigation.

Factors related to experimental design include cautionary considerations and different approaches in techniques. As far as the former is concerned, the fact of negative results strongly suggests the advisability of judging visual stimuli in respect to the aspect of social desirability as well as content validity. Also indicated is the need to discriminate among types of alcoholics in order to avoid the possibility of cancelling effects due to the presence of different types within the general group. A third factor would relate to the possible influence of the examiner variable on the response set of subjects.

Other factors related to experimental design are more suggestive than prescriptive. Although no differences between alcoholics and normals were observed through the particular method

and techniques employed in the present study, there remains the possibility that different approaches might have discriminated between these groups. The use of single pictures as discriminators or the comparison of pictures within a given type, for example, are two possible means, suggested by observations made in respect to present findings, by which differentiation might be achieved.

The effectiveness in using a single picture as a discriminator is suggested by the response to 2M. More alcoholics perceived the woman depicted in the picture as masculine than did normals. As determined during the inquiry, this was the reason given for not selecting this picture over the one compared with it by six out of twenty or 30% of alcoholic subjects. In the case of normal subjects, the corresponding figures were three out of twenty-one, or 14%. While such a small sample did not encourage statistical analysis, the effectiveness of this particular picture as a discriminator received further support from the fact that five alcoholic subjects selected it as the picture they preferred least as compared with only one normal. Also, no alcoholics preferred this picture most but two normals did.

Reactions to other pictures also suggested the possibility of using the comparison of pictures within a given type as possible means of differentiating alcoholics from normals. As the analysis of results presented in Table 4 suggests, the alcoholic and normal group showed a tendency to prefer the A picture over the remaining three. But in the particular case of 1A it was possible to note a difference. The young girl depicted in that picture was preferred most by three

alcoholics but not by any normal. This same picture was preferred least by five normals and only one alcoholic. A review of the responses indicates that 1A elicited strong feelings of empathy from the alcoholics with one subject stating "she's in the condition I'm in -- heartbroken and defeated." Normals also saw the young girl as very unhappy or disturbed, but it was on this basis they rejected the picture in contrast to the alcoholics. This suggests that through feelings of empathy and the mechanism of identification alcoholics will tend to prefer a depressed and disturbed looking person, whereas a normal is more likely to be put off by such a person, a reaction possibly reflecting a cultural bias as well as a response to a perceived threat to their own feeling of well being and security.

These observations lead to the thought that as a result of further experiment certain pictures might emerge as significantly more effective discriminators than others in that these could then be pooled to form an inventory of visual items for a specified purpose in the same way vocational or personality inventories using verbal stimuli have been constructed in the past.

A related research direction suggested by this direction would include correlational studies designed to determine the personality characteristics that may be associated with picture preferences. The work of several investigators indicates that the personality correlates of art preferences of style and content may be a fruitful area of study (Barron & Welsh, 1952; Child, 1962; Knapp & Green, 1960).

Another possible research study would vary content. For example, the use of pictures showing men in various roles or images,



or in various relationships with women, might provide a more effective differentiating stimulus than female content alone, as was the case in the present investigation.

The subjects of the present study were diagnosed as chronic alcoholics. Since the findings of this study may relate more to the effects of having been alcoholic for some time rather than predisposing psychological characteristics, it is conceivable that the pre-alcoholic personality may have shown a different pattern of preferences than that shown by the group of chronic alcoholics used in this study. In after-the-fact studies of persons suffering from a particular disease, it is seldom possible to separate traits manifested as a result of the illness from those characteristic of the pre-morbid state. This difficulty has produced the fallacy of post hoc ergo hoc in investigations concerning the etiology of alcoholism and has lead Lisansky (1960) to conclude that "most meaningful research into the psychological etiology of alcoholism will be longitudinal studies."

## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This investigation studied the male alcoholic's response to women through the use of visual stimuli. Stated more specifically, its aim was to explore the alcoholic's attitudes toward women by assessing his preferences for pictures representing women in four roles or images: 1) motherly, nurturant, or protective; 2) erotic, overtly sexual, or seductive; 3) mature, but with no explicit reference to either of the first two roles; and 4) immature or adolescent. The subjects were 72 males, ages 35 to 55, divided into alcoholic, schizophrenic, and normal control groups of 24 each. The groups did not differ significantly in respect to age, and education was found unrelated to the dependent variable of picture preferences.

Underlying the investigation were the assumptions that behavioral deviation is related to personality variables which can and should be observed or studied in interpersonal situations. On the basis of these assumptions and a consideration of the personality characteristics of dependency, ambivalence, immature sexuality, and narcissism, frequently associated with alcoholism in the literature, it seemed reasonable to suppose that the alcoholic's interpersonal relations with women might observably differ from those of normals or non-alcoholic psychiatric patients.

Statistical analyses performed on the data and the results

are summarized below:

1) a two-way analysis of variance was carried out and significant main effects were observed for diagnostic groups and sets of pictures;

2) additional probing using Duncan's new multiple range test showed that the schizophrenic group differed significantly from the alcoholic and normal groups, and that Set 2 was significantly different from the remaining three;

3) in accounting for the significant difference of the schizophrenic group, the null hypothesis that the four types of pictures used in the study had no differential effects within groups was tested. Although results from a Friedman analysis of variance did not allow rejection of the null hypothesis, they did suggest the presence of a trend toward significant differences (i.e.,  $p < .10$  associated with the chi-square of the Friedman test). Inspection of the data indicated that the schizophrenic group showed a greater preference for sexual pictures than either the alcoholic or normal groups, while both the alcoholic and the normal groups showed a greater preference for adolescent pictures than the schizophrenic group. All three groups indicated least preference for motherly pictures, schizophrenics showing the strongest lack of preference for this type of picture;

4) the chi-square statistic failed to support the hypothesis that the three groups could be differentiated in respect to type of picture most preferred or least preferred, as determined by direct inquiry;

5) although Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variance did not support the assumption that the sample groups were drawn from populations having the same variance for reaction times, results from the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that the three groups did not differ significantly in respect to average response time.

Interpretations of the results suggested by or consistent with the literature were made. The tendency of the schizophrenics to prefer sexual pictures was seen as a relative indifference to socially acceptable norms and/or the effect of prolonged institutionalization. The tendency to reject motherly pictures was considered indicative of the poor maternal relationship often described in the literature. The preference for adolescent pictures shown by alcoholics was interpreted as a projection of their own felt need for help. It was also regarded as evidence of a desire to relate to women who would make fewer demands upon them as adults. These interpretations must be considered tentative, since they are based on trends in the data rather than significant findings.

Explanations for the lack of differentiation between alcoholics and normals were considered, together with their implications for future research. The two possibilities that seemed most congruent with the data were: (a) that measures of differences between these groups may have been depressed by a social desirability artifact with both alcoholics and normals putting their "best foot" forward, and (b) that within the alcoholic group there were a number of different personality types which separately might have shown differences from normals but when combined into one group cancelled out any such

differences. Other possible contributing factors included the influence of the examiner variable and inconsistencies in the qualitative values of the pictures used. While these explanations must remain speculative pending further study, their implications for future research of a similar kind seem reasonably clear.

As a means of eliciting and assessing interpersonal attitudes, preferences for art pictures having a particular content met with little success in the present study. It was certainly not established that this method holds promise but until more research is done with it as a technique, it seems premature to conclude that it cannot be used effectively for the purpose to which it was put in the present investigation. In principle it seems possible that pictures could be used for a number of different purposes in psychological research, especially since the work of several investigators seems to show that there may be significant relationships between personality characteristics and art preferences of style and content.

## REFERENCES

- Abraham, K. The influence of oral erotism on character-formation. Selected papers of ... London: Hogarth Press, 1948. (a)
- Abraham, K. The psychological relations between sexuality and alcoholism. Selected papers of ... London: Hogarth Press, 1948. (b)
- Alexander, J. B., & Gudeman, H. E. Perceptual and interpersonal measures of field dependence. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1965, 20, 79-86.
- Barron, F., & Welsh, G. A. Artistic perception as a possible factor in personality style. Journal of Psychology, 1952, 33, 199-203.
- Bartlett, C. J., Quay, L. C., & Wrightsman, L. S. Jr. A comparison of two methods of attitude measurement: Likert-type and forced choice. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1960, 20, 699-704.
- Benda, C. E. Imagination and addiction to alcohol. Review of Existential Psychology and Psychiatry, 1968, 8, 34-42.
- Bergler, E. Personality traits of alcohol addicts. In selected papers of ... New York: Grune & Stratton, 1969.
- Bradford, N. H. Comparative perception of mothers and maternal roles by schizophrenic patients and their normal siblings. Dissertation Abstracts, 1966, 26, 5545-5546.

Brill, A. A. Lectures on psychoanalytic psychiatry. New York: Vintage Books, 1955.

Button, A. D. The genesis and development of alcoholism: An empirically based schema. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1956, 17, 651-657.

Button, A. D. The psychodynamics of alcoholism: A survey of 87 cases. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1956, 17, 443-460. (a)

Button, A. D. A study of alcoholics with the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1956, 17, 263-281. (b)

Child, I. L. Personal preferences as an expression of aesthetic sensitivity. Journal of Personality, 1962, 30, 496-512.

Dahlstrom, W. G., & Welsh, G. S. An MMPI handbook: A guide to use in clinical practice and research. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960.

Farina, A., & Holzberg, J. D. Attitudes and behaviors of fathers and mothers of male schizophrenic patients. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1967, 72, 381-387.

Fenichel, O. The psychoanalytic theory of the neuroses. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1945.

Ferenczi, S. Sex in psychoanalysis. New York: Basic Books, 1950.

Freud, S. Alcohol and delusions of jealousy. In collected papers of ... London: Hogarth Press, 1924. (a)

Freud, S. Totem and taboo. In collected papers of ... London: Hogarth Press, 1924. (b)

- Futterman, S. Personality trends in wives of alcoholics. Journal of Psychiatric Social Work, 1953, 23, 37-41.
- Garnezy, N. Process and reactive schizophrenia: Some conceptions and issues. In M. N. Katy, J. O. Cole, and W. E. Barton (Eds.), The role and methodology of classification in psychiatry and psychopathology. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, 1968, pp. 419-466.
- Geist, H. The Geist picture interest inventory: General form: Male. Psychological Reports, 1959, 5, 413-438.
- Ghiselli, E. E. The forced-choice technique in self-description. Personnel Psychology, 1954, 7, 201-208.
- Gibbons, R. J., & Walters, R. H. Three preliminary studies of a psychoanalytic theory of alcohol addiction. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1960, 21, 618-641.
- Gliedman, L. H., Rosenthal, D., Frank, J. D., & Nash, H. T. Group therapy of alcoholics with concurrent group meetings of their wives. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1956, 17, 655-670.
- Gordon, L. V. Validity of the forced-choice questionnaire methods of personality measurement. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1951, 35, 407-412.
- Gynther, M. D., Preshner, M. A., & McDonald, R. L. Personal and interpersonal factors associated with alcoholism. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 321-333.



- Halpern, F. Studies of compulsive drinkers. Psychological test results. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1946, 6, 468-479.
- Harris, S. Influence of subject and experimenter sex in psychological research. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1971, 37, 291-294.
- Herron, W. G. The process-reactive classification of schizophrenia. Psychological Bulletin, 1962, 59, 329-343.
- Hettick, P. A., & Walker, R. E. Effects of experimental absence and subject briefing on social desirability. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1970, 35, 372-375.
- Higgins, J., & Peterson, J. Concept of process-reactive schizophrenia: A critique. Psychological Bulletin, 1966, 66, 201-206.
- Igersheimer, W. W. Group psychotherapy for nonalcoholic wives of alcoholics. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 29, 77-85.
- Jellinek, E. M. The disease concept of alcoholism. New Haven: Hillhouse Press, 1960.
- Jentsch, R. C. Reaction time in schizophrenia as a function of method of presentation and length of preparatory interval. Journal of Personality, 1958, 26, 545-555.
- Knapp, R. H., & Green, S. Preferences for styles of abstract art and their personality correlates. Journal of Projective Techniques, 1960, 24, 396-402.
- Knight, R. P. The psychodynamics of chronic alcoholism. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disorders, 1937, 86, 538-548.

- Korman, M., & Stubblefield, R. L. Definition of alcoholism. Journal of the American Medical Association, 1961, 178, 1184-1186.
- Lisansky, E. S. The etiology of alcoholism: The role of psychological predisposition. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1960, 21, 314-343.
- Lisansky, E. S. Clinical research in alcoholism and the use of psychological tests: A reevaluation. In R. Fox (Ed.), Alcoholism-Behavioral research, therapeutic approaches. New York: Springer, 1967.
- MacDonald, D. E. Mental disorders in wives of alcoholics. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1956, 17, 282-287.
- Machover, S., & Puzzo, F. S. Clinical and objective studies of personality variables in alcoholism. I. Clinical investigation of the "alcoholic personality." Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 505-519. (a)
- Machover, S., & Puzzo, F. S. Clinical and objective studies of personality variables in alcoholism. II. Clinical study of personality correlates of remission from active alcoholics. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 520-527. (b)
- Machover, S., & Puzzo, F. S. Clinical and objective studies of personality variables in alcoholism. III. An objective study of homosexuality in alcoholism. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 528-542. (c)
- Marcel, G. Man against mass society. Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1962.

- Masling, J. M. The influence of situational and interpersonal variables in projective testing. Psychological Bulletin, 1960, 57, 65-85.
- McCord, W., & McCord, J. Some current theories of alcoholism: A longitudinal evaluation. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 727-749.
- McCord, W., & McCord, J. A longitudinal study of the personality of alcoholics. In D. J. Pittman and C. R. Snyder (Eds.), Society, culture, and drinking patterns. New York: Wiley, 1962.
- Menninger, K. Man against himself. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1938.
- Navratil, L. On the etiology of alcoholism. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 236-244.
- Olson, N. An investigation of orality among schizophrenics, psychoneurotics, and normals. Dissertation Abstracts, 1960, 20, 3388.
- Rapaport, D., Gill, M. M., & Schafer, R. Diagnostic psychological testing. New York: International Universities Press, 1968.
- Schafer, R. The clinical application of psychological tests. New York: International Universities Press, 1948.
- Scott, E. M. Psychosexuality of the alcoholic. Psychological Reports, 1958, 599-602.
- Selzer, M. L. The personality of the alcoholic as an impediment to psychotherapy. The Psychiatric Quarterly, 1967, January, 1-8.
- Sullivan, H. S. Conceptions of modern psychiatry. New York: Norton, 1953.

- Sutherland, E. H., Schroeder, A. M., & Tordella, A. B. Personality traits and the alcoholic. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1950, 11, 547-561.
- walker, R. E., Davis, W. E., & Firetto, A. An experimental variable: The psychologist-clergyman. Psychological Reports, 1968, 22, 707-714.
- whalen, T. wives of alcoholics. Four types observed in a family service agency. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1953, 14, 632-641.
- wilkins, w. L. Alcoholism: Theory, problem and challenge. I. The idea of proneness in relation to alcoholism. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1956, 17, 291-295.
- witkin, H. A., Karp, S. A., & Goodenough, D. R. Dependence in alcoholics. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 493-504.
- Zwerling, I. Psychiatric findings in an interdisciplinary study of forty-six alcoholic patients. Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcoholism, 1959, 20, 543-554.

APPENDIX I



S



SET 1

N



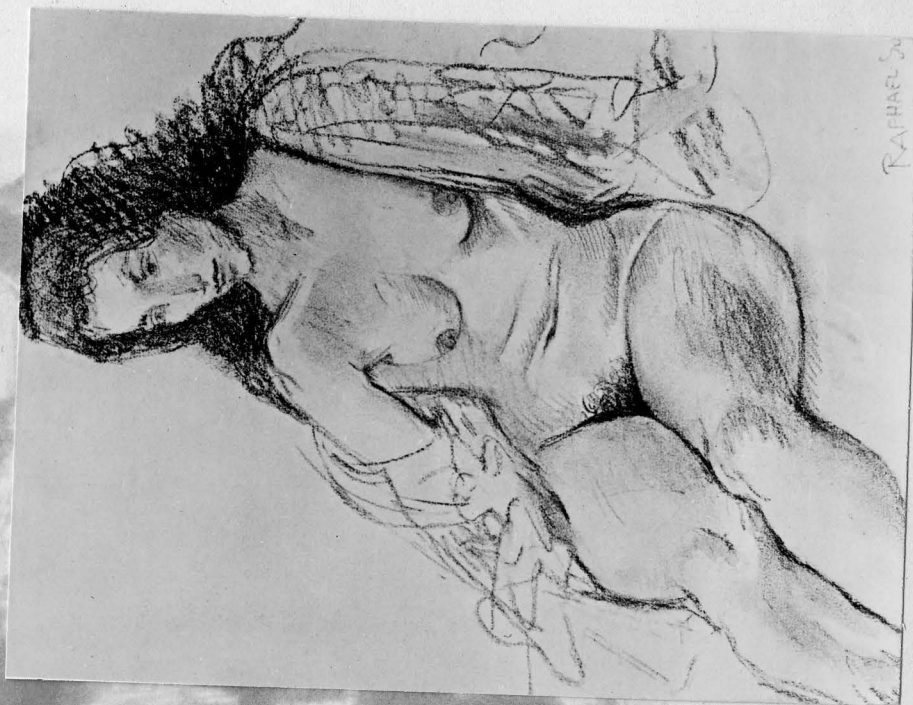
A

SET 1



M









A

SET 2



M



S

SET 3

N



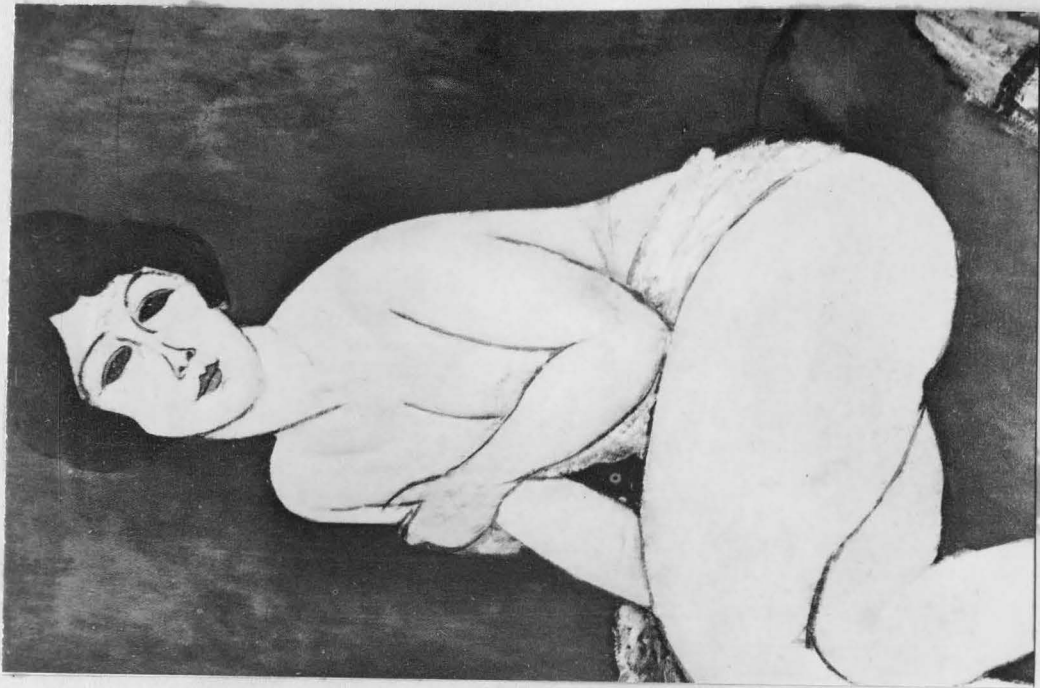
A



M

SET 3



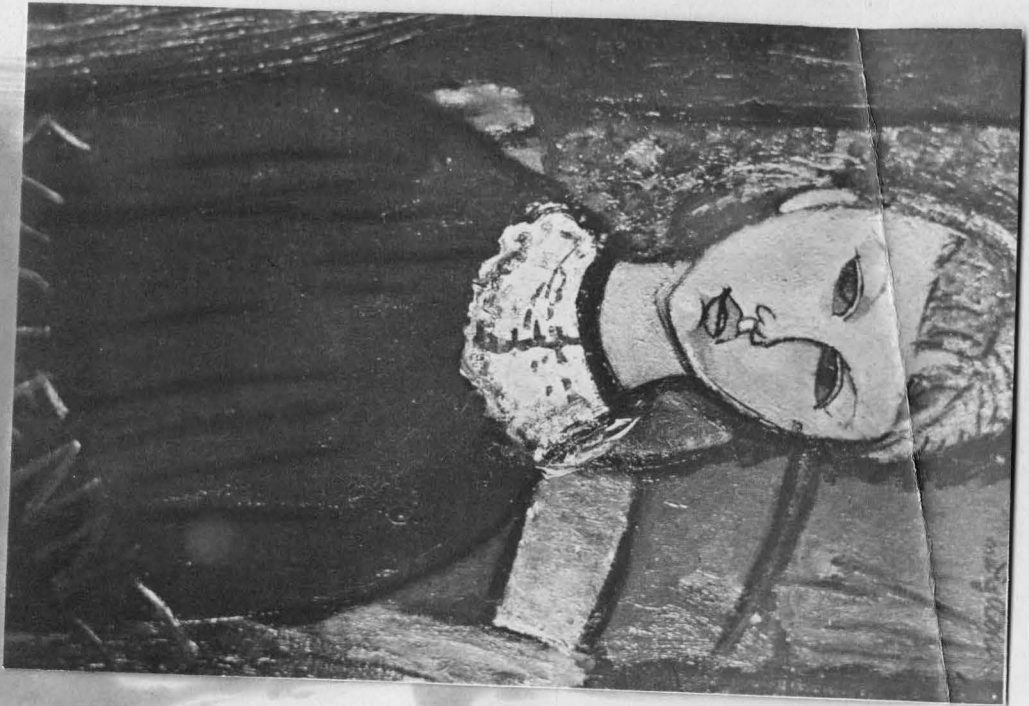


S

SET 4



N



A



SET 4

M

APPENDIX II

Table A

Distribution of Raw Scores for Hits by Sets within Groups

Alcoholic				Group				Schizophrenic			
<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
2	1	1	2	2	2	0	3	3	3	2	2
5	0	2	4	2	1	4	4	3	3	3	4
4	2	2	2	6	3	5	3	4	1	2	4
4	3	3	3	4	2	1	2	3	3	5	3
3	2	4	0	3	2	5	4	4	0	3	4
1	0	3	3	2	2	3	2	5	3	4	1
2	1	4	2	2	1	3	1	4	2	4	3
4	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	4	3	2	4
3	2	4	3	3	2	4	1	3	4	3	3
4	4	4	2	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	4
1	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	3	2	4
2	1	2	4	3	2	3	2	4	2	3	4
2	3	3	3	3	2	3	1	4	4	4	4
1	0	1	2	5	3	3	4	4	2	5	3
4	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	1	5	3
3	4	2	3	4	3	2	3	4	3	4	4
4	4	4	4	5	3	4	3	4	3	3	3
5	3	3	2	6	2	2	5	1	1	4	3
3	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	3
4	4	2	2	4	3	2	4	4	3	4	3

Table A

(Cont'd)

Alcoholic				Normal				Schizophrenic			
<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
2	1	1	3	2	1	2	4	3	5	4	2
4	2	4	5	3	2	2	1	5	3	3	3
2	0	4	5	4	3	2	5	3	4	4	4
4	3	3	4	3	0	3	5	5	2	1	3



Table B

Frequency Distribution of Raw Scores for Type of Picture by Group

Subject	Group											
	Alcoholic				Normal				Schizophrenic			
	N	S	M	A	N	S	M	A	N	S	M	A
1	9	0	5	10	8	4	3	9	5	11	4	4
2	2	7	6	9	4	7	6	7	4	10	4	6
3	12	3	4	5	3	10	7	4	6	11	4	3
4	2	6	7	9	12	5	3	4	2	11	4	7
5	3	9	4	8	5	7	8	4	2	12	4	6
6	6	8	2	8	1	7	5	11	1	11	3	9
7	5	5	5	9	8	0	6	10	2	12	4	6
8	3	3	9	9	5	8	3	8	4	5	8	7
9	6	3	7	8	5	3	7	9	3	12	3	6
10	6	5	8	5	8	0	6	10	4	12	5	3
11	5	9	0	10	10	3	3	8	1	9	5	9
12	2	7	5	10	5	1	8	10	4	1	11	8
13	2	6	7	9	8	5	4	7	2	9	8	5
14	7	7	0	10	2	11	6	5	1	7	8	8
15	6	1	8	9	3	4	7	10	6	7	6	5
16	6	1	9	8	5	5	7	7	3	3	10	8
17	0	12	8	4	3	11	5	5	0	11	6	7
18	9	3	8	4	1	8	8	7	9	6	3	6
19	5	0	12	7	7	9	5	3	7	6	7	4
20	3	11	4	6	3	5	9	7	4	3	10	7

Table B

(Cont'd)

<u>Subject</u>	Group											
	Alcoholic				Normal				Schizophrenic			
	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>A</u>
21	4	5	4	11	8	1	6	9	3	8	7	6
22	3	3	11	7	5	0	8	11	2	11	5	6
23	6	5	6	7	2	8	7	7	9	2	9	4
24	2	12	5	5	4	7	6	7	6	3	7	8
Totals:	114	131	144	187	125	129	143	179	90	193	145	148

Table C

Distribution of Raw Scores for Pictures Preferred Most by Group,  
Showing Sub-Totals, Cross Totals, and Grand Totals

<u>Set and Type</u>	<u>Group</u>			<u>Cross-Totals</u>
	<u>A</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	
1N	2	3	2	7
1S	1	0	1	2
1M	2	2	2	6
1A	3	0	1	4
Sub-Totals	8	5	6	19
2N	0	0	0	0
2S	0	0	2	2
2M	0	2	0	2
2A	4	2	3	9
Sub-Totals	4	4	5	13
3N	0	1	0	1
3S	3	5	7	15
3M	2	4	4	10
3A	7	5	2	14
Sub-Totals	12	15	13	40

Table C

(Cont'd)

<u>Set and Type</u>	<u>Group</u>			
	<u>A</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>Cross-Totals</u>
4N	0	0	0	0
4S	0	0	0	0
4M	0	0	0	0
4A	0	0	0	0
Sub-Totals	0	0	0	0
Grand Totals	24	24	24	72

Table D

Distribution of Raw Scores for Pictures Preferred Least by Group  
 Showing Sub-Totals, Cross Totals, and Grand Totals

<u>Set and Type</u>	<u>Group</u>			<u>Cross-Totals</u>
	<u>A</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	
1N	2	1	2	5
1S	2	2	0	4
1M	0	0	1	1
1A	1	5	2	8
Sub-Totals	5	8	5	18
2N	0	0	1	1
2S	4	6	2	12
2M	5	1	1	7
2A	0	0	0	0
Sub-Totals	9	7	4	20
3N	2	3	2	7
3S	1	0	2	3
3M	0	0	1	1
3A	0	0	0	0
Sub-Totals	3	3	5	11

Table D

(Cont'd)

<u>Set and Type</u>	Group			<u>Cross-Totals</u>
	<u>A</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>S</u>	
4N	4	2	5	11
4S	1	1	0	2
4M	1	1	2	4
4A	1	2	3	6
Sub-Totals	7	6	10	23
Grand Totals	24	24	24	72

Table E

Response Times for Subjects by Groups  
(in seconds)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Group</u>		
	<u>Alcoholic</u>	<u>Normal</u>	<u>Schizophrenic</u>
1	187	87	118
2	147	100	83
3	83	58	62
4	104	98	91
5	71	114	109
6	135	93	94
7	83	57	74
8	97	116	87
9	99	68	98
10	90	56	442
11	64	75	133
12	82	93	135
13	47	87	77
14	54	87	130
15	275	165	442
16	129	144	71
17	83	68	46
18	85	70	47
19	275	118	255
20	77	84	73
21	140	144	103

Table E

(Cont'd)

---

---

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Group</u>		
	<u>Alcoholic</u>	<u>Normal</u>	<u>Schizophrenic</u>
22	60	89	86
23	155	88	70
24	53	73	78



# APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Ernest Piron has been read and approved by the following Committee:

Dr. Leroy A. Wauck, Chairman  
Professor, Psychology, Loyola

Dr. James E. Johnson  
Associate Professor, Psychology, Loyola

Dr. Ronald E. Walker  
Professor, Psychology and  
Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, Loyola

Dr. Alan S. Dewolfe  
Adjunct Professor, Psychology, Loyola and  
Research Psychologist, Downey VA Hospital

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

29 July 1974  
Date

Leroy A. Wauck, Ph.D.  
Director's Signature