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Date August 4, 1977

DREAMS AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY; A COMPARATIVE STUDY

by

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ABSTRACT

The problem of this study was to compare the manifest dream content of female juvenile delinquents and a control group of Belgrade students of the same sex, level of education, and approximate age. The main question asked in this study was if differences in the manifest dream content exist between female juvenile delinquents and a control group.

The investigation was conducted by means of a review of literature, which was organized according to the topics of dream theory, dream research, theories of juvenile delinquency, and treatment of juvenile delinquency.

Further procedures included objectively noting the dream content, using scales devised by Calvin Hall and Van de Castle. The actual recorded events of the dream were generally compared and contrasted for settings, characters, and action. Data were tabulated and comparisons were made by means of a chi-square test. The null hypotheses were accepted when there were no significant differences between the content noted in each scale. However, the null hypotheses were rejected when a difference in the dream content classes at the .05 level was found to exist.

Conclusions drawn as the result of the study were as follows:

(1) The dreams of the female delinquent population contain more objects than the non-delinquent population.
(2) Female delinquents dream more about males and the control group dreams more about females in this population.
(3) The non-delinquent group's dreams contain more friendly interactions.
(4) There is more good fortune in the dreams of the delinquent population and more misfortune in the dreams of the non-delinquent population.
(5) The non-delinquent population noted more activities in their dreams than the delinquents.

Recommendations included further research with a larger population, establishment of a good relationship with the subjects, a control on the intelligence variable, and using dream therapy along with recording dream content for more direct conclusions.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Dreams, the royal road to the unconscious, and juvenile delinquency, a problem in every community, were the subjects of this research. The number of juvenile delinquents in the United States is on the rise (Conger, 1965). This research examined juvenile dreams as a possible means to finding more about delinquency. Their dreams may contain more aggression, conflict, or other social interaction than those of non-delinquents. It is very possible the unconscious is telling us something about these individuals that we have heretofore ignored. The present research has explored this unchartered territory.

To this end the dreams of the target group of girls from the Mountain View School, and a control group of Belgrade students were compared and contrasted. The Mountain View School has as its primary function the care, education, training, treatment and rehabilitation of girls under 21 years of age who are committed to the school by court as provided by law. Both groups are girls 16 and 17 years old. The study was conducted from April 15 through May 13, 1977.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of this study was to compare the manifest dream content of juvenile delinquents and a control group of Belgrade students of the same sex, level of education, and approximate age. To this end the actual recorded events of the dreams were generally

compared and contrasted for settings, characters, and action.

NEED AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.

With the use of dreams, insights into the problem of juvenile delinquency may be found. As Carl Jung says, "No one doubts the importance of the conscious life, why should we doubt the unconscious?" (Jung, 1933). Dreams are bound up with man's essential image of himself. How this image is portrayed and what message the unconscious is relaying to the delinquent are observations for this study.

Freud used dreams in his psychoanalytic approach to find out about the client's repressed wishes, thoughts and desires, by associating parts of the dreams to whatever first comes to the client's mind. This, according to Freud, is a fertile starting point for therapy.

The use of dreams in group therapy is also useful. Dreams often show the dreamer's relation to the group and help the individual understand illogical or irrational experiences. They provide a route for making the unconscious conscious. Dreams help the individual fit their view of themselves into an acceptable social form.

The idea that dream therapy leads to psychological health is backed up by the observations on the Senoi tribe in Malaya made by Kilton Stewart. This tribe believes in actively interpreting and using dreams. Every morning the Senoi discuss their dreams over

breakfast, a type of 'dream clinic'. This group claims no violent crimes, mental illness or intercommunal conflict for a period of two to three hundred years (Tart, 1969). The use of a type of Senoi dream clinic could be helpful in working with adolescents.

The awareness of the content of dreams seems in itself growth-producing. According to Calvin Hall, dreams tell us the dreamer's perception of the world (Hall, 1953). Dreams are pictures of the mind thinking. The question concerning what juveniles really think about their environment and significant others could be revealed by recording their manifest dreams.

The scales devised by Hall and Van de Castle, used in this research, can serve as a checklist to the analyst of what to look for in a dream. The analysis of the dream report says something about the personality of the individual who has produced it (Hall, 1953).

Much research has been written on the problem of juvenile delinquency. According to one author, however,

> Although society concern for the control of juvenile delinquency has given great rise to a great volume of writing and research on the subject, some feel that practically no useful conclusions have yet been reached about delinquency. (Arnold, 1970)

Dreamwork may provide insights to this problem. As of yet studies have been on the dreams of juvenile delinquents. Studies done by Beck and Hurvich (1959), Dement (1972), Langs (1966) and Amanant (1974)

indicate that there is a difference in the dream content of various clinical groups and normals.

According to Hall, the investigation of the relationship of dreams to waking behavior are sorely needed (Hall, 1953). He believes the unconscious exercises considerable influence on one's behavior. Hall, Dement (1972) and Vivian (1973) did research on this subject which showed a strong correlation between these two phenomena. Man's behavior reflects his different life styles. In the preceding studies (Hall, 1953; Dement, 1972; Vivian, 1973) it was postulated that the unconscious influences our behavior. Delinquent behavior, being in conflict with the law before the age of eighteen, is a problem in every community. According to Freud, dreams are the royal road to the unconscious. Thus by noting the content of dreams, we can see if the unconscious really does influence behavior.

If the unconscious does influence behavior, the dreams of the delinquent population should be different from those of the control group. Therapists have noted that the dreams of delinquents deal with home, parents, siblings, early childhood, abandonment anxieties and sadomasochistic tendencies (Lorand, 1964). This research compared the dreams of the juvenile delinquent and control group to see if there was a difference in the content. Dream therapy seems to be indicated as a tool in the treatment of juvenile delinquency.

GENERAL QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

1. Is there a difference between dreams of juvenile delinquents and a control group?
    a. Are the dream settings and objects of these two groups different?
    b. Are the aggressive, friendly and sexual interactions in the dreams different for these two groups?
    c. Are the dream characters different for these two groups?
    d. Is the dream success, failure, misfortune and good fortune different for these two groups?
    e. Are the emotions in the dreams different for these two groups?
    f. Are the dream modifiers different for these two groups?
    g. Is there more regression in the dreams of one group as compared to the other?

GENERAL PROCEDURE

Fourteen female residents of the Mountain View School volunteered to be involved in this research. The control group was fourteen junior class girls randomly selected from Belgrade High School.

The research was conducted for 29 days. The students were asked to record their dreams daily starting April 15, 1977. A note pad was placed near their bedside, to aid in dream recall. A complete

description of the dream was neatly transcribed on a dream report card.

Scales constructed by Calvin Hall and Van de Castle were used in the data analysis.

LIMITATIONS

1. Belgrade and Mountain View Schools were used due to availability of subjects.
2. Residents from the Mountain View School may be from urban communities and the control group is from a rural community. This may affect the dream content.
3. The use of manifest dream reports risks the fabrication of dreams by the subjects.
4. Since this research was limited geographically to two Montana communities, Helena and Bozeman, Montana, the results cannot be generalized to all 16 and 17 year olds.
5. All dreams scored were from female dreamers. No generalization can be made concerning male dreamers.

DELIMITATIONS

1. The target and control groups were limited to fourteen girls each.
2. The results were scored and interpreted by the investigator. No dream expert was available to score the dreams and time was not adequate to train another dream scorer

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The researcher defined the following terms to make clear their use throughout the review of literature chapter.

Consciousness. A normal, ordinary or habitual state in which one has a high degree of rationality.

Probation officer. Person affiliated with the juvenile court, who deals with delinquents during parole. Each teenager is treated as a unique case. Casework is considered important.

Latent content. Those repressed inpulses in dreams, and how they relate to the dreamer's childhood.

Manifest dream content. Actual events of the dream.

REM. Rapid eye movement during sleep which usually indicates dreaming.

Dream. That experience during sleep of a succession of images - visual, auditory or kinesthetic or any phenomenon lacking such imagery but in which the subject feels he or she is in a physical setting other than what he is.

Dream deprivation studies. Subjects are deprived of REM during the night to find out the function of dreams.

The collective unconscious. Basic imprints like birth, death, sexual impulses and the will to survive are symbols that occur over and over again in man's dreams.

Symbol. Term, name or even a picture that may be a familiar object

in daily life yet possesses specific connotation in addition to it's conventional and obvious meaning.

Juvenile delinquency (legal definition). The act of being in conflict with the law before adulthood (Lorand, 1964).

Parole. Final phase of correction for the juvenile delinquent. The violator is released from a residential treatment center.

Social system. Pattern of relationships and cultural expectations for those involved in those relationships.

Attitudes. Characteristics of persons that mediate between stimuli and responses.

SUMMARY

The need for this research, to compare the dreams of female juvenile delinquents and a control group was supported by research. Psychoanalysts use dreamwork as a starting point in therapy to find out the repressed wishes and desires of their clients. Content analysis may provide insights into the personality of the delinquent and group therapy could help show the relationship of the delinquent and society. Studies have shown that there is a relationship between waking behavior and dreamlife (Dement, 1972; Vivian, 1973; Hall, 1953). How dreaming and waking life effect each other may lead to some important conclusions as to the function of dreams in a teenager's life.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Dreams, the other half of ourselves, reflect our true personalities, according to many of the researchers reviewed in this chapter (Hall, 1953; Faraday, 1972; Tart, 1969; Patterson, 1973). How juvenile delinquents portray themselves in dreams and the factors influencing their dreams are concerns of this research.

What dreams are, their function, their relation to waking life and the basic theories concerning dreamlife seem to be a good foundation to build on for this research. The problem of delinquency needs also to be looked into. What the basic theories are and the suggestions for treatment are reviewed in this chapter.

The review of literature chapter was organized according to major topic areas. The first section dealt with dreams. This paper analyzed some studies done on the degree dreams reflect waking life. The basic information concerning what dreams are and the dream theories of Freud, Jung, Alder, Hall and Perls were reviewed. The second section of the chapter deals with the review of literature on both the theories and causes of juvenile delinquency.

DREAMS

Dreams are the experience during sleep of a succession of images - visual, auditory, or kinesthetic - or any phenomenon lacking such imagery but in which the subject feels he is in a physical setting

other than what he is (Dement, 1972; Hall, 1953). Freud called dreams the "royal road to the unconscious" (Faraday, 1972) and ancient tribes called dreams messages from the Gods.

Modern man often considers dreams silly or unimportant. But can an experience that takes up 20% of our sleeping time be unimportant or meaningless? (Tart, 1969) Dreams are a physiological and biochemical process which is cyclic in nature, which has been observed during sleep by rapid eye movement (REM). Two university of Chicago scientists, Eugene Aserinsky and Nathaniel Kleitman, were the first to observe this phenomenon. In 1952 Dr. Kleitman became interested in the slow rolling eye movements that accompany sleep onset (hypogog period). He assigned one of his graduate students, Aserinsky, to watch these movements. The young student noticed that at certain times during the night the eyes darted wildly back and forth (Dement, 1972). This burst of autonomic activity was accompanied by irregularities of pulse, respiration, blood pressure and a higher rate of oxygen consumption by the brain. It was noted that (in REM) in sleep the eyes move in the same direction which is in contrast to the non REM period (Faraday, 1972). During REM the subjects appear to be watching a movie or a play. Dreaming takes as much time as watching the actual events. The bodily sensations are experienced in the mind in the form of a symbol or image (Hartman, 1967).

The average person has four to five REM periods a night. In 1957 Aserinsky and Kleitman awakened subjects 191 times during REM and 80% of the time the subjects reported dreams (Dement, 1972). According to Ann Faraday, a British dream specialist, we have four stages of sleep. The first stage is the lightest in which we show mostly Beta (or normal) waves on the electroencephalograph. The fourth stage, sometimes called deep sleep, exhibits mostly Delta waves, very large slow waves (0-4 cycles per second) (Faraday, 1972). The REM periods appear about every 90 minutes (Hall, 1953). The first REM period is short, becoming longer as the night goes on. This is probably why it is easier to recall dreams in the morning, after probably our longest REM period. Usually one has to wake up during REM sleep or close soon hereafter to remember the dream. According to Calvin Hall, another dream researcher, the average person recalls a dream every third morning (Hall, 1953).

There is a problem using dream reports in research, since there is no means of checking a dream report against a dream for evidence. As said before, the faster a person awakes after a dream, the more recall (Public Health Service, 1965).

Not everyone recalls his dreams. Art students report their dreams more often than engineers (Hartman, 1967). Recallers seem to think they have more control over their lives than non-recallers.

They also were more interested in the workings of the mind. In a study done on dream recall of forty-two male and female subjects who wrote down their dreams for twenty-eight days, there were thirteen recallers (seven or more nights) and fifteen non-recallers (once or not at all) (Hartman, 1967).

In a study done at the University of North Carolina in the fall of 1970, researchers tried to show that sensitizers would recall more dreams than repressers. Sensitizers are those who react when alerted to potential threat. Repressers tend to repress and deny potential threat. The entire sample was unmarried males 18-22 years old. Two MMPI scales were employed to measure the degree of neuroticism or maladjustment. The results showed, (1) a positive relationship between dream recall and anxiety, (2) a negative relationship between recall and repression, (3) no relationship between neuroticism or maladjustment and dream recall (Tart, 1962).

The content of dreams occurring early in the night revolve around current events, whereas dreams concerning childhood and past events occur later in the night. In the morning, or after seven hours of sleep the content again deals with current elements in the dreamer's life (Public Health Service, 1965).

Is there a need to sleep and dream? Evidence indicates that there is (Public Health Service, 1965; Dement, 1972). If sleeplessness is

prolonged, a person suffers sensory disorders, illusions of visual and tactile sensations that may eventually develop into hallucinations. There is a tendency to withdraw from activity, and become disoriented in time, place and person. The extent of the effects may be influenced by environmental factors, but psychological symptoms may be related in intensity to the mental stability of the individual (Public Health Service, 1965). Even when subjects were allowed to sleep some were deprived of their REM periods, they complained of psychological discomfort and anxiety (Public Health Service, 1965).

Peter Trip, a 32 year old disc jockey stayed awake 200 hours in a Times Square booth for the March of Dimes. After two days of staying awake he had visual illusions. After 100 hours simple daily tests that required minimal mental agility were torture to perform. After 190 hours he wasn't sure of his identity. On the last day of the vigil, when the doctor came to give him a medical exam, he thought the doctor was going to kill him (Public Health Service, 1965). It was noted that his hallucinations and strange behavior started to occur at the 90-120 minute intervals when he normally would be dreaming. This suggests a possible psychological link between the mechanisms of dreaming, psychotic symptoms and hallucinations.

Studies on Dreams and Waking

Dreams are useful in therapy and there have been some postulations as to the relationship of dreams and waking life.

Aaron Beck and Marvin Hurvich did a study in 1959 on neurotic-depressed patients to find our their dream content. It was found that these patients had a relatively high frequency of unpleasant content or effect in their dreams. Beck postulated that depressives are masochistic and make themselves recipients of criticism, rejection, and other kinds of discomfort. The research found that over one-half the dream content of depressed patients was masochistic, and only one-eighth of the normal's content was assessed this way (Beck, 1959).

Dement also cities a study where schizophrenic patients were compared to normals on dream content. Of the 60 women (30 schizophrenics, 30 normals) the dreams of schizophrenics showed more states of acute stress than those of normals (Dement, 1972). The problem with this and other studies is the problem of self report.

Another study along these lines was done by Robert Langs (1966). He used three different clinical groups in his study: paranoid schizophrenic, hysterical character disorder, and psychotic depressive reaction. He used 36 women, inpatients at the Bronx Municipal Hospital Center.

The manifest dreams of these groups reflects the manner in which

a person screens deeper impulses. The hysterical group showed poorly controlled impulses. However, they had the most interaction. The paranoid schizophrenics had poor control over aggression. The psychotic depressives had a denial of objects in their dreams. The clinical descriptions and the dream content have much similarity. This research is in contrast with Beck's in that it does not find depressives masochistic. This is probably due to the different control groups.

Ebrahim Amanant (Langs, 1966) did a study comparing inpatient and outpatient adolescents from the St. Louis State Hospital and a control group matched for age, race, level of education and socioeconomic background. The results showed relatively more constructive, friendly, themes in the inpatient group, whereas the outpatient group had more achievement, suicide, runaway and bizarre themes. The control group had more "typical themes" (Amanant, 1974, P. 160). This study is unclear as to what Amanant means by "typical" dreams. However, there seems to be a correlation between waking and dream life.

To what extent are objects seen during the day incorporated into our dreams? Rolfworg and his collegues tried to find out (Fischer, 1960 and Dement, 1972). The subjects wore red goggles all day. It was found that the subjects saw red in their dreams but also other colors (Dement, 1972)

Other similar studies done by Fischer (1960) and Vivian (1973)

tried to discover whether dreams had a tendency to pick up details of waking life. The results suggest that dreams do pick up inconsequential events during the day and the connotations of the objects really influence the supraliminal and subliminal visual presentations in the night dreams. In the Vivian (1973) study ten students from Columbia University found that there was a direct correlation on what happened in a growth group and the member's behavior in their dreams.

As these studies indicate, dreams do occur every night for everyone (Public Health Service, 1965) and this researcher postulates they must serve some function. Other theorists try to explain the function of dreams in various ways.

The Theories

If dreams are a nightly occurance and if they relate in some way to the events of daily life, then it is postulated that dreams must serve some function. A number of theories have been proffered to explain their function.

Sigmund Freud (1856-1936), one of the earliest scientists interested in dreams, set forth his basic theories in his key work The Interpretation of Dreams (1900). He believed that the unconscious mind exerts a powerful influence over the conscious one. According to Freud, the fundamental instinctual urges are repressed to become

more socially acceptable. He believed that these repressed urges are expressed in dreams but were disguised so as not to be too horrifying.

Modern research seems to dispute his idea. In a study reported by Faraday, 90% of REM dreams lack bizarreness in laboratory studies. Freud would say that they were repressed. However, in 84% of the dream reports from home situations there was more sex, aggression, misfortune, and failure (Faraday, 1972).

Freud said these disguised pictures of our unconscious mind can be interpreted by the manifest content, (the actual events of the dream) or the latent content (those repressed impulses and how they relate to childhood). Freud says the latent content is the important clue and only a trained psychoanalyst can interpret this by a process called free association. Free association consists of associating parts of a dream to whatever first comes to mind. This helps bring out the latent content (Freud, 1952). Jung argues that in this way the analyst can make the dream mean anything he wants it to (Jung, Modern Man in Search of a Soul).

Freud believed there were five different aspects of dreams: condensation, displacement, symbolic expression, revision, and repression. In condensation time is compressed; in displacement unimportant things become important in your dreams. Sometimes time and space are

displaced, also. In symbolic expression events can be seen as similes and metaphors. The metaphors themselves express something else. In revision the dreams are rearranged to be in correct order (coherence). In repression, as stated before, repressed desires are expressed.

The three types of dreams Freud recognizes are realistic (how it happens in life), wish fulfillment (desire, need), and insight (dreamer works out problem) (Freud, 1952).

Most of Freud's symbols are sexual in nature. Any long pointed object is a substitute for the penis. Female genitals are represented by pits, cavities, trunks and pockets. Sexual intercourse is represented by plowing, riding, dancing, eating a meal or climbing into anything (Faraday, 1972).

Jung disagreed that everything in dreams is sexual. His theory is more concerned with why certain symbols are in certain people's dreams. That is to say, why did the dreamer choose that particular object to symbolize sex, death, etc.? In other words, Jung was more interested in the holistic psychology - the personal experience is more important (Jung, 1933).

Carl Gustav Jung (1805-1961), was a Swiss psychologist and psychiatrist, and a disciple of Freud. After a few years, however, he developed a separate view and in 1914 formally broke away from Freud.

Jung's theory is that we solve our problems in our unconscious (Jacobi, 1962). That is, dreams act as a compensating built-in tendency to psychological health. But our dreams cannot be separated from their specific human situation. Oftentimes the dreamer has exhausted all his conscious possibilities of solving a particular conflict. To some degree our dreams are influenced by our conscious attitudes. However, our dream ego makes a decision, while our waking ego wavers. Jung says, "Consciousness cannot be trained like a parrot, but not the unconsciousness" (Jacobi, 1962, p. 39). What comes to us in our dreams is spontaneous, not contrived as in our waking life. Further research, however, indicates that dreams can be somewhat controlled (Tart, 1969). In reality the relation between the conscious mind and the dreams is causal, they interact in the subtlest ways (Jacobi, 1962).

Another concept that Jung put forth is the idea of the collective unconscious. He believed everyone has the same imprints in the structure of the brain. These basic imprints are certain kinds of phenomena like birth and death, sexual impulses and the will to survive. Man is "Possessed" by these basic imprints (See Modern Man in Search of a Soul); and certain types of symbols occur over and over. For example, white equals purity in most cultures, also the phallic symbol is prominent. Jung says that man was possessed by a

collective unconscious filled by these imprints. Of course, Jung believed in different levels of the mind - one being the collective unconscious and the other the personal stored experiences that are peculiar to the individual.

The dream, then, according to Jung, is bound up with man's essential image of himself. The dream's purpose is to express something of which the dreamer may be aware.

> Maybe the wildest dreams are but
> the needful preludes of the truth.
>
> Tennyson

Jung placed great importance on the initial dream of his client. Usually the dreams show the point where therapy should begin. It usually has anticipatory value, because going into analysis is often accompanied by emotional upheaval. The therapist can see the psychic conflicts of the individual through dreams. Oftentimes the individual process is symbolized by a voyage. The initial dreams are often clear-cut but become more obscure as time goes on. It is important that the therapist admits if he doesn't understand the dream, but the client should have some understanding.

Jung believed the therapist should have an adequate knowledge of the individual to have an appropriate understanding of the symbols. He felt that this in itself can lead to growth in therapy. Of course,

Jung dedicated his whole life to investigation and work on archetypes and symbols. He believed that it is important to stick to the dreams, but in a series so as to pick up the pattern of content. The dream contains the inherent pattern of emotional and mental behaivor (Jung, 1933). Jung recounted a story in Modern Man in Search of a Soul (1933) of a man who thought his (Jung's) dream interpretation was crazy. Jung asked, "No one doubts the importance of the conscious life, why should we doubt the unconscious?" The same unbelieving man reported this dream to Jung:

> I am climbing a high mountain over steep snow covered slopes, I mount higher and higher - it is marvelous weather. The higher I climb, the better I feel. I think: If only I could go on climbing like this forever! When I reach the summit, my happiness and elation are so strong that I feel I could mount right up into space. And I discover I can actually do this. I go on climbing on empty air. I awake in real ecstasy! (Jung, 1933, p. 15)

Jung advised the man not to go climbing alone anymore. Two months later the man went on a climb with a young friend, but no guides. A mountaineer standing below saw him literally step out into air as he was letting himself down a rock wall. He fell onto the head of his friend who was waiting beneath him and both were dashed to pieces (Jung, 1933).

Jung maintained that you can't only treat the conscious side of man, but his unconscious side as well.

Alfred Adler (1870-1937), like Jung, was also a disciple of Freud.

However, he too disliked Freud's emphasis on sexuality and developed an Individual Psychology. In this, he believed people were goal-oriented seeking personal perfection and wholeness. Through dreams Adler felt a person could better understand his aggressive impulses and desire for fulfillment. He believed that sleeping and waking thoughts are not totally incompatible. He believed in working through waking problems with the use of dreams. His view was to help people fit their views of themselves in an acceptable social form (Tart, 1969). He believed the life pattern continues in dreams where the ego struggles for a sense of worth. Usually dreams are searching for a solution to a problem (Adler, 1949).

Calvin Hall, a twentieth century researcher, agreed with Jung and Adler that dreams reveal something about the dreamer's present life. Hall did a huge research project on dream content analysis of 10,000 dreams using subjects of ages eight to eighty of all races and nationalities (Faraday, 1972). He obtained information about what people of different sex, age, and occupation dream about. Hall found that four out of ten characters in our dreams are strangers. We will not dream about someone we have mixed feelings about (if we do they relate to some aspect of ourselves). We dream about people who are associated with our personal conflicts (Hall, 1953). The people in our dreams are likely the people dreaming about us. Men

dream more about men. This may mean that men have more unsettled relations with other men. Women dream equally about both sexes.

People rarely dream about work, more often the settings are more recreational; rooms in houses are the most popular setting.

According to Hall, dreams tell us about the dreamer's perceptions of others (not necessarily how they really are) and their perceptions of themselves. The dreamer creates the dreams; nothing appears in a dream that the dreamer doesn't put there himself/herself. Hall says dreams are an organic whole; they should not be interpreted separately, but rather in a series.

Dreams tell us the dreamer's conception of the world. We can tell how we conceive our impulses, with whom, and what penalties will be inflicted on us if we fulfill our desires (Hall, 1953). The basic conflicts worked out in our dreams are: freedom vs. security, right vs. wrong, masculinity vs. feminity, life vs. death, and final love and hate in parent child relationships (Faraday, 1972).

In these major conflicts oftentimes the basic impulses of sex and aggression appear. According to Hall (1953), "Dreams reveal what the dreamer thinks about these basic forces (sex and aggression), how he proposes to handle them, toward whom they are directed and what consequences the dreamer expects to suffer from expressing them" (Hall, 1953, p. 48).

Males prefer physical while females prefer verbal aggression in their dreams. The mother is the chief enemy of the woman and the father the man. Male dreamers choose male opponents and females opponents are divided equally between both sexes. There is usually more aggression involving strangers (Hall, 1953).

These aggressive dreams are a misfortune because the dreamer 'created' the dream. The dreamer is representing self-punishment perhaps because he/she feels guilty. In Hall's study it was found that aggressive acts and negative emotions such as apprehension, anger and sadness outnumbered friendly and positive happy emotions. Perhaps positive dreams are rare because they don't provide the brain with energy and tension (Hall, 1953). According to Hall, the unconscious exercises a considerable selective influence on one's behavior. He believes investigation of the relationship of dreams to waking behavior are sorely needed. "Dreams are not mysterious supernatural or esoteric phenomena. They are pictures of what the mind is thinking" (Hall, 1953, p. 85).

Fritz Perls, existential psychologist, used dreams in therapy. He said that dreams are existential messages which tell us exactly where we are in relation to ourselves and to the world at the present time. Through dreams we get the opportunity to reclaim lost parts of our personality and become whole. His method was to retell the dream

in the here and now and work the dream out consciously. He considered it useful to role play different parts of the dream in order to understand the existential message. In Gesalt therapy the therapist could ask the client to exaggerate parts of the dream that seem important. Sometimes the therapist asks the client to repeat a sentence that he/she feels is important for the client to try out. Perls recounts a session, "A patient dreams he is leaving my office and goes to Central Park. He goes across the bridle path, into the park. So I ask him, 'Now play the bridle path.' He answers indignantly, 'What? and let everybody shit and crap on me?' You see, he really got the identification" (Polster, 1973, p. 266).

Freud called dreams 'the royal road to the unconscious', whereas Perls called them the 'royal road to integration'. The more the therapist refrains from telling the client what the dream means, the more chance the client has to discover himself and not be misled by the therapist's concepts and projections. Perls never interpreted dreams; his clients did. "Everything is there, we find all we need in dreams, understanding the dreams means realizing when you are avoiding the obvious" (Patterson, 1973, p. 358).

The first real facts about encounter groups was done by Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles in their book Encounter Groups: First Facts. In this book seventeen encounter groups were tested to find out about

what "works". The two groups that indicated the use of dreamwork were #12 Eclectric Marathon group and #3 Gesalt therapy. Both of these groups (#3 and #12) showed high social benefit, above average growth and high interpersonal involvement (Lieberman, 1973).

Dreamwork has been found to be useful in group analysis (Lieberman, 1973; Gold, 1973; Whitman, 1973). It provides tangible communication for acting out and captures relationships between people accurately. According to Fritz Perls (Patterson, 1973), dreams 'tell it like it is'. The analysis starts with 'I want to tell my dream' to 'I am my dream'. All the clients are affectively involved. The group becomes a whole, even to the point where 'group dreams' express the state of the whole group. The relationship of individual and self is expressed. Moreno uses psychodrama to act out dreams involving the whole group. This approach offers effective behavior modification for a large number of people and provides a route to social interaction as well as potential methods for change (Patterson, 1973).

The life style of the Senoi of Malaya would give strong support to the notion that dreams influence waking life (Tart, 1969). This group, found on the central range of Malaya by Kilton Stewart, claims no violent crimes, mental illness or intercommunal conflict for a period of two to three hundred years. The absence of these

misfortunes are due to their psychological integration and emotional maturity, along with attitudes that promote creative rather than destructive personal relations (Tart, 1953). Most of their success was thought to be related to their method of actively interpreting and using their dreams. Breakfast in Senoi is like a dream clinic according to Kilton Stewart (Tart, 1953). The Senoi believe that dream images are part of the personality and consist of psychic forces disguised in external forms. Children are taught that hostile spirits in dreams are to be encountered and attacked. These spirits in dreams then become their friendly allies. Dream characters are only bad as long as they are feared. Over a period of time anxiety dreams become dreams of joy. Senoi children are told to change their falling dreams to flying dreams. When they commit aggressive acts to a friend they go out of their way to be friendly to them and work things out (Tart, 1953).

SUMMARY FOR DREAMS

Dreams, then, have been shown to be useful in therapy, useful for the individual to help integrate parts of himself to his environment. The potential for dreamwork seems infinite at this point, although more research needs to be done on this subject. In closing, Lao Tzuz remarks about Toas (the dream).

As a thing the Toas is shadow
Indistinct,
Indistinct, and shadowy, yet within
It is an image,
Shadowy and indistinct, yet where
It is a substance
Dim and Dark yet within it is an essence
This essence is quite genuine
And within it is something that
Can be tested

Lao tzuz (Whitman, 1973, p. 408)

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY - THE THEORIES

Over and over again authors have written that there is no one answer to juvenile delinquency (Nevada Papers, 1964). It seems only logical, then, that there is also no one theory that will explain delinquency. Yet, one must try to define some of these theoretical viewpoints to find a footing in the waves of research done on delinquency. The sociological, psychological, and biological viewpoints seem quite meshed in the literature.

Sociological Theories

Society, according to the sociologist, is to blame for delinquency. These authors say delinquency doesn't exist in a vacuum; it originates in the community. We have created the youth. The four prevailing attitudes are: (1) the youth is reacting to a cold, affluent society that is devoid of close personal relationships, (2) the teenagers want to realize middle class values, but there is no way to reach these goals, (3) delinquency is a way of life, (4) the

public is not willing to 'give up' delinquency (Thornburg, 1971 p. 237).

According to Raphael and Wolf (1974, p. 5), "Young people are reacting to a society that has devalued human relations, that has subordinated them to acquisitiveness and competition that has resulted in affluence and loneliness."

These youth are searching for love, understanding, friendship, independence, adventure and fulfillment that they aren't finding in a growing industrial society. They are responding to a changing world after the bomb, women's rights and the sexual revolution. Increased mobility with the consequent disruption of well established cultural and family ties, plus increased population has caused many problems.

All these different developments in society aggravate delinquency Delinquent acts tripled between 1950-1962. Efforts to combat this in 1969 had little effect. Vandalism and drug use are on the increase. Right now 12% of all cildren and 22% of the boys will become juvenile delinquents. As the population increases, delinquency increases (Conger, 1965).

According to Kvaraceus, if the public were willing to 'give up' delinquency, prevention could be reached. He maintained that most middle class citizens live staid lives and get titilated by teenage sex orgies, etc. (Kvaraceus, 1971).

Hollywood also exploits the delinquency. Pornographic outlets, the crime-comic publishing houses, the prostitution rackets and the drug channels are not run by teenage monsters, but by 'responsible' (?!) adults (Thornburg, 1971). According to Kvaraceus what we need is cultural reconstruction. The adults are as much to blame, in this point of view. Marx sees the criminal as doing the public a service. "The criminal produces an impression now moral, now tragic and hence renders a 'service' by arousing the moral and aesthetic sentiments of the public" (Coser, 1967). The criminal, then, shows the public what not to do.

Many authors feel that delinquency is a form of aggression against society (Conger, 1966; Coser, 1967; Rosenberg, 1969). The adolescents are oriented toward culturally higher positions, yet lack access to them. There is no means to get "big cars, flashy clothes, and swell dames" through normal routes (Conger, 1966). Delinquency is the only viable alternative.

> Seize upon the manipulation of violence as a route to status, not only because it provides a way of expressing pent up anger and frustrations but also because they are cut off from access to violent means by vicissitudes of birth in the world of violence, such attributes as race, socioeconomic position, age, and the like are irrelevant . . . The acquisition of status is not simply a consequence of skill in the use of violence or the physical strength, but depends on the physical strength, but depends rather on one's willingness to risk injury or death in search for a "rep". (Coser, 1967, p. 78)

A gun is an effective equalizer in the road to achievement. It is a means where social status can be achieved - when there is no other way. Human beings only resort to violence under extremely frustrating, ego-damaging, and anxiety producing conditions (Coser, 1967). For them, there is no other way to measure up, it is a way to cope. There seem to be two types of delinquents: (1) the middle class and upper class delinquents that want a change from the adult world, (2) the lower economic level. Each has a different pattern of delinquency (Kratcoski, Kratcoski).

For some, delinquency is a natural part of growing up in a post industrial society. It is an approved tradition. These teenagers get quick rewards for their actions. It is a way to keep up with the norms of their groups. Younger boys will look up to their friends who commit delinquent acts and say, "I know that guy. He knows enough. He can really steal" (Rosenberg, 1969, p. 105).

Although most research indicates that the largest number of delinquents come from deteriorated neighborhoods, official records do not support the 'culture of poverty theory' (Rosenberg, 1969; Matzda, 1964; Thornburg, 1971). Not all are motivated by status discontent. Once gangs are formed, others join for fun, fellowship, and protection (Beck, 1966).

In the upper and middle class, boys commit delinquent acts for

'kicks' as part of their social life. Adolescents are more concerned about impressing their peers than anyone else. They think that if the crowd is so loud, they must be right. They value adventure and courage. The delinquency in the upper and middle class is more often theft, driving without a license, drunkenness, whereas from one lower class if more violent crimes are reported - these fall within the norms of their status. In the upper and middle class, social functions are encouraged. Parents often encourage their children to be "popular" with their peer group. But often the parents reality doesn't fit in the adolescent world and they haven't taught their children the norms of society. The delinquents on the right side of the track is evidence of a working delinquent who sees the essential phoniness of the articulated values of society (Beck, 1966).

A study done by Rosenberg emphasized that nothing exists in a social vacuum. We need to describe the particular community. This allows us to describe poverty, family, religion, peculiarities in the area showing us a phenomological understanding. Rosenberg says, "If men describe their situations as real, they are real in their circumstances" (Rosenberg, 1969, p. 20). Thus, it is important to describe the youth in their vision.

The three cities used in Rosenberg's study were Chicago, New York, and Washington, D.C. In all these three areas the target

population was from "the street". These delinquents rarely left their small circle of associates and lived in slum-like conditions.

Over 50% of the target group had an annual income less than $3,000. One-third had public assistance. There were both positive and negative attitudes toward the neighborhood by its residence. Although the conditions were bad, the localism gave them a sense of community.

Joy rides, petty theft and some stealing were pretty universal for those in the target group.

According to Rosenberg these young people are socialized to be good or bad. Some don't have any idea of society's labeling. Others fulfill society's expectations. The girls are more aware of the moral facade and disobey the 'good girl' image. It's very important to some whether or not they are branded as delinquent. Those who have escaped arrest overwhelmingly define themselves as "pretty good, just like everybody" (Rosenberg, 1969, p. 147).

Delinquency <u>is</u> a problem of society. Or is society a problem of delinquency? Too often delinquents are so negatively labeled because of a few extreme cases. The justice system seems a little one sided when upper class whites' boys rarely go to courts, while negro or Spanish boys are often put away. Perhaps this is the reality of the invisible American sickness (Raphael, 1974).

Many writers who deal with the sociological point of view indicate that the inadequate family support and the lack of male or female models as causes for delinquency. How, asked Beck, can we expect parents to provide guidance when they themselves are socially and psychologically deprived? Many times they are the social shut-outs of rural and urban slums (Beck, 1960). According to the study done in the book, 400 Losers (Albstrom and Havingburst, 1971), the parents interviewed didn't believe their kids would have a life any better than theirs. They just hoped they'd find jobs and stay out of trouble. One-third of the parents interviewed in this study had a positive attitude towards their kids. One-third of the parents had been arrested. Fifty-seven percent of the 400 "losers" interviewed had experienced changes in the family structure (Albstrom and Havingburst, 1971).

There is a statistical relationship between broken homes and maladaption. One-third of these boys lived in homes marked by tension and conflict or indifference. The more family cohesiveness, the better the adjustment. There also was a tendency for the children to have lower maladaptive behavior the lower the working status of the father. The quality rather than the presence or absence of two parents in the home was found to be important. Of these 400 boys interviewed, six years later ten were dead by violence, thirty were

knifed or shot, sixty-four were in prison, and two hundred thirty eight had felony arrests (Albstrom and Havingburst, 1971).

Delinquency, seems then, sometimes to be the unhappy consequence of a broken home (Raphael, 1974). Many times a child seems to him an unfortunate consequence of sex. Sometimes the couple can't afford a child. The father resents the child and says that the kid won't amount to anything (Conger, 1966). Often the child hears this so often he does become a failure. Tension in the home sometimes leads to divorce (Conger, 1966; Morris, 1964). Usually, the child stays with the mother. If the child is male there is a much greater likelihood he'll become delinquent (five times more likely) (Morris, 1964). Some authors feel this is because of the males' rebellion agsinst the famale authority (Kratcoski, Kratcoski). Through delinquency he can prove his manliness through the status goals of money, power and prestige (Morris, 1964). Usually the boy has had a lack of a good male model, or if he has one, he usually is a failure. When things get rough at home, boys can always leave. Girls on the other hand, tend to tolerate a situation as long as possible (Morris, 1964). According to Kratcoski and Kratcoski (1950) there are four factors that cause female juvenile delinquency: (1) a dramatic onset of puberty, (2) complex identification process, (3) the changing cultural position of women, (4) faceless adult authority and the

resulting loneliness. Female delinquency is usually "sex" delinquency, but violent crimes increased 22% from 1970-1971, perhaps due to women's liberation! Still 50% of all sex offenses are committed by females, whereas only 25% are committed by males (Morris, 1964). Types of offenses are expressions of each sex role. Girls become involved in illicit relationships as a primary concern for "relational" goals. A broken home hinders a girl in reaching these goals. In the first place, she has no model for good relationships, and secondly, it's hard to maintain a relationship with family tensions. Females, however, have more legitimate means to reach their culturally defined roles than boys.

The problem of poverty and broken homes too have affected the children. But, what has caused children from good middle class homes to leave and face the street? Perhaps it's the absence of affection in a sea of material goods (Raphael, 1974). Perhaps it's the adventure, a time to search for a caring community of people. The numbers of runaways is on an increase. During the year of 1973 in New York City alone there were 14,171 runaways under the age of 18 (Raphael, 1974).

Glueck and Glueck (1960) developed a prediction scale for identifying potential delinquents. The device is approaching validation. The target group was 500 persistant delinquents matched with

a control group, both from depressed areas of Boston. The five family factors this scale measures are (1) affection of mother for boy, (2) affection of father by boy, (3) discipline of boy by father, (4) supervision of boy by mother, (5) family cohesiveness. Half of the delinquents showed overt anti-social behavior before age eight, 90% before age 10. In a study done by Black and Glueck in 1952 (1960) of 100 delinquent boys, in nine out of ten instances the offenders would have been correctly identified at age six as potentially persistent offenders.

What are our social institutions doing to help or hinder our children? In particular how are schools preparing our children? According to William Glasser (1969), noted therapist, schools are designed for failure. Educators are failing to provide them with necessary skills to function adequately in the social environment of the classroom. Because our society is so success-oriented, some of us must fail. The result is the total lack of confidence in self and in ability to improve the situation. Poverty, while important, isn't the overwhelming obstacle. Racial discrimination and job opportunities contribute marketedly. But, according to Glasser, unless we can provide schools where children can succeed with a reasonable use of their capacities, we will do little to solve major problems of our society.

What kinds of kids are failing in our schools? Are they only from the lower socioeconomic sectors? No, many are delinquents but don't "look" the stereotype (Glasser, 1969). William Glasser described the kinds of girls he encounters at the Ventura School for Girls in California.

> These girls had all been in trouble with the law. The juvenile offense they had committed was incorrigibility. This means they may have refused to obey their parents, the local school authorities, or the local juvenile curfew ordinance. They had, for example, stayed out all night, associated with people their parents disapproved, cut school, dabbled in illegal drugs, alcohol, and sex (Glasser, 1969, p. 2).

The girls Glasser described did not have the classical sociological trapping of failure. They were attractive caucasians from the middle class. Most had above average intelligence. They had one thing in common: they were all miserable and lacked confidence. They all said they would go through the motions of school, but had little hope of learning anything (Glasser, 1969). In Rosenberg's (see Rosenberg, p. 8) study the random sample of delinquents were asked about their attitudes towards school. Most said the school was depressingly familiar and terribly inadequate. One or two teachers were rated as good. The rest of the time the kids were bored. One teenage boy described his feelings toward the subject. He said, "It's not a school, it's a prison." Many were apathetic. They couldn't remember a time when they didn't play hookey (Rosenberg, 1969).

Almost the only way to succeed in America today is to begin with a valid diploma. Those who fail provide a reservoir of people to populate our jails, mental hospitals, and welfare roles. Educational failures are rarely patched up by welfare workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, prisons or mental hospitals (Glasser, 1969). According to the Coleman Report, "It is for the most disadvantaged children that improvement in school will make the most difference in achievement" (Glasser, 1969, p. 11).

Glasser identified two types of failure: "(1) failure to love, (2) failure to achieve self-worth. Love and self-worth are two pathways to successful identity" (Glasser, 1969, p. 14). If a person cannot develop an identity through these two pathways, they attempt other pathways like delinquency and withdrawal. This leads to failure. When children feel unwanted, unloved, and no self-worth, they are in a desperate position. If home isn't providing these things they try to find it in the community by joining others who have feelings of self-worth. When they can't find love or self-worth they react against a society which is depriving them a chance to fulfill their needs. They become hostile and aggressive and try to gain their needs forcefully.

These kids must find at school what they lack at home - good relationships with people. Those that fail in our society are lonely

but the pathways to success are closed. The schools are in a unique position to eliminate or at least greatly reduce this loneliness.

These lonely kids look to their peers for a community. Many times when they reach high school, they still haven't acquired basic mental skills. In the study, 400 Losers, one-half were reading at the fifth grade level when they entered junior high school (Albstrom and Havinghurst, 1971). Some had just given up by then.

They have reached the leveling ground in high school. They are now in the mainstream of peer culture. In most cases their peers were more important than their parents. Usually these delinquents are not in extracurricular activities. They are more concerned with immediate gratification. Characteristically the peer group is restless and figity. Their language is full of obscenity and profanity. They think nothing of stealing from the establishment (Nevada Papers, 1964). They desire excitement and do law defying acts like joyrides and raiding (Thornburg, 1971). They want "cool" clothes - another way to build up status (Rosenberg, 1965). The subculture norms are strictly adhered to (Thornburg, 1971). Usually this subculture is the opposition to the mainstream of society. Only then do they feel that they're in control of their own lives (Raphael, 1974).

Biological Viewpoints

Thornburg argued that all the generalized theories on delinquency

have thus far yielded barren results (Thornburg, 1971). He explained delinquency in terms of a biosocial science, the interaction of the organism and the environment. The major problem of delinquents is their lack of maturity (Thornburg, 1971). Maturity is the physical, intellectual and affective capacity to integrate the demands and restrictions of life in an organized society. Usually in adulthood the consolidation of mental and physical attributes aid in development of self-control and foresight (Thornburg, 1971). Some authors feel that a child will never mature unless his parents do. Thornburg has argued that some delinquents differ in innate biological equipment and organization, while others become delinquents due to the external environment. Those who are delinquent due to environment usually adjust at 20-30 years old, but those that have innate abnormalities continue the delinquent pattern (Thornburg, 1971).

Psychological Viewpoint

While Thornburg emphasizes the biological factors influencing delinquency, other authors look at it in terms of psychological theory (Lorenz, 1966; Thornburg, 1971; Lorand, 1964). Behavior is organized in Freudian terms by looking at childhood patterns (Freud, 1952). In a conference on delinquency given in Nevada, one speaker, Wooten, disagreed with this attitude. He said, "We prefer today to analyze the inflicted rather then eliminate the infection from the environment"

(Nevada Papers, 1964). The community views delinquency as a 'psychological maladjustment' or negative behavior carried on by a subculture.

Rage seems to be a dominant personality trait of these individuals (Lorenz, 1966). Freud said that the deprivation of social contact is among the factors causing aggression. However, the idea that if the kids were deprived of disappointment they would grow up less neurotic or aggressive was proven wrong in the 1960's. These kids were confronted with an unsympathetic public opinion in college (Lorenz, 1966).

Delinquents on the whole are impulsive, full of self-pity, moody, guilty, lonely, less capable of being objective, day dream alot, are poorly prepared to belong, many times overtly dependent, and less well liked. Some reasons for this behavior may be (1) careless or inadequate behavior by mother, (2) erratic or overstrict behavior, (3) split family unit (Conger, 1966). Erik Erikson believed that we are taught in early childhood what is good and what is bad. Many times children are not raised by clearly defined moral tenets (Thornburg, 1971). According to Erikson the earliest experience is trust versus mistrust. Delinquents tend to mistrust. The ego is developed unevenly. The child averts tension and avoids pain by control rather than mastery over the environment. He must prove the environment has no control over him. He is trying desperately to avert his strong dependency

and helplessness. His major conflict, then, is the conflict with the outside world. The same factors causing delinquency are: (1) onset of puberty, (2) environment of hyperstimulation of violent aggression or sex, and (3) the young person is unable to cope. It is a conscious drive for independence versus the need for dependence (Lorand, 1964).

The adolescent girl also has incomplete ego development. She is usually self-centered, has poor control of impulses, and has difficulty in benifitting from past experiences. She usually has a low or low tolerance for anxiety. She usually is afraid to give up a chance of excitement for what seems to her, a slim possibility of finding love.

Goals and Values

What are some of the goals of these youth? In the study, 400 Losers, 26% expressed no aspirations (Albstrom and Havingburst, 1971). There was a general indifference towards the world, 13% had unrealistic goals. Over half of the boys wanted careers in athletics, and 41% had realistic aspirations. They only had moderate ambitions. Only 23% aspired to working class careers. The range of employment was narrow and their reason for not finding a job was their own inadequacies (Albstrom and Havingburst, 1971).

What are some of the values of the youth? Their own life experience has shown them that the value system is not operative in the real life and the goals are not attainable (Beck, 1960). Oftentimes

their social goals are unclear. In their vision, what they are others are too. Seventy-six percent of the delinquents interviewed in 400 Losers thought that growing up was a difficult or negative experience (Albstrom and Havingburst, 1971).

TREATMENTS

Delinquency is a fact of American society. As has been shown, there are a multitude of theories to account for it.

Community Treatment

In all therapies the needs of the teenagers must be assessed. It is particularly important to see their point of view, since oftentimes they percieve themselves as misunderstood. Especially important for psychoanalysts is the use of dreams. They report that dreams of delinquents deal with home, parents, siblings, early childhood, abandonment anxieties, and sadomasochistic tendencies (Lorand, 1964). According to Kvaraceus (1971), the goals to treat delinquency will be reached better if: (1) the public is willing to 'give up' delinquency, (2) the delinquent targets are better defined and differentiated, (3) the community attitude is positive and not exclusive, (4) planning proceeds from a base of knowledge and facts, (5) youth are involved in youth problems, (6) early identification of delinquents can be followed by systematic referral for help, (7) agency aims are clearly enunciated and activities evaluated, (8) local resources can

effectively coordinated. An informed and interested citizenry is a prerequisite for any social planning (Nevada Papers, 1964).

Right now, there is a definite lack of cooperation within agencies (Nevada Papers, 1964). A help would be to systematically review their goals and purposes.

It's true researchers advocate prevention rather than treatment; but how is that done? Many suggest child health programs, family life education, day care, child health services, family counseling and youth character programs would help if they are geared toward the target group (Nevada Papers, 1964).

Getting the youth involved seems very important. Right now the youth are powerless in an adult society. Some suggestions are: (1) youth need to feel part of their immediate social world, (2) society could use their intelligence, initiative, and growing maturity in solving problems, (3) youth could learn that others count, (4) communication is needed within the urbanized bureaucratic society, (5) need adult leadership to give guidance, people who are sensitive to community and self-direction (Thornburg, 1971).

When adults and youth have a two-way communication with clear aims, coordination of community resources could be achieved (Thornburg, 1971).

'Get Tough' Philosophy

Another method used to deal with delinquency is the 'get tough' philosophy. This is the old cops and robbers routine where there's a two way hostility. Starting in 1958 someone had one great solution: publish the kids' names in the newspaper. It was a bad mistake according to speakers at the Nevada Conference (1964).

1958 - 7,358

1959 - 8,066

delinquent crime cases

1960 - 9,025

1961 - 9,557

There was an increase in delinquency using published names.

> Punishment works best on those who need it least, but has little if any beneficial effect on those disordered personalities to which it is most often directed (Nevada Papers, 1964, p. 3).

The 'get tough' philosophy of punishment for punishment's sake, is more likely to make the offender a confirmed delinquent than it is to reform him (Nevada Papers, 1964). Sometimes the arrest itself or the paper article are tokens of status for the offender. Using these methods may stop the delinquent from ever becoming an accepted member of the community.

Simple solutions rarely solve complex problems. The public could accept their share of the responsibility and follow this motto, "Suffer little children, and forbid them not, to come unto me" (Nevada Papers, 1964).

Parole Officer's Role

Perhaps what we need is not to load down our parole officers with so many caseloads and to give them a decent salary for their work (Arnold, 1970). Their role is to prevent their parolees from returning to crime. Psychoanalysts claim that many can only learn to change his behavior when he isn't defending it (Arnold, 1970).

The relationship of the parolee and parole officer is oftentimes a superordinate, subordinate relationship. The parolee often is still under criminal influences and needs a more positive relationship (Arnold, 1970).

As the following statistics show, the parole officer doesn't spend much time actually with the parolee:

30% of the time personal contacts

3% of the time phone contacts

24% of the time traveling

24% of the time on records

18% of the time other activities

(Arnold, 1970, p. 43)

A very small amount of time is spent in the environment of the delinquent. A total of 49 minutes per month is spent with the

delinquent. More time to relate one to one to the parolee is needed. Using the parolees' peers and parents in group counseling is very helpful. Alternatives to crime could be pointed out. Parolees themselves and their peers are important for recovery (Arnold, 1970). The social class of parolee and parole officer are often very different making it hard to relate. In a study done by Glasser (1969) the question was asked of parolees, "Who helped you the most?" Fifty-four percent said their work supervisors, 9% said their caseworker, psychologist, or psychiatrist were the most help (Glasser, 1964, p.24).

Schools: A Source For Treatment

How can the public schools help? As Glasser points out (1969), they don't seem to be helping now.

What can educators do? Teachers could try to form relationships with their students. More emphasis could be placed on learning rather than success. According to Glasser when a child makes a value judgement and a commitment to change, no excuse should be accepted for not following through. The student can evaluate his own behavior. Teachers could be warm and personal. When students learn to fulfill a commitment they gain maturity, respect and a successful identity (Glasser, 1969). The teachers, then, would in essence teach self-worth.

Right now, upon entering kindergarten, a child realizes he can

cope with the world if he uses his brain (Glasser, 1969). Upon entering school he realizes that rather than relating his interest he must memorize facts. Smart children soon learn that what's important in school, isn't important otherwise. Glasser says we must change and teach for relevance. Ideas and issues are important. We could deal with the important issues of the students. Learning by doing has been proven effective in academic growth (Glasser, 1969). Personalized courses help the student realize he is important.

Reality Therapy

William Glasser (1969) has taught reality therapy to the teachers in a few school systems in California. Loneliness can be overcome by a teacher or therapist, a successful person, who has become involved with the lonely person. He believes people can succeed if they are involved with a responsible person. To help a presently failing child succeed, Glasser would make a value judgement on what the person is doing now to contribute to his/her failure. In reality therapy, the student is asked to select a better course of behavior. If the student makes the decision, he has the responsibility. This teaches commitment. Again, no excuses can be accepted (Glasser, 1969). Reality therapy is one kind of therapy that has been shown to be effective with juvenile delinquents.

Individual and Group Therapy

It's particularly important to see the delinquent's point of view. Oftentimes they perceive themselves as misunderstood. Experience with 'significant others' is also important.

Especially important in psychoanalysis is the use of dreams. Nearly all these dreams deal with home, parents, siblings, early childhood, abandonment anxieties and sadomasochistic tendencies (Lorand, 1964).

A method particularly successful in working with adolescents is the use of group interaction. According to Keller (1970), "basic changes in character simply are not brought about through individual therapy." Delinquency has been shown to be a large group problem and therefore group therapy is appropriate. Parents and peers are helpful in a group. The group usually greatly influences the members. Most delinquents are aware of the goals of society but are torn between the conventional and criminal norms. Activity, interaction, sentiment and norms help the group process (Keller, 1970).

The delinquent needs motivation to change his criminal norms. Some of these may be, (1) fear of going to court, (2) positive strokes for a job well done, (3) awareness of acceptable standards. Through a group, the member may move away from old modes of behavior (Keller, 1970).

In a small group (ideal size 8-10 members) the members are encouraged not to rationalize their responsibility. Blaming parents, environment, and companions simply aren't accepted. They are pressured to tell the truth. The group reinforce therepeutic goals. Competition from two groups often results in high involvement (Keller, 1970).

The leader is an adult that can be trusted (Keller, 1970). Tension within the group leads to change so it's desirable. Constant interaction is also important, because delinquents are often self-centered. A big problem with these kids is lack of empathy. It's hard for them to believe their peers really care about them. The group provides support and mutual concern (Keller, 1970).

The group helps the teenagers to better prepare to face life. It helps in showing them adults and peers can be caring and supportive plus aid in change.

Research has shown that the first two to three months out of institutions is critical (Arnold, 1970). With the use of therapy and groups the transition may be easier and more successful.

SUMMARY FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The three theoretical viewpoints on delinquency were reviewed: sociological, biological and psychological.

In the sociological viewpoint, society is to blame for delinquency. The community is responsible. The school systems teach failure. The

public opinion supports delinquency, through the mass media, prostitution outlets and drug rackets. Teenagers are reacting to cold, affluent society devoid of close relationships. The American family is an abolished tradition. Teenagers want to realize middleclass values, but there is no access to these. Delinquency has become, to many, a way of life.

The biological viewpoint is that delinquency is a result of the interaction of the environment and the organism. Some delinquents differ in innate biological equipment, others lack maturity.

In the psychological point of view the behavior is analyzed and some using Freudian thought refer back to the childhood. Others role play parts of the dream and some simply role play the dream content. There is a conscious drive for independence versus the need for dependence.

The goals and values of these youth are reviewed: Most have realistic goals, with moderate ambitions. Their own life experience has shown that the value system of society is not operative in real life.

The treatments reviewed to treat delinquency are: the community approach, the 'get tough' philosophy, the parole officer's roles, reality therapy in schools, and individual and group therapy. The use of dreams in psychoanalyses was noted as important. Dream content

analysis, which has been used in this research, leads to a deeper understanding of the delinquent.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will be organized according to the following headings:

1. Introduction.
2. Population Description and Sampling Procedures.
3. Definition of Categories.
4. Method of Collecting Data.
5. Method of Organizing Data.
6. Statistical Hypothesis.
7. Analysis of Data.
    a. Description.
    b. Testing Hypothesis
8. Precautions Taken for Accuracy.
9. Summary of Chapter.

POPULATION DESCRIPTION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Female juvenile delinquents residing at the Mountain View School in Helena during the months of April and May of 1977 were used in this study. These girls range in age from 16 to 17 years old. The director of the home was contacted and asked for volunteers from Mountain View. Upon requesting volunteers, the researcher: (a) assured all involved of the confidentiality (the use of code numbers), (b) gave the results to all participants who were interested, (c) emphasized the small

amount of time needed by each subject to write down their dreams.

The control group consisted of an equal number of junior girls from Belgrade High School who were selected by a systematic random sampling. This random sample was obtained by determining the proportion of the sample to the population (1:3) and then picking every third name from the class list.

DEFINITION OF CATEGORIES

Calvin Hall's and Dr. Van de Castle's scales provide a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest dream content (Hall and Van de Castle, 1966). They are useful because they provide: (a) objectivity and reproducibility, (b) susceptibility to measurement and quantification, and (c) generalizability (Hall and Van de Castle, 1966).

These scales are set up in categories according to an empirical system. That is, one derived from the verbal material itself. A large body of verbal material is compressed into relatively few categories. These categories are clearly defined. There is a high degree of agreement between scorers as to what should be included within each category and what should be excluded (Hall and Van de Castle, 1966).

The scales are a standard, comprehensive, and reliable classification system which yields scores, frequencies, rates, proportions,

or other numerical expressions and indices. Some of the suggestions for their use are particularily relevant for this study:

1. The dreams of people differing in age, sex, ethnic group, patnology or any other discriminate attribute may be compared for content classes and the significance of the obtained differences may be statistically evaluated.

2. The respects in which dreams give the same or different information about personality.

3. The extent the behavior of the dreamer in the dream corresponds to his behavior in waking life (Hall and Van de Castle, 1966).

No class of items which are represented frequently in dreams was omitted. Van de Castle and Hall attempted to include categories which would possess psychological significance. These aspects of personality would appear in most any theoretical position. Categories and scales used in this study were:

1. Settings and objects.
2. Aggressive, friendly and sexual interacters.
3. Characters.
4. Activities.
5. Success, failure, misfortune and good fortune.
6. Emotions.
7. Modifiers.

8. Temporal.

9. Regression.

Setting - The dream can be likened to a play complete with settings, characters, and action. This category is concerned with where the dream takes place.

Two of the basic categories are: indoor and outdoor.

Indoor (I) - The dreamer is within a building. Open air buildings such as amphitheaters and stadiums are scored as indoor settings.

Outdoor (O) - Some of the places included in this category are the beach, woods, streets, sidewalks and in a car, train, boat or airplane, unless the car is in a garage or the plane is in a hanger.

Ambiguous (A) - Can not tell if indoor or outdoor.

No Setting (NS) - Another section of setting is the degree of familiarity the dreamer has with the setting.

Familiar Setting (F) - it is quite clear the setting is a personally familiar one like the Empire State Building, Mount Everest, etc.

Distorted Setting (D) - Familiar settings which dreamer indicates involve an element of peculiarity or incongruity (surroundings not character).

Geographical Settings (G) - For example, Europe or San Fransisco. If the dreamer also indicates the setting is a personally familiar one (F) scoring precedes the (G) scoring.

Unfamiliar Settings (U) - A setting which is not known to dreamer; a vague description: for example 'I was in some house.' If the scorer can answer yes to the questions 'Does the description of the setting strongly suggest that the dreamer has not actually been at the setting?', this suggests that the setting is unfamiliar (U).

Socring will not always be (U) if the dreamer has never been there. (F) is used if the location is a specific famous place. (G) is used if the setting is specific location. (D) is used if the setting is an incongruous one.

Questionable Settings (Q) - insufficient information.

Determining the Number of Settings

1. In order for a setting to be scored, the dreamer must appear as the observer of the setting. Do not score settings which other characters are located unless the dreamer appears as an observer in the same place.

2. All locations within a single building are scored as a single indoor setting.

3. If any type of scorable intervening setting occurs, the same indoor location may be scored more than once.

4. Outdoor settings scored separately if involving clearly defined regions. Larger regions are scored as one single overall outdoor setting.

5. Any intervening location (which is the same) can be scored twice.

6. Action must take place in new setting.

Objects ("props") - An object is a thing that has tangibility, palpability and dimensionability. Intangibles such as air, wind, fog, and sounds are execluded. Locations such as cities, streets, rooms, lakes, have physical boundaries, so they are objects.

There are twelve categories of objects.

Architecture - Buildings or structures and component parts containing seven subclasses:

Residential (AR) - Buildings and units of buildings, residential includes hallways and stairways as well as levels within a residential building, for example second floor and downstairs.

Vocational (AV) - Building and rooms devoted mainly to business transactions.

Entertainment (AE) - Room for recreation, entertainment, sports and pleasure.

Institutional (AI) - Collective action in dealing with social or government problems.

Details (AD) - Parts of rooms or smaller units not usually regarded as separate rooms. Examples are door, window, wall, fireplace, steps and floor.

Building Materials (AB) - Examples are boards, bricks, etc.

Miscellaneous (AM) - These objects cannot be classified otherwise. Examples are tower and dam.

Household (HH) - Objects encountered in household setting. Examples are furniture, chair, bed, sheet, silverware, etc.

Food (FO) - Food and drink.

Implements - Tools (IT), weapons (IW), and recreation (IR), examples: baseball bat, musical instruments. etc.

Travel (TR) - Examples: car, truck, bus, etc. Also places associated with travel: bus depot, train station, etc.

Streets (ST) - Examples: street, road, path, intersection, bridge and train tracks.

Region (RG) - Example: city village, block square, etc.

Nature (NA) - Outdoor objects that exist in nature, growing fruits. Fruit on a table is scored (FO), however.

Body Parks - Head (BH) - Example: neck, hair, lips, etc.

Extremities (BE) - Examples: shoulders, chest, abdomen, hips, etc.

Anatomy (BA) - Body parts like skull, leg bone, heart, lungs.

Sex (BS) - Reproductive and excretion.

Clothing (CL) - Examples: shirt, dress, footwear.

Money (MO) - Coins, wallet, bank buildings.

Rules for Objects

1. Each object assigned to one class.

2. Any object in dream is scored.

3. Same object mentioned several times is scored once - similar but not identical objects are scored.

4. If object is part of subunit or larger unit, each is scored.

5. Not scored if dreamer mentions an object in order to exclude it.

Characters

1. The character is described as being physically present in the dream.

2. The character is heard or seen by some form of communication but is not physically present.

3. The character is mentioned in the dream report.

4. A part of the character appears in the dream.

Do not score when:

1. The character is referred to in a generic sense. Example: everybody has the right to happiness.

2. A character is referred to in order to establish that it is not that character but another.

3. A character is not mentioned but his presence is implied.

Classes

1. Number - single individual (1), group (2).

2. Sex - male = m, female = f, joint sex = j, not mentioned sex = I.

3. Identity - father (f); mother (M); parents (X); daughter (A); sister (T); husband (h); wife (W); son (A); brother (B); child (C); infant or baby (B); family member (Y); relatives (R); known character (K) - personally acquainted; prominent persons (P) - well known fictional, dramatic, imaginary, and supernatural figure; occupational (O) - not otherwise identified; (E) - ethnic, nationality and regional identification; (U) - not otherwise identified; uncertain identity when degree of familiarity can't be established.

4. Age - Adult = A, teenager = T (13-17), baby = B (less than one), child = C (1-12). Metamorphis from one age to another score both.

Rules For Scoring Characters

1. A character making several appearances should be scored only once.

2. Score individuals only briefly mentioned and not further described as a group.

3. If several characters are mentioned but never show up again in the dream, count this as a group.

4. If one or more small groups are specified from a large group, score each.

5. If dreamer says its either one or the other character, score the first one.

6. 3 = dead characters; 4 = groups of dead characters. Not used if character dies in the dream; 5 = imagined character; 6 = imagined characters; creature = CZZ.

Classification and Scoring of Social Interactions

There are three classes in this category: aggressive, friendly, and sexual interactions.

Aggressive interactions (A) - there are eight scales in this nominal scale. 1-4 refers to non-physical violence; 5-8 refers to physical violence. No weighing system is employed.

(A8) - death of a character.

(A7) - an aggressive act which physically harms a character.

(A6) - an aggressive act which involves a character being chased captured, confined, or physically coerced into performing some act.

(A5) - an aggressive act which involves theft or destruction of possessions belonging to a character.

(A4) - an aggressive act which involves a serious accusation or verbal threat.

(A3) - An attempt by character to reject, exploit, control, or

verbally coerce another character expressed by dismissal, demands, disobedience or other types of deceitful behavior.

(A2) - Aggressor uses verbal or expressive activity like yelling and swearing.

(A1) - Covert feeling of hostility or anger without any overt expression of aggression.

How to Score an Aggressor Sequence

The aggressive category is written down first ($A_1 - A_7$). The type of aggression displayed by the aggressor is then indicated by placing the number of the appropriate subclass followed by a "sideward V" ($\triangleright$) pointing toward the scoring symbol for the character who is the victim. Reciprocated aggressions are designated by placing the letter R after one aggressive subclass number rather than a sideward V. Mutual aggressors are indicated by an "equals" (=) sign. If more than one character is involved, either as aggressor or victim, the scoring symbols for the characters are joined by a plus (+) sign. Self-directed aggressions are denoted by placing an asterisk (*) after the number of the aggressive subclass and scoring the character as both aggressor and victim.

Rules for Using the Aggressive Category

1. Aggression is scored even if the aggressor is professional employed to do the aggressive act.

2. Criticism of a character's possessions is scored like criticism to the character himself.

3. If the aggressor or victim is unknown use a (Q).

4. If there is continual criticism of the same type, score only once.

5. If more than one type of aggression, score each. Mark a (+) in front of linked aggressive interactions.

6. When the aggressive acts are separated by time, score each even if they are the same aggressive act.

Scoring Friendly Interactions

(F7) - Long term close relation, i.e. marriage, engagement, falling in love.

(F6) - Friendliness through socially acceptable forms of physical contact, shaking hands, dancing, kissing and embracing when non-sexual.

(F5) - Friendliness. Taking initiative in requesting a character to share in pleasant social activity.

(F4) - Friendliness expressed through extending assistance to a character or offering to do so. Example: helping and protecting.

(F3) - Offering a gift or loan.

(F2) - Friendliness through either verbal or gestural means. Example: welcoming, greeting, waving hello.

(F1) - Friendliness is felt toward a character but is not

expressed overtly.

Terms Used in Friendly Interacting

The initiator of a friendly act is a befriender, and a recipient of a friendly act is is befriended. Reciprocated friendliness is scored R instead of $\succ$. Mutual friendliness is =. If the dreamer does not participate in the interaction it is called witnessed friendliness. Self-directed friendliness is scored with a *.

The classification and Scoring of Activities

The befriender is identified first, followed by the appropriate subclass and the sideward V $\succ$ pointing toward the befriended. More than one befriender or befriended is indicated by a (+).

Rules

1. Friendly act is scored even if befriender is in a societal or professional role.

2. A friendly interaction is scored if the character's possessions are given the same friendly treatment is given to the character himself.

3. If not specified if befriender or befriended, use a (Q).

4. If there is a continual identical friendly act, score once.

5. If more than one friendly act is in a sequence, score each and note the linkage by using (}).

6. If the acts are separated in time, score each.

Sexual Interactions

(S5) - Sexual intercourse, act or attempts.

(S4) - Foreplay.

(S3) - Necking and non-platonic kissing.

(S2) - Sexual overtures or "propositions".

(S1) - Sexual thought or fantasy.

Sexual interactions are scored by: reciprocated (R), mutual (=), self-directed (*), more than one character as the initiator or recipient (+).

Scoring

The initiator is scored first, followed by the sexual category (S_1 — S5) and the sideward V (>) is placed towards the scoring of the recipient of the interaction.

The Classification and Scoring of Activities

Classes - Physical (P) - Any voluntary movement of the whole body or part of the body where the character stays more or less in one place. If the answer is yes to the question, can the socrer successfully pantomine the activity so an observer could correctly identify the activity? score (P).

Movement (M) - Changes in physical location by self-propelled movements of the body. Involuntary movements such as falling, slipping or being thrown are not scored.

Location Change (L) - Through means other than self-propelled

muscular activity: bus, car, etc. Verb such as went, came, arrived, are an indication that the new surroundings are due to travel.

Verbal (V) - Any type of vocalization.

Expressive Communication (E) - Non-verbal associations with emotional states such as laughing, crying, etc.

Visual (S) - Example: see, notice, read.

Auditory (A) - Examples: hearing, listening behavior.

Thinking (C) - Deliberate continual mental activity which is goal-oriented or problem solving. Examples: concentrate, puzzle, engross. Brief mental activities like "I think it was blue" are not scored in this category. Reciprocated is activity noted by (R), mutual activity is noted by (=), more than one character is noted by (+). If the dreamer engages activity alone, use only the class letter.

Rules

The activity must be a current of completed activity.

1. A continuous activity is scored as one activity.

2. The same sequence performed by different characters are each scored.

3. Activities belonging to the same class but engaged in by different characters are each scored.

4. If activities belonging to the same class are jointly engaged in by different characters they are scored as a single activity.

5. If same character engages in interactional activities with different characters, separate activities are scored.

6. If intervening events occur, separate activities are scored even though they are identical.

The Classification and Scoring of Achievement Outcomes

Success (SU) - To expend energy and preserverence in pursuit of a goal. The character has a problem, deals with it, and finds a solution. A magical solution is scored in another area.

Failure (FL) - Willingness to deal with a problem but fails. If the environment is adverse, it is scored as a misfortune.

Scoring for Consequences of Success and Failure

1. A character succeeds but success is nullified by misfortune (M). These scoring symbols are placed in parentheses after regular scoring procedure for success/failure.

2. A character succeeds, but subsequently overextends himself and fails (FL).

3. Another character intervenes in an aggressive manner and nullifies the success (A).

1. Failure is reversed by good fortune (GF)

2. Failure is overcome through unusual effort or approach (SU).

3. A failure is overcome through a friendly intervention by another character (F).

The Classification and Scoring of Environmental Press

Bad or good outcomes occur to a character independent of anything he/she has done, e.g. fate.

Misfortune (M)

Mishap, adversity, harm, danger or threat as a result of circumstances over which he has no control. There are six subclasses.

(M6) - A character is dead or dies as a result of accident or illness or some unknown cause, Death by murder is an aggression, not a misfortune.

(M5) - A character is injured or ill, in pain or in a operation. Any bodily defect, insanity, amnesia, blindness, etc. is also scored.

(M4) - A character is involved in an accident without suffering physical or mental injury. Also scored in this category is loss of possession or a destroyed possession.

(M3) - Is used when a character is threatened by something in environment.

(M2) - A character is falling or in danger of falling.

(M1) - A character encounters an environmental barrier.

Good fortune (GF) is the opposite of misfortune.

Scoring

A comma is placed after the scoring symbol and the scoring symbols for the characters are joined by a plus (+) sign.

Rules

1. Score each misfortune with different subclasses, from the character.

2. Score each even those that belong to same subclass if they happen to the same character at different times in the dream.

The Classification and Scoring of Emotions

Anger (AN) - Examples: annoyed, irritated, mad, furious, enraged, belligerent, insened, etc. All degrees of intensity are included here.

Apprehension (AP) - Examples: fear, anxiety, guilt, terrified, frightened.

Happiness (HA) - All words describing the general state of pleasure. Example: contented, joyful, etc.

Confusion (CO) - This condition is a state of mind. Examples are: surprised, amazed, doubtful, and undecided.

Sadness (SD) - This category includes any type of sadness or hurt, loss, upset, and being miserable.

The emotion is not scored unless the dreamer states the emotion However, in some cases; although the dreamer doesn't state an emotion, it is obvious that a certain emotions should be scored. For example, when the report says, "Tears began to run down my face when I received word of my mother's death", a (SD) would be scored.

A comma is placed after the scoring symbol for emotion subclass,

then the scoring symbol for the characters are presented. Multiple characters are designated by a (+).

Rules

1. If particular events arouse emotions from the same class, score only once.

2. The same class of emotion may be scored more than once if it appears as a reaction to different events.

3. If more than one emotion is described as a reaction to the same event, each class is scored separately.

The Classification and Scoring of Descriptive Elements

Modifier - adjectives, adverbs, or phrase used for descriptive elaboration. Limited to 9 subgroups.

Color (C) - Any color used to describe, unless used to describe an emotional state is scored. Chromatic colors are scored (C+), and Acromatic colors (black, white, gray) are scored (C-). The color is scored more than once if it refers to separate things.

Size (S) - Largeness or smallness of things. Large (ST), small (S-) Interval of time is not scored.

Age (A) - Old (A+), young (A-).

Density (D) - Bounded area or some type of container. Full, bulging, crowded (D+), empty (D-).

Thermal (T) - Temperature. Warmer, hot (T+), cold (T).

Volocity (V) - Fast (Vt), slow (V-). Speed of mental activity is not scored if the word suddenly is used.

Linearity (L) - Linear or non-linear qualities. Straight (LT), curved (L-).

Intensity (I) - Force or expenditure of energy. Strong (It), weak (I-).

Evaluation (E) - Evaluative remarks about people or objects. Aesthetically pleasing or morally correct (Et), unpleasant (E-).

Temporal Scale (T) - 1) reference to a specific unit of time, 2) reference of a particular time for purpose of dating an event.

Do not score age of person. Do not score the word time when it means occasion. Do not score salutations which refer to time.

The Classification and Scoring of Regression (RE), (living in the past)

(RE1) - The dreamer dreams of being in a setting or locale in which he has not been for over a year.

(RE3) - The dreamer dreams of someone he has not seen or heard from within a year.

(RE2) - The dreamer dreams about being younger by at least a year.

(RE4) - The dreamer dreams of doing something he has not done for at least a year.

(RE5) - The dreamer dreams of someone who has been dead for at

least a year.

(RE6) - The dreamer dreams of another person as being younger by at least a year than he currently is.

(RE7) - The dreamer dreams of an object which he has not had for at least a year.

Do not score if:

1. The dreamer or another character is talking in the dream about something that happened in the past.

2. The dreamer/character is reminded in the dream of something that happened in the past.

3. Something in the dream is like something in the past but is recognized as being different.

4. After dreamer has awakened and recalls a dream, he associates something in the dream with something in the past.

METHOD OF COLLECTING DATA

The data were collected between April 15 and May 13, 1977. One month was used because it is important in dream research to get dream series for analysis rather than individual dreams.

The subjects were asked to record their dreams every morning on a note pad placed within reach of their beds. Instructions given in the orientation (an informal talk with students) included these guidelines:

1. Value your dreams. They may show insight into yourself.

2. Remind yourself before sleeping that you will remember your dreams.

3. Wake up naturally.

4. Don't open your eyes; lie still with your eyes closed and let images flow into your mind. Let yourself feel. Let your mind wander over people and friends that are important to you.

5. Now roll over gently. More dream recall will come.

6. It helps if you can keep your eyes closed. Reach for the pad and with your right hand in normal writing position, write down your dream with eyes still closed. Note unique items first.

7. Rewrite dream on special dream report card when fully awake. (Garfield, 1974, p. 172).

The dream is reported on a 5" X 8" card because of ease of filing and storing. The following information is printed at the top:

Name or code number: Place: Age:

Date of dream: Date of this report:

> Please describe the dream exactly and as fully as you remember it. Your report should contain, whenever possible, a description of the setting of the dream, whether it was familiar to you or not, a description of the people, their sex, age, and relationship to you, and of any animals that appeared in the dream. If possible, describe your feelings during the dream and whether it was pleasant or unpleasant. Be sure to tell exactly what happened during the dream to you and the other characters. Continue your report on the other side and on additional cards if necessary (Hall, C.S. and R.L. Van de Castle, 1966, p. 313).

Reliability of Scoring

Before scoring each scale, the researcher thoroughly studied the special scale. After some familiarity with the scale was developed, the example dreams found in the appendix of The Content Analysis of Dreams (Hall and Van de Castle, 1966) were scored and checked for correctness. Each scale was scored throughout the entire sample. Afterwards the researcher re-scored the first ten dreams of each unit to insure consistency in scoring.

Reliability of Content Analysis Scale

Settings

Both authors independently scored 100 dream settings and had a correlation coefficient range from 180 to .95. There was 73% perfect agreement on the scoring of settings.

Objects

Two judges scored 50 dreams of each of the 24 possible object classes and a correlation coefficient of .99 was found. Of the 320 different objects scored there was 88% agreement in this category.

Characters

Of 100 dreams there was a .99 correlation coefficient, a 93% agreement in this category.

Social Interactions

Of 50 dreams, the percentage of agreement is 60%, but it must be remembered that scoring a social interaction involves a number

of components. The judges must agree as to one scoring for the characters who initiated the interaction and those to whom the interaction was directed as well as the appropriate subclass of the interaction and whether it was an initiated, reciprocated, mutual, or self-directed interaction. If a more lenient criterion were followed, whereby judges could disagree on some single component such as subclass number, the level of agreement would reach slightly over 70%.

Validity

The instrument seems valid on face value. However, no data were found by the researcher on the validity of the scales. Results from these scales, must then, be viewed with this in mind.

Method of Organizing Data

The data are organized to show the magnitude of discrepancies between the sample's frequency (delinquent content and non-delinquent content) using contingency tables (C).

Achievement Outcome and Environmental Press

Of the 50 dreams the percentage of perfect agreement varied considerably because of the small frequency involved.

Corelation coefficients of activities and modifiers can be found on tables in Halland Van de Castle's The Content Analysis of Dreams, 1966, p. 156.

The main point here is that judges obtained a high level of

agreement for these scales. Agreement ranged from 60% to 90% depending on the complexity of the scale.

> The reliability figures described . . . for the various dream scales are generally higher than most projective techniques and the author feels that they are substantial enough to warrant their use in a broad spectrum of research studies (Hall and Van de Castle, 1966, p. 156).

Null Hypotheses

1. There is no difference between the dream content of settings and objects of the juvenile delinquents and a matched control group of students.

2. There is no difference between the dream content of aggressive, friendly, and sexual interactions of the institutionalized females and the matched control group of students.

3. There is no difference between the dream content of characters in the delinquent sample as compared to the non-delinquent control group.

4. There is no difference between the dream content of activities of the juvenile delinquents and a matched group of students.

5. There is no difference of the outcomes of success, failure, misfortune and good fortune in the dream content of delinquents as compared to a non-delinquent control group.

6. There is no difference of the emotions of the dream content of institutionalized females as compared to non-institutionalized

females.

7. There is no difference in the modifiers found in the dreams of delinquents and a matched group of students.

8. There is no difference in the mention of temporal content in the dreams of delinquents and a control group of students.

9. There is no difference in the content of regression in the dreams of delinquents and a matched group of students.

Level of Significance

The accepted level of significance for this research is $P \leq .05$ level. This level was chosen to reduce the likelihood of type I error. However there is less control over a type II error. The researcher is more willing to admit that there is no significant difference (the dream content is the same for the two groups) when in fact there is a difference, than to conclude that there is a difference when in fact there is not.

PRECAUTION TAKEN FOR ACCURACY

The data were processed through Montana State University's Sigma 7 computer.

SUMMARY

The problem of the study to compare manifest dream content of female juveniles from the Mountain View School and a matched control group was stated. The population from the Mountain View School was

voluntary, whereas the control group was selected by random sampling.

The categories devised by Calvin Hall and Van de Castle and used in this study include: 1) settings and objects, 2) friendly, aggressive and sexual interactions, 3) characters, 4) activities, 5) success, failure, misfortune and good fortune, 6) emotions, 7) modifiers, 8) temporal, 9) regression.

Data were collected from the two groups by means of standard report forms given to the students during orientation. All dreams recalled and recorded during the period of April 15 to May 13, 1977 were used.

The reliability was quite high, better than most projective techniques. A review of validity was not found in the literature, but the measure appears valid on face value.

The data were organized in contingency tables (C) using Chi-Square. The Null Hypotheses states that there is no difference between the dreams of juvenile delinquents and the non-delinquents.

In the analysis of data the researcher used Chi-Square to determine the differences between the two groups. Both subgroups and the total scale were figured using Chi-Square. The level of significance was taken at the .05 level to help guard against Type I errors.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

The problem of this study was to compare and contrast the manifest dream content of female juvenile delinquents and a control group of students matched for age, sex and education level. The findings of this study are explained in detail in this chapter. Each of the eight questions posed in Chapter 1 are analyzed and answered statistically. Contingency tables (C) are used to present the data. Both signficant and non-significant ($p > .05$) chi-square values were found.

Calvin Hall's content analysis scales were used to compare the content classes of the delinquent and non-delinquent population.

FINDINGS

As described in Chapter 3, two populations were used, fourteen juvenile delinquents from the Mountain View School and random sample of fourteen junior girls from Belgrade High School. Dreams were collected every Friday from April 15-May 13, 11 girls from Mountain View and 6 girls from Belgrade High School actually recorded their dreams. A total of ninety dreams were recorded, thirty-seven from the Mountain View School, and 53 from Belgrade High School.

Dream Settings and Objects

1. Were there any differences in the dream settings and objects in these two groups? Table 1 shows that there was little difference between the frequency of the different categories

of setting between the delinquent and non-delinquent groups. Therefore, there was no adequate grounds to reject the null hypothesis. There was no significant differences between the dream settings of the female delinquent and the control group ($p > .05$). It appears, however, that familiar settings in the control group have a greater incidence, but are not statistically significant.

TABLE 1

SETTINGS

	Indoor	Outdoor	Ambiguous	No Setting	Familiar	Unfamiliar
Delinquent	16	10	4	3	8	9
Control	25	23	2	1	13	19

$X^2 = 5.62$

*Significant at the .05 level when $X^2 = 11.07$.

Table 2 confirms that there was a difference in the content of objects in the female delinquent and control group. On a whole, more objects were reported by the junior girls from Belgrade High School. A larger discrepancy in the object content class of food, vocational, communication, travel, region, street objects, and clothing was found in the control group. The chi-square (281635818) was significant a $p > .05$ level and the null hypothesis was rejected

and the alternative hypothesis, that there was a difference in the object class, was accepted.

TABLE 2

OBJECTS

	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o
Delinquent	3	13	3	2	0	4	2	0	3	2	13	5	3	0	2
Control	20	24	19	6	4	8	19	15	33	11	28	30	5	6	29

X^2 = 28.63818E

*Significant at the .05 level when X^2 = 23.68.

Social Interactions

2. Were the aggressive, friendly and sexual dream interactions different for the juvenile delinquent group and the control group?

Not enough data was collected to run a chi-square on sexual interactions. The control group reported five sexual interactions and the delinquent group reported four sexual interactions. A larger n or a different orientation was needed to porduce results on the content of sexual interactions. No conclusions can be made at this time.

Table 3, the contingency table on aggressive interactions indicates that there was no significant difference between either high

aggressiveness or low aggressiveness in the content of the dreams of the two groups. There was no adequate grounds to reject the null hypotheses at one .05 level. In both high and low aggressiveness, the delinquent group report two more frequencies. However, these are not statistically significant.

TABLE 3

AGGRESSIVENESS

A = low

B = high

	A	B
Juvenile Delinquent	9	12
Control	7	10

$X^2 = .051104531$

Significant at the .05 level when $X^2 = 3.84$

Table 4 concludes that there was a significant difference between the friendly dream interactions of the control group and the female juvenile delinquents. The control group's dream content contains more low friendly interactions (gift giving, assistance and friendliness expressed by verbal or gestural means) and high friendly interactions (marriage, socially accepted physical contact and invitations), therefore the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 4

FRIENDLY INTERACTIONS

	Low	High
Juvenile Delinquent	1	10
Control	12	29

$X^2 = 9.608277$

*Significant when ($p > .05$) $X^2 = 3.84$

DREAM CHARACTERS

3. Were there any differences in the dream characters for these two groups?

The factors for dream characters content was divided into number, sex, identity and age.

The number of characters, that is if the dream character was mentioned alone or in a group, was not significant at the .05 level. The null hyypothesis was retained.

Table 5 confirms that there is a significant difference between the sex of the dream characters in the delinquent group as compared with the control group. Female delinquent dreamers dream more about males than the control group. Female non-delinquents dream more about females (55 control, 13 delinquent). The table shows adequate grounds

to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis that there was a difference in frequency of the sex of the dream characters in these two groups.

TABLE 5

SEX OF CHARACTERS

	Male	Female	Joint
Juvenile Delinquent	31	13	14
Control	26	55	15

$X^2 = 18.142242$

*Significant at the .05 level when $X^2 = 5.99$

Table 6 shows the difference at the .05 level was not significant for the identity of characters in the dream content for these two groups. The control group reports more characters that are personally known to them, but on the whole the differences are not statistically significant. The table reveals little difference in the frequency in the identity class between the two groups. The null hypothesis, therefore, would be retained.

Achievement Outcomes

4. Was the dream content of success, failure, misfortune and

good fortune different for these two groups?

Looking at Table 6, we note that there was no real difference between the occurrence of success or failure in the dreams of these two groups. This table provides us with adequate grounds to retain the null hypothesis, that there was no real difference in the dream content of success and failure for these two groups.

TABLE 6

ACHIEVEMENT OUTCOMES OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE

	Success	Failure
Juvenile Delinquent	7	4
Control	7	5

$X^2 = .2800$

*Significant at the .05 level when $X^2 = 3.84$

Table 7 shows that the dream character has something 'good happen' (good fortune) more often in a delinquent dream than in a non-delinquent dream. The non-delinquent dreamer has some misfortune occur in her dreams more often than the delinquent population. The table shows that there was a difference in the good fortune/misfortune content in the dreams of juvenile delinquent and the control group. The chi-square was significant at the $p > .05$ level and would warrant

the rejection of the null hypothesis.

TABLE 7

ACHIEVEMENT OUTCOME

GF = Good Fortune

M = Misfortune

	GF	M
Juvenile Delinquent	9	12
Control	6	18

$X^2 = 9.0401781$

*Significant when $X^2 = 3.84$

Emotions

5. Were the dream emotions different for the female delinquents and the control group? Although the values in the four factors - anger, apprehension, happiness, and sadness are not statistically significant, they are close. From Table 8 the control group appears to have more mention of emotions in the dream content. However, the chi-square was not significant at the .05 level and the null hypothesis would be retained.

TABLE 8

DREAM EMOTIONS

a = Anger

b = Apprehension

c = Happiness

d = Sadness

	a	b	c	d
Juvenile Delinquent	6	0	0	1
Control	11	7	9	6

$X^2 = 7.1723213$

*Significant at the .05 level when $X^2 = 7.82$.

Dream Modifiers

6. Were the dream modifiers for the delinquent and the control group different? Only the intensity, color and size variables were used due to the low frequencies of the other modifiers. Chi-square could not be run on these.

Although the control group had more modifier responses, there is no real difference between the modifiers of the juvenile and control group. The null hypothesis would be retained. See Table 9.

TABLE 9

MODIFIERS - DESCRIPTIVE ELEMENTS

a = Intensity

b = Chromatic color

c = A chromatic color

d = Large

e = Small

	a	b	c	d	e
Juvenile Delinquent	3	2	0	3	1
Control	26	20	13	10	4

$X^2 = 4.0596323$

*Significant at .05 level when $X^2 = 9.49$

Regression or Temporal Elements

7. Was the frequency of regression and temporal elements different for the delinquent and control group?

Tables 10 and 11 confirm that there was little difference between the content of regression and temporal elements in these two groups. This would provide ample evidence to retain the null hypothesis.

TABLE 10

TEMPORAL SCALE

	Yes	No
Juvenile Delinquent	7	30
Control	19	34

X^2 = 2.2718267E

*Significant at the .05 level when X^2 = 3.83

TABLE 11

REGRESSION

	Yes	No
Juvenile Delinquent	9	28
Control	7	46

X^2 = 1.1601267E

*Significant at the .05 level when X^2 = 3.84.

Dream Activities

8. Was there a difference in the dream activities of the juvenile and control groups? Table 12 confirms that there appears

to be a significant difference between the dream activities of the two groups at the .05 level. The control group appears to note more activities in it's dreams.

TABLE 12

DREAM ACTIVITIES

a = Expressive

b = Physical

c = Movement

d = Location

e = Verbal

f = Visual

g = Auditory

h = Thinking

	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h
Juvenile Delinquent	0	19	22	28	14	8	0	1
Control	20	52	50	37	30	15	2	6

$X^2 = 16.139481$

*Significant at the p = .05 level when $X^2 = 14.07$.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to compare the manifest dream content of female juvenile deinquents and a control group of students, matched for age, sex and educational level. The main question asked in this study is if there was a difference in the manifest dream content of female juvenile delinquents and a control group. By objectively noting the dream content, using scales devised by Calvin Hall, data were tabulated and eleven comparisons were made by means of a chi-square test. The null hypotheses were accepted when there were no significant differences between the content noted in each scale. However, the null hypotheses were rejected when a difference at the .05 level was found to exist.

The study found the following significant differences:

1. In the dream objects of delinquent and non-delinquent populations.

2. In friendly interactions in the dreams of the delinquent and control group.

3. Between the sex of the dream characters in the dreams of the juvenile and control group were noted more often in the non-delinquent population.

4. Between the occurrence of good fortune and misfortune in the

dream content of the two groups.

5. Between the occurrence of activities in the dream content of the two groups.

Although the following content classes were not statistically significant at the .05 level, their chi-square value was close to being significiantly different:

1. The dream content of emotions of the two groups.

2. The mention of temporal elements in the dreams of the two groups.

3. The identity of the dream characters of the two groups.

The study found little or no statistical difference at the .05 level in the following dream content of the two groups:

1. Dream settings.

2. Aggressive interactions.

3. Number of characters.

4. Achievement outcomes of dream success or failure.

5. Dream modifiers.

CONCLUSIONS

Several conclusions were found from this study and they are:

1. The female non-delinquent dreams about more objects than the female delinquent in this population. Material items such as food, clothes, and entertainment were noted more often in the non-delinquent population.

2. The non-delinquent dreams contained more friendly interaction than the delinquent dreams in this population. This appears to reflect the control group's waking behavior.

3. Female delinquents dream more about males than the control group. The female non-delinquents dream more about females than the delinquent girls in this population. This may go alone with the literature that most female delinquent offenses, are sex offenses, however, no significance was found in the sexual interaction scales.

4. There is a higher incidence of good fortune in the dreams of juvenile delinquents than in those of the non-delinquents in this population. This is consistent with the literature in that although they view their lives realistically (we note this in no difference in the success/failure scales) they still have hope that something good might "happen". More misfortune is noted in the non-delinquent group in this population.

5. The non-delinquent population noted more activities in their dreams than the delinquents in this population. This stems inconsistence with the idea that dreams reflect our waking behavior, because on the whole, the delinquent population is more active.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has given rise to a number of interesting questions for further research in this area. The investigator felt that the

following recommendations for further research would lead to a better understanding of the use of the dreams of the delinquents.

1. Since the n in this study was very small, a larger population would prove beneficial in finding more significant differences in the dream content.

2. Since dream recording is a very personal activity, it would be useful if the investigator was on site of the institution or school to keep the students motivated to record all their dreams.

3. A good relationship with the subjects is recommended in order that they might feel free to report socially unacceptable items that occur in their dreams (i.e. sexual interactions, etc. that were omitted by the subjects in this study.).

4. It appears that the non-delinquent population is more verbal than the delinquent population, which may be a function of intelligence. A control on this variable is indicated.

5. Possible research using both male and female delinquents may provide further answers.

5. Using dream therapy along with recording dream content may provide more direct conclusions on the usefulness of this type of therapy on a delinquent population.

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