To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Steven Stanley Gray entitled "The Relationship of Locus of Control and Self-Esteem to the Quality and Content of Daydreams." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.

Leonard Handler, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Hilton A. Smith
Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

THE RELATIONSHIP OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND SELF-ESTEEM TO THE QUALITY AND CONTENT OF DAYDREAMS

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee

Steven Stanley Gray

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between Locus of Control and self-esteem to the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming, as well as to a number of daydream content categories. Self-report defensiveness was included both as a possible predictor variable for realistic-unrealistic daydreaming, as well as a criterion for eliminating overly defensive subjects from the daydream content analysis.

The general experimental procedure consisted of two testing sessions. In the first session subjects were given instructions concerning the recording of their daydreams. After that session subjects recorded their daydreams as they occurred. When 10 daydreams were recorded, subjects handed in their daydreams. They were then told to come in for a second testing session. In the second session subjects filled out questionnaires which attempted to measure the degree of reality in their daydreams. In order to find out whether the timing of the I-E scale, the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Hanley Scale, would affect the degree of reality in subjects' daydreams, subjects were divided into two groups. In Group A subjects were given the afore-mentioned personality questionnaires during the first session, before they were given instructions about the recording of their daydreams. In Group B subjects filled out the personality questionnaires in the second session after they had already reported their daydreams.

Results indicated that the timing of the presentation of the personality questionnaires had no significant affect upon the degree of reality in subjects' daydreams. Pearson Product Moment correlations between Locus

of Control, self-esteem, self-report defensiveness and realistic-unrealistic daydreaming indicated that both self-esteem and self-report defensiveness were both negatively and significantly related to the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming at the .01 level. Self-report defensiveness was also found to be significantly and positively related to self-esteem at the .01 level. Locus of control was not significantly related to the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming ($p = .13$).

The predictor variables of Locus of Control, self-esteem and self-report defensiveness were entered into a step-wise regression equation. It was found that self-esteem contributed 14% of the variance in relation to realistic-unrealistic daydreaming while self-report defensiveness contributed another 2%. Locus of control contributed a negligible amount of additional variance.

Through a Chi Square analysis and by visual observation the content categories of Aggression, Clothing, Success in School Work, Active Leisure Activity Performed Alone, Passive Leisure Activity Performed Alone, General and Active Leisure Activity Between Two People of the Opposite Sex and General and Active Leisure Activity Between More Than Two People or Between Two people of the Same Sex, were thought to have some relationship to the personality combinations of high I-E and low self-esteem, high I-E and high self-esteem, low I-E and low self-esteem and low I-E and high self-esteem. In the Chi Square analysis all the content categories were essentially non-significant.

The findings concerning the relationship between Locus of Control self-esteem, self-report defensiveness and the degree of reality in subjects'

daydreams and the finding concerning the daydream content analysis were discussed in relation to previous research. Implications for future research were also discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
II.	LITERATURE REVIEW	3
III.	SUMMARY AND HYPOTHESIS	22
IV.	METHOD	24
V.	RESULTS	32
VI.	DISCUSSION	38
REFERENCES		44
APPENDICES		48
VITA		58

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Daydreaming, a pastime in which most people engage, has often been neglected as a field for serious research. For a long time daydreaming was seen at best as a harmless divergence from some boring task and at worst, as an indicator of neurotic tendencies. Freud first discovered that this seemingly unimportant activity did have an important function, that of wish fulfillment. The strength of drives which were not satisfied in real life could be partially reduced by their fantasized fulfillment and thus fantasy would act as an escape valve protecting an individual from being overwhelmed by excess drive tension. Other investigators, as well as Freud, later indicated that daydreaming also served the function of problem solving. Research has indicated that different types of daydreams may serve different functions (Ross, Machiavello (Singer, 1966); Singer and Antrobus, 1963) rather than all types of daydreams serving one function. Even more important is the question of whether different styles of daydreaming are affected by or are related to more global patterns of personality functioning. Finding such a relationship would broaden our knowledge concerning the functions and the development of different types of fantasy in addition to further delineating the relationship of fantasy to the entire personality. Research by Ross and Machiavello (Singer, 1966) has yielded some data about realistic and unrealistic fantasy. Little if any research has been directed toward relating realistic and unrealistic styles of fantasy to some global personality patterns. Realistic fantasy

deals with events which have some probability of occurring in an individual's life, while unrealistic fantasy deals with events which have little if any chance of actually occurring.

In the present study, it is hypothesized that the global personality characteristics of Locus of Control and self-esteem may be differentially related to realistic and unrealistic styles of daydreaming because Locus of Control deals with the degree of personal responsibility that an individual takes for the outcome of events in his life. This characteristic has been shown to affect such basic activities as the efficiency of acquisition and utilization of personally relevant information (Davis and Phares, 1967; Phares, 1968) as well as having an effect on one's tendencies toward the use of escapism (Baker, 1971). Such an important characteristic is expected to have some effect on fantasy. Self-esteem, a measure of how one feels about oneself, is an important determinant of mood and has also been shown to have an important effect upon adaptive behavior (Gross and Alder, 1970; Bailey, 1970). This characteristic, which is important in determining much of behavior, is also thought to have some effect on fantasy.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of previous studies having some bearing on the present study will now follow.

Some of the first research on daydreams consisted only of case descriptions in which patients' fantasies were analyzed in accordance with the hypothesis presented in psychoanalytic theory. The findings of these case descriptions, as Seeman claims in his article, "The Freudian Theory of Daydreams: An operational analysis" (1951), were not grounded in empirical evidence. In these early case descriptions, few attempts were made to quantify data or to use correlational techniques. Due to the lack of any empirical methodology, most of the early case descriptions could be easily confounded by experimenter bias.

More recent experiments have employed empirical methodologies to test a number of psychoanalytic hypotheses concerning daydreams. For example an experiment by Feshbach (1955) was performed to explore the psychoanalytic hypothesis that fantasy reduces the strength of a motive through symbolic satisfaction. Feshbach used the aggressive drive in his experiment, his hypothesis being that the expression of hostility in fantasy would partially reduce situationally induced aggression. The hypothesis was tested by experimentally inducing aggression in a number of groups of students by having the experimenters insult them. A fantasy activity was then introduced to some groups and a nonfantasy activity to others. The strength of the aggressive drive was then measured in both sets of groups. The results supported the drive reduction hypothesis, in

that the group which had the opportunity to express aggression in fantasy showed less aggression to the experimenter than the control group which was not given the opportunity to engage in fantasy.

An experiment by Singer and Rowe (1968) further indicated that the function of daydreaming is more complex than just drive reduction or wish fulfillment. This experiment was performed to examine the relationship between fantasy behavior and anxiety, as well as being a partial replication of Feshbach's study. It was found that subjects who were instructed to daydream after the experimental condition of a surprise examination showed greater achievement anxiety and less hostility toward the examiner than a control group which was not allowed to engage in fantasy. This experiment indicates that under certain circumstances fantasies may serve to increase drives or affects rather than just decrease them.

Singer and Schonbar (1961) studied the relationship between the general capacity for daydreaming and a number of personality variables. The results from this study tended to show that those subjects who indicated a higher frequency of daydreaming behavior were also characterized by a greater reported frequency of night dreaming, greater creativity in story telling, higher need achievement, higher anxiety and greater identification with the mother figure. The data also suggested that high frequency daydreamers tend to be more self-aware or accepting of their inner experiences than low frequency daydreamers.

Singer and McCraven, in their daydream study (1961), attempted to change the focus of fantasy research. Up to this time, research in the area of fantasy had been limited to introspective research, research using small clinical samples, and to deductive research in which proof of the

validity of some hypothesis from some broader theory was being sought. Singer and McCraven attempted instead to do descriptive research on the frequency and patterning of fantasy in the general population. This type of research would provide baseline data against which other, more specific research could be compared.

The data from Singer and McCraven's study showed that 91% of the 240 college and graduate students tested reported some type of daydreaming, although there were wide variations in frequency and content. The majority of the subjects also reported that they enjoyed their daydreams. Most of the daydreams seemed to represent attempts at problem solving in interpersonal situations and were fairly concrete, with a limited future perspective. Fearful and anxious content occurred but with less frequency than wish fulfillment and problem solving themes. The frequency of daydreaming was found to decline with age, from the late teens to the fifth decade. Marital status, sex, education and number of siblings did not appear to be associated with daydream frequency. However, environmental location, identification with the maternal figure and sociocultural background were found to be associated with the frequency of daydreaming. It was found, for instance, that people from an urban or small town environment daydream more frequently than people from the suburbs. Negro and Jewish subjects were found to have the highest daydream frequencies, while Anglo-Saxons had the lowest frequencies. Subjects who were relatively more closely identified with their mothers than with their fathers reported higher daydream frequency and manifested greater creativity in writing stories when compared to those subjects who were not that closely identified.

Antrobus, Singer, and Greenberg (1966) found evidence supporting a model of daydreaming that pictures it as a continuous stream of internal thought, competing with a wide variety of external stimuli for the subjects' attention. Evidence was also found in their experiment supporting the contention that daydreaming has certain problem solving functions.

Singer and Antrobus (1963) attempted to go beyond the global concept of daydreaming employed in the previously presented studies. They attempted a factorial analysis of a series of measures of the structure and content of daydreaming behavior and its relationship to certain personality variables. One hypothesis which was considered was that social introversion and thinking introversion (Guilford's Thoughtfulness Scale) would be differentially related to categories of daydreaming. It was thought that thinking introversion might be more closely associated with daydreams dealing with real life experiences, or with problems that the subject is trying to solve, while social introversion could be more closely related to bodily oriented daydreams of fantasies bearing little relationship to the subject's real life. This hypothesis was partially confirmed, with thinking introversion having high loadings on Factor D, which includes problem solving and controlled objective thinking.

Twelve factors resulted from the analysis. Factor A could be best described as a general daydreaming factor to the extent that daydreaming is regarded as a cognitive experience. Factor B represents Guilford's concept of divergent production. Divergent production represents a style of thinking which tends to produce many answers to a problem rather than just one. The results on this factor showed that the hypothesis linking a high fantasy life with divergent thinking was not supported. Factor C

consists of daydreaming scales based on interview ratings. This factor seems to represent daydreams involving strong negative affects of a super-ego, self-condemnatory type, most characteristic of the obsessive-compulsive personality. Factor D apparently represents objective thoughtfulness or controlled thinking, often of a problem solving nature. This type of daydreaming may be typical of an engineer or scientifically minded person. Factor E may represent a lack of control over one's mental processes indicated by easy distractability, mind wandering and poorly controlled, unelaborated fantasy. Factor F indicates a well defined social extroversion factor with little if any indication of daydreaming associated with it. Factors G and L could not be identified. Factor H represents a neurotic class of fantasy in which daydreams are extensively negatively toned and bodily centered, reflecting a pattern characteristic of anxiety neurosis. Factor I represents a body of fantasy having autistic, non-functional qualities. Factor J represents a more positive attitude toward fantasy and the ability to use daydreaming constructively. Factor K measures intelligence.

Factor scores were calculated and intercorrelated to permit some' evaluation of second order relationships among factors. The results suggest that a more general characteristic of daydreaming may exist with factors A, C, E, H, I, and J at one end of the spectrum, and a more controlled, scientific problem solving approach represented by Factor D at the other end.

Singer and Antrobus (1970) replicated and extended their earlier (1963) factorial study in an attempt to establish more precisely patterns of daydreaming and their personality and cognitive correlates. This study

used more refined instruments as well as including a female sample. Nine factors were found in this study.

Factor 1. Social Extroversion--suggesting a general outgoing active quality, bealing little relationship to patterns of daydreaming.

Factor 2. Neuroticism--Anxious, poorly controlled thought. This factor encompasses factors E and M of Singer and Antrobus' first factorial study (1963).

Factor 3. Obsessional Emotional Daydreaming--this factor is essentially the same as factor C in Singer and Antrobus' first factorial study (1963).

Factor 4. Positive, Vivid Daydreaming--this factor is essentially the same as factor J in Singer and Antrobus' original factorial study (1972).

Factor 5. Controlled Socialized Conformity--high scores on this factor would be rather proper and pompous tending to repress inner experience.

Factor 6. Flexible Independence--reflects an independent minded, flexible attitude toward life.

Factor 7. Reflects a scale of masculine-feminine orientation.

Factor 8. Controlled Thoughtfulness--this factor is essentially the same as factor D of the first Singer and Antrobus factorial study (1963).

Factor 9. Question Mark Response Frequency--this scale measured the reliability of the attitudes reflected by other scales.

According to this new study, people could be placed in three categories as far as their daydreams are concerned: 1) those who are given

to distractability, worry, absorption in daydreams, have a poor sense of well-being, whose minds wander, and who have a high degree of anxiety; 2) those who engage in a good deal of tortured self-concern, doubt, ethical rumination, fantasies of achievement and failure and heroism with highly negatively focused emotional content; and 3) those who acknowledge frequent, vivid absorbing daydreams, which they view positively. A social extroversion category also exists, in which high responders would not be oriented toward fantasy activity but would be more motorically oriented.

An aspect of fantasy research not primarily explored up to this time was the relationship between overall personality structure and the quality of fantasy. Such a study was done by Philip and Schell (1971) who studied the quality of fantasy emanating from social extroverts and social introverts by means of hypnotic regression. It was expected that the subjects' dominant personality characteristics would be reflected in their previous existence fantasies. Previous existence fantasies are those recollections of a previous life brought forth by the subject when he is put under hypnotic regression, and told that he would see himself in a previous life. The recollections of previous existences were first thought to be connected with the phenomenon of reincarnation but research by Rubenstein and Newman (1954) and by Zolik (1958) indicated that the subjects' recollections of previous existences under hypnotic regression were a function of the subject's actual experiences in his present life and of fantasy. Results indicated that introverts had fantasies which were judged passive, impotent and negative, while extroverts' fantasies were judged the opposite. These results contradicted Jung's theory which

suggested that extroverts would have introverted fantasy and introverts, extroverted fantasy.

Some of the interpretations from the research by Philip and Schell (1971) are called into question by the results of an experiment by Wallach and Gahm (1960). Wallach and Gahm used the expansiveness or constrictedness of a subject's graphic expressions (i.e., doodling), as a projective technique to reflect personality traits. It was believed by the authors that graphic constrictedness indicated social withdrawal while graphic expansiveness indicated the opposite. Research was initiated to see whether the subject's graphic expression coincided with his overt attitudes or were reflecting hidden feelings. Results indicated that when high social anxiety was present, the subjects' graphic expressions indicated that the subjects held opposite attitudes and feelings, from those that they overtly acknowledged. Results further indicated that the projective displays of subjects who had little social anxiety, accurately reflected the attitudes that the subjects overtly expressed. The authors felt that expressions of either overt introversion or extroversion, when accompanied by a high level of anxiety, indicated a failure of that character trait as an adaptive style, while further indicating a covert need running in the opposite direction. Graphic expressions thus served as a vehicle for the expression of needs denied implicit recognition.

Realistic and unrealistic types of fantasy, which will be related to personality variables in the proposed study, were investigated by Ross and Machiavello. Ross (Singer, 1966), in an unpublished study, found that women whose daydreams were highly unrealistic were less effective housekeepers than those whose daydreams were more reality based. An unpublished

study by Machiavello (Singer, 1966) found that subjects reporting highly unrealistic daydreams tended to set more unrealistic goals for themselves. It seems possible that realistic daydreams prepare one for dealing with reality while unrealistic daydreams may serve in its avoidance.

A. Locus of Control

The concept of locus of control represents the degree to which an individual perceives that he is in control of the events which shape his life. An internally oriented person believes that he is in control of his destiny. An externally oriented individual believes that his fate is controlled by chance. This construct was developed within the framework of Rotter's Social Learning Theory. Social learning theory conceives of behavior as a product of choices. Which choice and thus, which behavior occurs, becomes a function of both the value of the reinforcement and the expectancy that a given behavior will be reinforced in a situation or class of situations (Phares, 1957). Phares (1957) proved that the degree to which a subject develops an expectancy that reinforcement will occur, depends to some degree on whether the subject views reinforcements as being controlled by his skill or by chance. His experiment also proved that a belief that reinforcements were controlled by skill or by chance would have a significant effect on a subject's behavior, i.e., betting behavior. In that experiment color matching and matching the length of lines were used as ambiguous tasks; half the subjects were told that the tasks were so difficult that success would be a matter of chance, while instructions to the other half indicated that success was a matter of skill. Betting behavior was used as a measure of the subjects' expectancy of success.

Before each color matching or length of line matching trial, the subject was asked to bet from one to ten chips on whether he expected to be successful on matching the colors or length of the lines correctly. Phares found that the increments and decrements in expectancy following success and failure were significantly greater under skill instruction than under chance instructions.

The effects of chance versus skill conditions were also shown to be important factors influencing the extinction of behavior. Past research on the effects of reinforcements of behavior (Humphrey, 1939) have shown that behavior learned under conditions of continuous reinforcement is less resistant to extinction than behavior learned under conditions of partial reinforcement. An explanation of such results was given by Mowrer and Jones (1945). They thought that conditions which make it difficult for the individual to discriminate between training and extinction situations would lead to greater resistance to extinction. Under conditions of 100 percent reinforcement subjects would receive no cues for non-reinforcement in the training session. When extinction begins, the first non-reinforcement is an easily distinguishable cue that the situation had changed, leading to rapid extinction. Under partial reinforcement the subject would receive cues of non-reinforcement as well as reinforcement. When extinction had begun, non-reinforcement would not produce a cue which the subject could use to make a clear discrimination between situations of acquisition and extinction, causing resistance to extinction. James and Rotter (1958) noted that these early experiments in this area were focused on simple responses in which the subject was likely to see reinforcements as being beyond his control, determined by

external conditions. They believed that in complex everyday learning situations where the subject perceived some control over reinforcements, both the acquisition and extinction curves might look different. It was believed that under skill conditions the greater the previous record of reinforcement the longer it would take the subject to accept the fact that he was not doing the task successfully. Under partial reinforcement the subject would attribute non-reinforcement to a lack of skill on his part rather than to luck and would stop what he was doing. James and Rotter tested their hypothesis by providing all their subjects with the same task and then varying the instructions, which were designed to emphasize whether the successful completion of the task depended upon skill or chance. Results supported James and Rotter's hypothesis in that under skill conditions the differences between extinction curves under continuous and partial reinforcement disappeared. The 100 percent skill group took more trials to extinction than the partial reinforcement skill group.

It was also thought by Rotter (1966) that there might be a different reinforcement expectancy orientations built up due to a child's developmental history. As an infant develops it differentiated events which are causally related to behavior from those events which are not. Research was initiated to see whether expectations that reinforcements were controlled by skill or chance might be present as a personality attribute. Phares (1957) developed a personality scale with 13 items stated as internal attitudes and 13 items stated as external attitudes. Phares found some suggestive evidence that his scale could differentiate "externals" from "internals." Items stated in an external direction gave low predictions

approaching statistical significance that individuals with external attitudes would behave in a similar manner as did subjects placed in a chance situation. Phares' scale was revised by James (1957) who used 27 items based on most successful items in Phares' study. James found low but significant correlations between the subjects' test results and their behavior in chance and skill situations.

B. Locus of Control and Information Utilization

Having the ability to acquire, retain and utilize information that is either relevant to one's present situation or important in future planning is a necessity for successful adaptation to one's environment. Recent research (Seeman and Evans, 1962; Seeman, 1963; Davis and Phares, 1967; Phares, 1968) has indicated that locus of control is significantly related to these abilities. Realistic and unrealistic fantasy, both of which utilize information concerning one's experience, have been shown to have a significant effect on one's ability to adapt to the environment. Such similarities perhaps suggest a link between Locus of Control and realistic and unrealistic fantasy. The following research will deal in more detail with the relationship between Locus of Control and information utilization.

Seeman and Evans (1962) investigated the relationship between feelings of powerlessness and a person's ability to acquire objective information about his life situation among a sample of hospitalized tuberculosis patients. The author hypothesized that the patients who felt more powerless would score lower on an objective test concerning knowledge about their condition. It was felt by the author that acquiring knowledge is irrelevant for those

people who believe that luck, fate or chance control their lives. Seeman and Evans' hypothesis proved correct, indicating that an individual's sense of personal control is a factor in determining the level of interest and degree of knowledge that he would have about his personal affairs.

Seeman (1963) studied the relationship between expectations of powerlessness and the ability to retain various types of information. Information was presented to prisoners in a reformatory setting concerning parole, the reformatory setting and long-range prospects for a non-criminal career. Differences were only found between internals and externals on the ability to retain information about factors affecting parole. Internals retained more information about parole than did externals. The data indicate that internals are superior in recall only when information is relevant to the control of personal goals.

Past research has often treated the human subject as a passive recipient of information even though in real life situations an individual exerts or has potential control over the amount of type of information that he receives. Davis and Phares (1967) dealt with this information seeking aspect of human behavior and sought to explore what effect locus of control had upon it. It was hypothesized by Davis and Phares that external subjects, having a higher generalized expectancy that reinforcement would be contingent upon their behavior, would attempt to more effectively control their environment by seeking relevant information. Externals would have less need to acquire information since the outcome of life's problems would be perceived as less dependent upon their own actions. Subjects who were classified as either internally or externally oriented were led to believe that they would have to influence the attitudes of other individuals about the war in

Vietnam. During the instruction session, subjects were given the opportunity to acquire new information about the person they were going to influence, and about the war itself. Research indicated that internally oriented people tended to actively engage in information seeking to a greater degree than externally oriented people.

Phares (1968) extended the research on the relationship between Locus of Control and information processing by exploring how Locus of Control affects an individual's ability to utilize information for problem solving. Phares hypothesized that internally oriented people would utilize information more effectively than would externally oriented people. The rationale for this hypothesis is that "internals" would be expected to view the proper utilization of information as an important method of gaining rewards due to their belief that reinforcements are contingent upon their own efforts and would thus become proficient at using that skill. "Externals," on the other hand, having the generalized expectancy that their own efforts are not important in the attainment of reward, would have less need for the proper utilization of information, since in their minds, the use of this skill would not affect the outcome of a situation anyway. In this experiment, internally and externally oriented subjects were asked to learn information about several hitherto unknown people, to a criterion of one perfect recall trial. They were later asked to use the information they acquired to figure out the solutions to certain problems concerning the people about whom they had learned the information. The subjects were also asked to write down the reasons for their decisions. The reasons listed by the subjects comprised the measure of their ability to properly

utilize information. Results indicated that internals had significantly more correct reasons for their decisions than did externals, indicating that internals were better able to utilize information for problem solving.

C. Locus of Control and Fantasy

A study by Baker (1971) relates more directly to the study I propose. Baker related Locus of Control to the global concept of escapism. Results showed that externally oriented people engaged in activities related to escapism more frequently, i.e., night dreaming and watching television, than did internally oriented people. This suggests that externally oriented people may experience more frustration in their lives and may use more conscious and unconscious fantasy to gain satisfaction.

D. Self-Esteem and Fantasy

Psychoanalytic theory views fantasy behavior as serving the function of wish fulfillment for needs which are not satisfied in real life. The more dissatisfaction one experiences, according to analytic theory, the more frequently one should daydream. Windholtz (1968), in testing the psychoanalytic hypothesis mentioned above, used self-esteem as a measure of the degree to which one's needs were realized in reality. Windholtz hypothesized that the greater the subject's dissatisfaction as represented by the discrepancy between measures of self and ideal self, the greater would be the frequency of his daydreaming. The results showed a small but significant correlation indicating some support for the hypothesized relationship between fantasy and self-esteem. Gardener (1970) extended

Windholz's research (1968) to include women in the sample. Gardener found a much lower correlation (.10) between the frequency of women's fantasies and self-esteem than did Windholz who used only males in his study. This result may indicate that sex differences may play a role in the relationship between fantasy and self-esteem.

Two other studies by Gross and Alder (1970) provide some indirect evidence of a relationship between self-esteem and realistic and unrealistic fantasy. Gross and Alder (1970) investigated the self-concept of alcoholics. Alcoholism may be seen as an escape from dealing with reality. The results indicated that alcoholics generally view themselves as inadequate and unworthy of respect. A study by Bailey (1970) investigated differences in self-perceptions between achieving students and underachieving students, both with below average college abilities. Results indicated that achieving students had a significantly higher self-concept than did the underachieving students. Both studies tend to indicate that people with high self-esteem are able to deal with reality better than people with low-self-esteem. Realistic and unrealistic fantasy have also been shown to be differentially related to this ability. The similarity of function between these two types of fantasy and self-esteem might be indicative of some link between them. Perhaps levels of self-esteem influence fantasy.

Due to the use of both Locus of Control and self-esteem as variables in the proposed research, it becomes important to determine whether there is any interaction between the two which might confound the clear interpretation of the results. Data from the research concerning this interaction will now follow. Platt, Eisenmann and Darbes (1970) performed a

construct validity study of the Ziller Self-Esteem Measure by correlating it with the Rotter Locus of Control scale. The authors hypothesized that individuals with a high sense of self-esteem have a higher potential for self-reinforcement. It was expected that individuals with high self-esteem would score as "internals" on the Rotter scale. Results did not support the construct validity of the Ziller scale in its relationship to perceived locus of control. Measures of self-esteem from the Ziller scale were not found to correlate significantly with scores on the Rotter Scale of Locus of Control.

On the other hand, Fish and Karabenick (1971) also attempted to determine the relationship between self-esteem and locus of control, using a "feeling of inadequacy" scale developed by Janis and Field. Their results were opposite to Ziller's findings. A highly significant Pearson r of -.28 (p .01) was obtained, suggesting that people with higher self-esteem tend to be more internally oriented. However, the authors do caution that the correlation obtained only accounts for a small percentage of the variance.

A study by Warehime and Woodson (1971) tested the relationship between internal locus of control and positive affect. Internality was significantly correlated with positive affect for both males and females. Results indicated that internally oriented males reported significantly more positive affect than externally oriented males on dimensions apparently related to instrumental activities in a university setting. Examples of these dimensions are satisfaction with present work, adequacy regarding one's capabilities and alertness and clarity of thought processes. Internally oriented women indicated more positive affect than did

externally oriented women on non-instrumental immediate feeling dimensions such as general feelings of abundance and satisfaction in the life situation, and calmness and freedom from anxiety.

Fitch (1970) explored the relationship between self-esteem and attribution of causality for success and failure performances. Fitch found that low self-esteem subjects who received failure feedback attributed significantly more causality to internal sources than did high self-esteem subjects receiving failure feedback. High self-esteem subjects who received success feedback did not attribute significantly more causality to internal sources than did low self-esteem subjects receiving success feedback. The author's conclusion was that high self-esteem subjects tend to internalize success but not failure outcome, while low self-esteem subjects tend to internalize both success and failure. The instruments employed were the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, administered as a measure of self-esteem, and the Rotter Internal-External (I-E) Scale, although Locus of Control was not used as an independent variable. Rotter (1966) described reinforcements they receive as being internally controlled, presumably regardless of the positive or negative nature of the reinforcement. Since the data from the experiment suggest that low self-esteem subjects internalize failure to a greater extent than high self-esteem subjects and internalize success to about the same degree as high self-esteem subjects, a logical hypothesis would be that low self-esteem subjects would be expected to score more in the internal direction on the I-E scale. Instead of this result, the data from the Fitch study indicate that low self-esteem subjects tended to score toward the external end of the I-E scale. A low (+.23) but significant positive Spearman rank

order correlation was found between Locus of Control and self-esteem. A possibility may exist that the relationship obtained between self-esteem and the Locus of Control scale may be an artifact of either the I-E scale or of the questionnaire used to measure Locus of Control.

Due to the contradictory nature of some of the results found in the above studies, the relationship between Locus of Control or self-esteem is still somewhat unclear.

CHAPTER III

SUMMARY AND HYPOTHESES

The studies presented in the literature review have indicated that general personality styles have an affect upon the quality of fantasy. The studies by Seeman and Evans (1962), Seeman (1963), Davis and Phares (1967) and Phares (1968) have shown that individuals who are internally oriented process information more effectively and deal more effectively with reality than do externally oriented individuals. A study by Baker further indicated that "externals" engaged more frequently in activities related to escapism than did "internals." A study by Windholtz has indicated that males with low self-esteem daydream more frequently than males with high self-esteem, although no effort was made to explore what types of daydreams both groups had. Other studies by Gross and Alder (1970) and Bailey (1970) provide some evidence that people with high self-esteem deal better with reality than people with low self-esteem. Based on the review of the literature, the following hypotheses were generated:

I. Locus of control will be significantly positively correlated with the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming as represented in this experiment. As scores for locus of control increase daydreams are expected to become more unrealistic. Conversely as scores for locus of control decrease daydreams are expected to become more realistic.

II. Self-esteem will be significantly negatively correlated with the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming as represented in this experiment. As self-esteem gets higher daydreams become more realistic. Conversely as self-esteem becomes lower, daydreams become more unrealistic.

It is believed that hypothesis I will be supported because it is expected that people who use information effectively and who control and adapt well to their environment as indicated by internal Locus of Control should reflect these capacities in their daydreams, i.e., realistic daydreams. Externally oriented individuals who have been shown to avoid reality are expected to have fantasies which serve that purpose, i.e., unrealistic fantasies. It is further believed that hypothesis II will be supported because self-esteem is believed to be a measure of the degree to which one's needs are met in reality (Feshbach, 1968). People with high self-esteem are believed to have more of their needs met in reality while people with low self-esteem are believed to have few of their needs met in reality. Unrealistic daydreaming is believed to act as a form of wish fulfillment partially reducing drives which are not met in real life. People with high self-esteem are expected to have less need to daydream about unrealistic events because they have more of their needs met in reality. People with low self-esteem are expected to have more unrealistic daydreams in order to partially reduce those needs which are not met in real life.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

A. Subjects

The subjects for this experiment consisted of 80 students from introductory psychology classes at the University of Tennessee. Subjects were obtained through class announcements by the experimenter who indicated that he was doing research on daydream behavior and needed volunteers.

B. Procedures

Potential subjects were approached in introductory psychology classes and were told the following by this experimenter:

> I am doing research on daydreaming. The experiment will consist of taking a number of psychological questionnaires, possibly having a short interview and the writing down of a number of your daydreams. Introductory psychology credit will be given for participating in this experiment. If you are interested in becoming a subject for this experiment please sign your name and telephone number on this list which is being passed around.

Other subjects were obtained from sigh-up sheets posted in a hallway of the psychology department. Subjects were later contacted to arrange appoints for them to start the experiment.

Subjects were divided into two groups. In group A subjects were first given a number of personality questionnaires and after their completion were given the following instructions:

> As I told you before, I am doing research on daydreaming. In case you are not sure of what I mean by daydreaming, the definition that I'm using for this experiment describes daydreaming as any train of thought, imagery or interior monologue

that occurs as a shift of attention from some ongoing task. Another way of saying this is that a daydream is any train of thought or imagery not directly related to the task that you are engaged in. One example of daydreaming is when your thoughts drift to thinking about repairing your car when originally your thoughts were focused on a biology lecture. Another example of daydreaming is imagining oneself as being a king in some European country during the writing of a term paper.

What I would like all of you to do for the second part of this experiment is to write down your daydreams with as much detail as possible, as soon as you can after having them. All the written material that you hand in will be kept confidential. Research has indicated that most people daydream, so most of you should have a lot of daydreams to record. For some people remembering daydreams may be difficult, but past research has shown that the more one attempts to write down daydreams the easier they are to remember. After you have collected ten written daydreams, turn the record of these daydreams into a box marked 'Steve Gray's Experiment,' inside the Psychology Clinic at 1303 West Cumberland Avenue. If you have any trouble finding the box Clinic secretaries will help you out. When you turn in your daydreams leave a schedule of your free times with your telephone number. A further meeting will be arranged in order to provide additional data for the experiment.

At the second meeting which took place from about three to five days after the subjects returned their daydreams, each subject was given back the record of their written daydreams, in addition to being given questionnaires dealing with the degree of reality present in those daydreams. These questionnaires will be found in Appendices B and C. In group B subjects were first given the instructions concerning the recording of their daydreams, which was the same for both groups, and then asked to return for a second meeting, after they had handed in their daydreams. At the second meeting these subjects were given the personality questionnaires and the questionnaires dealing with the degree of reality in daydreams. The rationale for dividing subjects into groups A and B was to see whether the timing of the presentation of the personality questionnaires

would affect the scores concerning the degree of reality in subjects' daydreams.

C. Scoring Procedures

Realistic - Unrealistic Daydreams. Ratings of the degree of reality in subjects daydreams were made by this examiner using the subject's own ratings. The rating scale which this rater used has scores ranging from 1-5. A score of 1 indicates a daydream whose content has the most probability of occurring in real life. A score of 5 indicates a daydream whose content has the least probability of occurring in real life. The reliability was established by computing the percentage agreement between the experimenters rating of 30% of the daydreams and those of an independent rater a sixth year graduate student in clinical psychology. The reliability for ratings of the degree of reality in subject's daydreams was 81%. In the reliability check ratings 1 and 2 were considered equivalent and ratings 4 and 5 were considered equivalent.

Content Analysis. Daydreams were rated as to whether their content corresponded to any of the established content categories which are listed in Appendix D. If such a correspondence occurred the rater was to rate the category as present for that daydream, by marking a 1 next to that category. If no correspondence occurred no mark was made next to that category for that daydream. Reliability for the content analysis was established by computing the percentage agreement between the experimenters ratings of 30% of the daydreams and those of the independent rater a sixth year graduate student in clinical psychology. The reliability for the daydream content analysis was 97%. A total sum of content category scores

were made for each subject's set of 10 daydreams. Subjects who were deemed overly defensive because they achieved a score of 16 or higher on the Hanley Scale were dropped from the content analysis. The cut-off point on the Hanley Scale was determined by observation of the distribution of scores. Fourtenn subjects were dropped due to defensiveness. Remaining subjects were divided into four groups, those with low I-E (Locus of Control) and high self-esteem, those with low I-E and low self-esteem, those with high I-E and high self-esteem and those with high I-E and low self-esteem. Due to the uneven number of subjects in the above categories, some subjects were dropped in order to maintain equal numbers of subjects in each category. This was done so that the data could be easily analyzed by obaervational techniques. Content categories which appeared as if they might show significant differences when related to the above mentioned personality combinations were entered into Chi Square equations for statistical validation.

D. Locus of Control

The subject's expectations of internal or external control of reinforcement were measured by the Internal-External control scale (I-E scale), a 29 item forced-choice inventory. Twenty-three of the test items deal with Locus of Control while six items are filler items, put in to make the purpose of the test more ambiguous. Internal consistency for the I-E scale varies from .69 - .73. The test-retest reliability ranged from .60 - .78 for a one-month interval using different populations and from .49 - .55 for a two-month interval. Rotter (1966) indicated that data from

the Strickland sample (1962) and the Ludwig sample (1963) show that subjects' responses to the I-E scale had minimal correlations with intelligence. Sexual differences also had little effect on the I-E scale.

E. Measurement of Self-Esteem

The subjects' level of self-esteem was measured by means of the Total Positive Score (P) from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). The TSCS consists of 100 self-descriptive items, equally divided into positive and negative characteristics with which the subject describes his picture of himself. The scale is self-administrating for individuals or groups and can be used with subjects age 12 or higher, as long as they have at least a sixth grade education.

The standardization group from which the norms were developed consisted of a broad sample of 626 people from various parts of the country and from all social, economic, and educational levels. The sample included an equal number of both sexes.

The Total Positive Score (P) is the single most important score of the TSCS (Fitts, 1965). It represents the overall level of the subject's self-esteem. This score will be used as the measure of the subject's self-esteem in the proposed study. This score equals the number of positive statements which the subject acknowledges concerning some basic aspects of his personality. These personality aspects consist of:

A. Identity--the picture the subject has of himself;

B. Self-Satisfaction--the feeling that the subject has about the self he perceives;

C. Behavior--the individual's perceptions of his own behavior;

D. Physical Self--the subject's view of his own body, state of health, physical appearance, skill and sexuality;

E. Moral-Ethical-Self--described the individual's moral worth, feelings of being a good or bad person and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of one;

F. Personal Self--this aspect reflects the individual's sense of personal worth, feelings of adequacy as a person and his evaluation of his personality apart from his body and his relationship to others;

G. Family Self--this aspect reflects the individual's feelings of adequacy, worth and value as a family member;

G. Social Self--this aspect taps how the individual feels about himself in a general way.

Subjects with high Total P Scores tend to like themselves, feel confident and act accordingly. Subjects with low Total P Scores are doubtful about their worth, see themselves as undesirable and have little confidence.

The test-retest reliability for the Total P Score is .92. Validation for the TSCS as a whole, according to Fitts (1965) has been achieved through the use of content validity, discrimination between groups, correlation with other personality measures and the measurement of personality changes under particular conditions.

Content validity was obtained by requiring that test items have unanimous agreement from a series of judges as to correct classification before being put in the scale. Discrimination between groups has also been used as a measure of the test's validity. Personality theory and research indicates that groups which differ in certain psychological

dimensions, should also differ in self-concept. According to Fitts (1965) research by Congdon (1958), Piety (1958, Hauner (1961), and Wayne (1963), have shown significant differences in self-concept on the TSCS between psychiatric patients and non-patients.

The TSCS has shown correlations of all profile variables with scores from the MMPI, in the expected direction (Fitts, 1965). Strong non-linear relationships have been shown between some scores on the TSCS and the Inventory of Feelings, an unpublished instrument.

It was also expected that certain life experiences should produce changes in the way a person sees himself. The TSCS, in order to be proved valid, should be able to measure these changes. According to Fitts (1965) the TSCS was proved to be able to measure such changes in an experiment by Ash, Croft, and Fifh (1964). The experimenters found significant difference on self-concept as measured by the TSCS, between subjects who had been in a therapy group for six months and a non-therapy control group.

Both the reliability and validity of this scale seem adequate for the task of measuring self-esteem in the proposed study.

Hanley Scale

The Hanley Scale is a 26 point scale measuring self report defensiveness. It is highly correlated with the MMPI K scale (r = approximately .65) and other measures of defensiveness. It has a low but acceptable degree of reliability.

The Hanley scale was designed to distinguish subjects who accurately represented their personality traits, low scoring subjects, from those who over-rated their desirable traits or under-rated their undesirable traits,

high scoring subjects. It was utilized here to see how self-report defensiveness affected the degree of reality in daydreams as well as to eliminate subjects who appeared overly defensive from the content analysis.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

The degree of reality in subject's daydreams for administration A, were compared with the degree of reality in subjects daydreams for administration B, using a T test.

A T of .92 was obtained which was significant at the .32 level. Results thus indicate that the two different administrations of the personality questionnaires in this experiment had no significant affect on the degree of reality in subjects daydreams.

Pearson product moment correlations between Locus of Control, self-esteem, self-report defensiveness and the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreams were tabulated. As Table 1 indicates, self-esteem and self-report defensiveness were found to be negatively and significantly related to the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming at the .01 level. A significant correlation of .50 between self-report defensiveness and self-esteem was also found at the .01 level. The independent variable of Locus of Control was found not to be significantly related to the dimension at realistic-unrealistic daydreaming ($r = ,12$ $p = .13$). Results indicate that hypothesis 1 is not supported, thus Locus of Control is not significantly positively correlated with the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming as represented in this experiment. Results further indicate that hypothesis 2 which states that self-esteem is significantly negatively correlated with the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming as represented in this experiment is supported.

Table 1. Correlations Between I-E, Hanley, TSCS and Realistic-Unrealistic Daydreaming Scores

	I-E	Hanley	TSCS	Realistic-Unrealistic Daydreaming
I-E	---	-.37*	-.26*	.12
Hanley	-.37*	---	.50*	-.30*
TSCS	-.26*	.50*	---	-.37*
Realistic-Unrealistic Daydreaming	.12	-.30*	-.37*	---

*Correlations which are significant at the .01 level of a one tailed distribution.

The predictor variables of self-esteem, self-report defensiveness and Locus of Control were entered into a stepwise regression equation. As shown in Table 2, self-esteem contributed 14% of the variance and self-report defensiveness contributed an additional 2%. Locus of Control contributed a negligible amount of additional variance.

Out of 37 content categories comprising the daydream content analysis, 14 content categories had daydream frequency patterns which by observation alone showed enough differences in relation to the personality combinations of Locus of Control and self-esteem, to warrant being tested in Chi Square equations. The Chi Square Analysis would indicate whether personality factors as represented by low I-E and high self-esteem, high I-E and low self-esteem, low I-E and low self-esteem and high I-E and high self-esteem are significantly related to the frequency of daydreaming in different daydream content categories.

As shown in Table 3 the categories of "aggression," "clothing" and "success in school work," showed significant differences at the .20 level. Data which did not show significant differences at the .20 level was visually inspected for possible trends which might be present. The data which was significant at the .20 level or showed possible trends is present in Table 4.

Table 2. Results From The Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation

Predictor Variable	r	r^2
TSCS	.38	.14
Hanley Scale	.40	.16
Locus of Control	.40	.16

Table 3. Results from Chi Square Analysis of Daydream Content Categories

Daydream Category	X^2	df	.20
1) Aggression	10.62	6	X
2) Clothing	12.83	9	X
3) Success in School Work	9.44	6	X

Table 4. Original Data For The Interaction Between Daydream Content Categories and Personality Variables

	Low I-E High TSCS Frequency					High I-E Low TSCS Frequency					Low I-E Low TSCS Frequency						High I-E High TSCS Frequency				
Content Category	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4
Aggression	7	5	1	0	0	11	2	0	0	0	12	0	1	0	0	0	12	1	0	0	0
Clothing	12	1	0	0	0	9	3	0	0	1	8	5	0	0	0	0	8	3	2	0	0
Success in School Work	12	1	0	0	0	9	4	0	0	0	7	5	0	1	0	0	12	1	0	0	0
Active Leisure Activity Performed Alone	7	2	3	1	0	9	4	0	0	0	9	4	0	0	0	0	7	2	3	1	0
Passive Leisure Activity Performed Alone	10	2	1	0	0	6	4	3	0	0	9	4	0	0	0	0	10	2	1	0	0
Leisure Activity Between Two People of the Opposite Sex	8	2	1	1	1	5	5	2	1	0	6	5	1	1	0	0	8	2	1	1	1
Active Leisure Activity Between Two People of the Opposite Sex	9	3	1	0	0	6	7	0	0	0	9	3	0	1	0	0	9	3	1	0	0
Leisure Activity Between Two People or Between Two People of the Same Sex	7	2	2	2	0	4	5	2	2	0	7	5	1	0	0	0	7	2	2	2	0
Active Leisure Activity Between More Than Two People or Between More Than Two People of the Same Sex	9	1	3	0	0	6	4	2	1	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	9	1	3	0	0

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

As was predicted self-esteem was significantly and negatively correlated with the continuum of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming as set up in this experiment. That is, as self-esteem increases daydreams tend to become more realistic. Conversely, as self-esteem decreases, daydreams tend to become more unrealistic. These results could be explained by the drive reduction theory of daydreaming (Feshbach, 1955; Singer, 1966) which states that the function of daydreaming is to partially reduce drives which cannot be fulfilled in real life. In daydreams drives are partially reduced through symbolic wish fulfillment. In this theory, daydreams act as a safety valve to prevent the buildup of excess drive tension.

Self-esteem could be looked upon as a measure of the degree to which one's needs are satisfied in reality (Windholtz, 1968). Thus as self-esteem increases, one's needs would be more fulfilled in reality necessitating less need to daydream about unrealistic wish fulfilling situations. Conversely, as self-esteem decreased, one's needs would be less satisfied in reality, leading to an increase in unrealistic wish fulfilling fantasy as a means of partially reducing those unfulfilled drives. Such an explanation is supported by the experiments of Feshbach (1955) and Windholz (1968). Feshbach's results supported the drive reduction hypothesis of daydreaming in that he found that subjects who had been allowed to daydream after having had their anger aroused showed less overt anger than subjects who had the same anger producing experience but were not allowed to daydream.

The study by Windholtz (1968) provided more direct evidence concerning the relationship of self-esteem to that of wish fulfillment and drive reduction. Windholz found that as self-esteem (difference between self and ideal self) decreased the frequency of daydreaming increased. Windholtz used frequency of daydreaming as an indicator of need for drive reduction. This present experiment went beyond Windholtz's findings to determine whether the quality of daydreams (realistic-unrealistic dimension) was affected by changes in self-esteem. This present study also provides some evidence that unrealistic fantasy may act as a method of drive reduction.

There is another possible explanation for these results. There is some evidence that people with high self-esteem are able to deal with reality better and are able to get more of their needs met than do people with low self-esteem. This possibility is partially corroborated by the research of Gross and Alder (1970), Bailey (1970) and Windholtz (1968). There is some other evidence in the studies of Ross, and Machievello (Singer, 1964) that realistic daydreams may help one prepare for dealing with reality, while unrealistic daydreams help in its avoidance. Perhaps people with high self-esteem have learned to use realistic daydreams as a method for coping with reality. People with poor self-esteem perhaps have not learned how to use this adaptive type of daydreaming and instead they avoid reality by daydreaming about unrealistic events.

Self-report defensiveness was also shown to be significantly negatively correlated with the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming. This means that as self-report defensiveness increases daydreams tend to become more realistic. Self-report defensiveness was also significantly positively correlated with self-esteem, indicating that some people who scored high on self-esteem may have been concealing information and were

trying to "look good." These people who scored high on self-esteem due to defensiveness may also tend to have daydreams which are realistic, because defensive people may be too constricted to reveal any unrealistic daydreams that might occur. Defensive people might feel that unrealistic daydreams will reflect poorly upon them or reveal aspects of their personality that they want to hide. Self-report defensiveness also accounted for 2% of the variance for predicting results on the realistic-unrealistic daydream dimension, which was not related to self-concept. These people may not have tried to fake good self-concepts but were defensive enough to only feel comfortable in reporting realistic types of daydreams.

It is important to note that the predictor variables of self-esteem and self-report defensiveness accounted for only 16% of the variance for the dimension of realistic-unrealistic daydreaming. This means that other variables not dealt with in this experiment determine to a large extent whether a person's daydreams tend to deal with more realistic or unrealistic content. Some additional variables not investigated in this study which might have an affect on the degree of reality in daydreaming are: social class, personality style, birth order, ethnic background, and religion.

All of the data in the daydream content analysis as listed in Table 4 (page 37), was essentially nonsignificant possibly due to the small number of subjects included in the analysis. There are evident trends in the data which appear consistent with the major significant findings in this study and with the results of previous research listed above. Thus, an examination of the findings in Table 4 might prove important for future research. As can be seen in Table 4, more subjects in the category of low I-E and high self-esteem daydream about aggressive themes than do subjects

who have high I-E and low self-esteem, low I-E and low self-esteem and high I-E and high self-esteem. This may occur because people who feel in control of their environment and who feel good about themselves may also feel free to express aggression in their daydreams. These people may feel free to do this because they can handle their aggression and thus do not fear it. Subjects who are categorized as high I-E and low self-esteem, low I-E and low self-esteem and high I-E and high self-esteem might have more difficulty dealing with aggression and may try to deny more of this type of content in their daydreams.

Close inspection of the content category clothing, indicates that the personality category low I-E and high self-esteem have the fewest subjects daydreaming about that category. If daydreams concerning clothing can be looked upon as indicating narcissistic interests, perhaps the low quantity of such daydreams indicates that people who think well of themselves and feel they can control their environment are secure enough so as not to be overly involved in narcissistic need fulfillment in daydreams. The studies by Feshbach (1955), Windholtz (1968), and Baker (1971) would tend to support these conclusions. The results of Feshbach's study and Windholtz's studies have already been described. Baker's study found that externally oriented subjects engaged in activities related to escapism more frequently than did internally oriented people. This suggested that externally oriented people might experience more frustration in their lives than internals.

Upon looking at the category of successful school work it appears that the personality category of high I-E and low self-esteem and the personality category of low I-E and low self-esteem have more subjects having

daydreams in this area than is seen with the personality category of low I-E and high self-esteem and high I-E and high self-esteem. These results seem to indicate that low self-esteem may be the deciding factor in stimulating daydreams concerning successful school achievement in this sample. These results can be readily explained by the drive reduction theory of daydreaming. Subjects with low self-esteem may engage in daydreaming about successful school achievement as a form of symbolic wish-fulfillment. They perhaps attempt to achieve successes in their daydreams that they cannot or feel they cannot achieve in real life. Such an explanation is supported by experiments of Feshbach (1955) and Windholtz (1968).

Another trend was that more high self-esteem subjects appeared to daydream about active recreational activities performed alone than did low self-esteem subjects. A possible explanation for this trend is that daydreams may reflect aspects of one's personality. This concept especially relating to the personality traits of activity and passivity was explored in the research of Philip and Schell (1971). It is possible that people who think well of themselves are more outgoing and have a great deal of free energy for active recreational activities. People with low self-esteem may not feel good enough about themselves to be freely active. They protect themselves from possible further injury to their low self-esteem by remaining passive. This trend is further clarified in that more subjects with high I-E and low TSCS daydreamed about passive recreational activities, than did subjects with other combinations of afore-mentioned personality variables. Subjects who feel they cannot control the events in their lives and in addition do not think well of themselves probably would not have the

motivation or the energy to be active. As mentioned before it is conceivable that they would seek security through passivity and their passive characteristics would then surface in their daydreams.

Another trend that appeared was that more subjects with high I-E and low self-concept had daydreams concerning general and active leisure activities between members of the opposite sex, in addition to daydreams concerning general and active leisure activities between more than two people or two people of the same sex than did subjects having other personality combinations. It is possible that this trend could be caused by wish-fulfilling fantasy in subjects who do not feel secure enough to engage in active heterosexual or active group recreational activities. Subjects who do not feel in control of their lives and who do not like themselves might be expected to be more introverted and less able to take part freely and spontaneously in recreational events. Wish-fulfilling fantasy thus makes up for their lack of pleasure due to their non-participation in such events in the real world. Such an explanation would be supported by psychoanalytic theory and by the research of Feshbach (1955) and Windholtz (1968).

There are a number of possibilities for future research arising out of this study. Research may be directed at finding out what other variables in addition to self-esteem and self-report defensiveness affect the degree of reality in subjects' daydreams. Other possibilities for future research involve a more intense investigation of the relationship between the content of daydreaming and personality variables of Locus of Control and self-esteem. Perhaps with the use of a greater number of subjects higher levels of significance may be obtained.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Instructions: Fill in the blank spaces with the appropriate information concerning yourself.

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME _____ RELIGION _____

AGE _____ PERSONAL INCOME _____/year

RACE _____ NUMBER OF SIBLINGS _____

HOMETOWN _____ GRADE POINT AVERAGE _____

TYPES OF JOBS HELD _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

NAMES and/or TYPES OF CLUBS or TEAMS YOU BELONG TO: _____

_____ _____ _____

HOBBIES: _____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

FUTURE CAREER INTERESTS: _____

_____

_____

NUMBER OF PEOPLE YOU ARE PRESENTLY DATING: _____

NUMBER OF CLOSE FRIENDS YOU PRESENTLY HAVE: _____

NUMBER OF PHYSICAL FIGHTS YOU HAVE GOTTEN INTO: _____

Information about Subject's Parents.

NAME OF PARENT	AGE	OCCUPATIONS	EARNED ANNUAL INCOME
_____	___	_____	_____/yr.
_____	___	_____	_____/yr.

Information about Subject's siblings.

SIBLINGS' NAME	AGE	SEX
_____	___	_____
_____	___	_____
_____	___	_____

APPENDIX B

DAYDREAM QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME _____ ADDRESS _____

PHONE NUMBER _____

Rate each daydream on a scale of 1-7. A score of '1' will indicate a daydream with a content that has the highest possibility of occurring in your life. A score of '7' will indicate a daydream whose content has the lowest possibility of occurring in your life.

CIRCLE the rating that best describes the content of your daydreams.

DAYDREAM	RATINGS						
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

DAYDREAM	RATINGS						
8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

State the reasons for your choices.
(Put the number of your daydream in order of occurrence next to each reason).

APPENDIX C

DAYDREAM QUESTIONNAIRES

Name _____ Address _____

Phone Number _____

Daydream:	Put a check next to the number representing a daydream if the content of that daydream deals with an event that actually happened in your life	Approximate the year that the event dealt with in the daydream last took place	Put a check next to the number representing a daydream if the content of that daydream deals with an event that you think will happen to you in the future	Try and approximate the year that this event may take place
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				

Daydreams:

8			
9			
10			

State the reasons for your choices.
(Put the number of your daydream in order of occurrence next to each reason).

APPENDIX D

DAYDREAM CONTENT CATEGORIES

1.) Physical aggression

1a) Subject attacks another person

1b) Subject is being attacked by another person

1c) Subject attacks himself, i.e., as in suicide attempts

1d) The subject is both attacking and being attacked, i.e., as in a battle

2.) Personal injury - a character in the daydream is injured though not through the act of another person, i.e., accidents

3.) Religious Themes

4.) Sexual content - any mention of an overt sexual act - kissing, having sexual intercourse

4a) Rape

5.) Covert sexuality - indirect sexuality - looking at a woman and making suggestive statements

6.) Great achievement - character in daydream is accomplishing great or daring deeds. Person stating he is the best in any field or has the highest grade in the class.

7.) Failure in social situations - i.e., being rejected by a person of the opposite sex, being criticized in social situations, doing the wrong thing in social situations.

8.) Leisure activity engaged in alone.

8a) Active leisure activity engaged in alone, i.e., swimming, hiking, etc.

8b) Passive leisure activity engaged in alone, i.e., watching television, sunbathing

8c) Active and passive leisure activity engaged in alone

9.) Leisure activity engaged in by two people of the opposite sex

9a) Active leisure activity engaged in by two people of the opposite sex, i.e., swimming, dancing

9b) Passive leisure activity engaged in by two people of the opposite sex, i.e., watching television

9c) Active and passive leisure activity engaged in by two people of the opposite sex.

10.) Leisure activity engaged in by two people of the same sex or by more than two people

10a) Active leisure activity engaged in by two people of the same sex or by more than two people, i.e., having a party

10b) Passive leisure activity engaged in by two people of the same sex or by more than two people, i.e., sunbathing, watching a movie

10c) Active and passive leisure activity engaged in by two people of the same sex or by more than two people

11.) Typical school work, i.e., any mention of classes, a class project, tests, etc.

11a) Typical success in school work, i.e., passing or expecting to pass a test, graduating, doing well on a paper or project

11b) Failure in school work, any mention of failing a test, failing a project or expecting to fail a test or project

11c) Aspects of failure and success in school work

12.) Any mention of a job or a profession

12a) Typical success on a job or in a profession - getting a raise, getting a promotion, being praised for a job well done

12b) Failure on the job - any mention of getting fired, getting criticized for poor work

12c) Aspects of failure and success on the job

13.) Any mention of getting married or engaged

14.) Any mention of clothing

15.) Need for parental approval or fear of parental disapproval. Concern over parental approval or disapproval

16.) Passivity - wish that someone else would take the initiative. A clearly stated hope that things will come to the subject through no effort on his part.

17.) Verbal anger expressed by the subject, i.e., subject expresses angry feelings about or toward another. Subject criticized another person

VITA

Steven Gray was born in Brooklyn, New York on June 2, 1946. He graduated from Public School 122 in June 1960, and was later graduated from Stuyvesant High School in June 1964. He attended Queens College in New York City and received a Bachelor of Arts Degree in June 1968. In Fall 1968 he began his graduate studies in Clinical Psychology at the University of Tennessee. In September 1971 he began a one year internship at Southwestern Medical School in Dallas. At the completion of the internship he returned to the University of Tennessee and received his Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Psychology in 1974.