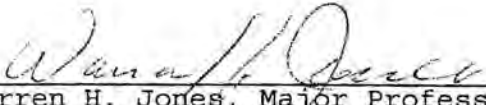


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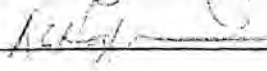
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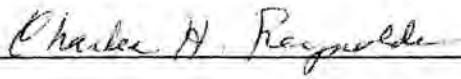


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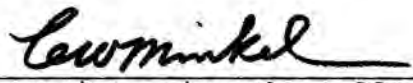
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UNDERSTANDING IDEALIZATION: BEYOND COGNITIVE APPRAISALS

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Nancy R. Hague

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ABSTRACT

Meanings of idealization were explored from psychoanalytic and social psychological perspectives. Idealization relating to normal development, as described by Kohut and Kernberg, ranges from an unrealistic belief that the other is all-good and omnipotent to a more realistic appreciation of a separate other. Idealization which represents a pathological process was also discussed by Kernberg. Social psychologists (e.g., Hall & Taylor) operationalized idealization in terms of cognitive appraisals and studied it in the context of love.

To construct a new measure, items were generated to represent various types and meanings of idealization. In Phase I of research, 230 items were administered to 175 undergraduates. Based on their responses, 39 items were selected for a new measure--the IZ. The IZ was then administered, along with comparison measures, to a second group of 250 undergraduates; the 207 who were ages 17 through 25 comprised the Phase II Sample. Comparison measures included scales purported to assess idealization as well as instruments related to love types, attachment styles, dependency, autonomy, borderline personality organization, and narcissistic personality disorder.

Results from Phase I and II samples indicated that the IZ is internally consistent and unidimensional. Phase II comparisons provided strong evidence of convergent validity for the IZ. The IZ was strongly related to the Mania love style and to a set of items measuring Tennov's concept of limerence. It showed moderate to strong correlations with measures of Emotional

Reliance on Another Person and borderline personality disorder. It was moderately correlated with the anxious/ambivalent attachment style and with desperate love. In addition, it was moderately related to Goal Instability, a measure based on Kohut's descriptions of idealization. Patterns of findings suggested that the IZ measures a type of idealization characterized by a wish for an emotionally sustaining relationship with an all-good and powerful other and by a belief that such a relationship is not possible. Directions for further research and clinical implications were briefly discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Idealization is a key concept in a debate about the etiology and treatment of narcissistic disorders. A divisive question in this debate concerns the nature of idealization. One view, espoused by Heinz Kohut, is that idealization provides an opportunity for growth and consolidation of the self. A contrasting view, presented by Otto Kernberg, is that the type of idealization associated with narcissistic personalities is strikingly different than the types of idealization associated with normal development.

The Kohut/Kernberg debate has been termed "exciting" (Mitchell, 1988, p. 192), "thorny" (Cohen & Sherwood, 1991, p. 76), "growing and active" (Shulman & Ferguson, 1988, p. 445), and "fertile" (Glassman, 1988, p. 662). Gedo (1975, p. 485) highlighted the controversy about idealization:

Although recent psychoanalytic contributions on the topic of narcissism (Kohut, 1966, 1968, 1971, 1972; Kernberg, 1970, 1974a, 1974b, in press) have aroused a great deal of general interest ..., perhaps no aspect of these reassessments of traditional theories...has given rise to more controversy than Kohut's point of view on the phenomenon of idealization as it occurs in the analytic transference (Kohut, 1971, esp. pp. 37-101 and 260-269).

Kernberg and Kohut discussed idealization on the basis of their psychotherapeutic/analytic work with patients.

Idealization is, however, also discussed as a phenomenon outside treatment. For example, Burgess and Wallin

(1953/1968) found moderate degrees of idealization were maintained over years in a study with over 600 couples. Hall and Taylor (1976) studied a small sample of married couples and concluded that "marital idealization was found to occur in these couples." Taylor's subsequent work (e.g., Taylor & Brown, 1988; Taylor, 1989) implied that idealization serves a positive function. She suggested a difference between a positive illusion and a defense.

Defenses distort the facts, leading people to hold misperceptions of internal or external reality. Through illusions, on the other hand, people make the most of bad situations by adopting a maximally positive perspective. Ambiguous elements of situations enable people to impose their own interpretations on events and to give themselves the benefit of the doubt, framing events in ways that promote hope and positive self-appraisal... . Defenses, in contrast, are maladaptive because of the internal dissociation process whereby part of the brain will not deal with what another part "knows." (Taylor, 1989, pp. 126-127)

Idealization can be seen as both a positive illusion and as a defense. In the context of love, Hall and Taylor (1976) implied that idealization is a positive illusion. In the context of treatment, idealization is often seen as a defense. The different viewpoints highlight the need for a better understanding of idealization.

Feeney and Noller (1991) called for research on idealization in the context of love:

Questions concerning the process of idealization and its implications for relationship quality require close attention to definition and description....There is a need for further study of forms of idealization, their association with other relationship characteristics and their involvement in various styles of love. (pp. 192-193).

The Kohut/Kernberg controversy suggests the need for research on idealization in the context of treatment. While research on defense mechanisms has been progressing (e.g., Skodol & Perry, 1993), further research which more specifically addresses idealization is needed.

The Kohut/Kernberg controversy suggests the need for research on idealization in the context of treatment. While research on defense mechanisms has been progressing (e.g., Skodol & Perry, 1993), further research which more specifically addresses idealization is needed.

This dissertation will attempt to advance the understanding of idealization by: (1) reviewing definitions, psychoanalytic theory, and empirical studies; (2) developing a measure of idealization; (3) testing and reporting on the reliability and validity of the measure; and (4) clarifying the meaning of the measure by presenting relationships between the measure and other psychological measures.

TYPES AND MEANINGS OF IDEALIZATION

Idealization is an elusive term. Spruiell (1979, p. 777) noted that

the word IDEALIZATION appears often in the psychoanalytic literature. One usually knows what a given author intends in terms of everyday or surface meanings. But there is no consensus regarding the psychological meanings ascribed to the word.

To add confusion to the issue, idealization has been viewed from different perspectives. Psycho-analysts and clinical psychologists have typically looked at idealization in the context of treating patients; sociologists and social psychologists have typically looked at idealization in the context of love. Possible meanings of idealization come from both contexts but are not necessarily exclusive of each other.

Idealization in Treatment

In the treatment context, idealization is viewed as a defense and as a developmental issue. While both Kohut and Kernberg relate types of idealization to developmental levels, Kernberg's types are generally characterized in terms of defenses and Kohut's types are generally characterized in a more developmental framework. Ornstein (1974, pp. 246-247) implied that what Kernberg would interpret as a defense, Kohut would interpret in terms of "developmental phase-specific meaning."

Idealization is defined as a defense mechanism or coping style in the fourth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, (DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 1994, p. 776): "The individual deals with emotional conflict or internal or external stressors by attributing exaggerated positive qualities to others."

Kernberg's Types of Idealization

Kernberg delineated different types of idealization which he associated with various defenses. Three types-- primitive, guilt-activated, and more mature-- were part of a normal developmental continuum; the fourth type, a pathological type, was associated with narcissistic personalities.

Primitive idealization refers to the tendency to see external objects as unrealistically good and powerful.

Primitive idealization

is the direct manifestation of a primitive protective fantasy structure in which there is no real regard for the ideal object, but a simple need for it as a protection against a surrounding world of dangerous objects. ..Primitive idealization may be considered a forerunner of later forms of idealization. (Kernberg, 1975, p.30)

Primitive idealization represents the lowest level of defensive idealization and is associated with the defense of splitting. Idealization is the positive side; the flip side is devaluation. Via splitting, the person idealizes and devalues but the experience of idealization does not affect

the experience of devaluation (and vice versa).

Primitive idealization evolves, during what Klein called the depressive position, into a higher level of idealization that involves defense against guilt feelings. This higher level of idealization was referred to as "guilt-activated" idealization (Kernberg, 1975, p. 274).

This higher level of idealization [guilt-activated idealization] is followed by the still more mature type of idealization which includes the projection onto the idealized objects of higher level superego functions dealing with abstract, depersonified value systems: in essence, a normal phenomenon which is characteristic particularly of adolescence and falling in love.

(Kernberg, 1975, p. 277)

Kernberg noted that these three types of idealization (i.e., primitive idealization, guilt-activated idealization, and more mature idealization) "are in striking contrast to the idealization of the narcissistic personality, which reflects the projection on to the analyst of the patient's grandiose self" (Kernberg, 1974, p. 222). He suggested that this type of idealization involves more than just projection, it involves projective identification.

Insofar as a pathological, grandiose self is projected on to the analyst and the patient's 'empathy' with that projected self remains, and he attempts to exert maximum control to have the analyst follow exactly what is required in order to maintain the projection and to avoid the emergence of the analyst as an independent,

autonomous object, this entire defensive operation reflects what I have described operationally ...as 'projective identification'. (Kernberg, 1974, p. 222)

Kernberg (1974) discussed primitive idealization, guilt-activated idealization, and the more mature idealization associated with falling in love as levels in "a continuum, from normal primitive to normal adult functioning" (Kernberg, p. 222). In contrast, he referred to the idealization associated with narcissistic personalities as "a pathological process rather than a normal developmental stage" (Kernberg, p. 222).

Kohut's Types of Idealization

Kohut's main emphasis was on non-defensive idealization as experienced by analytic patients. While Kohut acknowledged the "defensive use of idealization", he saw it as related to "narcissistic rage" and addressed it separately (Kohut, 1972) from his major works (e.g., Kohut 1971, 1977). Part One of Kohut's 1971 book, The Analysis of the self: A systematic approach to the psychoanalytic treatment of narcissistic personalities, addressed two types of idealizations. The primary emphasis was on the idealizing transference experienced by patients with narcissistic personalities. This type of idealization involves "a need for merger with a source of 'idealized' strength and calmness" (Kohut & Wolf, 1978, p. 413). At this level, idealization relates more to need than to appreciation of the other. Kohut also alluded to the idealizations that occur in the

transference neuroses. These are analogous to "idealizations which characteristically accompany the state of being in love" (Kohut, 1971, p. 75); they involve "moderately unrealistic overestimation of the object" (Kohut, 1971, p. 76).

Idealization in Love

Affective Reality

Sociologist Willard Waller (1938) defined idealization in the context of love:

Idealization may be defined as the process of building up a complete picture of another person in one's own imagination, a picture for which sensory data are absent or to which they are definitely contradictory....In romantic love one builds up an almost completely unreal picture of a person which he calls by the same name as a real person, and vainly imagines to be like that person, but in fact the only authentic thing in the picture is the emotion which one feels toward it. (cited in Burgess & Wallin, 1953/1968, pp. 118-119.)

Idealization, as defined by Waller, is similar to Winch's (1952) definition of romantic love: "a relationship between the sexes in which the affective component is regarded as primary, and all other considerations ... are excluded from conscious reflection." (cited in Dean, 1961, p. 44) Both Waller and Winch stress the predominance of the affective component.

Idealization, according to Tennov (1979/1981, p. 31), implies that "unattractive features are literally overlooked." Technically, idealization can mean to see the other as ideal. For example, idealization, according to The Oxford English dictionary, means "the action of idealizing" and idealize means "to make or render ideal; to represent in an ideal form or character; to exalt to an ideal perfection of excellence" (Simpson & Weiner, 1989, p. 616).

Commonly, however, the term idealization is used to describe perceptions that are overly favorable but not necessarily ideal. Idealization as studied in the context of love has been operationalized in terms of favorable perceptions of the other (e.g., Burgess & Wallin 1953/1968; Hall & Taylor, 1976; Hansen, 1981; Kerckhoff & Davis, 1962; and Pollis, 1969). This common conception of idealization is the same, or close to the same thing that Stendhal, in his 19th century work, De l'Amour, called crystallization.

A branch of a tree, he said, if tossed into a salt mine and allowed to remain there for several months undergoes a metamorphosis. It remains a branch, or even just a twig, but the salt crystals transform it "into an object of shimmering beauty" (cited in Tennov, 1979/1981, p. 30).

Tennov interpreted crystallization as a process in which the person views another in the most favorable light-- exaggerating positive characteristics and giving little or no attention to unfavorable characteristics. She (p. 31) noted,

"the 'misperception' of the person experiencing romantic passion has been discussed by writers prior to and following Stendhal, who most often refer to 'idealization'." Tennyson, however, drew a distinction between idealization and crystallization. She wrote, "idealization differs from crystallization in its implication that the image is molded to fit a preformed, externally derived, or emotionally needed conception. In crystallization, the actual and existing features.. merely undergo enhancement" (p. 31).

Tennyson's distinction between idealization and crystallization resembles Kohut's distinction between idealization as seen in narcissistic transferences versus idealization as seen transference neuroses. In the narcissistic transference, idealization is characterized by need; in the transference neuroses, idealization involves "moderately unrealistic" overestimations. Kohut, however, referred to both as "kinds of idealization" (Kohut, 1971, p. 75).

Tennyson's statement that idealization implies that "the image is molded to fit a preformed.. emotionally needed conception" also resembles one of Freud's (1922, pp. 112-113) references to idealization.

In connection with this question of being in love we have always been struck by the phenomenon of sexual over-valuation--the fact that the loved object enjoys a certain amount of freedom from criticism, and that all its characteristics are valued more highly than those of people who are not loved, or than its own were at a time

when it itself was not loved.... The tendency which falsifies judgment in this respect is that of idealization [emphasis added]. But now it is easier for us to find our bearings. We see that the object is being treated in the same way as our own ego, so that when we are in love a considerable amount of narcissistic libido overflows on to the object. It is even obvious, in many forms of love-choice, that the object serves as a substitute for some unattained ego ideal of our own. We love it on account of the perfections which we have striven to reach for our own ego, and which we should now like to procure in this roundabout way as a means of satisfaction of our narcissism. (cited in Spruiell, 1979, pp. 786-787)

Thus, "in many forms of love-choice", the idealization is molded according to what is perceived as missing in the self. Desired but absent qualities are projected onto an idealized other.

Beyond Cognitive Content

Idealization is commonly defined in terms of cognitive content (i.e., to perceive the other as ideal or in a favorable light). Even the DSM-IV definition of idealization refers to cognitive content (i.e., "attributing exaggerated positive qualities to others.")

Idealization, in Kernberg's work, could be thought of as the cognitive content of other defenses. Primitive idealization is a manifestation of splitting; guilt-activated

idealization involves a reaction formation; the more mature level of idealization associated with falling in love involves some projection; and the idealization associated with pathological narcissism involves projective identification (Kernberg, 1974, p. 222). The consistent cognitive content relates to seeing the other in positive terms; understanding the different levels of idealization, however, requires looking beyond the cognitive content.

Mitchell (1988, p. 194) in a discussion of narcissistic illusions, emphasized that the content is not what is important.

The determination of emotional health as opposed to psychopathology, when it comes to narcissistic illusions, has less to do with the actual content of the illusions than with the attitude of the individual about that content....it is not so much what you do and think as your attitude toward what you do and think, how seriously do you take yourself.

It is clear that understanding idealization requires looking beyond cognitive content.

PSYCHOANALYTIC VIEWS OF IDEALIZATION

Idealization has been extensively discussed by both Kohut and Kernberg. This chapter reviews their ideas about the types, characteristics, and functions of idealization. Similarities and differences are then identified.

Kohut

Kohut (1971) primarily emphasized the type of idealization experienced by individuals with narcissistic personalities. He suggested that, within the spectrum of psychopathology, narcissistic personalities were above the borderline personalities and below the transference neuroses. Kohut secondarily discussed the more reality based idealizations experienced in the transference neuroses. In addition, he (1972) briefly discussed a defensive type of idealization associated with narcissistic rage. Finally, he noted that through-out life people have a need for idealizable objects.

Idealization and the Narcissistic Transferences

Idealization is a crucial mechanism in Kohut's bipolar self. The bipolar self consists of "a grandiose and exhibitionistic image of the self: *the grandiose self*;" (Kohut, 1971, p. 25) and "an admired, omnipotent

(transitional) selfobject: *the idealized parent imago*" (p. 25). The child develops the bipolar self as an attempt to replace the perfection of primary narcissism which is lost due to "the unavoidable shortcomings of maternal care" (p. 25). Primary narcissism is thus replaced by two basic narcissistic configurations: the grandiose self and the idealized parent imago.

The development of the two narcissistic configurations affects the development of intrapsychic structure. Kohut noted that the two configurations

... coexist from the beginning and their individual and largely independent lines of development are open to separate scrutiny. Under optimal developmental conditions, the exhibitionism and grandiosity of the archaic grandiose self are gradually tamed, and the whole structure ultimately becomes integrated into the adult personality . . . And, under similarly favorable circumstances, the idealized parent imago, too, becomes integrated into the adult personality. Introjected as our idealized superego, it becomes an important component of our psychic organization by holding up to us the guiding leadership of its ideals. (1971, pp. 27-28). At times, however, normal development is arrested. To illustrate:

If the child experiences traumatic disappointments in the admired adult, then the idealized parent imago . . . is

retained in its unaltered form, is not transformed into tension-regulating psychic structure, does not attain the status of an accessible introject, but remains an archaic, transitional selfobject that is required for the maintenance of narcissistic homeostasis. (Kohut, 1971, p. 28)

The transferences that are associated with narcissistic disorders correspond to the two types of narcissistic configurations. The mirror transference corresponds to the grandiose self and the idealizing transference corresponds to the idealized parent imago. Kohut and Wolf (1978, p. 413) described these transferences as follows:

(1) the *mirror transference* .. an insufficiently or faulty responded to childhood need for a source of accepting-confirming 'mirroring' is revived in the treatment situation, and

(2) the *idealizing transference*.. a need for merger with a source of 'idealized' strength and calmness is similarly revived.

The idealizing transference, while it is undisturbed, appears to provide security.

.. In the undisturbed transference the narcissistic patient feels whole, safe, powerful, good, attractive, active so long as his self experience includes the idealized analyst whom he feels he controls and possesses with a self-evident certainty... The presence of the

idealized self-object is often accepted with the same self-evident certainty with which we accept the presence of the life-sustaining framework of the surrounding air and of the solid ground on which we stand. (Kohut, 1971, p. 90)

At times, however, the patient realizes that he does not control and possess the analyst. This disturbance in the transference is a narcissistic injury and can result in symptoms which resemble in content, but are not the same as, experiences associated with psychoses. Kohut (1971, pp. 1-2) commented:

Neither analyst nor patient tends to remain greatly alarmed by these temporary regressive experiences, even though their content (paranoid suspiciousness, for example; or delusional body sensations and profound shifts in self perception), if judged in isolation, would indeed justify the apprehension that a serious break with reality is imminent. But the total picture remains assuring, in particular the fact that the event which precipitated the regression can usually be identified. . .

Kohut's treatment involves regression to points of developmental arrest. The idealizing transference is revived from a range of developmental points.

The idealizing transference which establishes itself during the analysis of narcissistic personalities may occur in a variety of more or less circumscribed

types. There are therapeutic reactivations of archaic states which hark back to the period when the idealized mother imago is still almost completely merged with that of the self; and there are other instances in which the pathognomonic transference reactivations concern much later points in the development of the idealizing libido and the idealized object... (1971, p. 55)

Archaic Fixation Points

Transferences relating to archaic fixation points are characterized by an emotional bond to the analyst. Kohut (1971, pp. 85-86) described this type of transference as follows:

It may manifest itself through the expression of vague and mystical religious preoccupations with isolated awe-inspiring qualities which no longer emanate from a clearly delimited, unitary admired figure. Although the manifestations of archaic levels of idealizing transference are thus at times less clear-cut (especially where it merges into the therapeutic activation of the grandiose self), there is never any doubt that a specific emotional bond to the analyst has been formed.

Metapsychologically expressed, the regression set in motion by the analytic situation strives toward the establishment of a narcissistic equilibrium, which is experienced as boundless power and knowledge and as

aesthetic and moral perfection. (These attributes are still more or less undifferentiated from each other in those instances where the therapeutic regression leads to very early fixation points.) This equilibrium can be maintained as long as the analysand can sustain the feeling that he has become united with the image of the idealized analyst. (Kohut, 1971, pp. 85-86)

Kohut's case example, Mr. B., is an illustration of a transference relating to a relatively archaic fixation point; Mr. B's fixation point was believed to have occurred just after he was three years old. The transference was described as follows:

He [Mr. B] felt merged with the idealized analyst. The therapist's attention effectively counteracted the tendency toward the fragmentation and discontinuity of the patient's self experience, solidifying his self-esteem and thus secondarily improving his ego functioning and efficiency. To any impending disruption of the beneficial deployment of narcissistic cathexis that was provided by his relationship with the analyst, he reacted at first with great apprehension, followed by a decathexis of the narcissistically invested analyst (accompanied by intense oral-sadistic rage) which seriously threatened the cohesiveness of his personality. Then followed a typical reactive hypercathexis of a primitive form of the grandiose self, with cold and

imperious behavior. But, finally (after the analyst had been away for a while), he reached a comparatively stable balance on a more primitive level: he withdrew to lonely intellectual activities which, although he pursued them with less creativity than previously, provided him with a certain sense of mastery, security, and self-sufficiency. In his words, formulated later in the analyses, he "rowed out alone to the middle of the lake and looked at the moon." (1971, p. 80)

Several features of Mr. B's transference are noteworthy: the feeling that he was merged with the analyst; the severity of his reaction to any disruption in the relationship; the reactive hypercathexis of the grandiose self, and finally, the narcissistic withdrawal. Clearly, Mr. B had an emotional bond with the analyst and had severe reactions to disruptions in the relationship.

Transferences relating to archaic fixation points can be difficult to recognize because the patient may only recall later memories. Kohut suggested that the later memories may have been retained because they are analogous to the archaic one.

Later Fixation Points

Transferences which are actually reactivations of later fixation points are characterized by needs for union with and approval from an idealized other.

In these latter instances a trauma led to specific narcissistic fixations during a period, from the late preoedipal phase through early latency...which in turn results in a fixation on the narcissistic aspects of the preoedipal or oedipal idealized object. Persons who have suffered such traumas are (as adolescents and adults) forever attempting to achieve a union with the idealized object since, in view of their specific structural defect (the insufficient idealization of their superego), their narcissistic equilibrium is safeguarded only through the interest, the responses, and the approval of present-day (i.e., currently active) replicas of the traumatically lost self-object. (Kohut, 1971, p. 55)

The case of Mr. A is an illustration of a transference relating to a later fixation point; Mr. A's fixation point was believed to have occurred in early latency (1971, p. 61).

He [Mr. A] he seemed insatiable in two (tyranically and sadistically asserted) demands that he directed toward the idealized analyst: (a) that the analyst share the patient's values, goals, and standards (and thus imbue them with significance through their idealization); and (b) that the analyst confirm through the expression of a warm glow of pleasure and participation that the patient had lived up to his values and standards and had successfully worked toward a goal. (Kohut, 1971, p. 62)

Narcissistic Transference Versus Transference Neuroses

Idealizations which occur in the transference neuroses may seem to resemble idealizations which occur in the narcissistic disorders but they relate to different developmental levels.

The idealizations in the narcissistic disorders may derive either from the activation of archaic and transitional or of comparatively mature stages in the development of the idealized parent imago; the specific pathogenic fixation, however, was always established prior to the ultimate completion of the transmuting internalization of the idealized parent imago, i.e., before the point in development when the formation of an idealized superego has become irreversible. The idealizations encountered in the transference neuroses, on the other hand, are derived from psychological structures that were acquired at the end of the oedipal phase and during later stages of psychological development. (Kohut, 1971, p. 74)

Clinically, the idealizations in the narcissistic idealizing transference are "easily distinguishable" (Kohut, 1971, p. 54) from the idealizations in the transference neuroses primarily because idealization plays a much more central role in the idealizing transference experienced by narcissistic personalities.

The narcissistic disturbance is due to an arrest in the

normal lines of development associated with the grandiose self and the idealized parent imago. These lines of development are reactivated in the idealizing and mirror transferences and consequently, working through these transferences constitutes "the very essence of the analytic work" (Kohut, 1971, p. 78). Thus, there is a clear distinction between

- (a) the specific, essential, and strategic role of the idealization of the analyst in the idealizing transference of narcissistic personalities; and
- (b) the ubiquitous, auxiliary, and only tactical role of the idealization of the analyst in the analysis of the transference neuroses. (Kohut, 1971, p. 77)

Idealization in the Transference Neuroses

Two forms of idealization are seen in the transference neuroses:

- (a) in one, ..the idealization is present as an admixture to object love (of whatever kind) which has been activated in the transference; it is analogous to the idealizations which characteristically accompany the state of being in love;
- (b) in the other it occurs as the result of the projection of the analysand's idealized superego onto the analyst. (Kohut, 1971, p. 75)

The first form of idealization in the transference neuroses is analogous to the state of being in love in that

both involve libidinal cathexes but at the same time the idealized object

is well differentiated from the self, i.e., it is acknowledged as a center of initiative--of independent perception, thought, and action. Thus the (fantasized) transference interactions with the object contain elements of mutuality (fantasies of giving and receiving a baby, for example).. (Kohut, 1971, p. 76)

Furthermore, although individuals with transference neuroses may "moderately unrealistically overestimate" the object, they do not "lose touch with the realistic features of the object" (Kohut, 1971, p. 76).

The second form of idealization in the transference neuroses involves "the projection of the analysand's idealized superego onto the analyst" (1971, p. 75).

The characteristic features of this idealization are derived from the fact that the wisdom and power with which the analysand credits the idealized therapist resemble the system of idealized standards and values from which the projections arose. These transference projections, furthermore, are temporary.. . They arise at specific junctures in the analysis of transference neuroses, namely, at those times when an unconscious superego-ego conflict begins to be mobilized, and when the analysand--in a defensive move, or as a first step toward the conscious acceptance of the presence of the

conflict--experiences the commands of his idealized superego as coming from without, i.e., specifically, as coming from the analyst. In this context the analyst tends to be seen predominantly as an ideal figure in a world of standards and values, and rejections by him are, therefore, in general reacted to by the patient with feelings of guilt and of moral unworthiness. (1971, p. 78)

Defensive Idealization

In addition, Kohut acknowledged the widespread occurrence of a defensive type of idealization. This "defensive use of idealization, i.e., of (over)idealizations which ..buttress secondarily repressions of, reaction formations against, or denials of a structurally deeper lying hostility" is related to narcissistic rage (1971, p. 75). Kohut warned that "human aggression is most dangerous when it is attached to the two great absolutarian psychological constellations: the grandiose self and the archaic omnipotent object" (1972, p. 378).

Idealization Throughout Life

The need to idealize is, according to Kohut, a need through-out life, but the nature of the need changes with maturation.

..the need for, and the experience of, imagoes used for

the creation and sustenance of the self undergoes a lifelong maturation, development, and change. Expressed differently, I mean that we must not confuse (1) the archaic selfobjects that (a) are the normal requirement of early life and (b) are required later on, either chronically in disorders of the self, or passingly, during periods of special stress in those who are free from self pathology, with (2) the mature selfobjects that all of us need for our psychological survival from birth to death. (Kohut, 1984, p. 193)

Kernberg

The Development of Intrapsychic Structure

Kernberg's model of the development of intrapsychic structure (1976/1984, pp. 19-51) acknowledged that idealization is important in building the ego ideal. In general, though, Kernberg's comments about idealization have focused more on the way that idealization changes characteristics as it reflects different levels of structural development. Either way, the different levels correspond to different types of idealization and hence, understanding idealization is facilitated by an understanding of Kernberg's ideas about the development of intrapsychic structure.

Ego Development

Kernberg (1975, p. 26) suggested that the developing ego must accomplish two essential tasks. The first task of ego development is to distinguish between self and object images.

Experiences associated with self and object images are originally stored in memory according to the affective valence of the experience. Gratifying/positive experiences are stored separately from frustrating/negative experiences.

The second task of ego development is to integrate the positive and negative self images and to separately integrate the positive and negative object images. Failure to achieve this integration is termed "splitting" because the individual then appears to split the good images from the bad images. Both co-exist but it is as if they are in separate compartments.

Moving beyond splitting involves tolerance of ambivalence. As the individual comes to realize that the other is both good and bad, the individual struggles with negative feelings toward the other. Whereas aggressive impulses were previously justified by a perception of the other as all bad, these aggressive impulses now exist in the context of the realization that the other is both good and bad. Complicating the matter, the individual is struggling with a changing self image. Whereas previously, the individual's self view consisted of co-existing, compartmentalized all good and all bad images, a more

integrated image is starting to emerge. Kernberg (1976/1984, p. 40) noted:

Tension between contradictory self-images develops with the appearance of guilt and concern (Winnicott, 1955) because of the acknowledged aggression of the self toward the object which is both good and bad. Guilt, concern, and mourning over the good object, which is felt partly lost by this synthesized integration and partly endangered, are new affective dispositions which strongly develop in the ego at this stage (Winnicott, 1955).

The process may be frustrating and/or frightening, but if the individual is able to tolerate ambivalent feelings, the ego grows and it becomes unnecessary for the person to compartmentalize and cut off emotional experiences (Kernberg, 1975, p. 165).

Development of the Ego Ideal and Superego

The realizations that self and other are not all good trigger the development of the ideal self and the ideal object. The ideal self represents "the striving for reparation of guilt and for the re-establishment of an ideal, positive relationship between self and other" (Kernberg, 1976/1984, p. 40). The ideal object "represents the unharmed, all-loving, all-forgiving object" (Kernberg, p. 40). The ideal self and the ideal objects come together to form the ego ideal which was conceptualized by Jacobson (1954) as "a

precursor to the establishment of the superego system proper" (Sandler, Holder, & Meer, 1963, p. 146). Conflicts between the actual self and the ego ideal are involved in the shaping of the superego, which, with maturation, gradually becomes abstract and "depersonalized" (Kernberg, 1976/1984, p. 42).

Idealization Associated with Normal Development

Primitive Idealization

Kernberg presented several types of idealization that relate to the development of the ego, the ego ideal and the superego. The type that he associated with early ego development is primitive idealization--a protective fantasy which involves unrealistic perception of the other as all good and powerful. This type of idealization, alternating with devaluation, corresponds to the pre-ambivalent level of ego development. Via splitting, the individual keeps good and bad separate even though both may pertain to the same other person. Kernberg (1975, p. 26) noted that,

Such a state of affairs is, of course, very detrimental to the integrative processes which normally crystallize into a stable ego identity, and underlies the syndrome of identity diffusion (Erikson, 1956).

Primitive idealization also relates to the defense known as omnipotence. Via identification with an omnipotent other, the person shares "in the greatness of the idealized object as

a protection against aggression, and as a direct gratification of narcissistic needs" (Kernberg, 1967/1986, p. 304).

Primitive idealization is intense. Compared to primitive idealization, idealizations at higher levels are "toned down, yet humanly deeper" (Kernberg, 1975, p. 211).

Guilt Activated Idealization

A second type of idealization is experienced by the individual who has achieved the ability to tolerate ambivalence but experiences guilt over aggressive feelings directed at an object now viewed as both good and bad. Idealization may occur in response to this guilt. According to Kernberg (1980, p. 30), the object is idealized so it will not be destroyed by this aggression. At this level, the idealized other is perceived as a good, loving, and forgiving "parental figure who is all-understanding and tolerant and who loves the patient in spite of his 'badness'" (Kernberg, 1974, p. 222).

More Mature Idealization

A third type of idealization corresponds to a higher level of superego evolution. This idealization is a more mature type which involves projection based on "abstract, depersonified value systems" (Kernberg, 1975, p. 277). Kernberg (1974, p. 222) calls this type of idealization "a normal phenomenon, which is characteristic particularly of

adolescence and of falling in love."

Idealization and Love

Kernberg noted that the "different types of idealization can be seen as a continuum, from normal primitive to normal adult functioning" (Kernberg, 1975, p. 277). He (1975, p. 222) associated the third type with adolescence and falling in love, but he (1984, p. 221) saw all three types as relevant to love. In discussing the capacity to love, Kernberg (1984, p.221) reviewed the three types of idealization and their relationships to pathology and to love:

(1) A primitive level, characteristic of ego states that reflect a predominance of splitting mechanisms; this is found in the borderline personality organization and is associated with the most primitive form of falling in love, usually not leading to a capacity for remaining in love--that is, to a mature love relation. (2) An idealization linked to the establishment of the capacity for mourning and concern (the "depressive position"), with a more realistic awareness of and empathy for the object but still devoid of genital features. This level is characteristic of states of falling in love of the usual neurotic patient; and here the capacity for establishing a stable love relationship exists to some extent, although it is usually conflict ridden and unsatisfactory. (3) A normal idealization, achieved

toward the end of adolescence or in young adulthood, which is based upon a stable sexual identity and a realistic awareness of the love object. It includes social and cultural in addition to personal and sexual ideals.

While borderline pathology is associated with unstable relationships, borderline pathology is associated with a better capacity for investment in relationships than narcissistic pathology (Kernberg, 1977, p. 82). Kernberg (1975, p. 212) noted that in borderline patients, "primitive idealization may be the first step toward a love relation different from the love-hate relation with their primary objects." Moving toward a new type of love relation involves tolerating ambivalence--that is, moving beyond splitting. "The integration of loving and hating self-images and object images and affects in the transformation of part- into total object relations (or object constancy) is a basic precondition for the capacity to establish a stable object relation" (Kernberg, 1977, p. 101).

Idealization and Narcissistic Pathology

These three types were separate and different from the type of idealization associated with the narcissistic personality. Whereas these three types of idealization are associated with normal developmental processes, the idealizing transference associated with narcissistic personalities

"reflects a pathological type of idealization" (1975, p. 279).

There is, however, overlap which involves primitive idealization. Individuals with narcissistic personalities may have a borderline personality structure. Both primitive and pathological idealization have been manifested by individuals with narcissistic personalities. A pathological process is indicated by the use of pathological idealization rather than primitive or other types of idealization associated with normal development (Kernberg, 1974, p. 222).

Based on experiences with analytic patients and with supervisees, Kernberg described the characteristics of idealization in the patients with narcissistic personalities. Early in the analysis, idealization is strong. The analyst is seen as a potential source of narcissistic gratification and the idealization may defend against feelings of envy and devaluation. "Gradually, the idealized features of the analyst, which at first reflect rather conventionally ideal attributes, shift into directions which reveal a particular nature of the patient's grandiose self" (Kernberg, 1975, p. 280).

According to Kernberg (1975, p. 265), in narcissistic personalities, the grandiose self is a "pathological condensation of some aspects of the real self., the ideal self., and the ideal object...." Idealizations are projections of the pathological grandiose self.

Patients with narcissistic personalities see the analysts

as extensions of themselves. They do not let themselves depend on or trust others. The patient may withdraw idealization at the end of the hour, showing "a complete absence of real dependency on the analyst" (Kernberg, 1974, p. 222).

There is a persistent absence of separation anxiety or mourning reactions at weekends, vacation, or illness of the analyst, so that even at times of apparent idealization of the analyst the difference between such idealization and that which obtains in other transferences is striking. (Kernberg, 1974, p. 220)

Patients with narcissistic personalities have no curiosity about the analyst and are oblivious to the analyst's personal characteristics. This obliviousness, according to Kernberg (1975, pp. 274-275), is diagnostic.

Although Kernberg talks about the idealizations of narcissistic patients, his descriptions of narcissistic patients imply that they do not truly idealize anyone.

A narcissistic patient experiences his relationships with other people as being purely exploitative, as if he were "squeezing a lemon and then dropping the remains."

People may appear to him either to have some potential food inside, which the patient has to extract, or to be already emptied and therefore valueless. In addition, these shadowy external objects sometimes suddenly seem to be invested with high and dangerous powers, as the

patient projects onto others the primitive characteristics of his own superego and of his own exploitative nature. His attitude toward others is either deprecatory--he has extracted all he needs and tosses them aside--or fearful--others may attack, exploit, and force him to submit to them. At the very bottom of this dichotomy lies a still deeper image of the relationship with external objects, precisely the one against which the patient has erected all these other pathological structures. It is the image of a hungry, enraged, empty self, full of impotent anger at being frustrated, and fearful of a world which seems as hateful and revengeful as the patient himself. (Kernberg, 1975, p. 233)

Kohut and Kernberg Compared

Both Kohut and Kernberg suggested that different types of idealization correspond with different levels of development. While Kernberg specifically delineated a three level continuum associated with normal development, both analysts implied a progression from a need based idealization to a more mature idealization. At the more mature level, the idealization involves more accurate perception and a greater ability to recognize the separateness of self and other. Kohut noted that at the higher level, idealization plays a less central role in analysis. Kernberg (1975, p. 211) noted that at

levels above the borderline level, the idealization is "toned-down, yet more deeply human."

Kohut and Kernberg diverge on the topic of idealization in narcissistic personalities. It has been argued (e.g., by Ornstein, 1974) that they also diverge in what they mean by "narcissistic personalities."

Kernberg's position is that individuals with narcissistic personalities idealize by projecting their own pathological grandiose self on to the idealized other. According to Kernberg, this idealization is pathological and strikingly different than the types of idealization associated with normal development. It is, therefore, strikingly different than the type of idealization that Kohut associated with narcissistic personalities.

Kohut extensively discussed idealizations associated with a normal line of development. The idealizations that he associated with narcissistic personalities were idealizations that related to archaic self-objects. In Kohut's view, pathology related to the developmental arrest, but the idealizing needs were normal.

Kohut (1971) used the term narcissistic personalities to refer to patients who fell between the borderline level and the transference neuroses. Individuals with narcissistic personalities were potentially analyzable whereas individuals with borderline personalities were not were not [although Kohut (1984, pp. 182-183) talked about how a "borderline" can

become an analyzable narcissistic personality disorder.] Kernberg, in contrast, suggested that many narcissistic personalities function at a borderline level. The varying perspectives again suggest that Kohut and Kernberg associated different meanings with narcissistic personality.

Another differentiating feature is separation anxiety. Kernberg implied that what differentiates narcissists from non-narcissists is that individuals with narcissist personalities do not experience separation anxiety when, for example, the analyst takes a vacation. According to Kernberg, these individuals do not really trust. Kohut described individuals with narcissistic personalities who did experience separation anxiety (e.g., Mr. B). The desire to trust was also apparent in narcissistic patients described by Kohut.

Nevertheless, Kernberg (1974) asserted that he and Kohut were in agreement regarding clinical characteristics of narcissism. Kernberg stressed the commonalties between his view of narcissism and Kohut's; he, nevertheless, acknowledged that he gives more emphasis to the "pathological nature of their internalized object relations" and to the presence of envy and related defenses (Kernberg, 1974, p. 15).

Ornstein, (1974, p. 243) in response to Kernberg (1974), suggested that Kernberg and Kohut were not talking about the same patient populations. Ornstein added, "Kohut's diagnosis of narcissistic personality disorder is closely linked to the transference manifestations and to his metapsychological

formulations; it can therefore not be readily used as a descriptive diagnosis."

While it is not clear what Kohut meant by the term "narcissistic personalities", his descriptions of the idealizing transference were clear. The type of idealization in the idealizing transference resembles the type of idealization that Kernberg described as primitive idealization. Both involve deep need and can involve a fantasy of safety via connection with an omnipotent other.

CHAPTER III

MEASURES OF IDEALIZATION

Numerous studies have purported to measure idealization. For purposes of organizing the literature, studies have been grouped according to idealization in treatment, idealization as a normal developmental concept, and idealization in the context of love. While the studies were fairly easily matched to these categories, the categories are artificial and clearly not exclusive of each other.

Idealization in the Context of Treatment

Non-projective Measures

Primitive Idealization

The Defense Style Questionnaire (DSQ), is a self-report measure that "taps possible conscious derivatives of defense mechanisms" (Bond, Gardner, Christian, & Sigal 1983, p.333). To answer the question "Which phenomenon can be labeled defense or coping mechanisms?," (p. 333), the authors referred to psychoanalytic sources. The works of Kernberg (specifically his paper "Borderline personality organization") and Melanie Klein were cited as sources for the concept of primitive idealization.

Kernberg (1967/1986) stated that "primitive idealization is the direct manifestation of a primitive, protective fantasy structure" (pp. 303-304). The link between Kernberg's concept

of primitive idealization and the sample primitive idealization item published by Bond et al (1983) is obvious: The sample item reads "I always feel that someone I know is like a guardian angel" (Bond et al, 1983, p. 334).

Subsequent publications about the DSQ and revisions to it (e.g., Andrews, Pollock & Stewart, 1989, p.457; Andrews, Singh, & Bond, 1993, p. 250) indicated that two items measure idealization. (The word "primitive" was dropped.) One is the guardian angel item mentioned above; the second reads "There is someone I know who can do anything and who is absolutely fair and just" (Vaillant, 1992, p. 284).

Most of the validity evidence collected for the DSQ relates to defense styles rather than individual defenses. Initially, Bond et al. (1983), suggested that it "would be impossible to conclude anything about isolated defense mechanisms, but we hoped that we could approximate the measure of groups of defense mechanisms that we call defense style" (p. 334). However, subsequent research (Bond, Perry, Gautier, Goldenberg, Oppenheimer, & Simand, 1989) looked at some individual defense mechanisms (including idealization) for purposes of examining the cross-validity of the DSQ and the Defense Mechanism Rating Scale (DMRS). The DMRS is a procedure for scoring defenses based on videotaped interviews. Using a sample of 156 subjects, defenses as measured by the DSQ were compared with scores for the same defense as measured by the DMRS; the two measures of idealization were not significantly correlated (Bond et al, 1989, p. 110).

In response to questions about the validity of the DSQ

idealization items, Bond wrote, "When correlating DSQ items with DMRS ratings, the items for idealization did not show significant positive correlations with DMRS ratings of idealization... I would not bank on these items being a valid and thorough measure of idealization" (personal communication, August 1, 1994).

Splitting

Gerson (1984) developed a measure of splitting based on the theoretical contributions of Kohut and Kernberg. Two items derived from Kohut's theory were said to "assess the relationship between splitting and idealization" (pp. 159-160). The items were: "It's very painful when someone disappoints me"; and "Some people have too much power over me" (Gerson, p. 159).

The Defense Mechanism Rating Scales

The Defense Mechanism Rating Scales (DMRS) were designed to measure 30 defenses; among these is idealization. (Perry & Cooper, 1989, p. 445) The DMRS provides guidance for assessing the presence of defenses in taped interview material.

Perry's formal definition of idealization is "the individual deals with emotional conflicts or internal or external stressors, by attributing exaggerated positive qualities to self or others" (cited in Vaillant, 1992, Appendix 4, p. 257). In addition to providing a definition, the manual for the DMRS provides "an explanation of the

function of the defense, and a discussion of how to discriminate it from other defenses" (Perry & Cooper, 1989, p. 445).

The cross-validity of the DMRS and the DSQ was tested by correlating individual defense scores from the DMRS with DSQ scores for the same defense (Bond et al, 1989). Bond suggested several possibilities for the lack of correlation between the two measures of idealization. He stated, "it is possible that the raters were not consistently accurate enough to allow for a significant correlation; it is possible that the base rate was too low; it is possible that our items measure something other than what the DMRS measures" (personal communication, August 1, 1994).

Reliability for the DMRS was reported by Perry and Cooper (1985). In a study with 46 patients, six raters reviewed video-taped interviews and scored defenses using the DMRS. "Raters were divided into two groups of three each. After observing a videotape, the individuals independently rated the subject on 22 defenses... Each group then discussed each defense and settled on a consensus rating" (Perry & Cooper, 1989, p. 447).

For primitive idealization, the inter-rater reliability (expressed as an intraclass coefficient) for the six individual ratings was .43; the inter-rater reliability for the two ratings done by group consensus was .75. (Perry & Cooper, 1989, p.446)

The authors attributed low reliabilities between individual raters to "the difficulty of scanning a whole

interview for evidence of a large number of defenses, each of which is an open, textured concept" (Perry & Cooper, 1989, p. 449). More recently, Skodol and Perry (1993, p. 114) stated, "one unresolved issue regarding the DMRS is that, to date, ratings used in studies are group-consensus ratings. Whether single clinicians can be trained to use the instrument as reliably or validly remains to be seen."

Projective Measures

Rorschach Measures

Hermann Rorschach hinted at the possibility of measuring something like idealization using responses to the "Rorschach" inkblots. Rorschach (1923) "drew attention to the patients' attraction toward the central 'core' of the inkblot, suggesting that the patient's inner sense of weakness may be handled by attempts to attach himself narcissistically to powerful, idealized figures in the external world" (cited in Urist, 1977, p. 3). Shulman, McCarthy, and Ferguson (1988, p.287) cited this and noted that "the relationship between Rorschach's insight and those of Kohut concerning the need of the narcissist to develop an idealizing transference (Kohut & Wolf, 1978) is striking."

Two recently developed Rorschach scoring systems measure idealization. "Drawing upon Kernberg's theoretical conceptualization of defense structure, Lerner and Lerner (1980) developed a Rorschach scoring manual designed to assess the specific defensive constellation presumed to characterize this lower, more primitive level of defensive functioning"

(Lerner & Lerner, 1982, p. 84). The Lerner Defense Scale (LDS) measures splitting, devaluation, idealization, projective identification, and denial. Cooper, Perry, and Arnow (1988) developed the Rorschach Defense Scales (RDS) to measure 15 defenses including "lower level defense mechanisms, such as splitting and primitive idealization, as well as higher level defenses, such as intellectualization and isolation" (Cooper et al., p. 187).

While both systems purport to measure idealization, an attempt at cross-validation (Lerner, Albert, & Walsh, 1987) showed a low correlation between the two measures. Sixty-nine Rorschach protocols, previously collected and scored by Lerner and Lerner were scored on five defenses (splitting, devaluation, idealization, projective identification, and omnipotence) using RDS procedures (RDS; Cooper et al., 1988). For idealization, the correlation between the two measures was only .13. (Lerner et al., p. 346)

Lerner and Lerner (1982) found that the LDS measure of idealization failed to distinguish between certain patient groups. In a study comparing 15 borderline patients and 15 neurotic patients, idealization scores were not significantly different for the two groups. Despite the lack of statistically significant differences, Lerner and Lerner (1982) noted that "indices of idealization in general, and irrespective of level of severity, occurred more frequently in the Rorschach records of the *neurotic* [italics added] group" (Lerner & Lerner, p. 91).

In a second study, 19 schizophrenic inpatients were

compared with 21 borderline inpatients. "As for idealization..., only the low-level score proved significantly discriminatory" (Lerner & Lerner, 1982, p. 94). The number of low level (i.e., level five) idealization responses was greater for the borderline group ($M = 1.48$) than for the schizophrenic group ($M = .21$), $t(38) = -2.58$, $p = .015$. (Lerner & Lerner, 1982, p. 95).

The data from the two studies were then combined for purposes of additional comparisons. Schizophrenics obtained scores on idealization that were significantly lower than the idealization scores of the three other groups (neurotics, inpatient borderlines, and outpatient borderlines, $F(3,65)=3.48$, $p<.05$). (Lerner et al., 1987, pp. 342-343)

Another study reported by Lerner (1990) also suggests that the LDS measure of idealization relates more to normal functioning than to pathology.

Van-Der Keshet (1988) applied the Lerner and Lerner Scale to the Rorschach records of clinical anorexics, anorexic ballet students, non-anorexic ballet students and a normal control group. The clinical anorexic group was further subdivided into those patients manifesting restrictive characteristics and those exhibiting bulimic symptoms....The normal control group employed idealization significantly more often than all the other groups. (Lerner, 1990, p. 36)

According to P. Lerner, the LDS measure of idealization is "best conceptualized, not as a defense, but as an adaptive capacity (personal communication, September 28, 1994). In an

unpublished paper, P. Lerner explained that the meaning of the LDS measure of idealization was re-interpreted based on findings that idealization failed to distinguish between patient groups and "on occasion, indices of idealization were found more frequently in the Rorschach records of less disturbed groups or even the normal controls." He went on to note that adaptive aspects of idealization were found in theories offered by both Kohut and Kernberg.

Kernberg places idealization on a developmental continuum in which at the lower end its defensive aspect vis-à-vis splitting are emphasized while at the higher end its adaptive aspects are highlighted. In the service of adaptation, idealization is viewed as a pre-condition for mature love. Kohut describes how idealization is a normal part of healthy, self-development. It provides the basis for the development of compensatory structures as part of the development of the self's coherence, integrity, and harmony. (Lerner, p. 16)

The LDS provides for scoring idealization at five levels. The highest level is level one and the lowest is level five. To illustrate, levels one and five are:

(1) The humanness dimension is retained, there is no distancing of the figure in time or space, and the figure is described in a positive but not excessively flattering way: "A person with a happy smile."

(5) The humanness dimension is lost, but implied in the distortion is an enhancement of identity; there may or may not be distancing of the distorted form in time or

space; and the figure is described in either neutral or positive terms. This rating would include statues of famous figures, giants, super-heroes, angels, and idols: "A bust of Queen Victoria" (Lerner & Lerner, 1982, p. 87)

Some researchers (i.e., Hilsenroth, Hibbard, Nash & Handler, 1993; and Gacono & Meloy, 1992) have made use of the different scoring levels offered by the LDS. Their results reflect differences in low versus high level idealization.

Hilsenroth et. al. (1993) reported comparisons suggesting that both narcissistic and borderline personalities use idealization more often than a comparison "Cluster C" group. From archival data for an outpatient population, a sample of 51 Rorschachs were selected to represent three groups. The three groups were: a narcissistic personality disorder (NPD) group, a borderline personality disorder (BPD) group matched against the NPD group on the basis of demographic characteristics and intelligence scores, and a "Cluster C" group which consisted of individuals whose scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) met specific criteria and who had been diagnosed with one of the following personality disorders: avoidant, dependent, passive-aggressive, or obsessive compulsive. All cases selected for the Cluster C group had "an E scale score less than 70 and mean T-score on scales 6 through 10 less than 70" (Hilsenroth et al., p.350).

Hilsenroth et al. (1993, p. 349) noted that they felt "it would be beneficial to select a comparison group on the basis

of the general understanding of neurotic level personality organization." However, due to criticisms by Carr (1987) that "neurosis is not a DSM-III-R category and there is no operational definition for inclusion in the neurotic category" (cited in Hilsenroth et al, p. 350), the authors chose to approximate a neurotic group by using the Cluster C comparison group with MMPI scores suggesting an absence of psychosis (Hilsenroth, personal communication, October 25, 1994).

The total idealization scores reported by Hilsenroth et al., reflect the levels of idealization. Low level idealization was given five times as much weight as high level idealization. For example, if a protocol included three instances of idealization, "one being at Level 1 and the other two instances at Level 3, the subject would receive a total.. score of 7 ($1 + 3 + 3 = 7$)" (Hilsenroth et al., 1993, p. 351).

The idealization scores for the comparison "Cluster C" group (adjusted mean = 1.274) were significantly lower than the idealization scores for the narcissistic personality disorder group (adjusted mean = 4.587) and the borderline personality disorder group (adjusted mean = 4.315) (Hilsenroth et al., 1993, p. 354). Given the weighted scoring procedure, these results indicate that patients with the BPD and NPD diagnoses used more low-level idealization than those in the comparison "Cluster C" group.

Gacono and Meloy (1992) also made use of the different levels of idealization found in the LDS measure. They equated levels three, four, and five to primitive idealization and

noted that "when antisocial individuals do produce idealization responses, they are likely to be expressed through primitive idealization or non-human percepts" (Gacono & Meloy, 1992, p. 403). Among antisocial individuals, they noted a general paucity of idealization responses and an absence of higher level idealization.

The RDS (Cooper, Perry & Arnow, 1988) is a newer Rorschach scoring system. It has been used in research along with the DMRS (Perry & Cooper, 1989). While the use of diverse methods could provide validity evidence regarding the measurement of individual defenses such as idealization, Cooper et al., appear to be focused on the relation between sets of defenses and the development over time of problems such as anxiety, depression, or impaired social functioning (Cooper et al., p. 200).

The utility and validity of the RDS as a measure of idealization has yet to be demonstrated. In two studies, idealization, as measured by the RDS, has not discriminated between patient groups. In the study using protocols previously scored by Lerner and Lerner (Lerner, Albert, & Walsh, 1987) RDS idealization scores did not significantly differ for any of the groups (neurotics, outpatient borderlines, in-patient borderlines, and schizophrenics). (Lerner, Albert, & Walsh, 1987, p. 342) In the study by Cooper and colleagues (1988, p. 195), patients in four groups (borderline personality disorders [n=21], borderline traits [n=14], anti-social personality disorders [n=17], and bipolar type II [n=16]) were compared and scores on idealization again

did not differ from group to group at a statistically significant level.

In contrast, Gacono, Meloy, and Berg (1992), did find group differences in RDS idealization scores. Comparisons between patients with narcissistic personality disorders [n=18], borderline personality disorders [n= 18], psychopathic anti-social personality disorders [n=22], and non-psychopathic disorders [n=21] revealed a significant main effect ($T = 12.46$, $df = 3$, $p=.006.$) (Gacono et al., p.41). The groups of anti-social personality disorders had low frequencies of idealization responses (Gacono et al., pp. 40-44). Gacono et al. (p.33) suggested that "a deficient capacity for idealization" was a characteristic of anti-social personality which "contributes to underdeveloped sublimatory channels (Deutch, 1942; Kernberg, 1989) and subsequent lack of career success."

In addition to the RDS, Gacono et al. (1992) used the LDS measure of idealization in their study of different patient groups. Only nine percent of the individuals with anti-social personality disorders (psychopathic and non-psychopathic) produced at least one idealization response. In contrast, 56% of the individuals with narcissistic personality disorders and 39% of the individuals with borderline personality disorders produced idealization responses. The paucity of idealization responses for individuals with anti-social personality disorders was a consistency found using both the LDS and RDS measures.

The Object Relations Technique

De Jubaney (1988) illustrated how idealisation (her spelling) can be seen in material from the Object Relations Technique (ORT; Phillipson, 1955). Her interpretation of the ORT material (1988) was influenced by Kernberg's theory and by the H. Lerner and Lerner Rorschach scoring system. Incorporating ideas of Kernberg, she defined primitive idealisation as follows:

This is the negation of the unwanted characteristics of the object and the enhanced appreciation of it, into which libido is projected, creating powerful and supernatural objects ...The ideal object serves as a support and as a protection against aggression and also as a direct gratification of narcissistic needs. This idealisation reflects unexpressed dependency, and can be seen as the origin of subsequent ways of idealisation. (De Jubaney, p. 156).

The ORT is a projective test which Phillipson developed based on British object relations theory (e.g., Fairbairn and Klein) and on clinical experience, including consultation with colleagues, at Tavistock. Experimental work with the Rorschach and with the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) also influenced the development of the ORT.

In the ORT, subjects are asked to produce stories in response to stimuli.

The material consists of three series of four pictures and a blank card....Each of the series, designated A, B,

C series respectively, presents the main object relations situations: a one-person, two person, three-person, and a group situation...These basic object relations situations are varied in the three series in respect of reality content and reality context (Phillipson, 1955, p. 24).

Stories are analyzed and interpreted. Analysis involves the development of hypotheses.

The object of the analysis is to characterize the main unconscious tension systems and the range of efficiency of the methods of defense in terms of object relations. The attempt is made to obtain information on the dominating unconscious object relations, the strength of the tensions experienced, the main fears and anxieties to be dealt with, and the kind and quality of object relations built up by the patient in order to relieve these tensions. (Phillipson, 1955, p. 36).

In a case example, Phillipson (pp. 37-94) noted instances when characters or roles projected on to figures in the picture were idealized and when defensive relationships involved idealization. In addition, to idealization, many other defenses and dynamics are analyzed with the ORT.

TAT Cards and Early Memories

As a part of a study of narcissism, idealization and other characteristics presumed to be characteristic of narcissism were assessed using two TAT cards (Card 1 and Card 13MF) and early memories (Shulman, McCarthy & Ferguson, 1988).

Seventy-five undergraduates in an introductory psychology

class were asked to view the TAT cards and to write stories. They were also asked to write about their earliest childhood memory and one other early memory. Students were given twenty minutes to write and instructed to spend five minutes on each story relating to the pictures (i.e., the TAT cards) and each story relating to an early memory.

Shulman et al (1988, p. 290) listed "idealization and devaluation of people" as one of the six criteria for narcissism. Three judges scores responses on the six criteria. Results were used to get a narcissism score; scores on idealization were not reported.

Idealization as a Developmental Concept

Goal Instability

Patton and Robbins (1982, p. 880) discussed Kohut's theory that defects in the self tend to relate to either the grandiose or the idealizing lines of development:

Kohut (1971;1977) argues that since development of the self occurs along the two independent lines, the person has two chances to succeed in establishing a firm adult self. Normal development ensures the fulfillment of both the grandiose and idealizing trends in the personality. In cases where a defect of the self has arisen, careful observation will usually verify that it resides in one of the two areas.

Robbins and Patton (1985) developed two scales intended to measure mild to moderate defects in the idealizing and

grandiose sectors. The process of scale development involved writing definitions of idealization and grandiosity, generating 20 items related to each definition, and administering the two 20 item preliminary scales along with a measure of social desirability to college students ($n=453$). The students' responses to the two preliminary scales were then factor analyzed and final ten-item scales were developed based on factor loadings, item to factor correlations, and moderate to low correlations with social desirability ($r < .25$). (Robbins & Patton, 1985, pp. 223-224).

The final scales were administered to a new group of 133 college students along with measures of self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1979), career-decisiveness (Osipow, 1980), narcissism (NPI: Raskin & Hall, 1979), and personal competencies. "The Personal Competencies Inventory (Ostrow et al., 1981) .. provides a composite score of college students' ratings of skills assumed to be important to their well-being, for example social skills, self-control, anxiety management, and physical attractiveness" (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 226).

The idealization scale was strongly and negatively correlated with self-esteem ($r = -.64$, $p < .001$), and with personal competencies ($r = -.48$, $p < .001$). It correlated weakly with career decisiveness ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$) and was not correlated at a statistically significant level with narcissism ($r = -.14$, ns). Even though the scale is called goal instability, it is noteworthy that its correlation with self-esteem is much higher than its correlation to career

decisiveness.

The definition that Robbins and Patton (1985) developed and used as a starting point for the idealization scale is as follows:

In the late adolescent or the adult, the mature expression of idealization is again characterized by a firm sense of self-esteem and by practices that in this case are enhanced by activities that are seen to be under guidance of a system of goal-setting ideals. This may include the person's choice and implementation of plans for education, vocation, or marriage. The person who is experiencing a malfunction in this sector of the self may evidence a longing for an actual attachment to perceivedly powerful others, a lack of goal-directness, a sense of depletion, or fear of committing oneself to longer term goals. (p. 223)

The content of the ten items selected for the scale related to lack of direction, lack of energy/drive, confusion regarding identity, and difficulty making decisions. Based on the correlations with other variables and an examination of item content, the idealization scale was given the new name "Goal Instability." Robbins and Patton (1985) stated:

In summary, this scale appears to measure a general instability or absence of orienting goals. Items from the original pool relating to ideals and values were not included in this scale; as such the scale represents only one aspect of the self from the idealizing pole (p. 226). The Goal Instability Scale (GIS) was subsequently used in

numerous studies with college populations. Smith and Robbins (1988, p. 325) summarized the findings: "Goal instability scores have predicted freshman adjustment to college life (Robbins & Schwitzer, 1986), career development behavior (Robbins, in press; Robbins & Patton, 1985), and academic and learning skill performance (Scott & Robbins, 1985; Robbins & Tucker, 1986)."

The GIS and Superiority Scales have also been used with mental health populations. For example, 36 clients from inpatient settings and 55 clients from outpatient settings took the Goal Instability and Superiority Scales along with scales from the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI) (Robbins, 1989, p.122). Scores from the MCMI along with ratings of the clients by the therapists were used to help "clarify the meaning of the two self-scales" (Robbins, p.122). High scores on goal instability were related to "depressive style, lack of ambition and goals, and poor self-esteem regulation" (Robbins, p. 130). Robbins (p.130) stated, "These results do not support the notion that the Goal Instability scale is related solely to a defect in the idealizing sector." He concluded (p.131) that "considerable work remains to be done to establish the construct validity of these measures [goal instability and superiority] and to test their potential as clinical assessment instruments."

Further validity evidence was obtained by Robbins and Dupont (1992) in a study with seventy-eight group therapy clients from outpatient settings. The clients completed the Goal Instability and Superiority scales along with self-

ratings on a checklist of interpersonal behaviors. The group therapists provided ratings of the clients' interpersonal behaviors using the same checklist. High scorers on the Goal Instability Scale described themselves as "submissive and moderately hostile" (Robbins & Dupont, 1992, pp. 462-463). Their therapists described them as "submissive" (Robbins & Dupont, pp. 462-463). Robbins and DuPont implied that these findings provided some evidence of construct validity:

These findings are congruent with the observations of Kohut (1971) in which the transference reactions of analysands were described with intense mirroring and idealizing needs. ... Those with disturbances in the idealizing self seek out the approval and security of others, while at the same time anticipating rejection. (p. 465)

In a study that correlated inadequate idealization with authoritarian parenting styles (Watson, Little, & Biderman, 1992), the GIS "served as the index of immature idealization" (p. 235). Nevertheless, it is not clear that the GIS measures idealization. Robbins and Dupont (1989, p. 464) noted, the GIS "has been found to be a more generalized measure of difficulty (Robbins, 1989) than originally hypothesized."

Adolescent Deidealization of Parents

Two studies (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; and Smollar & Youniss, 1989) measured "de-idealization" among adolescents.

Steinberg and Silverberg

Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) developed and administered the Emotional Autonomy Scale. One factor on the scale was labeled "parental deidealization" and "tapped the adolescent's relinquishing of childish perceptions of parental omnipotence" (p. 844). The scale was administered to 865 10 to 16 year olds. Results showed that "between fifth and ninth grades, there is a linear increase in the degree to which youngsters deidealize their parents" (p. 845).

Smollar and Youniss

Smollar and Youniss (1989) phenomenologically studied males and females from ages nine to 23. The theoretical framework for the study included Blos's proposition that a second individuation process occurs during adolescence (cited in Smollar & Youniss, pp. 72-73). Smollar and Youniss summarized their results:

It appears that in early adolescence there is a coupling of self-distinctiveness with a reduction in estimation of parents as idealized figures. The results support Steinberg and Silverberg's .. findings and give specificity to Blos's (1967) description of how separation takes place. This support is strengthened by the fact that the data from our studies represent adolescents' spontaneous responses to open-ended questions. (pp. 78-81)

The results also implied that idealization of parents involves placing responsibility on parents and expecting them

to be all-knowing and all-powerful. Deidealization, in the Smollar and Youniss study, reflected changes in locus of control. The adolescents accepted more individual responsibility as they deidealized their parents.

Adults' Idealization of Parents

Two studies (O'Neil & Reis, 1984 and Hazan & Shaver, 1987) looked at how adults of varying ages perceive their parents. Adults in the O'Neil and Reis study evaluated their mothers; adults in the Hazan and Shaver study evaluated both parents.

O'Neil and Reiss (1984) developed the Parent Perception Inventory (PPI). The final instrument consisted of 28 items that loaded on three factors: individuation, idealization, and perceptions of the parent as a mature and competent adult. "Idealization was operationalized by items pertaining to common negative qualities; the greater the reluctance to endorse such statements, the higher the degree of idealization" (1984, p. 335). Ten items loaded on idealization.

Hazan and Shaver (1987) were not attempting to measure idealization per se, but they asked adults to "describe how each parent had generally behaved toward them during childhood (using 37 adjectives, such as responsive, caring, critical, and intrusive..)" (Hazan & Shaver, p. 516). When one of the groups that they looked at strongly endorsed positive adjectives, they referred to this as a "tendency .. to idealize [emphasis added] their attachment histories" (Hazan &

Shaver, p. 520).

O'Neil and Reis looked at adults in three age groups (ages 20-29, 30-39, and 40-64); Hazan and Shaver looked at adults in two age groups (14-25, and 26-82). O'Neil and Reis found no trends between age group and idealization. Hazan and Shaver found age group (or cohort) differences when they further divided their sample according to attachment styles (secure, avoidant, and anxious/ambivalent). In the avoidant group, they found that more younger than older subjects described parents in favorable terms. (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, p. 520)

Idealization in the Context of Love

Idealization as a Positive Perception

Burgess and Wallin

In the early 1950's, Burgess and Wallin surveyed over 600 engaged couples prior to and a few years after their marriage. Their study used several measures of idealization including two which involved ratings of the partner. Partners rated each other on (a) each other's physical appearance and (b) five personality attributes. For each category, the degree to which respondents rated their partner positively was used as an indice of idealization. Burgess and Wallin (1953/1968) found that the moderate degree to which the engaged partners idealized each other did not change significantly after they were married.

Kerckhoff and Davis

Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) measured idealization based on the degree to which partners did not rate each other negatively. Their sample consisted of over 100 university couples who were seriously involved. They divided the sample according to the length of time that the couple had been going together: eighteen months or more was considered "long-term"; less than 18 months was considered "short-term". The "short-term" couples were "less likely to attribute negative personality characteristics to each other than were long-term couples" (Kerckhoff and Davis, p. 302). Kerckhoff and Davis, referring to the intense idealization that accompanied short-term relationships, noted "the point so often stressed in the literature that couples go through a period of idealization and perception distortion which may lead to disillusionment (or 'reality shock') at a later date" (p. 302).

Method of Comparison Images

Hall and Taylor

Other researchers have attempted to determine if perceptions were overly positive. This is illustrated by the concern expressed by Hall and Taylor about "veridical images" when trying to measure idealization. They wrote, "one central difficulty in the literature focuses around a validity criterion for idealization: When is an image idealized and when is it veridical? What is the proper comparison image of one's partner?" (Hall & Taylor, 1976, p. 752).

To address this dilemma, Hall and Taylor employed a procedure that provided multiple comparison images. Subjects were asked to determine the extent to which adjectives (precoded for favorability) accurately described their spouse, their self, and a friend. The spouses were asked to complete a self-evaluation; they determined the extent to which the same adjectives described themselves. Idealization was operationalized as the extent to which the subject's evaluation of the spouse was more favorable than (a) the subject's evaluation of a friend; (b) the subject's self-evaluation; and (c) the spouse's self-evaluation (Hall & Taylor, 1976, p. 753). This method of measuring idealization was adopted and refined by Hansen (1981).

Hall and Taylor (1976) studied a small sample of married couples residing in university housing and concluded that "marital idealization was found to occur in these couples." In related studies, they looked at how idealization among married couples was maintained. More specifically, they looked at whether respondents tended to attribute their spouses' good behaviors to personal qualities and bad behaviors to situational factors. (Hall & Taylor, 1976, p. 755) This attribution style, when applied to the self, has been termed "a self-serving attribution bias"; Hall and Taylor found that married couples extended this style to their spouses.

Pollis

Pollis (1969) used a procedure involving multiple comparison images years before the Hall and Taylor procedure was designed and refined. In the Pollis study, subjects rated their dating partner on seventeen characteristics. Two friends of the subject that had personal knowledge of the subject's dating partner also rated the subject's dating partner on the same characteristics. Idealization was measured as the extent to which the subject's rating of the dating partner was more positive than the ratings done by the two friends.

Pollis looked at idealization and degree of involvement among 231 college students. Degree of involvement was determined from responses to three questions pertaining to emotional involvement, plans to marry, and perceived dating status. While women showed no relationship between degree of idealization and degree of involvement, the trend for men was for idealization to decrease as the partners became more involved.

Method of Desired Changes

Burgess and Wallin (1953/1968), in their longitudinal study with engaged couples, used several measures of idealization. One related to the number of changes which individuals desired in their partners. This measure was used along with Burgess and Wallin's other idealization measures (ratings of attractiveness and ratings on personality attributes) to test Willard Waller's controversial theory

about the role that sex plays in idealization. Waller stated:

A lover idealizes his beloved. It is not sufficient to say that he idealizes her because of the tendency to overvalue the sex-object, although that is, in fact, an element in the situation. He idealizes because he strives toward her. He wants to possess her completely both physically and spiritually, which in our culture is not possible; balked in this striving, he fills his mind with her by imagining things about her. A young man idealizes a woman because he has strong passions, because he does not know very much about women, particularly the woman whom he idealizes, and also because he has been trained to idealize. (cited in Burgess & Wallin, 1968, pp. 118-119)

Burgess and Wallin solicited sexual histories from couples in order to determine if abstinence from intercourse is related to idealization. They found:

Significantly more men in the nonintercourse category than in the intercourse category indicated that they desired no changes in the engagement partner. The difference is in the same direction for the women, but it is not statistically significant. (Burgess & Wallin, 1953/1968, p. 139).

While the results for the males were significant, Burgess and Wallin (1953/1968, p. 139) said, "If Waller's theory were correct, far greater differences would have

appeared." As an alternative to Waller's sexual frustration theory, Burgess and Wallin suggested that idealization may be prompted by a need to maintain self-esteem. Referencing George H. Mead's notion that the self includes other selves with whom one is identified, Burgess and Wallin suggested that individuals maintain self-esteem by idealizing those that are close to them.

A Full Scale Measure of Romantic Idealization

An unpublished measure of idealization, titled "the Relationship Inventory" was developed by Judith Feeney for use in her thesis work. This scale, which is separate and different from her limerence measure, appears to measure romantic idealization. Feeney indicated that the scale would "benefit from item revision and further validity evidence" (J. A. Feeney, personal communication, May 25, 1993).

Idealization in Verbal Content

Feeney and Noller (1991) developed a method of measuring idealization based on content of verbal reports about romantic partners. Two categories of idealization were assessed: Idealization of the Partner and Idealization of the Relationship.

Subjects were students enrolled in introductory psychology classes. They were asked to speak for five minutes and to "tell what kind of person your partner is, and how you

get along together" (Feeney & Noller, p. 197). The tape-recordings were transcribed and the content was analyzed using specific procedures.

Content related to "portrayal of the partner in very positive light" or "positive overgeneralization" was counted as Idealization of the Partner. Examples provided by Feeney and Noller were "He's someone that everyone's parents like" and "She'll do anything for anyone" (p. 199).

Content which "described the relationship as special or unique" was counted as Idealization of the Relationship. Examples were "I can't imagine being with anyone else" and "I've never got on with anyone like I do with her" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 199).

In addition to Idealization of the Partner and Idealization of the Relationship, several other content issues were examined including Relationship Problems. Content related to "negative interpersonal behaviors of partner" was counted as Relationship Problems. Examples were "He always puts me down, especially with sport" and "He's a bit selfish; expects things to go his way" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 199).

Scores for each content area (e.g., Idealization of Partner, Idealization of Relationship, and Relationship Problems) were calculated with a formula that used the number of words pertaining to each content area and the total number of words in the transcript. Results showed that "references to negative behaviours tended to be related to low scores on

the two idealization scales" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 206).

Participants also completed a measure of attachment developed by Hazan and Shaver (1987). The measure includes descriptions of three attachment styles (secure, avoidant, and anxious/ambivalent) presented as I statements (e.g., I find..). Participants were asked to answer "Which of the following best describes your feelings?" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 189).

Specific results on the relationship between negative behaviors and the idealization measures were presented according to attachment styles. Twenty-six participants were in the secure group; the avoidant and anxious-ambivalent groups each had 24. Correlations between Idealization of Partner and Relationship Problems were identical for all three groups, ($r = -.40$, $p < .05$). Results similar to these were found in the correlations between Idealization of Relationship and Relationship Problems but there were slight variations according to attachment group: for the secure group $r = -.46$ ($p < .05$), for the avoidant group $r = -.41$, ($p < .05$); and for the anxious-ambivalent group $r = -.35$, (ns).

Feeney and Noller (1991, p. 197) hypothesized that the anxious-ambivalent subjects would score higher on idealization than the avoidant subjects. This hypothesis was supported. Scores on Idealization of Partner were highest for the anxious/ambivalent group and lowest for the avoidant group. Scores on Idealization of Relationship were highest for the

anxious/ambivalents and lowest for the secure group.

Subscales of Love Scales

Romantic Beliefs

Sprecher and Metts (1989) developed the "Romantic Beliefs" Scale to measure the ideology of romanticism. One aspect of romanticism measured by the scale is idealization. Development of the "Romantic Beliefs Scale" was guided by the "'romantic love ideal typology' developed by Lantz and his colleagues (Lantz et al., 1968; Lantz et al., 1973)" (p.388). The typology includes five beliefs:

(1) True love can strike without prior interaction ('Love at First Sight'); (2) There is only one person we can truly love ('The One and Only'); (3) True love can overcome any obstacle ('Love Conquers All'); (4) Our true love will be perfect ('Idealization'); and (5) We should follow our feelings and base our choice of a partner on love rather than on other (more rational) considerations ('Follow the Heart'). (Sprecher & Metts, p. 389)

Through an extensive series of studies, the authors developed a scale to measure this typology. Several draft versions were administered to several samples of students. Following each administration, items were deleted or added based on statistical analyses. The version released as final consisted of 15 items which loaded on four factors labeled

"Love Finds a Way", "One and Only", "Idealization", and "Love at First Sight."

Three items loaded on the idealization factor. Two (items 7 and 14) were intended to measure idealization of the partner and one (item 8) was intended to measure idealization of the relationship. The item to factor correlations for the three idealization items were $r = .80$ (item 7), $r = .76$ (item 8), and $r = .53$ (item 14) (pp. 398-399).

The RBS was administered along with numerous other measures to several additional samples of students. Correlations with the other measures were used to support the validity of the RBS. Information about how the factors related to other measures was also reported. Idealization was significantly and positively correlated with the Spaulding Romantic Love Complex Scale ($r = .43$, $p < .001$), Rubin's Love Scale ($r = .22$, $p < .01$), Rubin's Liking Scale ($r = .24$, $p < .01$), and two lovestyles, Eros ($r = .28$, $p < .001$) and Apage ($r = .26$, $p < .001$).

Internal reliability was assessed with a sample of 714-724; (sample size varied because of missing data). Test-retest reliability was assessed with a subsample of 156; the second testing occurred three weeks after the first. For idealization, the alpha was .64 and test-retest reliability was .66.

Feeney's Limerent Idealization

Judith Feeney developed a measure of limerence. This measure is included in this review of idealization measures because of the conceptual similarity between limerence and idealization and because four of the items were specifically called idealization items.

The term "limerence" was coined by Dorothy Tennov. "To be in the state of limerence is to feel what is usually termed 'being in love'" (Tennov, 1979/1981, p. 16). A teen-ager's infatuation with Paul McCartney was presented by Tennov as an example of "limerent fantasization" (Tennov, p. 85). According to Tennov, limerents characteristically have "an idealized view" of their limerent objects (Tennov, p. 205).

Feeney's limerence scale was based on the work of Tennov (1979), and a scale by Steffen, McLaney, and Hustedt (1984) (cited in Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 284). Factor-analytic methods were used and items with low communalities were dropped. The remaining items loaded on four factors which were labeled "Obsessive Preoccupation", "Self-Conscious Anxiety," "Emotional Dependence," and "Idealization."

Items that loaded on each factor were used as subscales labeled with the factor name. Reliability information for the full scale measure of limerence was not reported (Feeney & Noller, 1990) but some information pertaining to the subscales was reported.

The Obsessive Preoccupation subscale/factor consisted of

ten items. For these ten items, the item to factor loadings ranged from .38 to .83 and the coefficient alpha was .83. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 291 & p. 285).

The Self-Conscious Anxiety subscale/factor consisted of nine items. For these nine items, the item to factor loadings ranged from .39 to .74 and the coefficient alpha was .83. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 291 & p. 285).

The Emotional Dependence subscale/factor consisted of seven items. For these seven items, the item to factor loadings ranged from .42 to .80 and the coefficient alpha was at least .70. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 291 & p. 285).

The Idealization subscale/factor consisted of four items. For these four items, the item to factor loadings ranged from .57 to .83 and the coefficient alpha was .60. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 291 & p. 285). The alpha was lower than the criterion set for scale inclusion (.70) but because of the small number of items and "because the relevant factor loadings and item-scale correlations were all moderate to high," Feeney and Noller (1990, p. 285) considered the idealization scale appropriate to use in their "exploratory analyses."

Feeney and Noller used 16 love and self-esteem scales or subscales in their study. In addition to the four subscales of the limerence measure (Obsessive Preoccupation, Self-Conscious Anxiety, Emotional Dependence, and Idealization), six types of love were measured using the Love Attitudes Scale

(Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986). In addition, two scales measured love addiction, and love was also measured using Rubin's Love Scale (1973) (cited in Feeney & Noller, p. 284). Three subscales of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) (cited in Feeney & Noller, p. 284) measured person, social, and family aspects of self-esteem. The sixteen scales were factor analyzed and Idealization along with two of the other three Limerence subscales (Emotional Dependence and Obsessive Preoccupation) loaded on a factor which was labeled Neurotic Love. Also loading on the Neurotic Love factor were Reliance on Partner (a type of love addiction), and Mania (a love type measured by the Love Attitudes Scale).

Attachment styles were assessed with Hazan and Shaver's (1987) measure which forces a choice between descriptions of secure, avoidant, or anxious-ambivalent attachment styles. "Anxious-ambivalent subjects differed from the other styles in their high scores on Neurotic Love" (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 286).

Scores on idealization varied according to attachment style at a statistically significant level ($F(2,368) 3.68$, $p < .05$). The anxious-ambivalent group had the highest scores on idealization ($M=15.32$), followed by the secure group ($M=14.25$), and avoidants were at the low end ($M=13.65$). (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 286). The authors subsequently suggested

It is possible that the intermediate level of

idealization represented by the secure group may be optimal for relationship outcome. A certain level of optimism may be healthy in romantic relationships, a suggestion consistent with the general findings of Taylor and Brown (1988); extreme levels of idealization, on the other hand, may be indicative of a 'needy' and less adaptive approach to love. (1991, p.211)

Summary

The fact that numerous studies have looked at idealization reflects the interest in the topic. Despite the interest, and despite substantial research with a few measures, validity evidence for any particular measure of idealization is lacking. Most studies used only one measure of idealization, and in most cases, that measure had never been used before. The most extensive research relating to idealization was done by Burgess and Wallin, Robbins and colleagues, Lerner and Lerner, and Feeney and Noller.

Burgess and Wallin conducted a longitudinal study with couples in the 1950's. Their study is noteworthy because they measured idealization several ways. Individuals were asked to rate their partners on appearance and personality; positive ratings were presumed to indicate idealization. Individuals were also asked about changes desired in their partners; the absence of desired changes was also an index of idealization. Moderate degrees of idealization were found and idealization

was not presumed to be pathological.

Robbins and Patton (1985) developed The Goal Instability Scale (GIS) to measure mild to moderate defects in the idealizing line of development as described by Kohut. Substantial research has been done with the GIS, and while it is still linked to idealization, it is also linked with a depressive style, poor self-esteem and lack of career decisiveness. The GIS "has been found to be a more generalized measure of difficulty (Robbins, 1989) than originally hypothesized" (Robbins & Patton, 1992, p. 464).

Substantial research has been done with Lerner and Lerner's Rorschach Scoring System. This system includes guidelines for scoring five levels of idealization. Hilsenroth et al. (1993) found more low level idealization in groups with diagnoses of narcissistic and borderline personality disorders than in a comparison group comprised of individuals diagnosed with Cluster C personality disorders. In general, however, the Lerner and Lerner measure of idealization has failed to distinguish between patient groups. After reviewing these results, P. Lerner postulated that idealization is an adaptive capacity, rather than a defense (personal communication, September 28, 1994).

Feeney developed a measure of limerence. Four items from that measure loaded on a factor labeled idealization. Analyses were exploratory but suggested that limerent idealization was linked to neurotic love and the

anxious/ambivalent style. Feeney and Noller (1991) measured idealization of romantic partners based on verbal content in interviews. Again, idealization was linked to the anxious/ambivalent style.

Research from several groups (Patton and colleagues; Hilsenroth et al.; and Feeney & Noller) suggests links between idealization and maladaptive characteristics, diagnoses, or styles. Other research (Burgess & Wallin; Lerner & Lerner) implies that idealization is adaptive. The collection of research implies that there are different types of idealization.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPING A MEASURE OF IDEALIZATION

Overview

Two hundred and thirty items were developed to measure concepts and types of idealization. The items were administered along with a Background Survey to 175 undergraduates. Items were analyzed using two approaches. Thirty-nine items, comprising a scaled labeled IZ, were selected for further exploration in a second phase of research (described in Chapter Five). The primary findings with the Phase I sample were that the IZ scale represented a unidimensional construct and was internally consistent. Preliminary analyses also involved comparing scores on the IZ with background variables and with an item that blatantly mentioned the tendency to idolize.

Item Development

Various definitions and models of idealization were considered in the development of idealization items. The works of Kernberg and Kohut served as starting points. Levels of idealization were adapted from Kernberg's hierarchical description of idealization in normal development.

The first type of idealization is called blind idealization. It relates to Kernberg's concept of primitive idealization and Kohut's descriptions of the idealizing transference. At this level, the other person is seen as

omnipotent and all good. Boundaries between the self and other are poorly defined. Kernberg noted that primitive idealization exists as a protective fantasy structure. Kohut's writings suggested that the individual needs the idealized other for emotional sustenance; the idealizer functions and feels better while in the idealizing relationship--provided that there are no disruptions or disappointments in the relationship.

The second type of idealization is called reactive idealization and it relates to the second level of idealization in Kernberg's normal developmental continuum. Idealization; at this level, involves a reaction to the realization that the other is not all good and omnipotent. Because the person at this level still has a need to see the other as good and powerful, the strengths of the other are seen in an idealized way. It is as if strengths are bolstered to compensate for weaknesses. This type of idealization also relates to fears of losing the object or the love of the object.

A third type of idealization was based on concepts of more mature idealization. At this level, the idealization consists of overvaluation without losing touch with the realistic perceptions of the other. Kernberg noted that the more mature level of idealization involves appreciation of the other based on a depersonified abstract value system. This system of values was said to be the outcome of a healthy adolescence wherein the personified values of the parents were re-examined, other external values were also considered, and

under the influence of the autonomous ego, a new abstracted depersonified set of values was developed. In Kohut's model, this more mature type corresponds with the neurotic transference. At this level, idealization has a less fundamental role in the regulation of self-esteem than at the lower levels. Both Kohut and Kernberg associated more mature idealization with the ability to see the other as a separate entity.

In contrast to this healthy idealization, the fourth type of idealization is pathological idealization. In this type, the actual qualities of the other are not important because the other is seen as an extension of the self. Kernberg associated this type of idealization with pathological narcissism. The pathological narcissist does not really appreciate or depend on others but values them as long as they appear useful to him. According to Kernberg, the qualities that the pathological narcissist sees in the other are projections of the pathological grandiose self.

In addition to these four types of idealization, other concepts of idealization were considered. One was the idea, adapted from Freud, that a person idealizes another based on qualities that the person would want as self-characteristics. This type is referred to as wanted qualities.

Research with adolescent samples (i.e., Smollar & Youniss, 1989; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986) suggested a correlation between de-idealization and taking more responsibility for one's own life. This suggested that idealization relates to seeing some other person (rather than

the self) as responsible for the self; this idea is referred to as externalized responsibility.

Thus, idealization was conceptualized in terms of the modified Kernberg levels associated with normal development, Kernberg's description of pathological idealization, the concept that idealization is based on wanted self-characteristics, and the idea that idealization involves externalizing responsibility.

The Relationship Survey

The 230 items developed to measure idealization comprised The Relationship Survey. The number of items developed for each conceptualization is as follows: 85 for blind idealization; 19 for reactive idealization; 15 for more mature idealization; 6 for pathological idealization; 16 for idealization based on wanted qualities; and 11 for externalized responsibility. The preponderance of items related to blind idealization because numerous items were generated from Kohut's extensive discussion of the idealizing transference.

In addition to these 152 items, 10 items were based on Reich's (1953) notions of narcissistic object choice, 12 were based on Fromm's (1956) characterizations of love, and three were derived from distinctions between healthy and unhealthy love suggested by Maslow (1970). Also, another 53 items were not tied to any particular level or conceptualization.

Retrospectively, it appeared that 12 of the unclassified items could have been categorized as either blind, reactive,

or more mature idealization. Specifically, ten appeared to relate to Kohut's ideas about the functions that an idealizing object can serve, one related to Kernberg's concept of reactive idealization, and one related to the more mature level of idealization.

Retrospectively, it also appeared that a substantial number of items that were derived from Kohut's discussion of the idealizing transference could have been classified as reactive rather than blind idealization. These items dealt with reactions to disruptions in the relationship. Hence, they could be seen as relating to fears of object loss or loss of love.

The Background Survey

The Background Survey was divided into two sections. One section included questions relating to age, gender, marital status, and extent of recent participation in organized religious activities. The second section asked about relationships: current relationships with other adults, past relationships with other adults, current relationships to something or some being other than a person, and past relationships to something or being other than a person.

The subsections on current and past relationships with adults included questions about 11 categories of potential relationships which were: (1) boss/teacher; (2) work/school colleague; (3) room-mate; (4) apartment or house-mate; (5) therapist/counselor; (6) religious mentor; (7) romantic partner; (8) spouse; (9) adult relative other than spouse;

(10) recreational companion; and (11) friend. Brief descriptions were provided with each category; for example, a therapist/counselor was described as "a professional who provides therapy or counseling to you." Respondents were first asked to indicate with a check mark if they currently had a significant relationship with individuals who fit the categories listed. Instructions further stated, "Consider all of your current significant relationships and do not hesitate to mark more than one category for any significant relationship." An open-ended question asked for new categories needed to describe current relationships and then respondents were asked for the number of individuals with whom they currently have a significant relationship. Respondents were then instructed to "Consider the individual who is currently most important to you. Check the categories that fit this individual."

Past relationships were defined as relationships that have ended. Questions about past relationships paralleled those about current relationships. In addition, two open-ended questions probed how long the most important past relationship lasted and how it ended.

The subsection pertaining to relationships with a thing or being other than a person included an open-ended instruction to describe the thing or being. The things or beings mentioned most frequently were dogs, God or a spiritual being, and cats (in that order).

Procedures

Participants were given the Revised Background Survey, the Relationship Survey, and a consent form. A copy of the consent form is included in Appendix A. Respondents were instructed to indicate their degree of disagreement or agreement with each of the 230 items using the following response options: 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= partially agree, partially disagree; 4= agree; and 5= strongly agree. Students names were included on the consent forms and on participation documentation. These documents were separated from surveys to allow anonymity.

The Sample

The sample consisted of 175 undergraduates who received normal course credit in a psychology course for their participation. The ages of the students ranged from 18 to 50; ninety-four percent were 18 through 25 and 63 percent were 20 - 22 years of age. The mean age was 22; the mode and median were both 21. One hundred (57%) of the undergraduates were women and 75 (43%) were men. Ninety-one percent were single.

Seventy-one percent reported having a current relationship with a romantic partner and seventy-seven percent reported having had a past relationship with a romantic partner. The percentages of the sample that reported other types of current and past relationships with adults are presented in Appendix D-1.

Thirty three percent of the sample volunteered that they

had a current relationship with a cat, dog, or other pet and thirteen percent reported a current relationship with God, Jesus, the Trinity, or their Creator. Thirty percent reported having had a past relationship with a cat, dog, or other pet and one percent reported having had a past relationship with God.

Extent of religious participation varied. For example, forty-eight percent of the sample reported that they had not participated in any organized religious activities during the prior four weeks and eleven percent reported they had participated in at least five organized religious activities.

Item Analysis

Responses of the 175 undergraduates were used to analyze the 230 items that were generated from definitions and models of idealization. Analyses followed two independent approaches. The first approach (the unidimensional approach) was aimed at determining the extent to which the 230 items measured one construct and to obtain a shorter scale consisting of a homogeneous subgroup of items. The second approach (the multidimensional approach) was aimed at determining the extent to which items which were originally intended to measure particular types of idealization appeared to form internally consistent subscales and to determine the extent to which the subscales appeared to measure separate constructs. The unidimensional and multidimensional approaches were then compared to determine the extent to which subscales measured something different than a shortened

version of the total scale.

The Unidimensional Approach

The responses of the students that completed the 230 items yielded an alpha of .96. Inter-item correlations averaged .09.

Several steps were taken to develop a shortened version of the total scale. These steps were aimed at retaining a homogenous set of items. Descriptive statistics for each step are included in Table 1. In the first step, items with an item-to-total correlation of greater than or equal to .40 were selected. Sixty-four items met this criterion. The alpha for the 64 items was .95 and the mean inter-item correlation was .23.

To further reduce the number of items, the process was repeated using results from the 64 item set. In this second step, items with an item-to-total correlation of greater than or equal to .45 were selected. Thirty-nine items met this criterion. The alpha for the 39 items, based on responses from 171 students, was .94 and the mean inter-item correlation was .27. These results were taken as evidence that the 39 items formed an internally consistent scale.

A factor analysis of the 39 item scale indicated that the scale was essentially a unidimensional scale. Results must, however, be interpreted with caution because the sample size ($n=175$) was moderately low for a factor analysis with 39 items. Ten factors were generated with eigenvalues of greater than one but the first factor had an eigenvalue of 11.52 and

TABLE 1
DEVELOPMENT OF THE 39 ITEM SCALE

	Initial Data	Revision One	Revision Two
Number of Items	230	64	39
Alpha	.96	.95	.94
<u>Inclusion Criterion¹:</u>			
Item-to-Total $r >$	--	.40	.45
<u>Item-to-Total r:</u>			
Low	- .04	.34	.39
High	.60	.61	.64
Mean	.29	.47	.51
<u>Inter-Item r:</u>			
Minimum	-.48	-.11	.01
Maximum	.76	.76	.68
Mean	.09	.23	.27

¹Based on analysis with larger item set in prior step.

no other factor had an eigenvalue greater than 2.20. The first factor accounted for 29.6 percent of the variance before rotation. Each of the next three factors accounted for approximately five percent of the variance (5.6, 5.2, and 4.8). A review of the items loading on the ten factors did not suggest independent themes distinguishing the factors. A four factor solution was forced using a factor analysis with a minimum eigenvalue of 1.86 (all other factors had eigenvalues of less than 1.34). Again, a review of the items loading on the four factors did not suggest separate themes. The 39 items appeared to represent a coherent unidimensional scale.

The Multidimensional Approach

A second approach was aimed at determining the extent to which items which were written to measure differing definitions of idealization reliably did so. The procedures used for each of the subscales basically paralleled those used for the unidimensional scale. For each subscale, reliabilities were calculated using the items developed for that particular subscale. Provided that the reliability analysis showed evidence of internal consistency, the number of items in the item set was then reduced on the basis of item-to-total correlations. The reliability of the smaller item set was then calculated to determine if the items formed a viable subscale.

For the items intended to measure more mature idealization and pathological idealization, the alphas for the original item sets were low (.47 and .13, respectively). The

mean inter-item correlations for these subscales were also low (.06 and .02, respectively). Because these sets of items lacked internal consistency, no further analyses were undertaken.

The set of items intended to measure blind idealization was larger than sets for the other constructs (i.e., reactive idealization, wanted qualities, and externalized responsibility). For this reason, two steps were taken to reduce the number of items in the blind idealization set whereas for other sets only one step was taken. Descriptive statistics for each step involved in revisions of blind idealization are presented in Table 2. The descriptive statistics for revisions to reactive idealization, wanted qualities, and externalized responsibility are presented in Tables 3, 4, and 5, respectively.

The multidimensional approach yielded internally consistent subscales for both types of less mature idealization (blind idealization and reactive idealization), for idealization relating to wanted qualities, and for the set of items relating to externalized responsibility. To determine the extent to which the scales were interrelated, each of the four subscales were correlated with the other three subscales. The intercorrelations are presented in Table 6. Scores obtained on blind idealization, reactive idealization, and wanted qualities correlated strongly with each other ($>.55$), but scores on externalized responsibility correlated at a lower level with the other scales (.39 with blind idealization, .40 with reactive idealization and .51

TABLE 2

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUBSCALES: BLIND IDEALIZATION

	Initial Data	Revision One	Revision Two
Number of Items	85	27	22
Alpha	.91	.90	.88
<u>Inclusion Criterion¹:</u>			
Item-to-Total $r >$	—	.40	.40
<u>Item-to-Total r:</u>			
Low	.06	.35	.38
High	.56	.64	.65
Mean	.31	.46	.48
<u>Inter-Item r:</u>			
Minimum	-.48	-.02	.04
Maximum	.75	.76	.71
Mean	.11	.24	.27

¹Based on analysis with larger item set in prior step.

TABLE 3

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUBSCALES: REACTIVE IDEALIZATION

	Initial Data	Revision One
Number of Items	19	9
Alpha	.71	.75
<u>Inclusion Criterion¹:</u>		
Item-to-Total $r >$	--	.35
<u>Item-to-Total r:</u>		
Low	-.10	.36
High	.57	.60
Mean	.29	.44
<u>Inter-Item r:</u>		
Minimum	-.26	.11
Maximum	.49	.50
Mean	.11	.26

¹Based on analysis with larger item set in prior step.

TABLE 4

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUBSCALES: WANTED QUALITIES

	Initial Data	Revision One
Number of Items	16	9
Alpha	.72	.76
<u>Inclusion Criterion¹:</u>		
Item-to-Total $r >$	--	.35
<u>Item-to-Total r:</u>		
Low	-.01	.35
High	.51	.57
Mean	.32	.44
<u>Inter-Item r:</u>		
Minimum	-.18	.09
Maximum	.51	.56
Mean	.14	.26

¹Based on analysis with larger item set in prior step.

TABLE 5

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUBSCALES: EXTERNALIZED RESPONSIBILITY

	Initial Data	Revision One
Number of Items	11	6
Alpha	.64	.71
<u>Inclusion Criterion¹:</u>		
Item-to-Total $r >$	--	.35
<u>Item-to-Total r:</u>		
Low	-.09	.25
High	.57	.58
Mean	.30	.44
<u>Inter-Item r:</u>		
Minimum	-.16	.01
Maximum	.71	.72
Mean	.14	.29

¹Based on analysis with larger item set in prior step.

TABLE 6

INTERCORRELATION MATRIX: SUBSCALES

	1	2	3	4
1. Blind Idealization	--	.63**	.56**	.39**
2. Reactive Idealization		--	.59**	.40**
3. Wanted Qualities			--	.51**
4. Externalized Responsibility				--

** $p < .001$

with wanted qualities.)

A factor analysis was conducted using all items that loaded on the four subscales. The factor analysis yielded 13 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Before rotation, the first factor had an eigenvalue of 10.6, the second, third and fourth factors had eigenvalues of 3.2, 2.2, and 1.99. A four factor solution was forced since the items were intended to measure four constructs. Only three items loaded on the fourth factor but loadings for these three were all greater than .70. The three items were originally intended to measure externalized responsibility and the content clearly related to locus of control. The fact that no other items even came close to loading on this factor suggests that these items measure something different than the constructs measured by the other items. Here again, results must be interpreted with some caution because the sample size ($n = 175$) was moderately low for a factor analysis involving 46 items. Nevertheless, the consistency between the findings from the factor analysis and the intercorrelations between the four subscales is that three of the scales, blind idealization, reactive idealization, and wanted qualities appear to be highly interrelated but at least some of the items measuring externalized responsibility appear to capture something that is more distinct, although still related. The content of the items suggests that they measure a correlate rather than a type of idealization.

The other three factors which emerged from the factor analysis did not appear to directly correspond with the other

three types of idealization. The first factor included six of the nine items intended to measure wanted qualities, but it also included items from other sets: three from blind idealization, three from reactive idealization, and three from externalized responsibility. Items loading on the second factor included 13 of the 22 intended to measure blind idealization as well as two intended to measure reactive idealization and one intended to measure wanted qualities. The third factor contained items from three sets: six from blind idealization, four from reactive idealization, and two from wanted qualities. The fact that the items mixed is consistent with the data showing that blind idealization, reactive idealization, and wanted qualities are highly intercorrelated.

Comparison of Approaches

The 39 item scale was compared with the measures of blind idealization, reactive idealization, wanted qualities, and externalized responsibility. The correlations are, of course, affected by the fact that the 39 item scale includes some of the same items that comprise the subscales. Fifteen of the 39 items are also in the 22 item set labeled blind idealization, four are also in the nine item reactive idealization set, three are in the nine item wanted qualities set, and one is in the externalized responsibility set. The correlation between the 39 item scale and the other sets were as follows: blind idealization, $r = .93$; reactive idealization, $r = .78$, wanted qualities, $r = .72$, and externalized responsibilities, $r = .47$.

Given the extremely high correlation between the 39 item scale and the 22 item scale intended to measure blind idealization, it was assumed that the two scales measured essentially the same thing.

The unidimensional approach resulted in an internally consistent 39 item scale. The homogeneity of the items was established empirically. The multidimensional approach failed to produce subscales that measured clearly distinct concepts. Since both methods implied that a single measure of idealization was appropriate, the 39 item scale was selected for further exploration. It shall be referred to as IZ; a copy of the scale is included in Appendix B.

Sources of the IZ Items

The items which loaded on the IZ scale were originally developed to measure different types and levels of idealization. Sixteen of the items were written to assess blind idealization, five were written to assess reactive idealization, and one was derived from the definition of a more mature level of idealization (reverse scored). Three items were written to assess the process of idealizing wanted qualities, two were derived from A. Reich's (1953) notions about narcissistic object choice, and one was derived from Erich Fromm's (1956) ideas about love. The remaining eight were originally classified as miscellaneous; four of these were retrospectively classified as blind idealization.

Primary Results

The primary result of the Phase One research was the development of an internally consistent unidimensional measure --the IZ. Psychometric data for the IZ, based on the Phase One sample is presented in Table 7. Results are presented by gender and for the total group.

Secondary Results

Age

Scores on the IZ correlated $-.18$ with age. A negative correlation was consistent with the expectation that idealization should decrease with age. The one-tailed significance of the $-.18$ correlation was $.008$. It was, however, recognized that the correlation may have been affected by a skewed distribution; while 97% of the sample was between the ages of 18 through 27, the remaining three percent had ages which ranged up to 50. To test for age differences without contamination by the skewed distribution, the sample was divided into two groups: the younger group consisted of individuals 18 through 21 years of age ($n=111$) and the older group consisted of individuals over 21 ($n=59$). The younger group scored higher on IZ ($M = 112.8$) than the older group ($M = 104.9$), $t = 2.4$, $p = .009$.

Gender

Men and women who completed the 39 items obtained similar mean scores on the IZ; for the 73 men, it was 107; for the 98

TABLE 7

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS - PHASE ONE SAMPLE

	Males	Females	Combined
n	73	98	171
Mean	107.01	111.95	109.84
SD	17.69	22.62	20.75
Skew	-.13	.87	.68
Alpha	.91	.95	.94
<u>Inter-Item r:</u>			
Minimum	-.18	.03	.01
Maximum	.59	.71	.68
Mean	.20	.32	.27

women, it was 111.9, $t = -1.60$, ns. The standard deviation for men was 17.7; for women it was 22.6.

Relationship Variables

For each category of current and past relationships, the group that reported having the relationship was compared with the group that did not report having the relationship. Because so many comparisons were made, only those correlations with a probability of less than or equal to .01 were considered significant.

Scores on the IZ scale were significantly related to one type of adult relationship. IZ scores for eighteen respondents who reported having a current relationship with a therapist or counselor, ($M = 127.1$), were higher, on average, than the IZ scores for 153 respondents who did not report having a current relationship with a therapist or counselor, ($M = 107.8$), $t = -3.88$, $p = .001$.

Scores on the IZ were also significantly related to a particular type of current relationship to a thing or being other than a person. Twenty of the 175 respondents volunteered that they had a meaningful relationship with a cat or cats. This group scored higher on IZ ($M = 125.7$) than the group of individuals who did not report having a relationship with a cat ($M = 107.9$), $t = -2.75$, $p = .01$.

Participation in Religious Activities

Participation in religious activities showed some relationship to scores on IZ. Nineteen individuals reported

that they had participated in organized religious activities five or more times during the past four weeks. This group had lower scores on IZ ($\bar{M} = 100.7$) than the 152 individuals who reported that they had participated in organized religious activities fewer than five times (i.e., zero to four times) during the past four weeks ($\bar{M} = 111.0$), $t = 3.08$, $p = .004$.

Comparison Item

Included in the 230 items was an item which said, "I tend to idolize the important person(s) in my life." This item barely missed becoming a part of the IZ. In the last cut, the item-to-total correlation for this item was .43 and the criterion for inclusion was .45. Because the item directly mentions idolizing, scores on this item were compared with scores on the IZ. The correlation, based on 171 responses from the Phase One Sample, was .43, $p < .001$.

CHAPTER V
THE IZ AND COMPARISON MEASURES

Overview

In the second phase of research, the 39 item IZ scale, a revised Background Survey, and 33 other questionnaire measures were administered to 250 students. A subset of this group consisting of the 207 participants who were 17 through 25 years old comprised the Phase II sample. Scores on the IZ were compared with scores on the other measures. These findings, along with descriptive statistics about the IZ, are presented as Primary Results. Scores on the IZ were also compared with background variables; these findings are presented as Secondary Results.

The Measures

In addition to the IZ, 33 measures were administered to the Phase II participants. Six scales or subscales purported to measure idealization. The other 27 scales or subscales measured love, attachment styles, factors of limerence, dimensions underlying attachment styles, autonomy, dependency, characteristics associated with borderline personality organization, and dimensions of narcissistic personality disorders.

The names of the 33 measures are listed in Table 8. The right column of Table 8 lists the scale developers and, for those measures which were part of a larger inventory, the right column also lists the name of the full scale measure.

TABLE 8

COMPARISON MEASURES AND THEIR SOURCES

MEASURES	REFERENCE
<u>IDEALIZATION</u>	
GOAL INSTABILITY	ROBBINS & PATTION (1985)
PRIMITIVE IDEALIZATION	BOND ET AL. (1983)
ROMANTIC IDEALIZATION	DEFENSE STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE SPRECHER & METTS (1989)
LIMERENT IDEALIZATION	ROMANTIC BELIEFS SCALE FEENEY (1990) LIMERENCE
FEENEY'S IDEALIZATION	FEENEY (UNPUBLISHED)
POSITIVE PERCEPTIONS	EXPLORATORY MEASURE DEVELOPED FOR CURRENT STUDY
<u>LOVE STYLES</u>	
MANIA	HENDRICK & HENDRICK (1986)
EROS	LOVE ATTITUDES SCALE HENDRICK & HENDRICK (1986)
AGAPE	LOVE ATTITUDES SCALE HENDRICK & HENDRICK (1986)
PRAGMA	LOVE ATTITUDES SCALE HENDRICK & HENDRICK (1986)
STORGE	LOVE ATTITUDES SCALE HENDRICK & HENDRICK (1986)
LUDUS	LOVE ATTITUDES SCALE HENDRICK & HENDRICK (1986)
DESPERATE LOVE	LOVE ATTITUDES SCALE SPERLING (1985)
PASSIONATE LOVE	HATFIELD & SPRECHER (1986)
<u>ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>	
SECURE	HAZAN & SHAVER (1987)
AVOIDANT	HAZAN & SHAVER (1987)
ANXIOUS/AMBIVALENT	HAZAN & SHAVER (1987)
<u>LIMERENCE SUBSCALES OTHER THAN IDEALIZATION</u>	
EMOTIONAL DEPENDENCE	FEENEY (1990) LIMERENCE
OBSESSIVE PREOCCUPATION	FEENEY (1990) LIMERENCE
SELF CONSCIOUS ANXIETY	FEENEY (1990) LIMERENCE

TABLE 8 (CONTINUED)

COMPARISON MEASURES AND THEIR SOURCES

MEASURES	REFERENCE
<u>DIMENSIONS UNDERLYING ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>	
CLOSE	COLLINS & READ (1990) ADULT ATTACHMENT STYLES
DEPEND	COLLINS & READ (1990) ADULT ATTACHMENT STYLES
ANXIETY	COLLINS & READ (1990) ADULT ATTACHMENT STYLES
<u>DEPENDENCY AND AUTONOMY</u>	
EMOTIONAL RELIANCE	HIRSCHFELD ET AL. (1977) INTERPERSONAL DEPENDENCY
LACK SOCIAL SELF CONFIDENCE	HIRSCHFELD ET AL. (1977) INTERPERSONAL DEPENDENCY
ASSERTION OF AUTONOMY	HIRSCHFELD ET AL. (1977) INTERPERSONAL DEPENDENCY
AUTONOMY	JACKSON (1974, 1987) PERSONALITY RESEARCH FORM
SUCCORANCE	JACKSON (1974, 1987) PERSONALITY RESEARCH FORM
<u>DIMENSIONS OF BORDERLINE PERSONALITY ORGANIZATION</u>	
LONELINESS	RUSSELL, PEPLAU, & CUTRONA (1980) REV. UCLA LONELINESS
IDENTITY DIFFUSION	TAN, KENDIS, FINE & PORAC (1977) EGO IDENTITY
BPD	JONES (1988) THE PROFILE
<u>DIMENSIONS OF NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY DISORDER (NPD)</u>	
NPD	JONES (1988) THE PROFILE
SUPERIORITY	ROBBINS & PATTON

The 33 measures represent parts or all of 17 full scale measures.

Idealization and the Comparison Constructs

The relevance of idealization to the six idealization measures is obvious. The relevance of other measures was suggested from psychodynamic theory, empirical studies, and common conceptions.

Love

Idealization is commonly linked to love. For example, Person (1992, p. 384) stated that "the real core of passionate love...is the lover's idealization of and yearning for an Other." Numerous studies (e.g., Burgess & Wallin, 1953/1968; Pollis, 1969; Hall & Taylor, 1976) looked at idealization in the context of love. Research by Lee (1973) and C. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) enhanced the understanding of love allowing Feeney and Noller (1990) to associate idealization with a specific type of love--that type was Mania.

Attachment Styles and Underlying Dimensions

Feeney and Noller (1990) also linked idealization to the anxious/ambivalent attachment style. The link between idealization and attachment was also suggested by the functional similarity between the idealizing transference as described by Kohut (1971) and adult attachment bonds as described by Weiss.

Weiss (1982) concluded that adult attachment bonds

largely fulfill the following criteria for attachment: 1) in the face of stress, individuals will attempt to seek contact with their attachment figures; 2) increased comfort and diminished anxiety occur in the presence of the attachment figure; and 3) separation or threat of separation from the attachment figure causes "discomfort and anxiety on discovering the attachment figure to be inexplicably inaccessible" (cited in West, Sheldon & Reiffer, 1987, pp. 738-739).

These criteria resemble Kohut's descriptions of how the narcissistic analysand was (a) sustained by the idealizing transference and (b) disturbed by disruptions in the idealizing transference.

Limerence

Idealization also resembles limerent perceptions.

Limerence, according to Tennov (1979/1981) describes the state of being in love. To describe "perception of the limerent object," Tennov (1979/1981, pp. 29-33), invoked Stendhal's concept of crystallization. While Tennov saw a distinction between crystallization and idealization, she noted that other authors have referred to crystallization as idealization. Lee (1973, p. 43) wrote that Stendhal's crystallization referred to projecting desirable qualities onto a partner and assuming that the partner is indeed the ideal image. Tennov (1979/1981, p. 205) noted that limerents characteristically have "an idealized view of their limerent objects."

Autonomy and Dependence

A link between idealization and autonomy was suggested by empirical work (i.e., Steinberg & Silverg, 1986; Smollar & Youniss, 1989) which associated de-idealization with an individuation process that culminates in autonomy. The related finding from the Smollar and Youniss study, that de-idealization is associated with taking more responsibility, suggested a link between idealization and dependency.

Borderline Personality Organization

The concept of borderline personality organization, as delineated by Kernberg, encompasses a spectrum of disorders that are neither neurotic nor psychotic. Idealization--specifically, primitive idealization--is, according to Kernberg, a feature of borderline personality organization. Borderline personality disorders fall within the spectrum of borderline personality organization. Idealization is linked to the borderline personality disorders in the third and fourth editions of the Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM-III, 1980; DSM-III-R, 1987; DSM-IV, 1994; American Psychiatric Association). For example, the DSM-IV (p. 654) includes the following as a feature that can be associated with borderline personality organization: "a pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships characterized by alternating between extremes of idealization and devaluation,"

Narcissistic Personality Disorders

A similar phrase was included in the DSM-III (1980) in reference to narcissistic personality disorders. The DSM-III (p. 317) listed five criteria for narcissism. One of these, disturbances in personal relationships, had four sub-criteria. Among the sub-criteria was "relationships that characteristically alternate between the extremes of overidealization and devaluation." In the subsequent version of the DSM (i.e., the DSM-IIIR, 1987), the reference to overidealization was dropped from narcissistic personality disorders but retained for borderline personality disorders.

According to Kernberg, only one type of idealization, a pathological type, is associated with narcissistic personality disorders. This type involves projection of a pathological grandiose self. The other types of idealization delineated by Kernberg (from primitive to mature) are markedly different than the idealization associated with narcissistic personalities. The other types can be used by individuals with NPD but they are also used by individuals without NPD.

Descriptions of the Measures

Idealization

Goal Instability

The Goal Instability Scale (GIS; Robbins & Patton, 1985) was originally constructed to measure Kohut's descriptions of defects in the idealizing line of development. Robbins and colleagues have done substantial research to establish the

validity and clarify the meaning of the Goal Instability Scale.

Goal instability has been found to be a more generalized measure of difficulty (Robbins, 1989) than originally hypothesized but has strong convergent, divergent, and construct validity (e.g., Robbins, Payne, & Chartrand, 1990; Robbins & Tucker, 1986; Watson et al, 1988). (Robbins & Dupont, 1992, p. 464).

The generalized deficits associated with Goal Instability (e.g., problematic self-esteem, submissive and moderately hostile behaviors) correspond to symptoms that Kohut (1971) associated with deficits in the idealizing line of development. Thus, indirectly, evidence for the validity of the Goal Instability Scale links the scale back to Kohut's ideas about idealization.

Primitive Idealization

The Primitive Idealization scale (or subscale) was also based on psychoanalytic theory. It consists of two items which were derived from Kernberg's concept of primitive idealization. Primitive Idealization is a subscale of the Defense Style Questionnaire (DSQ; Bond, Gardner, Christian, & Sigal, 1983). An attempt to establish the validity of Primitive Idealization failed to produce supporting evidence. Scores on Primitive Idealization were not correlated with idealization as measured with the Defense Mechanism Rating Scales (see Bond, Perry, Gautier, Goldenberg, Oppenheimer, & Simand, 1989). Bond (who was instrumental in developing the

Primitive Idealization items) wrote, "I would not bank on these items being a valid and thorough measure of idealization" (personal communication, August 1, 1994).

Romantic Idealization and Limerent Idealization

The Romantic Idealization subscale consists of three items from the Romantic Beliefs Scale (RBS; Sprecher & Metts, 1989); these items loaded on a factor which Sprecher and Metts called idealization. Evidence supporting the validity of this subscale consisted primarily of low correlations (ranging from .22 to .28) with other measures of love styles and liking. In addition, Romantic Idealization correlated .43 with the Spaulding Romantic Love Complex Scale (cited in Sprecher & Metts, 1989).

Limerent idealization consists of four items from a limerence scale which was developed by Feeney; these four loaded on a factor which was called idealization. In exploratory analyses, Feeney and Noller (1990) used these items as an idealization scale. Evidence for the validity of this scale is limited. The scale distinguished individuals with an anxious/ambivalent attachment style from individuals with other attachment styles (Feeney & Noller, 1990). It is referred to as limerent idealization to distinguish it from Feeney's full scale measure of idealization.

With both Romantic Idealization and Limerent Idealization, it appears that the primary rationale for calling them idealization was that item content related to positive or overly positive appraisals. For example, an item

from the Romantic Idealization scale said, "The person I love will make a perfect romantic partner..." and an item from Limerent Idealization said, "I find that I overemphasize the positive characteristics of someone to whom I am strongly attracted."

Feeney's Idealization

Feeney developed a full scale measure of idealization based on findings from a study (Feeney & Noller, 1991) which looked at verbal descriptions of romantic partners. The 30 items in the scale appear to measure romantic idealization. Although reliability and validity information is lacking for the scale, it was included for exploratory purposes.

Positive Perceptions

Another measure of idealization was developed for this study based on previous research (e.g., Burgess & Wallin, 1968; O'Neil & Reis, 1984; Kerckhoff & Davis, 1962) that has assessed idealization by looking at the degree to which the respondent positively perceives another person. The new scale, referred to as positive perceptions, consists of 18 brief descriptive phrases. Eight were negative (for example, "has a temper," "stubborn" and "difficult to get along with) and ten were positive (for example, "honest," "affectionate" and "intelligent"). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they see these phrases as characteristic of the most important other adult in their life.

Love Styles

The Love Attitudes Scale (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) measures six types of love that were delineated by Lee (1973). They are Mania, Eros, Agape, Pragma, Storge, and Ludus. Levy and Davis (1988, p. 440) reviewed findings about the lovestyles as measured by the LAS:

At least four of the six orientations (Eros, Agape, Ludus, and Mania) have been shown to be replicable and to correlate fairly consistently with various individual difference measures such as relationship satisfaction, relationship qualities, and the handling of conflict (see e.g. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1987; Davis & Latty-Mann, 1987a; Davis et al., 1987; Richardson et al., 1988).

Mania and Eros

Two types, Mania and Eros, were of particular interest because they involve intense feeling. C. Hendrick and Hendrick described Mania as possessive, dependent love and Eros as passionate, romantic love. C. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986, p. 401) reported that Mania and Eros differed in terms of self-esteem: Mania had the lowest and Eros had the highest correlation with self-esteem.

Passionate Love and Desperate Love

The Passionate Love Scale (PLS; Hatfield & Rapson, 1987) is a unidimensional measure intended to measure an intense longing for union with another. The short version, consisting of 15 items, was used in this study. The Desperate Love Scale

(DLS; Sperling, 1985a) consists of twelve questions which "probe such dynamics as desire for reciprocation, intensity of feeling, fear of rejection, and the sense that a void is filled by this type of relationship" (Sperling & Berman, 1991, pp. 48-49.) Both the PLS and the DLS are purported to have accumulated adequate evidence of validity.

Attachment Styles

A measure developed by Hazan and Shaver (1987) assessed the following attachment styles: secure, avoidant, and anxious-ambivalent. The measure consists of a description for each of the styles. Hazan and Shaver (1987, p. 515) presented the descriptions with the question, "Which .. best describes your feelings?" In the current study, the three descriptions were presented with instructions to indicate extent of agreement with each by selecting one of five response options.

Evidence for the validity of this measure was presented by Hazan and Shaver (1987) and supplemented by other researchers (e.g., Levy & Davis, 1988; Feeney & Noller, 1990; 1991). In multiple studies, the attachment styles performed as expected with variables such as love styles and perceptions of the quality of relationships with parents.

Limerence Subscales Other than Idealization

Feeney and Noller (1990) reported that a factor analysis of Feeney's limerence scale produced four factors: Idealization, Emotional Dependence, Obsessive Preoccupation, and Self-Conscious Anxiety. The idealization subscale,

referred to as limerent idealization, has already been discussed. Items in the Emotional Dependence scale refer to moods changing with perceptions about the status of the relationship, jealousy, and a desire to please the partner. Most items comprising the Obsessive Preoccupation scale refer to thinking a lot about the person who is the object of attraction. Two items refer to physical reactions (such as a faster heart beat) which occur in the presence of that person and another two refer to concerns about reciprocation. Items measuring Self-Conscious Anxiety appear to relate not only to self-consciousness but also to a fear of rejection.

The limerence subscales have only been used in exploratory analyses. Feeney (personal communication, May 1, 1993) noted that the limerence measure would benefit greatly from further validation.

Dimensions Underlying Attachment Styles

The Adult Attachment Scale (Collins & Read, 1990) purports to measure the dimensions which underlie adult attachment styles. Names for the three subscales are abbreviated as Close, Depend, and Anxiety. Close refers to comfort with closeness. Depend refers to the extent that others can be depended on. It involves a belief that dependence will not lead to disappointment. Close and Depend were found to be inter-related. Anxiety refers to anxiety about being unloved and abandonment fears.

The Adult Attachment Scale has not been reported on extensively. It was included for exploratory purposes.

Autonomy and Dependency

Emotional Reliance on Another Person, Lack of Social Self Confidence, and Assertion of Autonomy, were measured by subscales from The Interpersonal Dependency Inventory (Hirschfeld, Klerman, Gough, Barrett, Korchin, & Chodoff, 1977). Emotional Reliance on Another Person refers to wishes for attention, approval, help, and for emotional support from a specific other person, as well as a dread of losing that person. Items in the Lack of Social Self Confidence scale "express wishes for help in decision-making, in social situations, and in taking initiative" (Hirschfeld et al., p. 617). Assertion of Autonomy differs from the other two subscales by loading negatively on interdependency. It is associated with preferences for being alone and for independent behavior.

Hirschfeld et al. (1977) published 46 items but reported that the scale contained 48 items. Only the published items were used in the current study. Substantial research has been done with the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory and evidence of validity is good.

Succorance and autonomy were measured with scales from the Personality Research Form (the PRF; Jackson, 1974, 1987). Succorance refers to seeking sympathy, help, or support from a nurturant person. Autonomy, as measured by the PRF, involves being unattached, free from restraints, and may involve rebelliousness. These measures are purported to have adequate evidence of validity.

Loneliness

Loneliness is loosely linked to the concept of borderline personality organization. Kernberg (1975, p. 154), citing Grinker et al. (1968), suggested that the kind of depression associated with borderline personalities is a lonely depression.

Loneliness was measured using the "Revised UCLA Loneliness scale" (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980). The scale is a unidimensional scale with "impressive evidence of concurrent and discriminant validity" (Hartshorne, 1993, pp. 181-182).

Ego Identity/Identity Diffusion

In Kernberg's model, the concept of ego identity is a key to differentiating neurotic personality organization from borderline and psychotic personality organization. Whereas an integrated identity is associated with the neurotic level, identity diffusion is associated with the borderline and psychotic levels.

Identity diffusion was assessed using a measure developed by Tan, Kendis, Fine, and Porac (1977). The measure was designed to assess adaptive resolution of Erikson's fifth stage which involves the conflict between ego identity and identity diffusion. The scale consists of twelve pairs of items; in each pair one choice reflects ego identity and the other reflects identity diffusion. While it is generally

scored in the direction of ego identity, in the current study it was scored in the direction of identity diffusion for ease of interpretation. Evidence supporting the construct validity of the Ego Identity Scale came from negative and positive correlations (ranging in absolute value from .20 to .26) with other measures purported to tap related constructs.

Borderline Personality Disorders

Borderline personality disorders fall within the spectrum of borderline personality organization. Dimensions of borderline personality disorders were assessed using a subscale of the Profile (Jones, 1988). The Profile Scales were developed to meet the criteria of the third edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-III); American Psychiatric Association, 1980, p. 323) with some modifications following the appearance of the revised edition, DSM-IIIR (1987). Some of the Profile items address intolerance of being alone and identity disturbance. Hence, it overlaps somewhat with measures of loneliness and ego identity. In addition, though, Profile items address a pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships, affective instability, impulsiveness, difficulty handling anger, and importance given to care of self. Validity evidence for the Profile subscales comes from "comparisons with the MCMI, therapists' ratings, ratings by significant others, self-descriptions, and behavioral measures where available ..." (Jones, personal communication, June, 1994).

Dimensions of Narcissistic Personality Disorder

A subscale of the Profile was also used to assess features associated with Narcissistic Personality Disorder (NPD). Items in the Profile measure of NPD appear to emphasize a willingness to exploit others, a grandiose sense of self-importance, and preoccupation with fantasies of success and fame. Items also address entitlement, needs for constant attention, and lack of empathy.

The Superiority Scale has also been associated with DSM-III narcissism (Robbins, 1989, p. 130). It was developed along with the Goal Instability Scale by Robbins and Patton (1985) to measure aspects of Kohut's bipolar model. Substantial research has been done with the Superiority Scale and it is purported to have evidence of "convergent and divergent validity as a measure of narcissistic behaviors associated with the grandiose-exhibitionistic line of development, including a high correspondence with other measures of narcissism...." (Robbins & Dupont, 1992, p. 464.)

Additional Information about the Measures

More information about each of the 33 measures is included in Appendix C. Reliability information is summarized in Tables 9 and 10. Table 9 presents reported results about internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Table 10 presents data obtained from the Phase II sample.

TABLE 9
REPORTED RELIABILITIES

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	ITEMS	ALPHA	SPLIT- HALF	TEST- RETEST
<u>IDEALIZATION</u>				
GOAL INSTABILITY (A)	10	.81		.76
PRIMITIVE IDEALIZATION (B)	2	.52		.72
ROMANTIC IDEALIZATION (C)	3	.64		.66
LIMERENT IDEALIZATION (D)	4	.60		
FEENEY'S IDEALIZATION (E)	30			
POSITIVE PERCEPTIONS (F)	18			
<u>LOVE STYLES</u>				
MANIA (G)	7	.72		.70
EROS (G)	7	.70		.74
AGAPE (G)	7	.83		.81
PRAGMA (G)	7	.74		.71
STORGE (G)	7	.69		.74
LUDUS (G)	7	.74		.82
DESPERATE LOVE (H)	12	.93		.92
PASSIONATE LOVE (I)	15	.91		
<u>ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>				
SECURE (J)	1			
AVOIDANT (J)	1			
ANXIOUS/AMBIVALENT (J)	1			
<u>LIMERENCE SUBSCALES OTHER THAN IDEALIZATION</u>				
EMOTIONAL DEPENDENCE (D)	7			
OBSESSIVE PREOCCUPATION (D)	10	.83		
SELF CONSCIOUS ANXIETY (D)	9	.83		

TABLE 9 (CONTINUED)
REPORTED RELIABILITIES

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	ITEMS	ALPHA	SPLIT- HALF	TEST- RETEST
<u>DIMENSIONS UNDERLYING ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>				
CLOSE (K)	6	.69		.68
DEPEND (K)	6	.75		.71
ANXIETY (K)	6	.72		.52
<u>DEPENDENCY AND AUTONOMY</u>				
EMOTIONAL RELIANCE (L)	17		.86	
LACK SOCIAL SELF CONFIDENCE (L)	15		.76	
ASSERTION OF AUTONOMY (L)	14		.84	
AUTONOMY (M)	16		.66	
SUCCORANCE (M)	16		.73	
<u>DIMENSIONS OF BORDERLINE PERSONALITY ORGANIZATION</u>				
LONELINESS (N)	20	.94		
IDENTITY DIFFUSION (O)	12		.68	
BPD (P)	15	.78		.66
<u>DIMENSIONS OF NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY DISORDER</u>				
<u>(NPD)</u>				
NPD (P)	15	.69		.71
SUPERIORITY (A)	10	.76		.80

¹Sources: A-Robbins & Patton (1985); B-a subscale of the Defense Style Questionnaire by Bond, Gardner, Christian & Sigal (1983); C-a subscale of the Romantic Beliefs Scale by Sprecher & Metts (1989); D-subscale of a limerence measure by Feeney (1990); E- Feeney (unpublished); F- an exploratory measure developed for the current study; G- subscales of the Love Attitudes Scale by Hendrick & Hendrick (1986); H- Sperling (1985); I-short version of Passionate Love Scale by Hatfield & Sprecher (1986); J- Hazan & Shaver (1987); K- subscales of Adult Attachment Styles by Collins & Read (1990); L- subscales of the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory by Hirschfeld, Klerman, Gough, Barret, Korchin, & Chodoff (1977); M-subscale of the Personality Research Form by Jackson (1974, 1987) used with permission of Sigma Assessment Systems, Incorporated; N-Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale by Russell, Peplau & Cutrona (1980); O-A Short Measure of Eriksonian Ego Identity by Tan, Kendis, Fine & Porac (1977) scored in the direction of identity diffusion; P- subscales of the Profile by Jones (1988).

TABLE 10

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR COMPARISON MEASURES

PHASE TWO SAMPLE

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	N	ITEMS	MEAN	SD	ALPHA	INTER- ITEM MEAN
<u>IDEALIZATION</u>						
GOAL INSTABILITY (A)	204	10	28.8	8.2	.81	.30
PRIMITIVE IDEALIZATION (B)	205	2	6.1	1.7	.31	.19
ROMANTIC IDEALIZATION (C)	207	3	9.1	2.6	.77	.53
LIMERENT IDEALIZATION (D)	206	4	12.9	2.5	.61	.29
FEENEY'S IDEALIZATION (E)	205	30	102.9	12.8	.85	.16
POSITIVE PERCEPTIONS (F)	205	18	59.2	7.9	.87	.27
<u>LOVE STYLES</u>						
MANIA (G)	205	7	20.3	5.2	.75	.29
EROS (G)	201	7	26.6	4.2	.65	.22
AGAPE (G)	203	7	25.0	4.9	.79	.35
PRAGMA (G)	203	7	21.9	4.7	.70	.25
STORGE (G)	203	7	26.7	4.5	.68	.23
LUDUS (G)	203	7	17.8	5.1	.67	.22
DESPERATE LOVE (H)	206	12	74.3	16.7	.87	.38
PASSIONATE LOVE (I)	206	15	107.3	19.1	.91	.42
<u>ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>						
SECURE (J)	204	1	3.4	1.1		
AVOIDANT (J)	205	1	2.6	1.2		
ANXIOUS/AMBIVALENT (J)	205	1	2.3	1.1		
<u>LIMERENCE SUBSCALES OTHER THAN IDEALIZATION</u>						
EMOTIONAL DEPENDENCE (D)	206	7	21.5	4.1	.70	.25
OBSESSIVE PREOCCUPATION (D)	204	10	36.0	6.4	.86	.39
SELF CONSCIOUS ANXIETY (D)	204	9	25.4	6.1	.85	.38

TABLE 10 (CONTINUED)

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR COMPARISON MEASURES

PHASE TWO SAMPLE

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	N	ITEMS	MEAN	SD	ALPHA	INTER-ITEM MEAN
<u>DIMENSIONS UNDERLYING ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>						
CLOSE (K)	206	6	21.5	4.4	.70	.28
DEPEND (K)	204	6	19.0	4.6	.77	.36
ANXIETY (K)	204	6	14.3	4.5	.71	.31
<u>DEPENDENCY AND AUTONOMY</u>						
EMOTIONAL RELIANCE (L)	200	17	40.0	7.8	.81	.20
LACK SOCIAL SELF CONFIDENCE (L)	205	15	28.1	7.0	.82	.24
ASSERTION OF AUTONOMY (L)	202	14	27.7	7.0	.83	.27
AUTONOMY (M)	159	16	6.1	3.3	.73	.14
SUCCORANCE (M)	157	16	8.7	4.0	.82	.22
<u>DIMENSIONS OF BORDERLINE PERSONALITY ORGANIZATION</u>						
LONELINESS (N)	203	20	36.1	9.8	.90	.33
IDENTITY DIFFUSION (O)	202	12	7.6	2.3	.59	.11
BPD (P)	206	15	38.5	8.2	.79	.29
<u>DIMENSIONS OF NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY DISORDER (NPD)</u>						
NPD (P)	204	15	39.1	5.4	.49	.06
SUPERIORITY (A)	204	10	37.0	7.0	.72	.20

¹Sources: A-Robbins & Patton (1985); B-a subscale of the Defense Style Questionnaire by Bond, Gardner, Christian & Sigal (1983); C-a subscale of the Romantic Beliefs Scale by Sprecher & Metts (1989); D-subscale of a limerence measure by Feeney (1990); E- Feeney (unpublished); F- an exploratory measure developed for the current study; G- subscales of the Love Attitudes Scale by Hendrick & Hendrick (1986); H- Sperling (1985); I-short version of Passionate Love Scale by Hatfield & Sprecher (1986); J- Hazan & Shaver (1987); K- subscales of Adult Attachment Styles by Collins & Read (1990); L- subscales of the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory by Hirschfeld, Klerman, Gough, Barret, Korchin, & Chodoff (1977); M-subscale of the Personality Research Form by Jackson (1974, 1987) used with permission of Sigma Assessment Systems, Incorporated; N- Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale by Russell, Peplau & Cutrona (1980); O-A Short Measure of Eriksonian Ego Identity by Tan, Kendis, Fine & Porac (1977) scored in the direction of identity diffusion; P- subscales of the Profile by Jones (1988).

The Background Survey

The Background Survey used in Phase II was a modified version of the Background Survey used in Phase I. The Survey was again divided into two sections.

Section B included all the questions that were included in the similar section of the Phase I Background Survey: age, gender, marital status, and extent of participation in organized religious activities. Two questions were added. One was, "Currently, how much stress are you experiencing? Select the highest option that is accurate." The seven options were: a traumatic level of stress, a very high level of stress, a high level of stress, a moderate level of stress, a mild level of stress, a minimal level of stress, and no stress.

Another question asked about participation in the first phase of this research (the previous fall). Two percent of respondents said that they had previously participated. Ninety percent reported that they had not previously participated, and eight percent either did not respond to this question or indicated that they did not remember.

Section A of the Background Survey asked about relationships. The focus was limited to current and past relationships with other adults. Categories of potential relationships, from the Phase I Background Survey, were as follows: boss/teacher, work/school colleague, room-mate, apartment or house-mate, therapist/counselor, religious mentor, romantic partner, spouse, recreational companion, and friend. The category parent was added and the category adult

relative other than spouse was modified to read, "adult relative other than spouse or parent." Respondents were asked to indicate with a check mark if they had relationships (first current, then past) with individuals that fit the categories listed. Instructions permitted marking more than one category for any individual relationship.

Questions were also included about the most important current and most important past relationship. Subjects were asked how long they have known the person (for the current relationship) and how long the relationship lasted (for the past relationship). Options provided were: one month or less, one to six months, six months to one year, one to three years, three to five years, five to ten years, ten to twenty years, and more than twenty years.

Procedures

Participants were provided with packets which included the Background Survey, questionnaire measures, and a consent form. A copy of the consent form is in Appendix A. Students names were included on participation documentation and on consent forms. These documents were separated from the questionnaires to allow anonymity.

The Questionnaire measures were organized in three sections. Each section included measures of idealization, lovestyles and personality constructs. Within each packet, the order of the three sections was varied according to three patterns and students were instructed to complete the sections in the order in which they were found in their packet. A one-

way analysis of variance, for each of the measures used, revealed no differences which were significant at the .05 level between groups which received sections in different orders.

The Sample

Two hundred and fifty students participated in the second phase. The mean age was 23.2; the mode and median were both 21. Whereas in the first phase, only six percent were over age 25, in this group 17 percent were over age 25. Twenty of the 41 individuals above age 25 were single. By contrast, 198 of the 207 individuals age 25 and below were single. The ages of the 41 individuals over age 25 ranged up to 50 and resulted in a skewed distribution ($\text{skew} = 2.5$). In the interest of using a sample with ages comprising a normal distribution, and for the sake of homogeneity, the Phase II sample was limited to students age 25 and under.

The Phase II Sample consisted of 207 students. Ages included were 17 through 25, ($M = 21.1$) and the distribution of ages was relatively normal. The students were recruited from undergraduate psychology classes. They received normal course credit for their participation.

Women comprised 65 percent of the sample and men comprised 35 percent. Ninety-six percent of the sample reported that they were single. Sixty-eight percent had a current relationship with romantic partner and 76 percent reported having had a past relationship with a romantic partner. The percentages of the sample that reported other

types of current and past relationships are presented in Appendix D-2. (Also, for comparison, Appendix D-3 separately lists information about current and past relationships for the participants in Phase II who, based on age, were not included in the Phase II sample.)

Primary Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for the Phase II sample are presented in Table 11. Results reported in Table 11 parallel results reported in Table 7 which is based on the Phase One Sample. Results with the two samples were quite comparable. Both showed that the IZ scale was internally consistent.

A factor analysis of the IZ scale, using the responses of the Phase II Sample, indicated that the scale was essentially a unidimensional scale. Nine factors were generated with eigenvalues greater than one but the first factor had an eigenvalue of 11.43 and no other factor had an eigenvalue greater than 2.20. The first factor accounted for 29.3 % of the variance. These results were quite comparable to results from the Phase One factor analysis.

TABLE 11
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS - PHASE TWO SAMPLE

	Males	Females	Combined
n	70	132	202
Mean	106.14	108.14	107.45
SD	17.96	22.98	21.35
Skew	.10	-.23	-.13
Alpha	.90	.94	.93
<u>Inter-Item r:</u>			
Minimum	-.23	-.04	-.07
Maximum	.71	.72	.69
Mean	.19	.30	.26

Idealization

Comparisons between the IZ and other scales or subscales which have been purported to measure idealization are presented in Table 12. IZ correlated moderately with Goal Instability and limerent idealization. It also correlated positively with Romantic Idealization and with Feeney's full scale measure of idealization, although the correlation with Feeney's full scale measure was low. IZ was practically uncorrelated with the Primitive Idealization measure. It was negatively correlated with Positive Perceptions.

Love and Attachment Styles

Table 13 presents correlations between IZ and measures of love types. It also presents the correlations between IZ and each of the attachment styles.

IZ showed a strong correlation with Mania and a moderate to strong correlation with the Anxious/Ambivalent style. It was positively correlated with Desperate Love and with Passionate Love. The correlation between IZ and Desperate Love was stronger than the correlation between IZ and Passionate Love, $t = 2.71$, $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Mania and Eros, both purported to relate to intense feeling, performed quite differently from each other in reference to IZ. Whereas Mania was strongly correlated with IZ, Eros was virtually uncorrelated with IZ.

TABLE 12
IZ CORRELATED WITH OTHER IDEALIZATION MEASURES

PHASE 2 SAMPLE
(AGES 17-25)

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	<u>r</u> WITH IZ	SIG LEVEL	N
<u>IDEALIZATION</u>			
GOAL INSTABILITY (A)	.50	**	199
PRIMITIVE IDEALIZATION (B)	.09		200
ROMANTIC IDEALIZATION (C)	.30	**	200
LIMERENT IDEALIZATION (D)	.50	**	201
FEENEY'S IDEALIZATION (E)	.20	*	200
POSITIVE PERCEPTIONS (F)	-.33	**	201

* $p \leq .01$; ** $p \leq .001$

¹Sources: A-Robbins & Patton (1985); B-a subscale of the Defense Style Questionnaire by Bond, Gardner, Christian & Sigal (1983); C-a subscale of the Romantic Beliefs Scale by Sprecher & Metts (1989); D-subscale of a limerence measure by Feeney (1990); E- Feeney (unpublished); F- an exploratory measure developed for the current study.

TABLE 13
IZ CORRELATED WITH LOVE AND ATTACHMENT MEASURES

PHASE 2 SAMPLE

(AGES 17-25)

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	<u>r</u> WITH IZ	SIG LEVEL	N
<u>LOVE STYLES</u>			
MANIA (G)	.73	**	201
EROS (G)	.04		198
AGAPE (G)	.37	**	200
PRAGMA (G)	.18	*	199
STORGE (G)	.02		200
LUDUS (G)	.01		199
DESPERATE LOVE (H)	.55	**	201
PASSIONATE LOVE (I)	.41	**	201
<u>ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>			
SECURE (J)	-.23	**	201
AVOIDANT (J)	.09		202
ANXIOUS/AMBIVALENT (J)	.54	**	202

* $p \leq .01$; ** $p \leq .001$

¹Sources: G- subscales of the Love Attitudes Scale by Hendrick & Hendrick (1986); H- Sperling (1985); I-short version of Passionate Love Scale by Hatfield & Sprecher (1986); J- Hazan & Shaver (1987).

Limerence Subscales

The moderate correlation between IZ and limerent idealization was presented in Table 12. For the other limerence subscales, correlations with IZ ranged from strong to moderate. IZ correlated positively with: Emotional Dependence, $r(201) = .64$, $p < .001$, two tailed; Obsessive Preoccupation, $r(199) = .58$, $p < .001$, two-tailed; and Self-Conscious Anxiety, $r(200) = .47$, $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Limerence scores were computed by summing the results of the four limerence subscales. Information about limerence scores, therefore, overlaps with information about the subscales. Nevertheless, limerence scores are of interest because of the conceptual similarity to idealization. IZ was strongly correlated with limerence, $r(197) = .72$, $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Dimensions Underlying Attachment Styles

IZ showed a moderately strong correlation with the dimension labeled Anxiety, $r(199) = .63$, $p < .001$, two-tailed. Six of the seven items on this scale were originally written to measure anxious/ambivalent attachment as described by Hazan and Shaver. In the current study, anxiety showed a moderately strong correlation with anxious/ambivalence, $r(202) = .60$, $p < .001$, two-tailed. Thus, there is substantial overlap between findings pertaining to anxiety and findings pertaining to anxious/ambivalence.

IZ had a low negative correlation with the dimension labeled Depend, $r(199) = -.22$, $p < .001$, two-tailed. It was

not significantly correlated with Close, $r(201) = -.12$, $p = .08$, two-tailed.

Dependency and Autonomy

Table 14 presents correlations between IZ and measures related to dependency and autonomy. IZ correlated negatively with the autonomy measures and positively with the measures related to dependency. The correlation of .64 between IZ and emotional reliance was significantly stronger than the correlation of .47 between IZ and lack of social self-confidence, $t = 2.73$, $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Dimensions of Borderline Personality Organization

Correlations between IZ and characteristics associated with borderline personality organization are presented in Table 15. IZ showed a moderately strong correlation with dimensions of borderline personality disorders. It showed a low moderate correlation with loneliness and identity diffusion.

The intercorrelation matrix also shows overlap between the measures. As expected, identity diffusion and loneliness were moderately correlated with dimensions of borderline personality disorders.

Dimensions of Narcissistic Personality Disorder

The lack of a relationship between IZ and measures related to narcissistic personality disorder (NPD) is presented in Table 16. For comparison, Goal Instability was

TABLE 14
IZ CORRELATED WITH DEPENDENCY AND AUTONOMY MEASURES

PHASE 2 SAMPLE
(AGES 17-25)

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	<u>r</u> WITH IZ	SIG LEVEL	N
<u>DEPENDENCY AND AUTONOMY</u>			
EMOTIONAL RELIANCE (L)	.64	**	195
LACK SOCIAL SELF CONFIDENCE (L)	.47	**	200
ASSERTION OF AUTONOMY (L)	-.23	**	197
AUTONOMY (PRF MEASURE) ² (M)	-.26	**	156
SUCCORANCE (PRF MEASURE) ² (M)	.29	**	154

* $p \leq .01$; ** $p \leq .001$

¹Sources: L- subscales of the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory by Hirschfeld, Klerman, Gough, Barret, Korchin, & Chodoff (1977); M- subscales of the Personality Research Form by Jackson (1974, 1987) used with permission of Sigma Assessment Systems, Incorporated.

² Sample size was smaller for the PRF Measures (Autonomy and Succorance) because the test was used with permission of the publisher, Sigma Assessments, Inc., and the license limited the number of administrations.

TABLE 15

INTERCORRELATION MATRIX:

IZ AND DIMENSIONS OF BORDERLINE PERSONALITY ORGANIZATION

MEASURE (SOURCE ¹)	1	2	3	4
1. IZ	--	.35**	.31**	.60**
2. UCLA Revised Loneliness Scale (N)		--	.49**	.55**
3. Identity Diffusion (O)			--	.51**
4. Borderline Personality Disorder (P)				--

Minimum pairwise N of case: 198

** 2-tailed Significance: < .001

¹Sources: N- Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale by Russell, Peplau & Cutrona (1980); O-A Short Measure of Eriksonian Ego Identity by Tan, Kendis, Fine & Porac (1977) scored in the direction of identity diffusion; P- subscales of the Profile by Jones (1988).

TABLE 16

INTERCORRELATION MATRIX:

IZ AND DIMENSIONS OF NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY DISORDER,
AND GOAL INSTABILITY

MEASURE (SOURCE ¹)	1	2	3	4
1. IZ	--	.10	.09	.50**
2. Narcissistic Personality Disorder (P)		--	.43**	.07
3. Superiority (A)			--	.07
4. Goal Instability (A)				--

Minimum pairwise N of case: 198

** 2-tailed Significance: < .001

¹Sources: A-Robbins & Patton (1985); P- subscales of the Profile by Jones (1988).

included in the intercorrelation matrix. Goal Instability and Superiority were purported (Robbins & Patton, 1985) to measure separate lines of narcissistic development as described in Kohut's (1971) bipolar model. Results in the current study indicate that Goal Instability, like IZ, is unrelated to dimensions of NPD. Superiority, in contrast, is moderately related to dimensions of NPD as measured by the Profile.

Summary Presentation of Primary Results

As a summary review, the correlations between IZ and each of the 33 measures are presented in Table 17. Table 17 also includes results with all participants from Phase II in order to illustrate that results with all participants were comparable with results for the Phase II Sample. The intercorrelations for all 33 measures are presented in Appendix E.

Secondary Results

Age

As was already noted, age was the criterion for selecting the Phase II Sample from the population of Phase II participants. Consequently, in discussing scores on the IZ and age, information for all ages will be presented along with information for the Phase II Sample.

Table 18 presents mean idealization scores by age. Results from the Phase I Sample and from Phase II participants are included and the Phase II sample is the subset of ages 17

TABLE 17
IZ CORRELATED WITH OTHER MEASURES

MEASURES (SOURCE ⁱ)	PHASE 2 SAMPLE (AGES 17-25)			PHASE 2 PARTICIPANTS (AGES 17-50)		
	r WITH IZ	SIG LEVEL	N	r WITH IZ	SIG LEVEL	N
<u>IDEALIZATION</u>						
GOAL INSTABILITY (A)	.50	**	199	.52	**	242
PRIMITIVE IDEALIZATION (B)	.09		200	.04		243
ROMANTIC IDEALIZATION (C)	.30	**	200	.30	**	242
LIMERENT IDEALIZATION (D)	.50	**	201	.45	**	243
FEENEY'S IDEALIZATION (E)	.20	*	200	.19	*	242
POSITIVE PERCEPTIONS (F)	-.33	**	201	-.32	**	243
<u>LOVE STYLES</u>						
MANIA (G)	.73	**	201	.72	**	243
EROS (G)	.04		198	.05		239
AGAPE (G)	.37	**	200	.32	**	242
PRAGMA (G)	.18	*	199	.20	*	241
STORGE (G)	.02		200	.06		242
LUDUS (G)	.01		199	.00		241
DESPERATE LOVE (H)	.55	**	201	.56	**	244
PASSIONATE LOVE (I)	.41	**	201	.43	**	243
<u>ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>						
SECURE (J)	-.23	**	201	-.23	**	244
AVOIDANT (J)	.09		202	.13		245
ANXIOUS/AMBIVALENT (J)	.54	**	202	.51	**	245
<u>LIMERENCE SUBSCALES OTHER THAN IDEALIZATION</u>						
EMOTIONAL DEPENDENCE (D)	.64	**	201	.65	**	243
OBSESSIVE PREOCCUPATION (D)	.58	**	199	.57	**	241
SELF CONSCIOUS ANXIETY (D)	.54	**	199	.58	**	241

TABLE 17 (CONTINUED)
IZ CORRELATED WITH OTHER MEASURES

MEASURES (SOURCE ¹)	PHASE 2 SAMPLE (AGES 17-25)			PHASE 2 PARTICIPANTS (AGES 17-50)		
	r WITH IZ	SIG LEVEL	N	r WITH IZ	SIG LEVEL	N
<u>DIMENSIONS UNDERLYING ATTACHMENT STYLES</u>						
CLOSE (K)	-.12		201	-.17 *		243
DEPEND (K)	-.22 **		199	-.21 **		242
ANXIETY (K)	.63 **		199	.60 **		241
<u>DEPENDENCY AND AUTONOMY</u>						
EMOTIONAL RELIANCE (L)	.64 **		195	.66 **		238
LACK SOCIAL SELF CONFIDENCE (L)	.47 **		200	.51 **		243
ASSERTION OF AUTONOMY (L)	-.23 **		197	-.24 **		240
AUTONOMY (M)	-.26 **		156	-.27 **		193
SUCCORANCE (M)	.29 **		154	.35 **		190
<u>DIMENSIONS OF BORDERLINE PERSONALITY ORGANIZATION</u>						
LONELINESS (N)	.35 **		198	.38 **		241
IDENTITY DIFFUSION (O)	.31 **		198	.34 **		241
BPD (P)	.60 **		201	.61 **		244
<u>DIMENSIONS OF NARCISSISTIC PERSONALITY DISORDERS (NPD)</u>						
NPD (P)	.10		199	.11		241
SUPERIORITY (A)	.09		199	.13		242

* $p \leq .01$; ** $p \leq .001$

¹Sources: A-Robbins & Patton (1985); B-a subscale of the Defense Style Questionnaire by Bond, Gardner, Christian & Sigal (1983); C-a subscale of the Romantic Beliefs Scale by Sprecher & Metts (1989); D-subscale of a limerence measure by Feeney (1990); E- Feeney (unpublished); F- an exploratory measure developed for the current study; G- subscales of the Love Attitudes Scale by Hendrick & Hendrick (1986); H- Sperling (1985); I-short version of Passionate Love Scale by Hatfield & Sprecher (1986); J- Hazan & Shaver (1987); K- subscales of Adult Attachment Styles by Collins & Read (1990); L- subscales of the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory by Hirschfeld, Klerman, Gough, Barret, Korchin, & Chodoff (1977); M-subscale of the Personality Research Form by Jackson (1974, 1987) used with permission of Sigma Assessment Systems, Incorporated; N-Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale by Russell, Peplau & Cutrona (1980); O-A Short Measure of Eriksonian Ego Identity by Tan, Kendis, Fine & Porac (1977) scored in the direction of identity diffusion; P- subscales of the Profile by Jones (1988).

TABLE 18
IZ AND AGE

PHASE ONE SAMPLE			PHASE TWO PARTICIPANTS		
AGE	Mean IZ	Cases	AGE	Mean IZ	Cases
Population	110	171	Population	107	243
17	110	13	17	129	1
18	108	17	18	129	7
19	114	29	19	114	25
20	114	52	20	112	38
21	107	27	21	107	52
22	107	19	22	106	44
23	90	4	23	90	17
24	106	1	24	101	12
25	105	3	25	106	6
26	101	1	26	116	4
27			27	92	4
28			28	91	5
29			29	131	2
30			30	123	1
31			31	97	3
32			32	103	2
33			33	100	1
34			34	106	2
35			35	87	2
36			36	92	1
37			37	97	2
38	106	2	38	118	2
40			40	100	1
41			41	121	3
43			43	80	2
46			46	87	2
47	92	1	47		
48			48	107	1
50	86	1	50	106	1

through 25 in the column labeled Phase II participants. In Phase II, the data again supported the hypothesis that idealization decreases with age (particularly at the end of adolescence). The strength of the correlation between age and idealization was greater for the Phase II sample (under age 26) than for all Phase II participants. For the Phase II sample, the correlation between age and IZ was $-.2833$, $p < .001$, one-tailed; for all participants in Phase II, the correlation between age and IZ was $-.1575$, $p = .007$, one-tailed.

Among the individuals ages 26 through 50, the correlation between age and IZ scores was not significant, $r = -.0621$. For women above 25, the correlation between age and IZ was positive, $r(19) = .32$, $p = .19$; for men in the same age range, the correlation was negative $r(22) = -.38$, $p = .08$. The positive correlation for women over 25 is striking because among women ages 17 through 25 (i.e., the Phase II sample), the correlation between age and IZ was of about the same magnitude but negative, $r(132) = -.31$, $p < .001$. A negative correlation between age and IZ was also found for the men in the Phase II sample, $r(70) = -.21$, $p = .09$.

Gender

In the Phase II sample, men and women had similar mean scores on the IZ: 106.1 for men and 108.1 for women, $t = .68$, ns. The standard deviation for men was 18.0; for women, it was 23.0.

Extent of Religious Participation

Data from the Phase One sample indicated that individuals who reported that they had participated in five or more religious activities during the prior month had lower scores on IZ than individuals who reported that they had participated in fewer than five religious activities during the same time period. In the Phase II sample, there were fewer individuals who reported having participated in five or more religious activities (twelve in Sample Two as compared with the nineteen in Sample One). While the mean scores for these twelve (102.5) were lower than the means scores for the 189 students who reported less frequent participation (107.7), the differences were not great enough to be statistically significant, $t = .81$, ns.

Stress

Higher scores on IZ were associated with higher levels of self-reported stress. The mean IZ score for those who reported experiencing a traumatic level of stress was 129.5; the mean IZ score for individuals who reported experiencing no stress was 91.8. Levels of stress were coded so that higher scores indicated higher stress levels. The correlation between IZ scores and stress levels was $.29$, $p < .001$.

Adult Relationships

For each category of current and past relationships, the group that reported having the relationship was compared with the group that did not report having the relationship.

Because so many comparisons were made, only those correlations with a probability of less than .01 were considered significant. Only one type of current relationship and one type of past relationship met this criteria. The group that reported having a current relationship with a relative other than a spouse or parent had lower scores on IZ ($\bar{M} = 104.9$) than the group that did not report having such a relationship ($\bar{M} = 114.7$), $t = 2.89$, $p = .004$, two-tailed. The group that reported a past relationship with an apartment-mate had lower scores on IZ ($\bar{M} = 100.8$) than the group that did not report having had such a relationship ($\bar{M} = 110.0$), $t = 2.77$, $p = .006$, two-tailed.

CHAPTER VI

MEANING OF THE IZ

What the IZ Appears to Measure and Not Measure

Comparisons with Other Idealization Measures

Does the IZ measure idealization? The question cannot be answered simply by comparing the IZ with the other seven measures purported to assess idealization because it is not clear that the other measures actually measure idealization. All but the Goal Instability Scale (GIS) lack substantial evidence of validity and, while numerous studies have addressed the validity of the GIS, the accumulated research suggests that the GIS is more of a measure of "generalized difficulty" (see Robbins & Dupont, 1992) than a measure of idealization. Nevertheless, given that the other scales are (or once were) labeled idealization, comparisons with the IZ are of interest.

Results with the Phase II Sample indicated that none of the idealization measures, including IZ, were strongly correlated with any other measure of idealization. (These results are presented in the first seven lines of Appendix E-2.) The IZ, however, was moderately correlated with Goal Instability and with Limerent Idealization. It was also positively correlated with Romantic Idealization and with Feeney's idealization, although correlations with these measures were weaker. It was not correlated with Primitive Idealization but, this finding has dubious meaning given that,

Bond, who developed the items, would not bank on them as a valid measure of idealization (personal communication, August 1, 1994). The reliability must also be considered, and in the Phase II sample, the alpha for Primitive Idealization was only .31.

The negative correlation with Positive Perceptions may suggest that the IZ does not measure the type of idealization that is defined in terms of positive appraisals. Here again, findings should be viewed with caution because the measure was an exploratory measure. The possibility that positive appraisals were a function of a specific relationship must also be considered. Hall and Taylor (1976) argued that positive perceptions are indicative of idealization only if they are overly positive. In their view, the key feature of idealization is cognitive distortion.

Conceptualizations of idealization that were used in the development of the IZ did not emphasize cognitive distortions. It was more a question of whether and how strongly the attitude was felt. It was not even assumed that the experience of idealizing someone involved perceptions of the other. Based on ideas from Kohut and Kernberg, it was recognized that idealization could be a projection based on need, rather than a perception. Kohut (1971, p. 45) talked about a type of idealization in which others are idealized but "not loved or admired for their attributes, and the actual features of their personalities, and their actions, are only dimly recognized." Kernberg (1975, p. 30) noted that primitive idealization is "the direct manifestation of a

primitive protective fantasy structure in which there is no real regard for the ideal object, but a simple need for it...." To the extent that the IZ measures a kind of idealization which is similar to Kernberg's primitive idealization and Kohut's idealizing transference, then it would not necessarily be expected to correlate positively with a measure of positive appraisals.

Comparisons with Other Measures

The pattern of correlations found between the IZ and other measures shed some light on the meaning of the IZ scale. IZ was strongly correlated with mania and with limerence. It also showed a moderate to strong correlation with desperate love and a moderate correlation with the anxious/ambivalent style. Shaver and Hazan (1988, p. 495) implied that mania, limerence, desperate love, and anxious/ambivalence essentially refer to the same construct. It is a type of love that involves intense feelings which vacillate with perceptions about the relationship. As Tennov (1979/1981, p. 24) noted, when reciprocation seems evident, there is "buoyance- a feeling of walking on air."

Shaver and Hazan (1988, p. 485) suggested that this style is characterized by a lack of self-confidence. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986, p. 401) reported that respondents who endorsed the Mania love style had lower self-esteem than respondents who endorse the other styles. Other measures which the IZ correlated with were also related to low self-esteem (i.e., Goal Instability and Self-Conscious Anxiety). While the links

are indirect, they imply that the IZ is related to difficulties with self-esteem.

Shaver and Hazan (1988) further suggested that what they called "the now-familiar limerent, desperate, anxious type" (p. 495) is also characterized by a desire to merge with a partner and a perception that others are unwilling to commit to a long-term relationship" (Shaver & Hazan, p. 485). [This description is quite similar to Hirschfeld et al.'s (1977) description of what is measured by the subscale Emotional Reliance on Another Person. The IZ showed a moderate to strong correlation with Emotional Reliance on Another Person.] The idea that uncertainties are a component of the picture is underscored by the IZ's negative correlation with the exploratory measure Depend (which relates to a belief that others can be depended on in times of need). The absence of a significant correlation between IZ and Close suggests that the desire for closeness is not related to comfort with closeness. It should be noted, though, that Close is also an exploratory measure and, hence, interpretations must be viewed with caution.

The picture that emerges can be seen as involving contradictory beliefs. On the one hand, there is the belief that all hope lies in being rescued by a wonderful other; on the other hand, there is the belief that no other person can be depended on in times of need. It could be argued that the IZ measures contradictory beliefs which are accompanied by intense and different affects: the belief in the wonderful other which is accompanied by feelings of buoyance and the

belief that the other can't be depended on in times of need which might be accompanied by depressive affect. To the extent that these experiences are disassociated from each other, then what is captured is the defense known as splitting.

Findings with the measures associated with borderline personality organization fit in the picture. Splitting is a characteristic of borderline personality organization. Identity diffusion is related to problems with self-esteem. Loneliness could easily be associated with the unstable relationships which go along with the limerent, desperate, anxious style.

While findings suggest that the IZ is related to what Shaver and Hazan called the limerent, desperate, anxious style, the question of whether the IZ measures idealization remains unanswered. To address this question, evidence of construct validity was examined.

Evidence of Validity

The validity of the comparison measures was considered in the process of assessing the validity of the IZ. As already noted, the idealization measures, with the exception of Goal Instability, lacked adequate validity evidence. Many of the other comparison measures had more evidence of validity. Specifically, those measures included in Tables 13 through 16, with the possible exception of the Storge and Pragma love styles, have accumulated adequate evidence of validity. Scores on the IZ were compared with scores on these measures

to determine if the IZ performed in a manner consistent with a measure of idealization.

Convergent Validity

Goal Instability

Items in the Goal Instability Scale (GIS) were written based on Kohut's descriptions of mild to moderate defects in the idealizing line of development. As already noted, the accumulated validity evidence for the GIS suggested that it relates to problems with self-esteem and generalized difficulties. As such, it would still be expected to correlate with the kind of idealization described by Kohut. The GIS correlated moderately with the IZ.

Love and Attachment

Empirical data supporting the link between idealization and love and attachment was provided by Feeney and Noller (1990, 1991). They showed a higher incidence of idealization among individuals endorsing the anxious/ambivalent attachment style than among individuals endorsing other attachment styles. Feeney's measure of limerent idealization was also linked to Mania in that both loaded on a Neurotic Love factor (Feeney & Noller, 1990).

Consistent with Feeney and Noller's (1990) findings, the IZ was strongly correlated with mania and moderately correlated with the anxious/ambivalent style.

Autonomy and Dependency

The finding that IZ was negatively correlated with autonomy was consistent with the theoretical notion suggesting that de-idealization is associated with individuation (Blos, 1967), and with related research that associated de-idealization with an individuation process that culminates in autonomy (i.e., Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; Smollar & Youniss, 1989). The positive relationship between IZ and measures assessing wishes for help and support (i.e., Emotional Reliance on Another Person, Lack of Social Self-Confidence, and Succorance) was consistent with the suggestion implied by Smollar and Youniss that idealization is related to placing responsibility on someone else.

Dimensions of Borderline Personality Organization

Links between idealization and characteristics of borderline personality organization were suggested by Kernberg and by recent editions of the DSM. Again, the IZ performed as expected with a moderately strong correlation to dimensions of borderline personality disorders.

Links between idealization and specific dimensions of borderline personality organization (e.g., lack of tolerance for being alone and identity diffusion) were also delineated by Kernberg. Kernberg commented (1975, p. 26) that the use of splitting (including the subsidiary defense, primitive idealization) contributes to ego weakness and underlies the syndrome of identity diffusion. He suggested that, in treatment, borderline personalities give up idealization and

come to accept aloneness (Kernberg, 1975, p. 175). Thus, the findings that the IZ correlated positively with identity diffusion and loneliness are consistent with theory.

Age

The negative correlation between idealization and age, which was found in both Phase I and Phase II samples, is consistent with the developmental conception of idealization. These findings could, of course, be due to a cohort effect rather than developmental considerations. Longitudinal research would help clarify this issue. Still, it is worth noting that an inverse correlation would be expected not only because idealization is a developmental concept but also, indirectly, because of the purported relationships to limerence and borderline personality organization. Limerence, according to Tennov (1979/1981, p. 149) is most frequent during the age period from the teens to the mid-20's. Borderline pathology, according to Kroll (1988, p. 85) "settles down toward age 30 or within a few years thereafter."

Discriminant Validity

The extent to which the relationship between IZ and measures related to Narcissistic Personality Disorder (NPD) can provide evidence of validity is limited by ambiguity about the relationship between idealization and NPD. This ambiguity may stem from confusing the concept of narcissism with the diagnosis of NPD. Kohut (1971) clearly linked the idealizing transference to what he called narcissistic personalities. In

fact, the idealizing transference was referred to as a type of narcissistic transference. Kohut (1984) changed the phrase narcissistic transferences to selfobject transferences. He (1984, p. 193) noted, "When I used the term 'narcissistic transferences' in 1971, I was simply trying to pour new wine into old bottles, attempting to make new ideas appear less radically new and more acceptable..." In 1971, Kohut was tying his ideas to established psychoanalytic concepts of narcissism, particularly to Hartmann's conceptualization of narcissism as the cathexis of the self (see Kohut, 1971, p. xiii).

Ornstein (1974, p. 236) argued that Kohut's use of the term narcissism cannot be used as a diagnostic description. At the time Kohut was writing, distinctions between NPD and BPD were not clear (see, for example, Meissner, 1979). Kroll (1988) implied that DSM committees made artificial distinctions between BPD and NPD in order to reduce overlap in the diagnoses. Until 1987, idealization was mentioned in the description of NPD. In the DSM-III-R (1987) the reference to idealization was dropped from NPD and retained with BDP. Obviously, Kohut's discussions preceded these distinctions.

Kernberg associated a specific type of idealization with NPD. This type involves projection of a pathological grandiose self and is markedly different than the types of idealization that he associated with normal development. (The types associated with normal development can be used by individuals with NPD but they are also used by individuals without NPD.)

No predictions can be made about the relationship between IZ and NPD from Kohut's theory if Kohut's use of the term narcissistic personality is disassociated from NPD. The finding that IZ was not significantly correlated with measures relating to NPD is, however, consistent with the DSM-III-R and DSM-IV descriptions of NPD (which do not mention idealization). To the extent that the type of idealization being considered is not the type which involves projection of a pathological grandiose self, then the finding is also consistent with Kernberg's theory.

Additional evidence of discriminant validity comes from two measures, the Love Attitudes Scale (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) and the Hazan and Shaver (1987) measure of attachment styles, which included subscales which were expected to relate to idealization (i.e., Mania and Anxious/Ambivalence) as well as other subscales. Patterns of results with these measures were consistent with expectations.

Two subscales of the LAS, Mania and Eros, were of interest. The IZ was strongly correlated with Mania but uncorrelated with Eros. This is consistent with research conducted by Lee (1973). Lee noted that while fiction would lead us to associate Eros with idealization, his interview data showed that idealization was not linked to Eros but was linked to Mania.

There is something imperious and momentous in the initial ecstatic shock of eros which, fiction has assured us, often causes the lover to assume that the partner is indeed his ideal image. Stendhal called this process

crystallization. He believed that we begin very early in a relationship to project onto the partner all sorts of desirable qualities we want in an ideal lover, whether or not the situation warrants it. I did not find this process typical of the eros type of love, but rather, typical of mania....the respondents who succeeded in eros did not blindly glamorize the partner; nor did they ignore early warning signs of shortcomings in the partner. Manic lovers tend to ignore the beloved's flaws (that is, they 'crystallize' the beloved), but my most typical erotic respondents were always conscious of both the assets and liabilities of their partners, and ignored neither. (Lee, 1973, p. 43)

Evidence of discriminant validity is also seen in the pattern of correlations with attachment styles. As expected based on Feeney and Noller's research, IZ showed a stronger relationship with the anxious/ambivalent type than with the other types (secure and avoidant).

Review of Validity Evidence

Results with multiple measures (i.e., the GIS, Mania, Anxious/Ambivalent Attachment Style, the Interpersonal Dependency Inventory subscales, the UCLA Revised Loneliness Scale, a measure of ego identity/identity diffusion and the Profile measure of dimensions associated with borderline personality disorder) provided strong evidence of convergent validity for the IZ. In addition, the inverse correlation between IZ and age was consistent with expectations. Evidence

of discriminant validity was not as strong, largely because most measures were selected based on the expectation that they would be related to idealization and they were. Still, evidence of discriminant validity was seen in certain patterns of correlations and in the lack of a correlation between IZ and measures of NPD. Overall, the results yielded substantial evidence of construct validity.

Tentative Conclusion About the Meaning of IZ

The findings support a tentative conclusion that the IZ measures a type of idealization. The IZ was strongly associated with with what Hazan and Shaver called the desperate, limerent, anxious type. Patterns of findings suggest that the IZ measures a type of idealization characterized by a wish for an emotionally sustaining relationship with an all-good and powerful other and by a belief that such a relationship is not possible.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations

This study measured one type of idealization because one type emerged from the particular set of items that were generated. Future research on the topic of idealization could put more emphasis on measuring different types of idealization. Findings with Feeney's full scale measure of idealization suggest that it could be used in developing a scale that measures a more mature type of idealization. Efforts could also be focussed on developing a scale that measures pathological idealization. Such a scale could be used in conjunction with the IZ; both could have value for making treatment decisions.

With the exception of findings related to age, all evidence of validity was based on self-report measures. Self-report data is appropriate because idealization was conceived of as a phenomenon that is in the eye of the beholder. Nevertheless, to overcome the limitations of a mono-method study, future research could employ other methods (for example, interviews or projective techniques).

Validity evidence for the IZ was also limited by the comparison measures selected. Additional research with other measures would further the understanding of what the IZ measures. For example, the relationship between IZ and

depression could be explored.

The generalizability of the study is limited because participants were not randomly selected and included only undergraduate psychology students from one Southeastern university. Although a small percentage of respondents reported that they were currently in therapy, the sample was not a patient sample. The performance of the IZ with a patient sample would obviously be of interest because Kohut and Kernberg spoke about idealization in the transference.

Implications

Although further validation is necessary, findings from this study have provided significant evidence supporting the validity of the IZ. The IZ also appears to be internally reliable. This measure makes it possible to conduct research relating to idealization. Research could, for example, focus on the hypothesized link between idealization and normal development. If this link is confirmed, ideas about what makes people grow out of a particular type of idealization could be explored.

This study was a first step toward enhancing the understanding of idealization. Psychoanalytic theory as well as empirical studies suggested that there are different types of idealization. The development of the IZ, a new measure of a particular type of idealization, makes it possible to study and talk in depth about that type of idealization.

While treatment implications are beyond the scope of this dissertation, this dissertation is clearly relevant to

clinical practice. The controversy between Kohut and Kernberg regarding the role of idealization in treatment has often been emphasized. Kernberg argued that Kohut's approach, which purports to facilitate growth through reactivation of archaic idealizing needs, is not effective with narcissistic patients because idealization in these patients "is a pathological process rather than a normal developmental stage" (Kernberg, 1974, p. 222). While this argument applies to idealization associated with narcissistic personality disorder (NPD), it does not apply to other types of idealization. This study pointed to a type of idealization that is not associated with NPD. By shifting the focus away from the pathological type of idealization which Kernberg associated with NPD, this study drew attention to consistencies between Kohut and Kernberg. Both Kohut and Kernberg discussed different types of idealization and both associated idealization with normal development. Kernberg even suggested that primitive idealization may be the first step toward more mature love relationships. Both also associated different types of idealization with the development of intrapsychic structure. These consistencies between Kohut and Kernberg, in addition to the more commonly emphasized contrasts, make it clear that, in order to address the question of how to handle idealization in treatment, it is necessary to understand the idealization.

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Appendices

Appendix A

AN INVESTIGATION OF ADULT RELATIONSHIPS

Information and Voluntary Consent Form

The purpose of this research is to investigate how adults think and feel about other adults who are important to them. This research may enhance our understanding of individual differences in how adults participate and benefit from relationships.

Participants are asked to complete two questionnaires: A Background Questionnaire and A Relationship Survey. The Background Questionnaire consists primarily of questions about the existence, duration, importance, recency, and endings of specific kinds of relationships, such as relationships with friends, romantic partners, counselors, and religious mentors. Participants are also asked to provide information about themselves such as age, gender, marital status, and degree of participation in religious activities. The Relationship Survey consists of statements about relationships or their absence and associated thoughts and feelings. Participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with the statements.

Participation in this project is expected to require approximately 60 minutes and involves minimal risk. Participation is voluntary and individuals completing the forms may decide at any time to discontinue. Students who complete the questionnaires can earn extra credit in a specific course provided that the instructor for that course has approved of participation in this project as a means of earning extra credit. Upon request by the student, documentation of participation will be provided to the relevant instructor.

Participants need not provide their name on the research questionnaires. To allow anonymity, the informed consent and extra credit forms will not be numbered or coded in any way. Upon determining that the questionnaires have been completed, the investigator or her associate will separate the informed consent and extra credit forms from the questionnaires. These forms will periodically be shuffled to ensure that they cannot be matched with the research questionnaires.

These questionnaires are part of the doctoral research being conducted by Nancy Hague under the direction of Dr. Warren Jones. If you have any questions about the research, feel free to contact Nancy Hague at 673-3243.

I have read the above information and I volunteer to participate in the study described.

Signature

Date

Information and Voluntary Consent Form

The purpose of this research is to investigate how adults think and feel about other adults who are important to them. This research may enhance our understanding of individual differences in how adults participate and benefit from relationships.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete several questionnaires. Most of the questionnaire items focus on how you think and feel about relationships. Some of the questionnaire items relate to your personality characteristics. The background questionnaire asks for information about your relationships and for information such as age, gender, marital status, participation in religious activities, and the extent to which you are currently experiencing stress. In most of the surveys, you will be asked to indicate the extent to which you agree with certain statements or the extent to which statements accurately describe you.

Participation in this project is expected to require one to two hours and involves minimal risk. Participation is voluntary and you may decide at any time to discontinue. Students who complete the packet of questionnaires can earn extra credit in a specific course provided that the instructor for that course has approved of participation in this project as a means of earning extra credit. Upon request by the student, documentation of participation will be provided to the student's instructor.

You need not provide your name on the research questionnaires. To allow anonymity, the informed consent and extra credit forms will not be numbered or coded in any way. Upon determining that the questionnaires have been completed, the investigator or her associate will separate the informed consent and extra credit forms from the questionnaires. These forms will periodically be shuffled to ensure that they cannot be matched with the research questionnaires.

These questionnaires are part of the doctoral research being conducted by Nancy Hague under the direction of Dr. Warren Jones. If you have any questions about the research, feel free to contact Nancy Hague at 673-3243.

I have read the above information and I volunteer to participate in the study described.

Signature

Date

Appendix B

RELATIONSHIP SURVEY

The following survey includes items about how you think and feel about other adults. While completing items that pertain to relationships, think about current relationships and/or past relationships. Unless otherwise specified, the term relationship is meant to refer to any kind of adult relationship (e.g., friendships, relationships with work colleagues, relatives, mentors, etc.). Please respond to each of the items by indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree using the following options:

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=partly agree, partly disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

- ___ 1. Having a relationship with someone whom I look up to revitalizes me.
- ___ 2. At times, I feel all alone.
- ___ 3. Being involved with people whom I admire makes me feel better about myself.
- ___ 4. My sense of self seems to change depending on what is considered desirable by the particular people who are important to me at the moment.
- ___ 5. My life is dominated by powerful others.
- ___ 6. I would not feel whole without an important relationship in my life.
- ___ 7. When I am in a serious relationship, I am more attuned to the feelings of the other person than I am to my own.
- ___ 8. I have stronger than usual urges for a relationship when I'm feeling vulnerable.
- ___ 9. Having an important relationship allows me to feel like everything is okay even when it's not.
- ___ 10. When I am in a romantic relationship with someone else I feel more valuable as a person than when I'm not involved with anyone.
- ___ 11. I feel empty and powerless when I am separated from the person whom I value most.
- ___ 12. During times when I have experienced conflict in an important relationship, I have become more preoccupied than usual with thoughts about my own death.
- ___ 13. When someone who is important to me lets me down by not doing something for me, I wonder what is wrong with me.

RELATIONSHIP SURVEY (Continued)

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=partly agree, partly disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

- ___ 14. When I am in love I tend to be consumed by my feelings for that person.
- ___ 15. If I'm used to having regular contact with a person whom I value greatly and something interrupts that regular contact, I feel out of control and tend to act impulsively.
- ___ 16. In my head, I often imagine a dialogue with a person whom I value.
- ___ 17. I often long to find the "right person" who will be the answer to my problems.
- ___ 18. The break-up of an important relationship causes me to have some doubts about my self-worth.
- ___ 19. When I'm disappointed by someone who is important to me, it affects the way I feel about myself.
- ___ 20. Trying to live without the most important person in my life would be like trying to live without oxygen.
- ___ 21. When an important relationship ends, I tend to feel hopeless about my future.
- ___ 22. I am overly sensitive to getting the approval of my superiors.
- ___ 23. I tend to envy the important people in my life.
- ___ 24. When I'm in a serious relationship, I tend to be the more needy partner.
- ___ 25. Having a relationship with someone who is important to me makes me feel more secure.
- ___ 26. When I get involved in a serious relationship, I feel like I lose my own strength and put it in the other person.

RELATIONSHIP SURVEY (Continued)

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=partly agree, partly disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree

- ___ 27. I could not tolerate being without the most important person in my life.
- ___ 28. I tend to value the significant people in my life more than they value me.
- ___ 29. I tend to "lose myself" in relationships with the persons I most love or admire.
- ___ 30. When I'm used to having regular contact with a person whom I value greatly and something interrupts that regular contact, I begin to feel less secure.
- ___ 31. When someone whom I look up to lets me down, my outlook on life becomes temporarily disrupted.
- ___ 32. My performance on difficult tasks is likely to be better if I know that someone who is important to me cares about how well I do.
- ___ 33. I am often frustrated by my unsatisfied hunger for a relationship.
- ___ 34. When I spend a lot of time with someone else who is important to me, I tend to have trouble staying attuned to my own needs and preferences.
- ___ 35. When an important relationship breaks up, my image of myself becomes more negative.
- ___ 36. When I'm used to being with a relationship partner on a regular basis and then can't be with that person for an unusually long period, I feel hopeless.
- ___ 37. Most of the time, I feel all alone.
- ___ 38. Sometimes I become infatuated with someone new in my life and I find myself walking or talking like that person.
- ___ 39. I tend to experience loving feelings more in fantasy than in the here and now.

Appendix C

APPENDIX C

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A. Goal Instability

The Goal Instability Scale (GIS; Robbins & Patton, 1985) was originally constructed to measure idealization as described by Kohut. Robbins and colleagues have done substantial research with this measure (e.g., Robbins & Patton, 1985; Smith & Robbins, 1988; Robbins, 1989; Robbins & Dupont, 1992) but validity evidence has generally been aimed at showing that the GIS is a measure of goal instability.

The ten items that were included in the final GIS scale related to lack of direction, lack of energy/drive, confusion regarding identity, and difficulty making decisions. Among college students, high scores on the GIS were negatively correlated with self-esteem, $r(130) = -.64$, $p < .001$ and career decisiveness, $r(110) = -.22$, $p < .01$ (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p.226). In a sample of mental health patients (36 inpatients and 55 outpatients), high scores on goal instability were related to "depressive style, lack of ambition and goals, and poor self-esteem regulation" (Robbins, 1989, p.130).

Some additional support for the validity of the GIS was obtained in a study with group therapy patients (Robbins & Dupont, 1992). Seventy-eight group therapy clients (from out-patient settings) completed the Goal Instability scale along with self-ratings on a checklist of interpersonal behaviors. The group therapists provided ratings of the clients' interpersonal behaviors using the same checklist. High scorers on the Goal Instability Scale described themselves as "submissive and moderately hostile". Their therapists described them as "submissive" (Robbins & Dupont, 1992, pp. 462-463). Robbins and Dupont implied that these findings provided some evidence of construct validity:

These findings are congruent with the observations of Kohut (1971) in which the transference reactions of analysands were described. Those with disturbances in the idealizing self seek out the approval and security of others, while at the same time anticipating rejection. (p. 465)

In a study that correlated inadequate idealization with authoritarian parenting styles (Watson, Little, & Biderman, 1992), "Goal Instability served as the index of immature idealization" (p. 235). It appears that despite early statements that the GIS relates more to goal instability than to idealization (e.g., Patton & Robbins, 1985, p.226; and Robbins, 1989, p. 130), later studies are again linking the GIS to idealization (Robbins & Dupont, 1992; Watson et al., 1992).

The GIS is a reliable measure. Internal consistency was indicated by an alpha of .81 based on responses of 133 college students. Test-retest reliability with 72 college students over a two week interval was .76. (Robbins & Patton, 1985, pp. 224-225).

The GIS instructions provide a six point response option. Robbins & Patton labeled the anchors as follows "(1) strongly agree (2) moderately agree (3) slightly agree (4) slightly disagree (5) moderately disagree and (6) strongly disagree" (1985, p.224). The same items and anchors were used in this study but the values associated with the anchors were reversed (e.g., 1=strongly disagree) so that higher scores represent greater agreement.

B. Primitive Idealization

The Primitive Idealization measure consists of two items from The Defense Style Questionnaire (DSQ). The DSQ is a self-report measure that "taps possible conscious derivatives of defense mechanisms" (Bond, Gardner, Christian, & Sigal 1983, p.333; and Bond in Vaillant, 1992, p.128). The idealization items were written with Kernberg's theory in mind (Bond, personal communication, August 1, 1994).

The validity of the DSQ was tested by comparing DSQ scores with defense scores obtained using the Defense Mechanism Rating Scale (DMRS) (see Bond, Perry, Gautier, Goldenberg, Oppenheimer, & Simand, 1989). The DMRS is a method for scoring defense mechanisms from a videotaped clinical assessment interview. In a personal communication, Bond (August 1, 1994) wrote that the DSQ "items for idealization did not show significant positive correlations with DMRS ratings of idealization." He added, "I would not bank on these items being a valid and thorough measure of idealization."

Internal reliability of this two item scale was assessed with a coefficient alpha. Using a sample of 712 subjects (including "normals" and patients), the coefficient alpha was .52. (Andrews, Singh, & Bond, 1993, p. 251).

Instructions for the DSQ (Bond et al, 1983) asked subjects to indicate their degree of agreement with each statement on a nine point scale (one = strong agreement and nine = strong disagreement). Subjects in this study were given instructions to respond using a five point scale anchored such that higher scores represented greater agreement (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree).

C. Romantic Idealization

The measure of romantic idealization consists of three items from the Romantic Beliefs Scale (RBS; Sprecher & Metts, 1989); the three items loaded on a factor which Sprecher and Metts labeled idealization.

Item to factor correlations ranged from .53 to .80. Two items were intended to measure idealization of the partner and one was intended to measure idealization of the relationship.

Research by Sprecher & Metts (1989) showed The RBS measure of idealization (i.e., Romantic Idealization) was significantly and positively correlated with the Spaulding Romantic Love Complex Scale ($r=.43$, $p<.001$), Rubin's Love Scale ($r=.22$, $p<.01$), Rubin's Liking Scale ($r=.24$, $p<.01$), and two lovestyles, Eros ($r=.28$, $p<.001$) and Agape ($r=.26$, $p<.001$).

Internal reliability was assessed with a sample of over 700. Test-retest reliability was assessed with a subsample of 156 over a three week period. For the three item idealization measure, the alpha was .64 and the test-retest reliability correlation was .66.

Sprecher & Metts provided a seven point response option with anchors at strongly disagree and strongly agree. In the current study, anchors were reversed and a five point response option was used.

D. Limerence

Feeney's measure of limerence included 30 items relating to the following four dimensions: emotional dependence, obsessive preoccupation, self-conscious anxiety, and idealization. The items loading on these four dimensions were used as four separate scales in exploratory analyses (Feeney & Noller, 1990).

Feeney & Noller (1990) used the four limerence subscales along with nine other love measures and three self-esteem scales in their study. The sixteen scales were subjected to a second order factor analysis and three of the four Limerence subscales (Emotional Dependence, Idealization and Obsessive Preoccupation) loaded on a factor which was labeled Neurotic Love. Also loading on the Neurotic Love factor were Reliance on Partner (a type of love addiction), and Mania (a love type measured by the Love Attitudes Scale). The fourth subscale of limerence, Self-Conscious Anxiety, loaded negatively on a factor labeled Self-Confidence. Other scales loading on the Self-Confidence factor were the three self-esteem scales.

The idealization scale (comprised of four items) was discussed in the section on idealization measures. Twenty-six items loaded on three other factors which were labeled Emotional Dependence, Obsessive Preoccupation, and Self-Conscious Anxiety. Feeney & Noller (1990, p. 285) reported that the coefficient alpha for each of these three scales was at least .70.

Feeney & Noller administered the limerence scale with a five point response option; respondents in the current study were also provided with a five point response option.

1. Limerent idealization

Limerent idealization consists of four items from a limerence scale which was developed by Judith Feeney. It should be noted that Feeney's limerence scale and the limerent idealization subscale are separate and different from Feeney's full scale measure of idealization.

A factor analysis of Feeney's limerence scale produced four factors- one of which Feeney & Noller (1990) labeled idealization. The four items which loaded on that factor comprise the subscale limerent idealization. The items were worded in reference to the object of attraction (e.g., When strongly attracted to someone, I find..). Two of the items pertain to admiration and glowing perceptions of the person (e.g., "I admire everything.." and "...I find that everything about that person seems special and wonderful to me." Two of the items refer to over-emphasizing the positive or under-emphasizing the negative (e.g., "I find that I overemphasize the positive characteristics..." and "I tend to minimize or overlook the obvious faults...")

Feeney & Noller (1990, p. 285) reported that with their sample of 374 undergraduates, the alpha coefficient for the idealization scale was only .60. They noted, however, that "the relevant factor loadings and item-scale correlations were all moderate to high" (Feeney & Noller, p. 285).

2. Emotional Dependence

The Emotional Dependence subscale/factor consisted of seven items. The item to factor loadings ranged from .42 to .80. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 291). The item with the highest loading was "Even when I am strongly attracted to someone, I do not become emotionally dependent on them." Scoring for this item was reversed so that disagreement was an indicator of emotional dependence. Other items stress the importance of the relationship, the willingness to do anything for it, and intense affective reactions which are dependent on the perceived status of the relationship.

3. Self-Conscious Anxiety

The Self-Conscious Anxiety subscale/factor consisted of nine items. The item to factor loadings ranged from .39 to .74. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 291). The item with the highest loading was "When strongly attracted to someone, I show my feelings in a straightforward and unambiguous way." Scoring for this item was reversed so that disagreement was an indicator of self-conscious anxiety. Other items in the scale related to an intense fear of rejection.

Feeney & Noller (1990, p. 285) reported that scores on self-conscious anxiety were negatively correlated with personal ($r = -.45$), social ($r = -.43$), and family ($r = -.28$) self-esteem as measured with the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, Adult Form (1967).

4. Obsessive Preoccupation

The Obsessive Preoccupation subscale/factor consisted of ten items. The item to factor loadings ranged from .38 to .83. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 291). The item with the highest loading was "I sometimes feel my heart flutter or my face become pale or flushed when I am with someone to whom I am strongly attracted." Other items relate to passion, the notion that "you're always on my mind," and concern about reciprocation.

E. Feeney's idealization

Aside from limerence, Feeney developed a full scale measure of idealization which she used in her thesis work. The scale consists of 30 items which were based primarily on findings from a study done by Feeney & Noller (1991) which looked at attachment styles and verbal descriptions of romantic partners. The items appear to measure romantic idealization.

Feeney indicated that this scale would benefit greatly from item revision and further validation (J. A. Feeney, personal communication, May 25, 1993). In the current study, all 30 items were used without revision and respondents were provided with a 5 point response format anchored at 1= strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree.

F. Positive Perceptions

A new measure of idealization was developed for this study based on previous research (e.g., Burgess & Wallin, 1968; O'Neil & Reis, 1984; Kerckhoff & Davis, 1962) that has assessed idealization by looking at the degree to which the respondent positively perceives another person.

The new scale, referred to as positive perceptions, consists of 18 brief descriptive phrases. Eight were negative (for examples, "has a temper", "stubborn" and "difficult to get along with) and ten were positive (for examples "honest", "affectionate" and "intelligent").

Half of the phrases were borrowed from the studies by Burgess & Wallin, O'Neil & Reis, and Kerckhoff & Davis. The other nine phrases came from research done by Buss and Barnes (1986) that resulted in lists of most valued and least valued characteristics in a mate.

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they see these phrases as characteristic of the most important other adult in their life using a four point rating scale anchored at 1= not characteristic and 4= very characteristic. Negative items were recoded so that total scores reflected the extent to which respondents rated their significant other positively.

G. The Love Attitudes Scale

Clyde Hendrick & Susan Hendrick (1986) developed The Love Attitudes Scale (LAS) to measure the six love styles described by Lee (1973/1976). Lee's six love styles with brief descriptive phrases provided by Hendrick & Hendrick are as follows: "Eros (romantic, passionate love), Ludus (game-playing love), Storge (friendship love).. Mania (possessive, dependent love), Pragma (logical, 'shopping list' love), and Agape (all-giving, selfless love)" (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, p. 393).

The LAS is a 42 item scale; seven items relate to each love style. C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1989, p. 790) reported that "The Love Attitudes Scale represents six distinct concepts, or love styles, with good internal consistency for each subscale and modest correlations between subscales."

Feeney & Noller (1990) challenged the contention that the LAS measures six distinct concepts.

Although this instrument possesses satisfactory reliability, empirical data suggest problems with the scale itself and with the underlying theory: The theoretical model of six independent love styles is argued against by the tendency of some styles to correlate with each other and to merge in factor-analytic studies (e.g., Thompson & Borrello, 1987). (Feeney & Noller, p.282)

Shaver & Hazan (1988, p. 497) also took issue with the contention that the LAS measures six distinct styles.

Despite Hendrick & Hendrick's (1986) attempts to measure eros, ludus, storge, mania, pragma, and agape with orthogonal scales, in all of the studies we have seen that use their measure (several of them unpublished) eros and agape are correlated with each other and most variables that correlate with eros also correlate with agape.

Data reported by C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1986, p.397) showed inter-correlations among the scales. Results from a sample of 807 subjects yielded statistically significant correlations ($p < .01$) between the following variables: Agape and Eros ($r = .27$); Agape and Ludus ($r = -.28$); Agape and Storge ($r = .13$); Agape and Mania ($r = .13$); Pragma and Ludus ($r = .12$); Pragma and Storge ($r = .23$); and Pragma and Mania ($r = .23$). (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 397) Statistically significant correlations between these variables were also found with a second sample of 566 subjects (again $p < .01$), but the second sample also yielded statistically significant correlations not found in the first sample. In the sample of 566 subjects, the results that paralleled those found with the sample of 807 subjects were as follows: Agape and Eros ($r = .32$); Agape and Ludus ($r = -.42$); Agape and Storge ($r = .15$); Agape and Mania ($r = .23$); Pragma and Ludus ($r = .09$); Pragma and Storge ($r = .25$); and Pragma and Mania ($r = .13$). Additional significant correlations found in the second sample but not found in the first were: Eros and Ludus ($r = -.22$), and Eros and Mania ($r = .13$).

Scores on various love attitudes have varied according to gender.

C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1988, p. 171), using a sample of 118 males and 117 females, found that females were more storgic, pragmatic, and less ludic than males. These findings were consistent with a 1986 study in which Hendrick & Hendrick found, in addition to these same differences, that females were more erotic and manic than males. Then, in a study by Woll (1989, p. 488) "only Eros showed significant gender differences, $F(1, 85) = 7.82$, $p < .01$, with males showing higher scores on this scale than females ($M = 3.69$ versus 3.12)."

Age is another important variable. C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1989, p. 793) noted that one of the love styles, i.e., mania, occurs most frequently during adolescence. Unfortunately, their data, based on three separate studies, involved introductory psychology students, most of whom were still adolescents.

Life experience may also have some bearing on love attitudes (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 171). "It would appear ... that the love styles are not independent of one's current love situation, or for that matter, the number of past love relationships" (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 401). Numerous differences were found between subjects "in love" and subject "not in love" (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1988). The "in love" and "not in love" groups varied "on three of the six love styles, with subjects 'in love' reporting themselves to be more erotic (passionate), more agapic (altruistic), and less ludic (game playing) than subjects not in love" (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, p. 171).

C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1986) also commented on different traits and attitudes associated with the love styles. They reported variations in emotional intensity and self-esteem. While Eros and Mania are similar in terms of emotional intensity, they vary in terms of self-esteem; respondents who endorsed Eros were highest in self-esteem and respondents who endorsed Mania were lowest. (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p.401)

The Love Attitudes Scale (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) has been shown to have adequate reliability. For example, in the sample of 567 undergraduates, the coefficient alphas for the six lovestyles ranged from .69 for Storge to .83 for Agape. Test-retest reliability, using a sample of 55, ranged from .70 for Mania to .81 for Agape.

Instructions for the LAS were written to make it possible for students to complete the scale regardless of whether they were currently in love:

Some of the items refer to a specific love relationship, while others refer to general attitudes and beliefs about love. Whenever possible, answer the questions with your current partner in mind. If you are not currently dating anyone, answer the questions with your most recent partner in mind. If you have never been in love, answer in terms of what you think your responses would most likely be. (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1985, p. 394).

These instructions were included verbatim in the current study. C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1986, pp. 395-396) published the 42 items in clusters according to love style (e.g., items one through seven were Eros items, items eight through 14 were Ludus items, etc.). In the current study, the items were scrambled. C. Hendrick & Hendrick provided a five point response option anchored at one = strongly agree and five = strongly disagree. In the current study, the same range of options was offered but the endpoints were reversed (1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree).

1. Mania

Mania is "possessive, dependent love" (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 393). According to Lee (1973, pp. 26-27),

The typical manic lover feels his childhood was unhappy, feels he had a difficult relationship with his parents. He is not content with life, probably has few friends and feels lonely; is anxious to fall in love, yet expects love to be difficult and probably painful; is uncertain what type attracts him, and is often looking for a combination of contradictory qualities. He may even dislike the first appearance of his partner.

Lee (1973, pp. 26-27) suggested that the relationship of the typical manic lover will take the following course: It "begins with a stranger, in a first encounter in which his feelings are mixed." Soon the manic lover "becomes..intensely preoccupied with thoughts of the partner and need for the partner's love." He/she "begins to imagine the future together with considerable anxiety and much wishful thinking." He/she "tends to ignore warnings signs of trouble ahead." The manic lover "wants to see the partner at least daily, and is easily upset by delays and postponements." If there are no problems in the relationship, the manic lover will create some to intensify feelings.

Because manic lovers need more and more reassurance, they demand more affectionate and constant responses from their partners. In the process, they become more possessive. The end result is that, in seeking total control, they lose control of the relationship.

Manic lovers think that life is "hardly worth living" without the partner's love. Manic lovers will abuse and abuse themselves in the hope of winning their partners' love. They are unable to break off relationships. (Lee, 1973, pp. 26-27)

Shaver & Hazan (1988, p.495) stated that mania "is, of course, the now-familiar limerent, desperate, anxious type that we, in line with the attachment literature, call anxious/ambivalent." They also state that "the nature of adult ambivalence is better captured in Lee's book than in anything we have written."

The LAS contains seven items measuring Mania (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986). Five of the items pertain to how the manic lover is adversely affected by problems or suspected problems in a relationship. Sample items are:

When my love affairs break up, I get so depressed that I have even thought of suicide; If my lover ignores me for a while, I sometimes do stupid things to get his/her attention back; and I cannot relax if I suspect that my lover is with someone else. (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p, 396)

The remaining two items refer to difficulties associated with being in love. The two difficulties mentioned (insomnia and trouble concentrating) are associated with depression.

C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1986, p. 401) suggested "that Mania is 'symptom love,' based on uncertainty of self and the lover." They also noted that Mania is most frequently found among adolescents, but may occasionally occur among older individuals (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 401).

Internal reliability for Mania was assessed using a sample of 567 undergraduates and test-retest reliability was assessed using a sample of 55 undergraduates. (The time between test and retest was not published.) The alpha coefficient was .72; the test-retest correlation was .70. (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 397). The authors also reported that "the items and their factor loadings indicate success in construct measurement" (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 401).

2. Eros

Lee (1973, p.15) wrote that Eros is "the ancient Greek term for love fascinated by ideal images of beauty, but also a terms which has become confused, in succeeding centuries, with sexuality." While a desire for sexual rapport is part the erotic style, this desire is within the context of valuing love as "life's most important activity" (Lee, p.25).

According to Lee's account, Eros or the erotic style shows the following characteristics and/or attitudes: (1) a belief in the possibility of 'love at first sight' and in the rapid development

of a relationship, both in the sexual arena and in the area of self-disclosure; (2) an emphasis on physical attraction and on the match between a potential lover and some ideal physical prototype; (3) an emphasis on and enjoyment of intense emotions, both inside and outside of relationships; and (4) an eagerness and intensity about the relationship, but without the demanding, obsessive quality of (and with a degree of self-confidence that is lacking in) the manic lover. (Woll, p. 481)

Lee (1973, p. 25) also mentioned that "the typical erotic lover believes his childhood was a happy one .. and is content with his life and work and feels self-fulfilled." This is consistent with empirical data that showed high self-esteem was associated with Eros (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 401). Shaver & Hazan (1988, p. 494) asserted that, in their opinion, Lee's description of Eros is "a beautifully detailed and accurate portrait of the secure style of love described by attachment theory."

The LAS contains seven items measuring Eros (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986). Most of the items refer to attraction (e.g., immediate attraction/involvement, the "right physical chemistry," and "very intense and satisfying" lovemaking). Aside from attraction, two items relate to valuing the relationship and to mutual understanding (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, p. 395).

The internal reliability of the Eros measure was assessed using a sample of 567 undergraduates and test-retest reliability was assessed using a sample of 55 undergraduates. (The time between test and retest was not published.) The alpha coefficient was .70; the test-retest correlation was .74. (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 397).

3. Agape

Agape "was the word for charity or love used by St. Paul in his famous letter to the Corinthians" (Lee, 1973, p. 16). Agape refers to love that is unselfish and self-sacrificing.

Lee did not find any examples of agapic lovers among approximately 200 individuals he interviewed. He (1973, p. 16) concluded that "agape remains more theoretical than real".

C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1986, p. 401) described agape as an "all-giving, nondemanding love". The seven items measuring Agape (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) emphasize a concept of love which is sacrificial and places the well-being of the lover ahead of personal happiness (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, p. 396). Shaver & Hazan (1988, pp. 497-498) commented that "Hendrick & Hendrick made their agapic items sound almost pathological."

Internal reliability for the Agape measure was assessed using a sample of 567 undergraduates and test-retest reliability was assessed using a sample of 55 undergraduates. (The time between test and retest was not published.) The alpha coefficient was .83; the test-retest correlation was .81. (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 397).

4. Pragma

Pragma, which shares the same Greek root as pragmatic, refers to a type of love that involves "rational calculation" (Lee, 1973, p. 16). The typical pragmatic lover is interested in finding a compatible mate, but does not think of a loving relationship as essential or worth substantial sacrifice.

C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1986, p. 393) referred to Pragma as "logical, 'shopping list' love". The seven items measuring Pragma (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) take a pragmatic view of how a love commitment will affect one's career, life-style and parental

responsibilities. Most items reflect a calculated appraisal of the compatibility of a potential partner.

The internal reliability of thePragma measure was assessed using a sample of 567 undergraduates and test-retest reliability was assessed using a sample of 55 undergraduates. (The time between test and retest was not published.) The alpha coefficient was .74; the test-retest correlation was .71. (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 397).

5. Storge

The term Storge "rhymes with more gay" (Lee, 1973, p. 16). Storge is a Greek term which the English author C.S. Lewis used to describe brotherly love (Lee, 1973, p. 16).

The typical storgic lover sees a love relationship as a friendship and considers love an important aspect of life, characterized by enjoyment of common activities. In addition, the storgic lover "recoils from any excess of emotion" shown by the partner and "is shy about intense physical contact, preferring nongenital expressions of affection" (Lee, 1973, p. 26).

There is an ambiguity in the attitudes which the seven Storge items measure. On the one hand, they emphasize the importance of friendship. On the other hand, they seem to imply that friendship can culminate in the kind of love relationship which is at odds with an absence of emotional love (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 400).

Internal reliability of the Storge measure was assessed using a sample of 567 undergraduates and test-retest reliability was assessed using a sample of 55 undergraduates. (The time between test and retest was not published.) The alpha coefficient was .69; the test-retest correlation was .74. (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 397).

6. Ludus

Ludus refers to "game playing love" (C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 393). Lee (1973, p. 16) explained that the word Ludus "is the root of the Latin term used by Ovid in the first century to describe love as a game, amor ludens."

According to Lee (1973, pp. 25-26), the typical ludic lover seeks pleasure rather than commitment. Since ludic lovers worry about preserving freedom, they tend to use people for their own pleasure. For ludic lovers, variety is the spice of life, and sexual enjoyment is preferred to emotional involvement.

The concepts of distance and game playing are apparent in the LAS measure of Ludus (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986). In addition, some items refer to deception and one refers to quick recovery from love affairs. The ludus lover is an unabashed games player, and the items which measure ludus are equally clear and straight-forward.

Internal reliability for the Ludus measure was assessed using a sample of 567 undergraduates and test-retest reliability was assessed using a sample of 55 undergraduates. (The time between test and retest was not published.) The alpha coefficient was .74; the test-retest correlation was .82. (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, p. 397).

H. Desperate Love

The experience of desperate love is measured in a twelve item questionnaire developed by Michael B. Sperling. Sperling included idealization as a feature of desperate love:

Desperate love .. is marked by qualities such as a feeling of fusion with the lover, an overwhelming desire for and anxiety concerning reciprocation, idealization of the lover, feelings of insecurity outside the relationship such that life is experienced as much more fulfilling when involved in the relationship, difficulty with interpersonal reality testing, and extremes of happiness and sadness. (1985, p. 324)

Sperling (1985a, p. 37) noted that desperate love is roughly analogous to Tennov's limerence. He also noted a similarity between desperate love and Lee's concept of mania. Placing desperate love in a psycho-analytic context, Sperling (1985b, p. 325) commented, "In an extreme form, desperate love can be thought of as bearing resemblance to love relations typical of borderline character structure" (Kernberg, 1976).

The Desperate Love scale was administered to an initial sample of 1500 undergraduate men and women; those who scored at the upper and lower ends of the Desperate Love Scale (approximately one-half standard deviation from the mean) were selected for the desperate love and nondesperate love groups. The final subject pool consisted of 119 males and 132 females relatively evenly divided among the groups desperate love, random, and nondesperate love.

The subjects took a series of questionnaires which included the Attitudes Toward Love Scale (Knox & Sprorakowski, 1968). Scores on the Attitude Toward Love Scale were found to differentiate between the desperate love and nondesperate love groups. Sperling interpreted this result as follows:

...these differences show the desperate love groups to be more romantic in attitude toward love than the random or nondesperate love groups. The romantic ideal can be seen as a culturally generated and reinforced norm for intimate love relations which place value on the mysterious, nonreality grounded aspects of love. This conforms to the notion of idealization [emphasis added] and lack of reality grounding as being central features of desperate love. (Sperling, 1985b, p. 328)

Implicit in the term "desperate" is the notion that desperate love reflects an immature level of psychological development. Sperling (1987) explored this notion further by administering the Desperate Love Scale and the Ego Identity Scale (Tan, Kendis, Fine & Porac, 1977) to 171 undergraduates. Desperate love was associated with deficits in ego-identity consolidation.

Desperate love is "most prevalent in the common years of transience in intimate relationships, adolescence and early adulthood" (Sperling, 1985b, p. 324).

When experienced after early adolescence, it represents a regressive attempt, whether transient or enduring, toward achieving personal integrity through an illusory fusional "wholeness" with another. While experienced, there are prevailing qualities such as a feeling of fusion with the lover, much idealization [emphasis added] and diminished interpersonal reality testing to construe the relation and the lover as completely gratifying, a seemingly insatiable need for reciprocal affection, anxiety at separations, a sense of urgency and diffuse ego boundaries. (Sperling, 1987, p. 601)

The Desperate Love scale has been found to be a reliable instrument. The test-retest correlation, using a sample of 251 with an approximately three week interval between administrations was .92. (Sperling, 1985a, p. 59 and Sperling, 1985b, p.327). Internal consistency was assessed using data from the second administration of the test to the sample of 251; the coefficient alpha was .93 (Sperling, 1985b, p.327). Sperling (1985a, p.59) also noted that the Desperate Love Scale has been shown to be "a valid differentiation tool, as indicated by responses to several other questionnaires."

The 12 items in the desperate love scale "probe such dynamics as desire for reciprocation, intensity of feeling, fear of rejection, and the sense that a void is filled by this type of relationship" (Sperling & Berman, 1991, pp. 48-49). The items are referred to as "qualities of a style of relating" (the DLS; Sperling, 1985a, p. 130) and respondents are asked to rank each quality using a nine point scale where one is not at all characteristic and nine is extremely characteristic.

I. Passionate Love

The Passionate Love Scale was developed by a team of researchers over a period of years, beginning in 1977. The full length version consists of 30 items; the short version consists of 15 items.

The term passionate love is used to describe "intense longing for union with another" regardless of whether that longing is reciprocated.

In developing the scale, Hatfield & Sprecher (1986) consulted the literature on passionate love, including Tennov's work on limerence and Lee's descriptions of lovestyles. The resemblance between passionate love, limerence, desperate love, and mania is reflected in Hatfield & Rapson's description of the need involved in passionate love:

In many affairs, passionate love seems to be fueled by a sprinkling of hope and a large dollop of loneliness, mourning, jealousy, and terror. In fact, in a few cases, it seems as if men and women love others, not in spite of the anxiety they experience but because of it. (Hatfield & Rapson, p. 113)

Empirical evidence confirms the relationship between mania and passionate love. C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1989) using a sample of 391 single undergraduates, found a correlation of .47 between scores on their measure of mania and scores on the 30 item PLS.

C. Hendrick & Hendrick (1989, p. 787) reported that the PLS was at least moderately correlated with a number of love measures. Comparisons between scores obtained on the PLS and scores obtained on the six love attitudes delineated by Lee (1973) and measured by the LAS (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) revealed statistically significant correlations ($p < .05$) not only with Mania ($r = .47$ as mentioned above) but also with Eros ($r = .53$), Ludus ($r = -.38$), and Agape ($r = .56$). The PLS also showed moderate to strong correlations with other measures of love and intimacy. (Hatfield & Rapson, 1987) Hendrick & Hendrick (1989, p. 792) said that the Passionate Love Scale's "relations with other measures are consistent with expectations for a measure of passionate love."

According to Hatfield & Sprecher (1986, pp. 389-390), the PLS was designed to include cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components. Cognitive components include: "intrusive thinking or preoccupation with the partner"; "idealization of the other or of the relationship"; and "desire to know the other and be known." Emotional components include: "feelings dependent on the relationship ("positive feelings when things go well," "negative feelings when things go awry"); a desire for complete and permanent union; "longing for reciprocity"; "physiological arousal" and "attraction, especially sexual attraction." Behavioral components include: "actions toward determining the other's feelings"; "studying the other person"; "service to the other"; and "maintaining physical closeness."

Although the PLS was designed to measure these three different components, psychometric data indicates that the PLS is unidimensional.

"The responses to the PLS were subjected to principal factoring with multiple correlations used as communality estimates. After rotation, one major factor explained 70% of the variance (Eigenvalue=12.24)" (Hatfield & Rapson, 1987, p. 112).

Hatfield & Sprecher (1986, p. 383) postulated a link between age and passionate love.

Perhaps at no other time is passionate love experienced more intensely than during adolescence. (Theorists such as English & English, 1958; define that as the period begin at 12 to 13 years, with puberty, and ending around 21 to 22 years.)

To explore whether age is related to passionate love, the Juvenile Love (JLS) was administered to 236 children ranging in age from four to 18. The JLS is a version of the PLS designed for children. Hatfield & Rapson (1987, p. 128) summarized the results: "Even the youngest of children reported having experienced passionate love. In fact, children and adults received surprising similar JLS scores. There was no relationship between physical maturity and ability to love."

The PLS has been shown to be reliable in terms of internal consistency. Hatfield & Sprecher (1986) reported a coefficient alpha of .94 using a sample of 120 students. The shorter version of the PLS had a coefficient alpha of .91. (Hatfield & Rapson, 1987, pp. 110-112.)

In the current study, the 15 item version of the PLS was used. Per Hatfield & Sprecher (1986, p. 391), respondents were instructed to "describe how you feel when you are passionately in love..." and were provided with a nine point response scale anchored at one= not at all true and nine= definitely true.

J. Attachment Styles

Hazan & Shaver (1987) "proposed an approach to love based on Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory" (Shaver & Hazan, 1988, p. 473). They conceptualized romantic love in terms of the three attachment styles identified by Ainsworth and others in research with infants. Hazan and Shaver (1987, p. 512) summarized this research and reviewed the development of three attachment concepts: secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant.

Research by Ainsworth and others suggests that a mother's sensitivity and responsiveness to her infant's signals and needs during the first year of life are important prerequisites [for secure attachment]. Mothers who are slow or inconsistent in responding to their infant's cries or who regularly intrude on or interfere with their infant's desired activities (sometimes to force affection on the infant at a particular moment) produce infants who cry more than usual, explore less than usual (even in the mother's presence), mingle attachment behaviors with overt expressions of anger, and seem generally anxious. If, instead, the mother consistently rebuffs or rejects the infant's attempts to establish physical contact, the infant may learn to avoid her.

On the basis of their observations, Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall (1978) delineated three styles of attachment, often called secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant.

Hazan & Shaver (1987) translated the three attachment styles "into terms appropriate to adult love" (p. 513). For each attachment style, a description was developed and formulated in an I statement (e.g., I find...). Respondents were asked "Which of the following best describes your feelings?" (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, p. 515). Thus, the measure consists of a forced choice between three statements and has been referred to as a "a single item trichotomous measure" (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 284).

Reliability information about the Hazan and Shaver measure has not been reported. The format of the Hazan and Shaver measure precluded "a detailed psychometric analysis" (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1989, p. 792).

The authors of the measure noted

Our measures were limited in terms of number of items and simplicity of answer alternatives, and this should be corrected in future work.... Each of our answer alternatives included more than one issue or dimension, for example, ease of getting close to others, feeling comfortable with caregiving and care receiving, fear of abandonment. In principle each such issue could be assessed separately, with a multi-item scale, and then attachment types could be derived by profile analysis. Besides being potentially more reliable, such a method would allow subjects to endorse parts of what is currently forced on them as a single alternative. (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, p. 522).

In some studies, the Hazan & Shaver descriptions have been used with a five point response option (e.g., Levy & Davis, 1988; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1989) instead of a forced choice format. A five point response option, anchored at 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree, was used in the current study.

1. Secure

The Hazan & Shaver attachment measure described secure lovers "as being comfortable with intimacy and able to trust and depend on other people" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 189).

The wording of the secure option was:

I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them and having them depend on me. I don't often worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me. (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, p. 515)

Research examining attachment styles and love-styles (e.g., Hendrick & Hendrick, 1989; Levy & Davis, 1988) has suggested "that the romantic relationships of securely attached subjects may be more enjoyable and successful than those of other subjects" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 193).

Shaver & Hazan (1988, p. 488), in a theoretical discussion of attachment styles, suggested that "the securely attached adult is able to give the kind of care that others need and want, when they want it. Another important outcome of secure attachment is the capacity to receive care from others."

2. Avoidant

Avoidant lovers, as described by the Hazan & Shaver attachment measure, "are characterized by discomfort with closeness and by difficulty in depending on others." (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 189). The actual description was:

I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone gets too close, and often, love partners want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being. (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, p. 515)

Shaver & Hazan (1988, p. 487), in a theoretical discussion of attachment styles, suggested that "the avoidantly attached are unable to trust others to provide them with care, which causes them to become prematurely and excessively self-reliant".

3. Anxious/ambivalent

Anxious/ambivalent lovers, according to the Hazan and Shaver attachment measure, "seek extreme levels of closeness and report fearing that they will be abandoned or not loved sufficiently" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 189). The actual description was:

I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me or won't want to stay with me. I want to merge completely with another person, and this desire sometimes scares people away. (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, p. 515)

The anxious/ambivalent style is associated with unsatisfactory relationships. Anxious/ambivalent subjects scored higher on measures of trait and state loneliness than did secure subjects. (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, pp. 520-521). Feeney & Noller (1991, p. 189) said that research examining attachment styles and love-styles (i.e., Hendrick & Hendrick, 1989; Levy & Davis, 1988; and Feeney & Noller, 1990) has consistently found that the "anxious/ambivalent attachment is inversely related to positive relationship characteristics, except for passion."

Feeney & Noller (1990) found that "anxious/ambivalent subjects are distinguished from both other styles by their dependence and their search for commitment" (Feeney & Noller, 1991, p. 190). Shaver & Hazan (1988, pp. 485-486) stated that anxious/ambivalent subjects "describe their most important love relationship in terms of jealousy, desire for reciprocation, emotional highs and lows, and intense sexual desire." Their version of love is similar Lee's (1973) description of mania, Tennov's (1979) description of limerence, and Sperling's (1985) description of desperate love.

Feeney & Noller (1990) looked at the anxious/ambivalent style and limerence and mania. Measures of each of these constructs were administered to a sample of 374 undergraduates. The age range of the subjects extended from 17 to 58 but "two thirds were between 17 and 19" (Feeney & Noller, p. 283). Results provided some support for the hypothesized relationships between anxious/ambivalence and limerence and between anxious/ambivalence and mania.

The measure of limerence had four subscales: obsessive pre-occupation, emotional dependence, self-conscious anxiety, and idealization. Results were presented by subscale. Scores on obsessive pre-occupation were significantly higher for the anxious/ambivalent group ($M=41.42$) than for the secure group ($M=38.32$) and for the avoidant group ($M=38.24$) $F(2,368) = 5.43, p < .01$. Scores on emotional dependence were significantly higher for the anxious/ambivalent group ($M=26.54$) than for the secure group ($M=22.53$) and for the avoidant group ($M=22.77$) $F(2,368) = 16.10, p < .001$. Scores on self-conscious anxiety were similar for the anxious/ambivalent group ($M=30.04$) and the avoidant group ($M=30.16$), and these scores were significant higher than scores for the secure group ($M=25.23$) $F(2,368) = 19.51, p < .001$. Scores on idealization were highest for the anxious/ambivalent group ($M=15.13$) and lowest for the avoidant group ($M=13.65$), $F(2, 368) = 3.68, p < .05$. (Feeney & Noller, p. 286).

Feeney & Noller's results also provide some support for the hypothesized relationship between anxious/ambivalence and mania. Scores on mania were significantly higher for the anxious/ambivalent group ($M=28.07$) than for the secure group ($M=22.83$) and for the avoidant group ($M=23.09$) $F(2,368) = 19.13, p < .001$. (Feeney & Noller, 1990, p. 286)

Other studies also provide some support for the hypothesized relationship between anxious/ambivalence and mania. Hendrick & Hendrick (1989, p. 787) reported a correlation of .29 ($p < .05$) between scores on their measure of mania (LAS; C. Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986) and scores on anxious/ambivalent attachment using the Hazan & Shaver (1987) descriptions with a 5 point response option. Mania showed almost no correlation with the avoidant style (.04) and with the secure style (-.04). Levy & Davis (1988, p. 460) reported correlations between mania and attachment styles in two studies. In Study 1 with 166 subjects the correlation between mania and the anxious/ambivalent attachment style was .28, $p < .001$; In Study 2 with 222 subjects the correlation between mania and the anxious/ambivalent attachment style was .21, $p < .01$. Mania showed almost no correlation with the other attachment styles ($r < .06$, ns.).

Shaver & Hazan (1988), in a theoretical discussion of attachment styles, emphasized that anxious/ambivalent subjects may have some maladaptive behaviors.

Anxious ambivalent lovers are often needy and demanding as well as sometimes being compulsive caregivers. They tend to resent their own self-sacrifice, even though they are, in a sense, eager to engage in it. And they seem critical of the care they receive from others. They want care but may resort to indirect methods of eliciting it from others, such as half-hearted suicide attempts, anorexia nervosa or hypochondria (Bowlby, 1979). (Shaver & Hazan, 1988, p. 488)

Feeney & Noller found that mean idealization scores, as rated by a four item self report measure (1990) and as measured by a content analysis of verbal descriptions of romantic partners (1991), were higher for the anxious/ambivalent group of subjects than for either the avoidant or the secure groups.

K. Attachment Style Dimensions

Collins & Read (1990) took the suggestion of Hazan and Shaver (1987, p. 522) to develop multiple items to cover the different issues or dimensions in the single item descriptions of secure, avoidant, and anxious/ambivalent attachment styles. Collins and Read wrote five items for each style and, in addition, wrote items to address two concerns not addressed by the Hazan and Shaver measure.

These were "beliefs about whether the attachment figure will be available and responsive when needed..[and] reactions to separation from the caretaker" (Collins & Read, p. 646). For each of these two concerns, items were written to characterize the secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant attachment styles. This brought the total number of items per style to seven. The 21-item scale was called the Adult Attachment Scale.

The scale was administered to 406 undergraduates enrolled in an introductory psychology class. Subjects ranged in age from 17 to 37 with a mean age of 18.8. Respondents "rated the extent to which each statement described their feelings on a scale ranging from not at all characteristic (1) to very characteristic (5)."

Results were factor analyzed and the three items concerning responses to separation were eliminated because they loaded on a separate factor which did not account for substantial variance. The remaining 18 items loaded on three factors.

The first factor contained items concerning the extent to which subjects could trust others and depend on them to be available when needed. Factor 2 consisted of items reflecting anxiety in relationships, such as fear of being abandoned and not being loved. The third factor contained items regarding the extent to which subjects were comfortable with closeness and intimacy. (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 646).

The factors were labeled Depend, Anxiety, and Close, respectively. It is important to note that each factor was composed of items from more than one of the original attachment style descriptions....Thus, the factor analysis did not provide three factors that directly correspond to the three discrete styles (secure, avoidant, and anxious) but instead, appears to have revealed three dimensions (Close, Depend, and Anxiety) that underlie the styles. (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 647).

Close and Depend were moderately related ($r=.38$) but Anxiety was only weakly related to the other dimensions: the correlation between Anxiety and Close was $-.08$ and the correlation between Anxiety and Depend was $-.24$. (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 646.) Collins and Read compared each of the dimensions with various related measures. Both Close and Depend were similarly correlated ($.22$ and $.24$, respectively) with another measure that was reported to assess belief in the dependability of others. The distinction between Close and Depend is not clear. It is also noteworthy that the correlation between Depend and the other measure purported to assess belief in the dependability of others was lower than expected given the purported meaning of Depend.

1. Close

The Close subscale measures the extent to which the individual "is comfortable with closeness" (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 644). It consists of six items which loaded on a "Close" factor; the absolute value of factor loadings ranged from $.40$ to $.77$ (Collins & Read, p. 647). The item with the strongest loading was "I am nervous when anyone gets too close" (Collins & Read, p. 647).

Items comprising the Close subscale were reasonably internally consistent; Chronbach's alpha for the developmental sample consisting of 406 undergraduates was .69. (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 646). Test-retest reliability was assessed using a subset (n=101) of the original sample who completed the scale a second time approximately two months after original completion. Scores on the Close subscale were fairly stable, $r = .68$.

2. Depend

The Depend subscale measures the extent to which an individual "feels he or she can depend on others" (Collins and Read, 1990, p. 644).

It consists of six items which loaded on a "Depend" factor; the absolute value of factor loadings ranged from .38 to .66 (Collins & Read, p. 647). The item with the strongest loading (-.66) was "I know that others will be there when I need them" (Collins & Read, p. 647). This item, and other items with negative loadings were recoded for purposes of computing the Depend score.

Items comprising the Depend subscale were reasonably internally consistent; Chronbach's alpha for the developmental sample consisting of 406 undergraduates was .75. (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 646). Test-retest reliability was assessed using a subset (n=101) of the original sample who completed the scale a second time approximately two months after original completion. Scores on the Depend subscale were fairly stable, $r = .71$.

3. Anxiety

The Anxiety subscale measures the extent to which the individual "is anxious or fearful about such things as being abandoned or unloved" (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 644). It consists of six items which loaded on an "Anxiety" factor; the absolute value of factor loadings ranged from .47 to .64 (Collins & Read, p. 647). The item with the highest loading was "I often worry that my partner does not really love me" (Collins & Read, p. 647).

Five of the six items that loaded on the anxiety factor were originally written to characterize anxious/ambivalent attachment. The sixth item (and the only item that loaded negatively on the anxious factor) was "I do not often worry about being abandoned"; it was originally written to characterize secure attachment (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 647).

Collins and Read found that anxiety was strongly correlated with Mania--a measure of possessive, dependent love. Anxiety was negatively correlated, $r = -.29$ with a measure of self-esteem.

Items comprising the Anxiety subscale were reasonably internally consistent; Chronbach's alpha for the developmental sample consisting of 406 undergraduates was .72. (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 646). The stability of scores over time was assessed using a subset (n=101) of the original sample who completed the scale a second time approximately two months after original completion. The test-retest reliability correlation for anxiety was .52. The authors speculated that scores on Anxiety may be tied to the subject's involvement in a particular relationship (Collins & Read, 1990, p. 647.)

L. Ego Identity

A measure of Eriksonian Ego Identity was developed by Tan, Kendis, Fine, & Porac (1977). The measure was designed to assess adaptive resolution of Erikson's fifth stage which involves the conflict between ego identity and identity diffusion. Erikson (1959, p. 51) described this fifth stage:

The integration now taking place in the form of the ego identity is more than the sum of the childhood identifications. It is the inner capital accrued from all those experiences of each successful alignment of the individuals' basic drives with his endowment and his opportunities... The sense of ego identity, then, is the accrued confidence that one's ability to maintain inner sameness and continuity (one's ego in the psychological sense) is matched by the sameness and continuity of one's meaning for others. (cited in Tan et al., p. 279).

The fifth stage is typically associated primarily with adolescence. Sperling (1985a, p. 56) noted:

While the crisis of identity formation takes place largely in adolescence, it is a lifelong process whose roots go back to early infancy. Successful resolution is therefore based upon development through earlier stages. In Eriksonian (1963) terms, those developmental stages preceding ego identity versus identity diffusion include: (1) basic trust versus basic mistrust, (2) autonomy versus shame and doubt, (3) initiative versus guilt, and (4) industry versus inferiority.

The stage following the conflict between ego identity and identity diffusion is the sixth stage and it involves a conflict between intimacy and isolation. Sperling (1985a, p. 57) noted that "problematic ego identity formation frequently becomes evident at the time of initiation of the first adult-like intimate relationships, usually in later adolescence."

Tan et al (1977) related problems in ego identity formation (i.e., identity diffusion) to "doubts about one's physical and sexual self, an inability to make decisions and commitments because of doubts, and the lack of a sense of continuity of the self over time" (p. 279). They developed pairs of items to characterize ego identity versus ego diffusion based on Erikson's (1950, 1959) theory.

A pool of forty-one pairs of items was developed and administered to 95 college freshmen along with a measure of social desirability. Results revealed that twenty items did not "discriminate between high and low scorers across the 41 ego identity items" (Tan et al, 1977, p. 280). These items were dropped and an additional nine items were dropped because of correlations to social desirability. The remaining twelve items comprised "The Ego Identity Scale".

The Ego Identity Scale was then administered along with measures of other personality variables, to a second sample of college freshmen (n=89). Scores on Ego Identity were significantly correlated with (1) internal locus of control ($r = .26, p < .05$); (2) intimacy as measured by a 7-item scale developed by Tan et al. ($r = .25, p < .05$); (3) dogmatism, as measured by Schulze's (1969) 10-item version of Rokeach's (1960) scale, ($r = -.20, p < .05$); and (4) Tomkins' Left, as measured by 12 items from Tomkins (1966) Polarity Scale ($r = .26, p < .05$). Tomkins' Left "reflects the extent to which an individual derives his values from his own life experiences rather than adopting the values held by various reference groups" (Tan et al., 1977, p. 282).

Ten items from Rotter's (1967) Interpersonal Trust scale were also included among the measures taken by the second sample. The correlation

between trust and Ego Identity was positive (.06) but was not strong enough to reach a level of statistical significance. Tan et al. (1977, p. 284) noted "with this exception, the evidence for the construct validity of the scale was good."

Reliability information was reported for the first sample. "The final 12 items had.. an odd-even , split-half reliability of .68" (Tan et al, 1977, p. 280). Item to total correlations ranged from .10 to .50. The item that had the highest item to total correlation consisted of the following paired statements: "Because of my philosophy in life, I have faith in myself, and in society in general," and "because of the uncertain nature of the individual and society, it is natural for me not to have a basic trust in society, in others, or even in myself."

Ego identity scores reflect the number of times that the subject selected the characterization of ego identity rather than the characterization of ego diffusion. The paired choice format was also used in the current study, resulting in a possible score range of zero to twelve.

M. Succorance & Autonomy scales of the PRF

The Personality Research Form-Form E (PRF-Form E; Jackson, 1974, 1987) contains 352 true-false items which comprise 22 scales measuring personality traits.

The PRF is published by Sigma Assessment Systems, Inc., Research Psychologists Press Division.

With the permission of Sigma Assessment Systems, Inc., the scales measuring succorance and autonomy, were used in the current study. The sixteen statements from the autonomy scale were intermingled with the sixteen statements from the succorance scale. Students were provided with verbatim directions from the PRF. Response options were true or false.

1. Succorance

Murray, 1938, defined the need for succorance or the succorant attitude using the following phrases: "To seek aid, protection, or sympathy. To cry for help. To plead for mercy. To adhere to an affectionate, nurturant parent. To be dependent" (Murray, page 749). A person who scores high on the PRF measure of succorance

frequently seeks the sympathy, protection, love, advice, and reassurance of other people; may feel insecure or helpless without such support; and confides difficulties readily to a receptive person (personal communication, Sigma staff, July 19, 1994).

The internal consistency of the PRF was assessed using odd-even reliability corrected by the Spearman Brown formula. Odd-even reliability of the succorance scale was .73 in a college sample ($n=84$) and .73 in a psychiatric sample ($n=83$). Test-retest reliability for various forms and time intervals ranging from one to two weeks have yielded coefficients ranging from .84 to .94 for the succorance scale (personal communication, Sigma staff, July 19, 1994).

2. Autonomy

Murray, 1938, defined the need for autonomy using the following phrases: "To resist influence or coercion. To defy an authority or seek freedom in a new place. To strive for independence" (Murray, page 743).

A person who scores high on the PRF measure of autonomy

tries to break away from restraints, confinement, or restrictions of any kind; enjoys being unattached, free, not tied to people, places, or obligations; may be rebellious when faced with restraints (personal communication, Sigma staff, July 19, 1994).

The internal consistency of the PRF was assessed using odd-even reliability corrected by the Spearman Brown formula. The odd-even reliability of the autonomy scale was .66 in a college sample ($n=84$) and .61 in a psychiatric sample ($n=83$). Test-retest reliability for various forms and time intervals ranging from one to two weeks have yielded coefficients ranging from .77 to .92 for the autonomy scale (personal communication, Sigma staff, July 19, 1994).

N. Measure of Interpersonal Dependency

Autonomy was also measured using a subscale of the Measure of Interpersonal Dependency (the MID; Hirschfeld, Klerman, Gough, Barrett, Korchin, & Chodoff, 1977). In addition to measuring "Assertion of Autonomy", the MID measures "Emotional Reliance on Another Person", and "Lack of Social Self Confidence."

Hirschfeld et al. (1977) originally administered 98 items to two samples; one sample consisted of 220 students and the other consisted of 180 psychiatric patients. Subjects in these samples also took several other measures including the depression, anxiety, and interpersonal sensitivity scales of the Symptom Check List (SCL-90) (Derogatis, Lipman, & Covi, 1973); the general neuroticism scale of the Maudsley Personality Inventory (MPI) (Eysenck, 1962); and the 39-item MMPI social desirability scale (Edwards, 1953). The results from each sample were factor analyzed, and in order "to obtain the solution most congruent with their theoretical perspective," the solution was forced to three factors. They then looked at item to total correlations and determined which items to include in the final scale using the following considerations:

(a) magnitude of correlation with or loading on the designated factor; (b) low correlation with or loading on the other two factors; (c) differentiation of mean values between patient and student samples; (d) low correlation with the social desirability scale; (e) low correlation with the anxiety scale (from the Symptom Check List (SCL-90) (Derogatis, Lipman, & Covi, 1973); (f) relative equivalence of mean values for male and female subsamples; and (g) diversification of content, to insure heterogeneity of the items within each subscale. (Hirschfeld et al., p. 612).

Forty-eight items were retained. These items were then administered to two more samples for purposes of establishing cross-validity. One new sample was a non-patient group (n=121) solicited through mail requests; the age range of this sample was from 16 to 85 (M=41). The second new sample consisted of 66 psychiatric outpatients; the age range of this sample was from 18-65 (M=31).

Results from the new samples were compared with the results from the developmental samples and the authors concluded, "The cross-sample consistency of the factor structure and cross-validation of the factor-to-scale relationship provide strong evidence that the scale composition represents a stable phenomenon" (Hirschfeld et al., p. 616).

The MID is "one of the three most widely used objective dependency measures" (Bornstein, Manning, Krukonis, Rossner, & Mastrosimone, 1993, p. 171). Bornstein et al. (1993, pp. 172-173) summarized information supporting the reliability and validity of the MID:

Detailed information regarding the construct validity of the MID has been provided by Hirschfeld and his colleagues (see Hirschfeld, Klerman, Andreason, Clayton, & Keller, 1986; Hirschfeld et al., 1983; Hirschfeld, Klerman, Clayton, Keller, & Andreason, 1984; Hirschfeld et al., 1977; Hirschfeld et al., 1989). MID scores are unrelated to years of education or socioeconomic status (Hirschfeld et al., 1977), are stable over time (Hirschfeld et al., 1986), and are positively correlated with scores on other self-report measures of dependency (Hirschfeld et al., 1983, 1984, 1989). In addition, psychiatric patients obtain significantly higher MID scores than do matched nonclinical subjects (Hirschfeld et al., 1977, 1984). Finally, MID scores are significantly and predictably related to subjects' scores on

measures of depression, anxiety, interpersonal sensitivity, and neuroticism (Hirschfeld et al., 1977, 1986, 1989).

While the final scale reportedly consisted of 48 items, the published version (Hirschfeld et al., 1977, pp. 612-613), included only 46 items. Only the published items were included in our study. Hirschfeld et al. (1977) provided subjects with a four-point response option with anchors labeled "very characteristic of me," "quite characteristic of me," "somewhat characteristic of me," and "not characteristic of me." This four-point response option was also used in the current study.

1. Emotional Reliance on Another Person

Eighteen items reportedly loaded on the scale titled "Emotional Reliance on Another Person." Only seventeen were published and only the published items were used in the current study.

Hirschfeld et al. (1977) distinguished between the concepts of attachment and dependency.

The attachment bond is enduring and specific to a single individual, and is associated with strong emotions. In contrast, dependency refers to that class of behaviors stimulating general help, approval, and attention. Such behaviors are very sensitive to differences in response, may easily be transferred from one individual to another, and are more often evident during childhood (Hirschfeld et al., p. 616).

Items comprising the scale Emotional Reliance on Another Person reflect

the notions of attachment and dependency in nearly equal proportions. Attachment-related items in this scale express a wish for contact with and emotional support from specific other persons, as well as expressing a dread of loss of that person. Dependency-related items involve a general wish for approval and attention from others (Hirschfeld et al., 1977, p. 617).

The reliability of the Emotional Reliance on Another Person scale was assessed with the two cross validation samples. In the sample recruited through the mail (which consisted of 64 males and 57 females), the split-half reliability was .86. In the patient sample (which consisted of 19 males and 47 females), the split-half reliability was .85 (Hirschfeld et al., p. 616).

Scores on the Emotional Reliance scale were higher for patients than for non-patients. In the developmental samples, patients' scores ($M=48.7$) were significantly higher than nonpatients' scores ($M=39.2$), $p<.01$. In the cross-validating samples, patients' scores ($M=43.3$) were significantly higher than nonpatients' scores ($M=39.6$), $p<.05$. In a subsequent study (Hirschfeld, Klerman, Clayton, Keller, McDonald-Scott, & Larkin, 1983, p. 697), which dealt with the relation between personality and depression among depressed patients, and which compared recovered patients with unrecovered patients, scores on emotional reliance on another person diminished significantly among subjects in the recovered group.

2. Assertion of Autonomy

The fourteen items in the Assertion of Autonomy scale "assert preferences for being alone and for independent behavior. They also express the conviction that the subject's self-esteem does not depend on the approval of others" (Hirschfeld et al, 1977, p. 613).

The reliability of the Assertion of Autonomy scale was assessed with the two cross validation samples. In the sample recruited through

the mail (which consisted of 64 males and 57 females), the split-half reliability was .84.

In the patient sample (which consisted of 19 males and 47 females), the split-half reliability was .91. (Hirschfeld et al, p. 616)

Differences were found between males and females on Assertion of Autonomy scores. In the developmental samples, and in the cross-validation sample that was recruited through the mail, males scored significantly higher on autonomy than females. In the fourth sample (e.g., patients in the cross-validating samples), men did not score significantly higher than women on Assertion of Autonomy; it should be noted, however, that this sample contained only a small number of men ($n=19$) and a relatively large number of women ($n=47$). (Hirschfeld et al, 1977, p. 614).

3. Lack of Social Self-Confidence

Sixteen items reportedly loaded on the scale titled "lack of social self-confidence." Only fifteen were published and only the published items were used in the current study. The items "express wishes for help in decision-making, in social situations, and in taking initiative" (Hirschfeld et al., 1977, p. 617).

The reliability of the lack of social self-confidence scale was assessed with the two cross validation samples. In the sample recruited through the mail (which consisted of 64 males and 57 females), the split half-reliability was .76. In the patient sample (which consisted of 19 males and 47 females), the split-half reliability was .84. (Hirschfeld et al., p. 616)

Scores on the lack of social self-confidence scale were higher for patients than for non-patients. In the developmental samples, patients' scores ($M=34.3$) were significantly higher than nonpatients' scores ($M=29.8$), $p<.01$. In the cross-validating samples, patients' scores ($M=33.5$) were significantly higher than nonpatients' scores ($M=29.1$), $p<.01$.

In a more recent study (Hirschfeld et al., 1983) dealing with depression patients, the authors found that lack of social self confidence was a trait associated with depression.

O. Loneliness

The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale consists of twenty items, "half reflecting satisfaction with social relationships and half reflecting dissatisfaction" (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980, p. 474). For example, one item reads, "there are people I can turn to" and another item reads, "there is no one I can turn to" (Russell et al, p. 475).

One item references feeling alone (i.e., "I do not feel alone"), but none of the items specifically mention loneliness. Hartshorne (1993, pp. 182-183) commented, "thus the scale does not measure states that people might label *lonely*, but rather what the researcher labels *lonely* (Shute & Howitt, 1990)." Hartshorne (1993) administered the test, along with the additional item "I am often lonely," to 220 students. The correlation between scores on the 20 item Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale and this additional item blatantly referring to loneliness was .59. (Hartshorne, 1993, p. 188).

The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale "is purported to be a global or unidimensional approach to the measure of loneliness (Russell, 1982)" (Hartshorne, 1993, p. 182). Hartshorne (1993) performed a confirmatory factor analysis of the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale with 220 students; his results "provide strong support for the unidimensionality of the instrument" (Hartshorne, 1993, p. 194).

The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale has been found to be internally consistent. Using a sample of 230 students, the authors found an alpha coefficient of .94. (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980, pp. 476-477). In the same study, the authors also reported "impressive evidence of concurrent and discriminant validity" (Hartshorne, 1993, p. 182).

Using scoring procedures such that an item score of four indicated loneliness and one indicated an absence of loneliness, Hartshorne (1993, p. 185) found that all item means were below two. Hartshorne (1993, p. 185) commented on the non-normality of the items and the scale:

Although 4-point items must be skewed, the consistency in the direction for all 20 items, as well as the similarity in standard deviations, suggests a pattern of non-normality for the scale as a whole. The non-normality for individual items is also indicated by the extent of kurtosis found. (Hartshorne, p. 185)

Hartshorne (1993, p. 186) also noted that the frequency of scores suggested a bimodal distribution. While cautioning that other data samples should be examined, Hartshorne (p. 193) called this "a potentially important finding."

The implication of this bimodal finding is that loneliness, at least as measured by the ULS, is an emotional state that either individuals experience at the time of testing or they do not. Conceptually, what would a middle score on loneliness actually mean? Do people have a medium amount of loneliness, or are people either generally lonely or not generally not lonely? These findings support the latter view, and therefore suggest that loneliness is experienced fairly pervasively when it is experienced. These findings also suggest that researchers may want to treat loneliness as a dichotomized variable. (Hartshorne, p. 193.)

Directions for the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale read "Indicate how often you feel the way described in each of the following statements. Circle one number for each." Response options were never=1, rarely=2, sometimes=3, and often=4. (Russell, Peplau & Cutrona, 1980, p. 485). Slight wording changes were used in the directions for the current study (instructions called for writing the appropriate number instead of circling it); the four point response options corresponded to those provided by Russell, Peplau & Cutrona (1980, p.485).

P. BPD and NPD Scales of the Profile

The Profile (Profile; Jones, 1988) contains 186 items which comprise thirteen scales measuring personality disorders. The Profile was developed by developed by Warren Jones. Jones (personal communication, June, 1994) described scale development:

Profile items were developed to satisfy the criteria specified in Axis-II of DSM-III, with some modifications following the appearance of DSM-III-R. Psychometric analyses were performed on non-college adults (especially police officers, factory workers, and highly educated professionals), convicted felons, and psychiatric in-patients and out-patients. The scales have been validated by comparisons with the MCMI, therapists ratings, ratings by significant others, self-descriptions, and behavioral measures where available (e.g., work productivity among insurance adjustors for the passive-aggressive scale; number of arrests for antisocial, etc.).

The BPD and NPD scales were used with the permission of Warren Jones. In the current study, the fifteen items from the BPD were intermingled with the fifteen items from the NPD. (Two items measuring primitive idealization were also intermingled with the BPD and NPD items.) Instructions were adapted from the Profile and respondents were given a five point response option with the following anchors: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) uncertain, (4) agree, and 5 strongly agree.

1. The Borderline Personality Disorder Scale

Fifteen items from the Profile (Profile; Jones, 1988) comprised a scale measuring Borderline Personality Disorder. The items were developed to satisfy the criteria of the third edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, (DSM-III, American Psychiatric Association, 1980). Modifications were made following the appearance of the third edition, revised (DSM-III-R, American Psychiatric Association, 1987).

Eight criteria were listed for the Borderline Personality Disorder in the DSM-III; the presence of five criteria was required to make the diagnosis. The DSM-III-R also listed eight criteria for the Borderline Personality Disorder and again indicated that five were necessary to make the diagnosis. The first seven criteria in the DSM-III-R correspond closely with seven of the criteria in the DSM-III; while there are some differences in wording, the phrasing is similar. For example, criteria one of the DSM-III-R corresponds with criteria two of the DSM-III:

(1) a pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships characterized by alternating between extremes of overidealization [emphasis added] and devaluation (DSM-III-R, p. 347)

(2) a pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships, e.g., marked shifts of attitude, idealization [emphasis added], devaluation, manipulation (consistently using others for one's own ends) (DSM-III, p. 322)

The eighth criterion in the DSM-III-R corresponds less closely with the DSM-III. Criteria eight of the DSM-III-R, "frantic efforts to avoid real or imagined abandonment" (DSM-III-R, p.347), replaced criteria six of the DSM-III, "intolerance of being alone, e.g., frantic efforts to avoid being alone, depressed when alone" (DSM-III, p. 323). From DSM-III to DSM-III-R, intolerance of being alone became fear of abandonment.

The consistent criteria were: a pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships; impulsiveness in at least two areas that are potentially self-damaging; affective instability with marked shifts

from baseline mood to depression, irritability, or anxiety, usually lasting a few hours and rarely more than a few days; inappropriate, intense anger or lack of control of anger; identity disturbance; chronic feelings of emptiness or boredom; and physically self-damaging acts and gestures. The wording in the DSM-III pertaining to self-damaging acts included suicidal threats.

Items from the Profile Measure of BPD appeared to emphasize identity disturbance, intolerance of being alone, a pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships, and affective instability. Items also addressed impulsiveness, difficulty handling anger, and importance given to care of self.

The BPD is internally consistent as indicated by an alpha of .78 based on a sample of over 2,000 non-college adults. Test-retest reliability was based on a sample of 80 college students who took the BPD a second time ten weeks after initially completing it; the test-retest reliability correlation was .66.

2. The Narcissistic Personality Disorder Scale

Fifteen items from the Profile (Profile: Jones, 1988) comprised a scale measuring Narcissistic Personality Disorder. The items were developed to satisfy the criteria of the third edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, (DSM-III, American Psychiatric Association, 1980). Modifications were made following the appearance of the third edition, revised (DSM-III-R, American Psychiatric Association, 1987).

The DSM-III listed eight criteria for the Narcissistic Personality Disorder. Certain criteria had to be met in order to make the diagnosis. These were:

- A. Grandiose sense of self-importance or uniqueness.
- B. Preoccupation with fantasies of unlimited success, power, brilliance or ideal love.
- C. Exhibitionism: the person requires constant attention and admiration.
- D. Cool indifference or marked feelings of rage, inferiority, shame, humiliation, or emptiness in response to criticism, indifference of others, or defeat. (DSM-III, p. 317).

In addition, to make the diagnosis of NPD two of the following four disturbances in interpersonal relationships had to be characteristic of the individual.

- (1) entitlement: expectation of special favors without assuming reciprocal responsibilities...
- (2) interpersonal exploitativeness: taking advantage of others to indulge own desires or for self-aggrandizement; disregard for the personal integrity and rights of others
- (3) relationships that characteristically alternate between the extremes of overidealization [emphasis added] and devaluation
- (4) lack of empathy: inability to recognize how others feel, e.g., unable to appreciate the distress of someone who is seriously ill.

Thus, the DSM-III included eight criteria for Narcissistic Personality Disorder. Seven of these were included in the DSM-III-R. The criterion pertaining to "overidealization and devaluation" was dropped from the NPD criteria and instead was associated only with the BPD. The remaining seven criteria were expanded into eight and, in addition, the following criterion was added: "is preoccupied with feelings of envy" (DSM-III-R, p. 351).

Items from the Profile Measure of NPD appeared to emphasize a willingness to exploit others, a grandiose sense of self-importance, and

pre-occupation with fantasies of success and fame. Items also addressed needs for constant attention, entitlement and lack of empathy.

The NPD is reasonably internally consistent as indicated by an alpha of .69 based on a sample of over 2,000 non-college adults. Test-retest reliability was based on a sample of 80 college students who took the NPD a second time ten weeks after initially completing it; the test-retest reliability correlation was .71.

Q. The Superiority Scale

Based on Kohut's (1971) "bipolar" theory, Patton and Robbins (1982) described how defects in the self tend to relate to either the grandiose or the idealizing lines of development. In 1985, Robbins and Patton developed two scales intended to measure mild to moderate defects in the idealizing and grandiose sectors. The scale corresponding to the grandiose sector was originally labeled grandiosity. For purposes of developing items, the following broad definition of grandiosity was constructed:

Grandiosity: In the late adolescent or the adult, the mature expression of the grandiose self is characterized by a reliable sense of self-esteem and pleasure in self. These are enhanced by the fulfillment of his or her particular strivings through educational, vocational, or other socially acceptable pursuits. The person who is experiencing a malfunction in this sector of the self may evidence an exaggerated sense of self-esteem, flaunt him or herself to attract attention, engage in fantasies of unlimited power or greatness, or severely inhibit the strivings of the grandiose self. (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 223)

Twenty items were generated from this definition. The preliminary Grandiosity Scale, a preliminary Idealization scale (designed to measure defects in the idealizing sector) and a measure of social desirability were administered to 453 college students. The students' responses to the Grandiosity items were then factor analyzed. Ten items were eliminated based on factor loadings, item to factor correlations, and moderate to low correlations with social desirability ($r < .25$). (Robbins & Patton, 1985, pp. 223-224).

The remaining ten items were administered to a new group of 133 college students along with other measures including measures of narcissism (NPI: Raskin & Hall, 1979), self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1979), career-decisiveness (Osipow, 1980), and personal competencies. (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 226).

The Grandiosity scale was strongly correlated with narcissism ($r = .54$, $p < .001$) and weakly and negatively correlated with career decisiveness ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$). The correlations between grandiosity and self-esteem, $r = .09$ and between grandiosity and personal competencies, $r = .10$ were too weak to reach a level of statistical significance. (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 226).

Regarding the content of the Grandiosity scale, the authors observed that

the bulk of the items that remained in the scale after the factor analyses appear to center on the person's arrogant opinion of self as superior to others. It amounts to a kind of exaggerated self-esteem characteristic of many adolescents (cf. Wolf, 1980). It might be accompanied by exhibitionistic urges to attract attention from others, but this is not the main theme of the items. Rather, the items, deal with how the person views him or herself vis-à-vis others. (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 226).

Based on the correlation with narcissism and the examination of item content, the grandiosity scale was named "The Superiority Scale."

The Superiority Scale was subsequently used with another college student sample. Eighty-eight students enrolled in career and life planning were administered the Superiority scale at the beginning of their classes. It was hypothesized that less mature forms of grandiosity (as measured by the Superiority scale) would "predict the degree to which college students have difficulty incorporating

information provided by career and life planning classes into a plan of action" (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 227). Contrary to the hypothesis, high scores on Superiority were not correlated with difficulty making career plans. "An unexpected finding was that higher agreement with items on the Superiority scale actually predicted increased levels of career decidedness" (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 228). High scores on Superiority were, however, correlated with the inability to act on plans. (Robbins & Patton, 1985, p. 229)

Robbins & Schwitzer (1988) tested the hypothesis that high scores on Superiority would predict poor adjustment to college. The Superiority scale and the Adjustment to College Life Measure (Baker & Siryk, 1984, cited in Robbins & Schwitzer, 1988, p. 119) were administered to freshmen women at the beginning and end of their first semester. One hundred and seventy-eight students volunteered at the beginning of the semester; eighty-eight also participated at the end of the semester. Correlations between the students' scores on the Superiority scale at the beginning of the semester and measures of their adjustment as self-reported at the end of the semester showed that the Superiority scale was not a significant predictor of college adjustment. The authors concluded, "Re-examination of the Superiority Scale as a predictor of adjustment to college is needed" (Robbins & Schwitzer, 1988, pp. 120-122).

The Superiority Scale has also been used with mental health populations. For example, 36 clients from "in-patient" settings and 55 clients from "out-patient" settings took the Superiority Scale along with "clinical syndrome scales from the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI)" (Robbins, 1989, p.122). "The Superiority scale was related to a pattern of social gregariousness, interpersonal exploitation, and impulsivity" (p.122). Robbins (p.130) noted that "these people, using the DSM-III descriptive nosology, would be cast as narcissistic types."

Robbins & Dupont (1992, p. 464) summarized the evidence supporting the validity of the Superiority Scale.

A number of studies (e.g., Robbins, 1989; Robbins & Patton, 1985; Watson, McKinney, Hawkins, & Morris, 1988) support the Superiority Scale's convergent and divergent validity as a measure of narcissistic behavior associated with the grandiose-exhibitionistic line of development, including a high correspondence with other measures of narcissism (e.g., Narcissistic Personality Inventory; Emmons, 1984).

The Superiority Scale is a reliable measure. Internal consistency was indicated by an alpha of .76 based on a sample of 133 college students. Test-retest reliability over a two week interval was .80 based on a sample of 72 college students. (Robbins & Patton, 1985, pp. 224-225)

Robbins & Patton provided respondents with a six point response option anchored at (1) = strongly agree and (6) strongly disagree (1985, p. 224). The same items and anchors were used in this study but the values associated with the anchors were reversed (e.g., 1 = strongly disagree) so that higher scores represent greater agreement.

Appendix D

APPENDIX D-1

PHASE ONE SAMPLE

Type Relationship	Percent Reporting This Type of Current Relationship	Percent Reporting This Type of Past Relationship
Boss/Teacher	62	54
Work/School Colleague	86	54
Room-mate	37	42
Apartment or Housemate	54	26
Therapist /Counselor	10	9
Religious Mentor	25	19
Romantic Partner	71	77
Spouse	6	3
Adult Relative Other Than Spouse	97	34
Recreational Companion	70	39
Friend	98	81

APPENDIX D-2

PHASE TWO SAMPLE

Type Relationship	Percent Reporting This Type of Current Relationship	Percent Reporting This Type of Past Relationship
Boss/Teacher	57	50
Work/School Colleague	72	54
Room-mate	27	50
Apartment or Housemate	38	28
Therapist /Counselor	7	11
Religious Mentor	24	17
Romantic Partner	68	76
Spouse	4	2
Parent	91	11
Adult Relative Other Than Spouse or Parent	74	16
Recreational Companion	63	41
Friend	94	75

APPENDIX D-3

All Participants in Part II that were over 25 (n=41)

Type Relationship	Percent Reporting This Type of Current Relationship	Percent Reporting This Type of Past Relationship
Boss/Teacher	54	61
Work/School Colleague	54	66
Room-mate	2	37
Apartment or Housemate	5	34
Therapist /Counselor	15	17
Religious Mentor	12	15
Romantic Partner	56	76
Spouse	54	22
Parent	85	17
Adult Relative Other Than Spouse or Parent	66	39
Recreational Companion	39	29
Friend	83	68

Appendix E

APPENDIX E-1

Correlations: IZ

IZ	1.0000**
GOALINST	.4993**
PRIMIZ	.0895
ROMIZ	.2974**
LIMIZ	.5009**
FENYIZ	.1953*
POSPERC	-.3281**
MANIA	.7296**
EROS	.0336
AGAPE	.3653**
PRAGMA	.1785
STORGE	.0239
LUDUS	.0052
DESPERAT	.5496**
PASSION	.4108**
SECURE	-.2254*
AVOIDNT	.0882
ANXAMB	.5328**
EMDEPEND	.6442**
OBSPREOC	.5783**
SCANX	.5426**
CLOSE	-.1246
DEPEND	-.2239*
ANXIETY	.6332**
ERELIANC	.6391**
LACKSSC	.4713**
HAUTONMY	-.2280*
PRFAUT	-.2557*
PRFSUC	.2873**
LONELY	.3522**
IDDIFFUS	.3069**
BORDRLN	.5995**
NARCISM	.0997
SUPERIOR	.0946
AGE	-.2833**
GENDER	-.0447

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 154

2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" ." is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

APPENDIX E-2

Correlations:	GOALINST	PRIMIZ	ROMIZ	LIMIZ	FENYIZ	POSPERC
IZ	.4993**	.0895	.2974**	.5009**	.1953*	-.3281**
GOALINST	1.0000**	-.0816	.0777	.1921*	-.1162	-.2775**
PRIMIZ	-.0816	1.0000**	.3210**	.1651	.2398**	.1264
ROMIZ	.0777	.3210**	1.0000**	.3757**	.3800**	-.0049
LIMIZ	.1921*	.1651	.3757**	1.0000**	.3898**	.0044
FENYIZ	-.1162	.2398**	.3800**	.3898**	1.0000**	.2891**
POSPERC	-.2775**	.1264	-.0049	.0044	.2891**	1.0000**
MANIA	.2326**	.1320	.2392**	.4227**	.2948**	-.2705**
EROS	-.1791	.1121	.1146	.1941*	.4780**	.1825*
AGAPE	.0080	.2090*	.2705**	.4291**	.6672**	.1755
PRAGMA	-.0101	.1235	.1243	.1239	.0611	-.1080
STORGE	.0268	.1395	.0999	.1785	.2450**	.2553**
LUDUS	.1556	.0825	.0313	-.1963*	-.3223**	-.2132*
DESPERAT	.2055*	.1077	.2215*	.4229**	.3653**	-.0671
PASSION	.0759	.0732	.2865**	.4122**	.4281**	-.0072
SECURE	-.2527**	.0836	.0277	-.0094	.1359	.1732
AVOIDNT	.1744	-.1124	.0388	-.0969	-.1397	-.1968*
ANXAMB	.3385**	.0522	.0245	.1276	-.0940	-.2817**
EMDEPEND	.3617**	.0527	.2182*	.3985**	.0788	-.2961**
OBSPREOC	.2327**	.2592**	.3353**	.5795**	.2681**	-.1550
SCANX	.4656**	.0075	.1248	.2848**	-.0948	-.3885**
CLOSE	-.2443**	.0253	-.0642	.0620	.1260	.2379**
DEPEND	-.2331**	.1260	-.0281	-.0065	.1442	.2165*
ANXIETY	.4543**	.1261	.2325**	.3333**	.1290	-.2515**
ERELIANC	.3460**	.1055	.3692**	.3860**	.2576**	-.3141**
LACKSSC	.5060**	.0323	.1507	.2807**	.0363	-.2417**
HAUTONMY	-.1072	-.0653	-.0150	-.1171	-.1126	-.0926
PRFAUT	.0208	-.1478	-.1486	-.2274*	-.2075*	-.1379
PRFSUC	.0052	.1381	.1179	.2641**	.1226	.1266
LONELY	.4867**	-.1890*	-.0141	.0752	-.2131*	-.3214**
IDDIFFUS	.5551**	-.0590	.0902	.0244	-.1406	-.2765**
BORDRLN	.5806**	-.1015	.1534	.2094*	-.0106	-.3687**
NARCISM	.0665	.0216	.1876*	-.0992	-.0898	-.2066*
SUPERIOR	.0737	-.0065	.1650	.0424	.0621	.0036
AGE	-.1454	-.0497	-.2140*	-.2891**	-.0811	.0437
GENDER	-.0635	-.0654	-.0437	-.0601	-.0884	-.0123

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 155 2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" , " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

APPENDIX E-3

Correlations:	MANIA	EROS	AGAPE	PRAGMA	STORGE	LUDUS
IZ	.7296**	.0336	.3653**	.1785	.0239	.0052
GOALINST	.2326**	-.1791	.0080	-.0101	.0268	.1556
PRIMIZ	.1320	.1121	.2090*	.1235	.1395	.0825
ROMIZ	.2392**	.1146	.2705**	.1243	.0999	.0313
LIMIZ	.4227**	.1941*	.4291**	.1239	.1785	-.1963*
FENYIZ	.2948**	.4780**	.6672**	.0611	.2450**	-.3223**
POSPERC	-.2705**	.1825*	.1755	-.1080	.2553**	-.2132*
MANIA	1.0000**	.2232*	.4210**	.2380**	-.0139	-.0627
EROS	.2232*	1.0000**	.4248**	.1659	.1369	-.3469**
AGAPE	.4210**	.4248**	1.0000**	-.0373	.2346**	-.3770**
PRAGMA	.2380**	.1659	-.0373	1.0000**	.0911	.0548
STORGE	-.0139	.1369	.2346**	.0911	1.0000**	-.0493
LUDUS	-.0627	-.3469**	-.3770**	.0548	-.0493	1.0000**
DESPERAT	.6153**	.2980**	.4904**	.1324	.0919	-.0930
PASSION	.4661**	.4416**	.5086**	.0936	.0914	-.2172*
SECURE	-.0741	.2361**	.1310	-.0629	.0996	-.0259
AVOIDNT	.0184	-.2255*	-.1915*	.0268	-.0732	.1647
ANXAMB	.3988**	-.1224	.0756	.0326	-.1618	.0448
EMDEPEND	.5662**	-.0448	.2130*	.0741	-.1110	-.0035
OBSPREOC	.6224**	.1823	.3378**	.1115	.0452	-.0704
SCANX	.4546**	-.1509	.0997	.0049	-.0173	.1341
CLOSE	.0083	.2418**	.2279*	.0351	.0231	-.1523
DEPEND	-.1461	.1625	.1458	-.0571	.1547	-.2137*
ANXIETY	.5382**	-.0792	.2344**	.1207	-.0057	-.0782
ERELIANC	.6033**	.0925	.2884**	.1929*	.0082	-.0350
LACKSSC	.3041**	-.1015	.1678	-.0209	.0194	.0001
HAUTONMY	-.2443**	-.1964*	-.2103*	-.0779	-.1147	.1836*
PRFAUT	-.3166**	-.2233*	-.3607**	-.1271	-.0107	.2091*
PRFSUC	.3812**	.1441	.2420*	.1160	.0141	-.2493*
LONELY	.1342	-.2719**	-.1647	.0308	-.0679	.0900
IDDIFFUS	.1772	-.2366**	-.0506	-.0814	-.0379	.1530
BORDRLN	.4413**	-.1116	.0148	.0598	-.0689	.1345
NARCISM	.1395	-.1152	-.1561	.1454	-.0707	.2480**
SUPERIOR	.1471	.0527	-.0135	.2077*	.0602	.2601**
AGE	-.2468**	-.0837	-.1918*	.0026	.0230	.0980
GENDER	-.0884	-.1415	.0268	-.1861*	-.0569	.2426**

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 155 2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" . " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

APPENDIX E-4

Correlations:	DESPERAT	PASSION	SECURE	AVOIDNT	ANXAMB
IZ	.5496**	.4108**	-.2254*	.0882	.5328**
GOALINST	.2055*	.0759	-.2527**	.1744	.3385**
PRIMIZ	.1077	.0732	.0836	-.1124	.0522
ROMIZ	.2215*	.2865**	.0277	.0388	.0245
LIMIZ	.4229**	.4122**	-.0094	-.0969	.1276
FENYIZ	.3653**	.4281**	.1359	-.1397	-.0940
POSPERC	-.0671	-.0072	.1732	-.1968*	-.2817**
MANIA	.6153**	.4661**	-.0741	.0184	.3988**
EROS	.2980**	.4416**	.2361**	-.2255*	-.1224
AGAPE	.4904**	.5086**	.1310	-.1915*	.0756
PRAGMA	.1324	.0936	-.0629	.0268	.0326
STORGE	.0919	.0914	.0996	-.0732	-.1618
LUDUS	-.0930	-.2172*	-.0259	.1647	.0448
DESPERAT	1.0000**	.5808**	.0348	-.0982	.1951*
PASSION	.5808**	1.0000**	.0554	-.0816	.1567
SECURE	.0348	.0554	1.0000**	-.5974**	-.2408**
AVOIDNT	-.0982	-.0816	-.5974**	1.0000**	.1387
ANXAMB	.1951*	.1567	-.2408**	.1387	1.0000**
EMDEPEND	.4467**	.3866**	-.2085*	.0848	.4314**
OBSPREOC	.5700**	.4636**	-.1258	.0329	.2269*
SCANX	.3303**	.1786	-.2954**	.3259**	.3418**
CLOSE	.1676	.1647	.6223**	-.6386**	-.1259
DEPEND	.0155	.0992	.5361**	-.4644**	-.3331**
ANXIETY	.3925**	.2716**	-.2043*	-.0095	.6030**
ERELIANC	.4989**	.3270**	-.1873*	.1252	.4194**
LACKSSC	.2149*	.1446	-.2672**	.2684**	.2955**
HAUTONMY	-.2935**	-.2144*	-.1059	.1896*	-.1306
PRFAUT	-.3079**	-.2999**	-.1556	.1987	-.0596
PRFSUC	.2237*	.2404*	.1941	-.2265*	.1428
LONELY	.0017	-.0962	-.4981**	.3617**	.3752**
IDDIFFUS	.0476	-.0430	-.3232**	.3521**	.2976**
BORDRLN	.2303**	.1590	-.2826**	.1844*	.4248**
NARCISM	-.0422	-.0882	-.1216	.1077	.1790
SUPERIOR	.1743	.0448	.1083	-.0119	.0268
AGE	-.1916*	-.1911*	.0687	.0576	-.0467
GENDER	-.0808	-.1123	.1386	-.0866	.0391

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 156

2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" . " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

APPENDIX E-5

Correlations:	EMDEPEND	OBSPREOC	SCANX	CLOSE	DEPEND	ANXIETY
IZ	.6442**	.5783**	.5426**	-.1246	-.2239*	.6332**
GOALINST	.3617**	.2327**	.4656**	-.2443**	-.2331**	.4543**
PRIMIZ	.0527	.2592**	.0075	.0253	.1260	.1261
ROMIZ	.2182*	.3353**	.1248	-.0642	-.0281	.2325**
LIMIZ	.3985**	.5795**	.2848**	.0620	-.0065	.3333**
FENYIZ	.0788	.2681**	-.0948	.1260	.1442	.1290
POSPERC	-.2961**	-.1550	-.3885**	.2379**	.2165*	-.2515**
MANIA	.5662**	.6224**	.4546**	.0083	-.1461	.5382**
EROS	-.0448	.1823	-.1509	.2418**	.1625	-.0792
AGAPE	.2130*	.3378**	.0997	.2279*	.1458	.2344**
PRAGMA	.0741	.1115	.0049	.0351	-.0571	.1207
STORGE	-.1110	.0452	-.0173	.0231	.1547	-.0057
LUDUS	-.0035	-.0704	.1341	-.1523	-.2137*	-.0782
DESPERAT	.4467**	.5700**	.3303**	.1676	.0155	.3925**
PASSION	.3866**	.4636**	.1786	.1647	.0992	.2716**
SECURE	-.2085*	-.1258	-.2954**	.6223**	.5361**	-.2043*
AVOIDNT	.0848	.0329	.3259**	-.6386**	-.4644**	-.0095
ANXAMB	.4314**	.2269*	.3418**	-.1259	-.3331**	.6030**
EMDEPEND	1.0000**	.5286**	.4887**	-.0736	-.1701	.5220**
OBSPREOC	.5286**	1.0000**	.5252**	-.0418	-.1718	.4422**
SCANX	.4887**	.5252**	1.0000**	-.3274**	-.3106**	.3925**
CLOSE	-.0736	-.0418	-.3274**	1.0000**	.5894**	-.0805
DEPEND	-.1701	-.1718	-.3106**	.5894**	1.0000**	-.2327**
ANXIETY	.5220**	.4422**	.3925**	-.0805	-.2327**	1.0000**
ERELIANC	.4827**	.4889**	.4257**	-.2334**	-.2494**	.6239**
LACKSSC	.3615**	.3016**	.5208**	-.3566**	-.2971**	.3830**
HAUTONMY	-.1973*	-.1601	-.0803	-.2089*	-.3358**	-.1885*
PRFAUT	-.2325*	-.1926	-.0550	-.2629**	-.3547**	-.1278
PRFSUC	.2893**	.2175*	.0507	.2885**	.3632**	.2690**
LONELY	.3097**	.1322	.4161**	-.5403**	-.6041**	.3779**
IDDIFFUS	.2510**	.1359	.4552**	-.3896**	-.4021**	.2767**
BORDRLN	.4778**	.3041**	.4062**	-.2767**	-.3782**	.5132**
NARCISM	.1313	.0779	.0681	-.0950	-.2086*	.1543
SUPERIOR	.1556	.1316	-.0218	.1207	-.0483	.0754
AGE	-.2189*	-.3185**	-.1156	.0590	.0582	-.1678
GENDER	-.0160	-.1089	.0169	.1169	-.0220	-.1419

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 155 2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" . " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

APPENDIX E-6

Correlations:	ERELIANC	LACKSSC	HAUTONMY	PRFAUT	PRFSUC
IZ	.6391**	.4713**	-.2280*	-.2557*	.2873**
GOALINST	.3460**	.5060**	-.1072	.0208	.0052
PRIMIZ	.1055	.0323	-.0653	-.1478	.1381
ROMIZ	.3692**	.1507	-.0150	-.1486	.1179
LIMIZ	.3860**	.2807**	-.1171	-.2274*	.2641**
FENYIZ	.2576**	.0363	-.1126	-.2075*	.1226
POSPERC	-.3141**	-.2417**	-.0926	-.1379	.1266
MANIA	.6033**	.3041**	-.2443**	-.3166**	.3812**
EROS	.0925	-.1015	-.1964*	-.2233*	.1441
AGAPE	.2884**	.1678	-.2103*	-.3607**	.2420*
PRAGMA	.1929*	-.0209	-.0779	-.1271	.1160
STORGE	.0082	.0194	-.1147	-.0107	.0141
LUDUS	-.0350	.0001	.1836*	.2091*	-.2493*
DESPERAT	.4989**	.2149*	-.2935**	-.3079**	.2237*
PASSION	.3270**	.1446	-.2144*	-.2999**	.2404*
SECURE	-.1873*	-.2672**	-.1059	-.1556	.1941
AVOIDNT	.1252	.2684**	.1896*	.1987	-.2265*
ANXAMB	.4194**	.2955**	-.1306	-.0596	.1428
EMDEPEND	.4827**	.3615**	-.1973*	-.2325*	.2893**
OBSPREOC	.4889**	.3016**	-.1601	-.1926	.2175*
SCANX	.4257**	.5208**	-.0803	-.0550	.0507
CLOSE	-.2334**	-.3566**	-.2089*	-.2629**	.2885**
DEPEND	-.2494**	-.2971**	-.3358**	-.3547**	.3632**
ANXIETY	.6239**	.3830**	-.1885*	-.1278	.2690**
ERELIANC	1.0000**	.5548**	-.1566	-.2392*	.3196**
LACKSSC	.5548**	1.0000**	-.0910	-.2104*	.1353
HAUTONMY	-.1566	-.0910	1.0000**	.5381**	-.5667**
PRFAUT	-.2392*	-.2104*	.5381**	1.0000**	-.6723**
PRFSUC	.3196**	.1353	-.5667**	-.6723**	1.0000**
LONELY	.2837**	.4638**	.1494	.2432*	-.2153*
IDDIFFUS	.2760**	.5513**	.0442	.0478	-.1169
BORDRLN	.4943**	.4254**	-.1419	-.0510	.0879
NARCISM	.1224	-.1347	.1816	.2198*	-.0459
SUPERIOR	.0941	-.2801**	.0730	.0501	-.0692
AGE	-.1802	-.1013	.0594	.1011	-.1299
GENDER	-.2141*	-.1364	.1761	.1956	-.2588*

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 152 2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" . " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

APPENDIX E-7

Correlations:	LONELY	IDDIFFUS	BORDRLN	NARCISM	SUPERIOR
IZ	.3522**	.3069**	.5995**	.0997	.0946
GOALINST	.4867**	.5551**	.5806**	.0665	.0737
PRIMIZ	-.1890*	-.0590	-.1015	.0216	-.0065
ROMIZ	-.0141	.0902	.1534	.1876*	.1650
LIMIZ	.0752	.0244	.2094*	-.0992	.0424
FENYIZ	-.2131*	-.1406	-.0106	-.0898	.0621
POSPERC	-.3214**	-.2765**	-.3687**	-.2066*	.0036
MANIA	.1342	.1772	.4413**	.1395	.1471
EROS	-.2719**	-.2366**	-.1116	-.1152	.0527
AGAPE	-.1647	-.0506	.0148	-.1561	-.0135
PRAGMA	.0308	-.0814	.0598	.1454	.2077*
STORGE	-.0679	-.0379	-.0689	-.0707	.0602
LUDUS	.0900	.1530	.1345	.2480**	.2601**
DESPERAT	.0017	.0476	.2303**	-.0422	.1743
PASSION	-.0962	-.0430	.1590	-.0882	.0448
SECURE	-.4981**	-.3232**	-.2826**	-.1216	.1083
AVOIDNT	.3617**	.3521**	.1844*	.1077	-.0119
ANXAMB	.3752**	.2976**	.4248**	.1790	.0268
EMDEPEND	.3097**	.2510**	.4778**	.1313	.1556
OBSPREOC	.1322	.1359	.3041**	.0779	.1316
SCANX	.4161**	.4552**	.4062**	.0681	-.0218
CLOSE	-.5403**	-.3896**	-.2767**	-.0950	.1207
DEPEND	-.6041**	-.4021**	-.3782**	-.2086*	-.0483
ANXIETY	.3779**	.2767**	.5132**	.1543	.0754
ERELIANC	.2837**	.2760**	.4943**	.1224	.0941
LACKSSC	.4638**	.5513**	.4254**	-.1347	-.2801**
HAUTONMY	.1494	.0442	-.1419	.1816	.0730
PRFAUT	.2432*	.0478	-.0510	.2198*	.0501
PRFSUC	-.2153*	-.1169	.0879	-.0459	-.0692
LONELY	1.0000**	.4857**	.5473**	.1805	-.0462
IDDIFFUS	.4857**	1.0000**	.5132**	.0281	-.1586
BORDRLN	.5473**	.5132**	1.0000**	.2296**	.0388
NARCISM	.1805	.0281	.2296**	1.0000**	.4283**
SUPERIOR	-.0462	-.1586	.0388	.4283**	1.0000**
AGE	-.1021	-.0735	-.1338	.0289	-.0588
GENDER	.0054	-.0077	-.0723	.2480**	.2451**

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 153 2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" . " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

APPENDIX E-8

Correlations:	AGE	GENDER
IZ	-.2833**	-.0447
GOALINST	-.1454	-.0635
PRIMIZ	-.0497	-.0654
ROMIZ	-.2140*	-.0437
LIMIZ	-.2891**	-.0601
FENYIZ	-.0811	-.0884
POSPERC	.0437	-.0123
MANIA	-.2468**	-.0884
EROS	-.0837	-.1415
AGAPE	-.1918*	.0268
PRAGMA	.0026	-.1861*
STORGE	.0230	-.0569
LUDUS	.0980	.2426**
DESPERAT	-.1916*	-.0808
PASSION	-.1911*	-.1123
SECURE	.0687	.1386
AVOIDNT	.0576	-.0866
ANXAMB	-.0467	.0391
EMDEPEND	-.2189*	-.0160
OBSPREOC	-.3185**	-.1089
SCANX	-.1156	.0169
CLOSE	.0590	.1169
DEPEND	.0582	-.0220
ANXIETY	-.1678	-.1419
ERELIANC	-.1802	-.2141*
LACKSSC	-.1013	-.1364
HAUTONMY	.0594	.1761
PRFAUT	.1011	.1956
PRFSUC	-.1299	-.2588*
LONELY	-.1021	.0054
IDDIFFUS	-.0735	-.0077
BORDRLN	-.1338	-.0723
NARCISM	.0289	.2480**
SUPERIOR	-.0588	.2451**
AGE	1.0000**	.1249
GENDER	.1249	1.0000**

Minimum pairwise N of cases: 157 2-tailed Signif: * - .01 ** - .001

" . " is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

vita

Vita

Nancy Rogers Hague was born in DeLand, Florida on January 24, 1957. She enrolled at Stetson University in 1974 and received the degree of Bachelor of Arts in May, 1978. At Stetson, she majored in psychology and minored in sociology. From July 1978 through July 1979, she worked for the Social Security Administration in Birmingham, Alabama. From July, 1979 to September 1987, she lived in Atlanta, Georgia and worked for the United States Department of Agriculture. In September 1987, she began graduate work in Clinical Psychology at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She completed a one year pre-doctoral internship at the Vanderbilt-Veterans Affairs Internship Consortium in August, 1994. She received a Doctor of Philosophy degree in December, 1994.