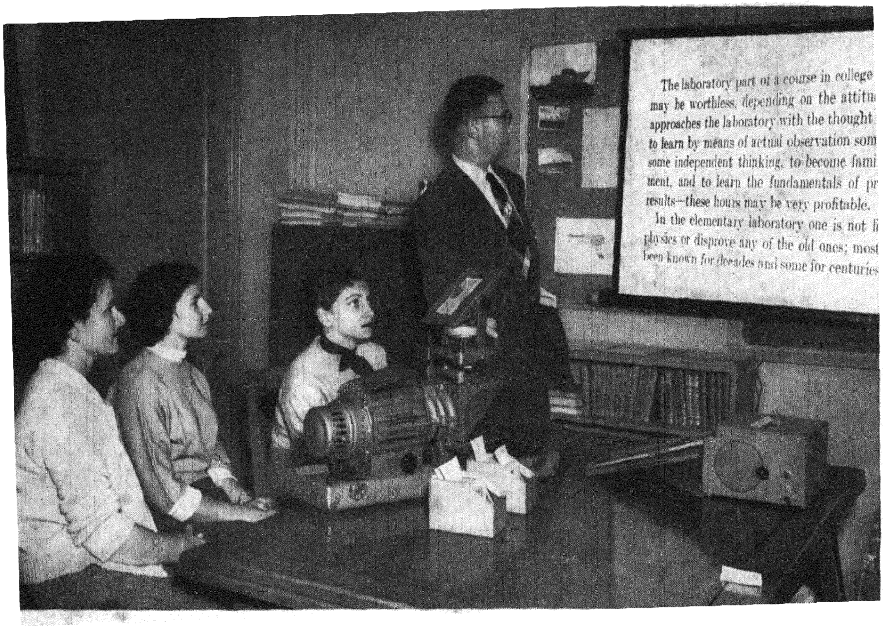
UNIVERSAL
LIBRARY

OU_158017

UNIVERSAL
LIBRARY

PSYCHOLOGY



Psychologist conducts clinic to improve reading facility. Phrases are flashed on a screen by a flash meter (tachistoscope) at intervals timed to increase eye span and perception speed. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College, New York.)

PSYCHOLOGY

WILLIAM J. PITT, Ed.D., *Assistant Professor, Department of Personnel Service, Brooklyn College*

JACOB A. GOLDBERG, Ph.D., *Director, Social Hygiene Division, New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, Inc. Lecturer, New York University College of Medicine (Graduate Division)*

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.
1954 New York Toronto London

PSYCHOLOGY

Copyright, 1954, by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. Printed in the United States of America. All rights reserved. This book, or parts thereof, may not be reproduced in any form without permission of the publishers. Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 53–12871

PREFACE

Psychology is a dynamic science, ever on the move. New concepts are continually being evolved as a direct outcome of research and experimentation and the application of specific principles growing out of these sustained endeavors by many well-trained scientists.

In this text our plan has been to make it possible for young men and women studying psychology for the first, and perhaps only, time to become familiar with the basic psychological truths so that they can apply them to their own experiences now and in the future. Extensive discussion of methods of research has been avoided, and no attempt has been made to delve deeply into personal maladjustments, or to deal with abnormal psychology to any extent.

Much that is ordinarily incorporated in traditional courses in general psychology has been deliberately omitted. It is assumed that many students need an overall description of what the field of psychology covers and how its principles can be practically applied in their own lives. A major objective of the authors is to focus the teachings of social, applied, and educational psychology on the personal problems, as well as community forces, faced by young people so as to provide guidance in dealing with life situations.

The authors extend their sincere thanks to many colleagues at Brooklyn College who used this text in tentative form for two years. Their suggestions have been of considerable help in the preparation of the final text.

W. J. PITT
J. A. GOLDBERG

CONTENTS

	Preface	**v**
PART 1	**Psychology of the Individual**	**1**
	1. Nature and Scope of Psychology	3
	2. Fundamentals of Behavior	20
	3. Individual Differences and Intelligent Behavior	43
	4. Learning and Study Techniques	77
PART 2	**Personality and Family Relationships**	**97**
	5. Development of Personality	99
	6. Personality Conflicts	120
	7. Parents and Siblings	136
	8. Problem Homes	153
	9. Courtship and Marriage	169
PART 3	**College Career and Vocational Guidance**	**191**
	10. Personal Adjustment	193
	11. Interpersonal Relations	213
	12. Preparation for Work	235
	13. Career Selection	254
PART 4	**Community and Social Adjustment**	**275**
	14. Scapegoat and Stereotype	277
	15. Prejudice and Discrimination	295
	16. Propaganda and Mass Psychology	315
	17. Cooperation and Competition	335
	18. Integration of Personality	354
	Audio-visual Aids	**379**
	Index	**389**

PART 1

Psychology of the Individual

"Applying psychology" has come to be a fad in our culture, especially among college students. But in these applications many use half-truths and poorly understood psychological jargon; few of the fundamental teachings of psychology are brought to bear. Proper use of the results of research in so complicated a subject demands a thorough knowledge of its essentials. Given this essential familiarity with the subject, careful study is required as a basis for selecting the pertinent material.

In this book, accepted scientific facts are selected as they bear upon normal persons in everyday situations. Our readers are presumed to be average college youth. Much of the material known to them as psychology has an orientation toward the problem person—the maladjusted and the abnormal. Actually, all of us are problems to ourselves, and sometimes to others. A background of general psychology can be of considerable help in affording a basic understanding of varied phases of normal behavior.

An evaluation of a vast amount of information is required if we are to be able to use our knowledge of general psychology to enhance personality growth, to develop harmonious home, family, and work relationships. It is likewise essential to define the field covered by psy-

chology and to become acquainted with the concepts that preceded its recognition as a special field of research and study.

Classic ideas of psychology in many cases showed great insight, but modern scientists are doubtful about the validity of opinion and are primarily concerned with objective evidence. Such objectivity implies, among other things, the need to study the interacting forces of heredity and environment, for in them are found the common elements of human acts, as well as the bases of their differences.

These common ways of behavior establish man as a human animal, but the peculiarities of individuals are equally, if not more, important to the understanding of man. To comprehend what gives a human being the emotionally charged, unique character that differentiates him from all others, as well as how he acts in comparison with his fellows, requires scrutiny of the methods of measurement of him as a person. This leads to a consideration of how intelligently he behaves and, more fundamentally, to the determination of what is intelligence and what is intelligent behavior.

Part of man's so-called intelligence is his ability to learn. This quality is one of the most essential of man's attributes in his struggle to survive and improve his lot in life. The ways in which man learns, the techniques of improving the learning process, are vital to success.

CHAPTER 1

NATURE AND SCOPE OF PSYCHOLOGY

A knowledge of psychology has come to be considered as of both academic and practical value. Psychology is a useful field of study, for its principles and methods apply in medicine, dentistry, law, business, social work, international affairs, and other areas of human endeavor. Management engineers, for instance, employ the principles of psychology in numerous ways to help solve personality and related problems that arise in commercial and industrial establishments. Through the application of available psychological techniques it has been possible to build up American leadership in production. Similarly, greater understanding of individual workers and their problems of adjustment has arisen from the application of psychological measures.

The widespread interest in psychology and its use in numerous fields have brought about many misapprehensions. Its nature and use are most often misunderstood by persons seeking an easy solution to life's problems. Such hopes are an outgrowth of man's success in applying scientific methods to problems posed by concrete things—in matters like the production of atomic energy, the development of antibiotics for the conquest of disease, the development of synthetic fibers as substitutes for cotton, wool, and silk. Owing to these miraclelike accomplishments of science, much wishful thinking enters into popular ideas about the application of psychological methods to human situations. First and foremost it is essential to realize that psychology has no magic method to solve personal or family difficulties. But it does help in self-understanding and in appreciation of others.

DEFINITION OF PSYCHOLOGY

Psychology covers a wide range of human knowledge and it has been variously defined to emphasize specific areas of interest. It has been defined as the science or study of: consciousness; human behavior; human activity and conduct; conscious life, including its themes, facts, and hypotheses; individuals in relation to others; adjustments of the human organism to the stimuli which impinge upon it; the responses which living individuals make to their environment; human nature or human activity in general.

For the purposes of this text, psychology is defined as the science that studies the human organism as influenced by heredity and the dynamic forces of experience and environment.

SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDE APPLIED TO PSYCHOLOGY

Although psychologists differ in their definitions and interpretations of the application of psychology, there is universal agreement that it is a science. By this term is meant a system of knowledge developed from the observation of facts.

Students of psychology have assumed the responsibility of observing and reporting situations, experiences, and other phenomena ordinarily defined as facts in the everyday lives of people. Some psychologists assume that continued scientific study of human behavior will improve the behavior of mankind. In order to achieve the approach of the true scientist, one must attempt to eliminate one's own prejudice and bias. Acquiring the capacity for objective consideration of facts develops the scientific attitude.

Scientists are careful to keep their emotions and desires from affecting the results of experiments. This attitude is indispensable to the methods of science that have been so successful in chemistry, physics, geology, and the other physical sciences. In these, many substances and objects are studied in the laboratory under controlled conditions. The observation and reporting of laboratory experiments in other sciences are also used by psychologists in their experimentation with animals and humans. New students of psychology must acquire the scientific attitude even though their observations may be limited to their own or other persons' behavior. It is not simple to eliminate subjectivity when the object of study is oneself. However, the serious student strives to consider the facts as they are—not as he would like them to be.

Obviously, the reason why objectivity should replace subjectivity, or per-

THE GALLUP POLL

514-K
4-17-53

SPONSORED BY LEADING REPUBLICAN, DEMOCRATIC AND INDEPENDENT NEWSPAPERS

SUGGESTED INTRODUCTION: I'm taking a GALLUP POLL. I'd like YOUR opinion on a few leading topics of the day.

Here's the first question I want to ask you

1 In general, which do you think is better off, financially, today — the man who lives in the city or the man who lives on the farm?
☐ Man in city ☐ Man on farm ☐ No Opinion

2a. Do you approve or disapprove of the way Eisenhower is handling his job as President?
☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No Opinion

b Why do you feel that way? . ...
. . ..

3a Have you ever heard or read anything about the use of fluoride in city water to help prevent tooth decay?
☐ Yes ☐ No

IF YES, ask:

b Does your community use fluoride in its water supply?
☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know

ASK EVERYONE:

c Would you favor or oppose a plan for putting fluoride in the water supplied to this community?
☐ Favor ☐ Oppose ☐ No Opinion
☐ Qualified

4a Which did your family buy last—butter or oleomargarine?
☐ Butter ☐ Oleo ☐ Both ☐ Don't know

IF OLEO, ask:

b At what price would butter have to sell in order for you (your family) to buy it regularly? cents a lb

5a Do you think the United States will find itself in another world war within, say the next year?
☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Opinion

IF "NO" OR "NO OPINION", ask:

b How about within the next five years?
☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ No Opinion

Now, here's an entirely different kind of question

6 When an engaged couple break off their engagement, which of these three things do you think should be done about the engagement ring?
☐ 1. The girl should keep the ring.
☐ 2. She should return the ring to the man
☐ 3 She should keep the ring if the engagement was broken by the man.
☐ 4 No Opinion

COMMENT

7 It has been suggested that the U S should now give less economic and military aid to Western European countries and give more aid to our allies in Asia Would you approve or disapprove of this?
☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No Opinion
☐ Qualified

8a In recent weeks Russia and Communist China have been talking about ways to settle differences with the U S and its allies What do you think is the reason for this change in attitude? .. ..
. . . .

b Do you think Russia is sincere in wanting to settle differences, or not?
☐ Yes, sincere ☐ No ☐ No Opinion

9a. Do you think the United Nations should try to work out a peace settlement with the Communists in Korea now, or should we continue fighting?
☐ Work settlement ☐ Continue fight ☐ No Opinion

IF WORK OUT SETTLEMENT, ask:

b To work out a peace settlement, would you approve or disapprove of the United Nations giving in on some of their demands if the Communists also give in on some of theirs?
☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No Opinion
☐ Qualified .. - - - - .... - - - .

10a Would you approve or disapprove of a peace settlement in Korea at the line where the fighting is going on now?
☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No Opinion

b. Taking everything into account, which side—the United Nations or the Communists—do you think will have come off best if the Korean war ends with Korea divided about where the fighting is going on now?
☐ U. N. ☐ Communists ☐ Neither ☐ No Opinion

11a At present there are about 3½ million men in our Armed Forces, both in the U S and overseas If a truce is reached in Korea, do you think we should cut down the size of our Armed Forces, or not?
☐ Should ☐ Should not ☐ No Opinion
☐ Qualified

IF SHOULD, ask:

b How soon? . .. .
(Get answer in terms of weeks, months, or years)

ASK EVERYONE:

c If the Korean war is settled soon, do you think there is or is not much chance of a serious business depression in this country within, say, THE NEXT YEAR?
☐ Is chance ☐ Is not ☐ No Opinion

12a If other nations, including Russia, agree to cut down their spending for armaments (guns, ships and planes), would you approve or disapprove of the United States also cutting down to the same extent the amount it spends for armaments?
☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No Opinion

b If defense spending can safely be cut, would you favor or oppose having the United States, along with other nations, use part of the money they would save to help the needy countries of the world?
☐ Favor ☐ Oppose ☐ No Opinion
☐ Qualified ... - - - - - - - - - .....

13 Would you favor or oppose a plan for the international control of atomic energy (atom bombs) which would allow the U N to inspect atomic plants in all member countries, including Russia and the United States?
☐ Favor ☐ Oppose ☐ No Opinion
☐ Qualified

Now here's another interesting and different kind of question

14a Have you ever heard or read about "test-tube babies" (artificial insemination)?
☐ Yes ☐ No

IF YES, ask:

b For people who can't have children, would you approve or disapprove of their having test tube babies?
☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No Opinion
☐ Qualified

15 Would you favor or oppose a law requiring all members of the Communist party in this country to register (file their names) with the Justice Department in Washington?
☐ Favor ☐ Oppose ☐ No Opinion

(OVER)

Gallup poll form actually used April to May, 1953. This well-known device of scientific sampling, the preference poll, is used to discover the likes and dislikes of or in predicting action to be taken by masses of people in a democracy. The above questions and others in such psychological testing devices, as well as the sample of the population queried, are carefully selected to ensure reasonable accuracy. (Courtesy of American Institute of Public Opinion.)

sonal opinion, is that the former is more dependable. Scientific hypotheses, or assumptions, are subject to all kinds of laboratory and statistical testing methods. The reported findings, when published, are available for analysis by other psychologists. Thus an original hypothesis postulated by a psychologist can be confirmed or rejected as acceptable theory after repeated tests designed to eliminate personal error.

Considerable laboratory equipment and numerous mathematical processes are utilized in psychological research. Sometimes it is impossible to count all the factors in a psychological project. Then a mathematical method may be used, such as factor analysis or sampling. These techniques permit tentative conclusions to be drawn, subject to the known percentage of error that is inherent in methods of estimation. The mathematics used to determine these conclusions and the standard errors are very involved, but substantially accurate conclusions can be formed. An example of this is the scientific sampling of the preference poll used in ascertaining the likes and dislikes of people. For example, a poll of voters' preferences can predict the result of a future election with a fair degree of accuracy through mathematical estimates, based on correctly distributed sample questions. A scientist cannot foretell the future, but he can deduce how people may act by estimations based on past acts. Such deductions are used in customer-preference studies and in rating scales of the interests of people. Methods involving the reasoning process are acceptable when pure objectivity is impossible; a case in point is the combining of objective psychological tests with the subjective judgment of personnel experts in the field of employee selection.

COMMON SENSE AND PSYCHOLOGY

Common sense is largely the result of centuries of experience on the part of society in dealing with practical situations. It is sometimes defined as good judgment and is the basis of many interpersonal relations. Common-sense determinations are usually passed on from generation to generation in the form of generally accepted sayings, or maxims, about the causes of successful or unsuccessful human behavior. These sayings are sometimes accepted as guides in dealing with individual problems. Individuals are apt to take refuge in sayings that seem to fit a particular set of facts or ways of acting or to offer a solution for difficulties. For instance, successful businessmen may counsel young people on how to achieve success by following common-sense methods without, at the same time, testing their advice to see if their suggestions are basically sound.

Common sense is useful in all areas of experience, but it cannot take the place of technically deduced scientific knowledge in any field.

Frequently, common sense is relied upon in interpersonal relations when scientific evidence or knowledge would indicate the wisdom of a different approach. Nevertheless, students of psychology should not disregard the experience of years as expressed in the application of common sense.

Common sense attempts to discover the causes of human behavior without the utilization of data or tests employed by scientists. In practice, psychology starts in the same way, by guessing at what seems to be a logical explanation of a problem. Hypotheses so formulated are subsequently, through experimental methods, either established as facts or discarded as errors. Sometimes it is not possible to reach an accurate and final conclusion. Then further laboratory tests must be set up with the aim of determining the truth or falsity of the initial guess, or tentative assumption. Common sense accepts human experience as a true guide, while psychology studies experience to eliminate subjective interpretations.

DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN PSYCHOLOGY

Scientists form hypotheses, which are assumptions without proof. When and if they are proven to the satisfaction of a substantial number of other psychologists they are known as theories in scientific usage. Present-day psychologists have built upon their predecessors' efforts to create, first, hypotheses and, then, theories of psychology.

Many psychologists are eclectics. That means they choose or accept parts of the various theories of different psychologists without fully subscribing to any one set of theories or school of psychology. There is so much yet to be discovered that most psychologists accept few, if any, theories as absolute truths. This implies the need for continuing research and of the questioning spirit in both instructors and students.

A problem of modern education and psychology is a tendency of students to seek information that is utilitarian without sufficient knowledge of the background upon which such information is based. This tendency is noted in the drives of people to obtain psychological facts that are readily applicable to their own problems or those with whom they are closely associated.

The tendency to seek sound scientific facts is sensible. However, it can be more effective if the inquiring student acquires some understanding of the background from which the facts were gathered. In this connection, mod-

ern psychology can be more effectively comprehended if the student learns something about the various psychological groups and their creative thinkers who did the pioneering work in making psychology a science. In the creation of modern psychology many different schools of thought participated. A few of these and some of their concepts of psychology are mentioned below.

Faculty. The theory of the faculties preceded structuralism but has largely been disproved by more recent research in experimental psychology. According to this theory the mind was all-important. It was divided into various powers or agencies, known as faculties. Each of these controlled a portion of the organism's activities and personality. Some of the faculties were those of will, memory, perception, reason, and instinct. It was believed that through the understanding of action and interaction of these and other faculties all mental phenomena could be explained.

Structuralism. This theory held that laboratory study of the complex processes of the brain is of prime importance. It differs from the present approach in psychology in that the function of nerve cells, emotions, ideas, and environment were not included because they were not subject to proper laboratory controls. Structuralism strove to explain the most complex and baffling of brain activities in terms of processes which presumably control the entire personality.

This outdated theory is still influential in the more conservative educational circles. The most conservative of educators cite structuralism because of its stress upon mental capacity, and so defend their adherence to emphasis on training of the mind. The process of mind training presumes that the brain is improved by drill in subjects such as mathematics, Latin, and other difficult courses. The concept that the mind can be disciplined and trained through learning difficult material has been disproved by psychological laboratory experimentation.

Edward B. Titchener (1867–1927), who was born in England, studied in Germany, and did most of his work in the United States, developed much of the theory of structuralism.

Functionalism sprang from structuralism through the work of a president of Yale University, James R. Angell (1869–1949). The functionalists expanded the earlier work of psychologists at the start of the twentieth century, by studying biological functions. Angell reported that pleasure increased and pain decreased the vitality of the organism. Such findings have since been confirmed in areas wider than Angell's laboratory, namely, in industry. The functionalist theorizes beyond man's acts to study his

goals and objectives, uses wide application of psychology, and generally stresses the use of statistical methods. Functionalism is widely applied in education and seeks uses of psychology to improve the individual and society. The functionalist position urges the importance of the motives, desires, wants, ambitions, cravings, and aspirations of the organism; stresses the use of mathematics in psychology; questions the necessity of inquiry into each particular stimulation of an individual in order to find out the precise reason for each of man's acts.

Behaviorism, like functionalism, seeks to promote a wide application of psychology for the good of mankind; but it stresses biology rather than mathematics and tries to discover the particular cause of each human act. Behaviorism holds that by systematic observation and experimentation, generalizations and principles relating to man's behavior can be learned. The word behaviorism is applied to this school because it places greater stress on human behavior than on the processes of the mind. Whatever can be measured in chemical, physical, or mathematical terms, if it has to do with the way we act as human beings, is a proper subject of study for the behaviorist.

Basically, the behaviorist school seeks ways to predict control and thus improve human conduct. John B. Watson (1878–), the originator of this theory, holds that the study of any phase of animal behavior—from birds to Australian natives—involves the study of the entire social situation as well as of the organism itself. By such scrutiny of the organism and the environment, the psychologist can learn the best methods of adjustment of the individual to his environment. This information can be used by the psychologist to assist the educator, physician, lawyer, jurist, and businessman. In fact, all manner of applications of psychology should be made to improve the behavior of man. As might be expected, the school of behaviorism has many supporters, particularly among those who specialize in applied psychology.

Gestalt, or Configurationalism, has a broad outlook in its doctrine of forms, or configurations. This group considers all phenomena to be a collection of differing *wholes,* or *gestalts.* Each of these consists of many parts, but the total whole as it affects one person may differ greatly from the whole as it affects another person. For example, the senses perceive an image, that is, the senses take in what is seen or heard. The body reacts as a whole to this perception, but not as to a mere stimulation that causes a certain fairly predictable response. However, the gestaltists assume that certain patterns, or figures, result from each seemingly isolated act.

Specifically, the word dollar, taken in by the sense of hearing, does not evoke the same response in all. "Dollar" means different things to the millionaire, the pauper, the debtor, the creditor, the adult, and the child. In other words, the gestalt, or pattern, differs in each case, although the stimulus, the sum of the physical, biological, and psychological perceptions, was the same in the simple act of hearing the word. Again, the idea of love differs widely. Its aim, meaning, and expression by the actor, missionary, mother, child, spinster, and lover are different because the total figure of love for each one of them differs. Many opposing forces change the over-all pattern of any simple word or act, according to gestalt psychology.

Gestaltists hold that occurrences of biological, physiological, as well as psychological nature are not the result of sensations, perceptions, and reflexes but of the action and interaction of the total unit that is involved. Gestaltists are impressed with the importance of the total environment. They stress a plus-and-minus force of action toward or away from every act, such as a child's tendency to go toward or away from an object of curiosity. Much of this group's work has been carried out in experiments on learning, particularly with chimpanzees. The common experience of a sudden insight into or understanding of the whole of a previously obscure problem is held to be partial substantiation of the gestalt position. Those who follow this line of thinking go beyond the simple trial-and-error explanation of learning. Originally developed by Wertheimer, Koffka, and Kohler, this school of psychology has been expanded and developed in American psychological laboratories. It gives great promise of usefulness in studying the basis and technique of learning.

Psychoanalysis is concerned with the deep, underlying forces of behavior, more particularly those acts done without the conscious knowledge of the individual. Such acts are caused by the power of the subconscious. Psychoanalysis tries to unravel the constant struggles between the inner, or primitive, man and the outer, or civilized, one. The inner is the unconscious, while the outer is the conscious phase. The struggle to control the whole man determines behavior. Psychoanalysis adds to the experimental or mathematical approach of the laboratory by clinical studies of personality.

Psychoanalysts direct their attention to the total personality of the individual under consideration. They carry on virtually no animal experimentation, using many case histories of sick persons and few objective statistics in their techniques. This group employs test techniques used by psy-

chologists, notably personality tests, but it stresses the abnormal elements in personality. Freud, Jung, and Adler, pioneer psychoanalysts, were physicians whose primary discoveries grew out of professional work with emotionally upset patients. Their contributions to normal and abnormal personality studies have been of marked importance. They have opened up a previously untouched research area—the hidden inner self, or subconscious.

Psychoanalysis uses the same clinical approach to human behavior that medicine uses in diagnosing diseases such as cancer, heart disease, and ulcers. The psychoanalyst tries to study the sick mind's pattern of acts to determine how these patterns are engendered in human beings.

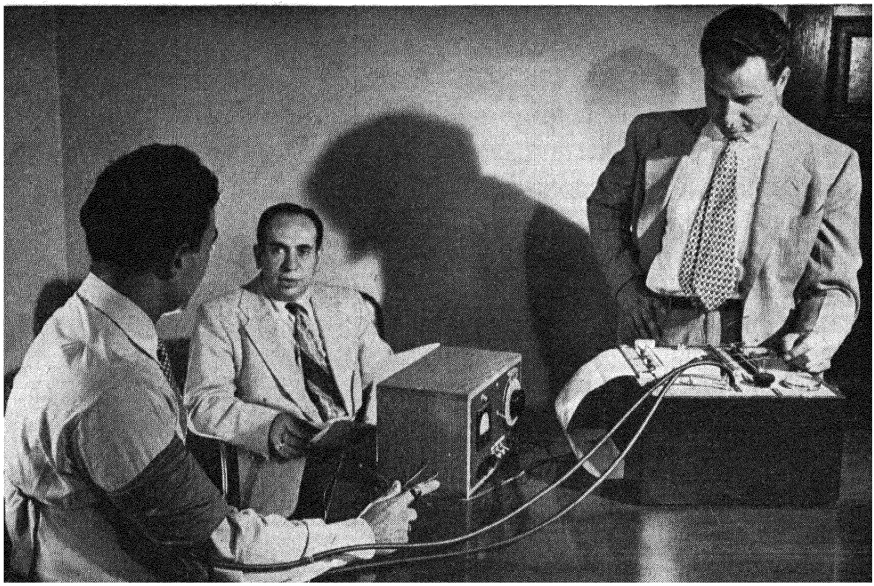
Although this is not a statistical approach, it is statistical in a sense since it provides a basis for mathematical deduction comparable to that arrived at through sampling in the well-known polls of public opinion.

In the United States psychoanalysis has largely become a technique of analysis of personalities. However, its founder, Freud, and his European followers, particularly, conceived of psychoanalysis as playing a part in many fields. Sociology, social work, education, art, and international relations are a few of the many areas in which the technique of expression of the unconscious could be used for human betterment.

RELATION OF PSYCHOLOGY TO OTHER SCIENCES

In common with some of the natural sciences, such as biology, psychology studies what occurs in nature, as well as changes in energy, which are in the field of the physical sciences. Still, psychology as a social science goes beyond the state of nature because of its study of man's acts. It is explanatory and descriptive, as are biology, chemistry, and physics. But in its evaluation of intelligence, personality, suggestibility, psychology comes close to ethics, which is a part of philosophy.

There are distinct affiliations between psychology, physiology, and medicine. Physiology studies the functions of organs during life. Psychology is similarly concerned with this area, so there is some overlapping. For example, the experiments of Ivan P. Pavlov (1849–1936), the Russian physiologist, established the conditioned-reflex theory, which is the basis of much psychological teaching in the field of learning. The mechanisms and performance of the organs fall also in the field of physiology, while the total result, that is, the behavior of the whole person, is part of the subject matter of psychology. Chemical action of the glands, including their interconnections with other systems of the organism, are physiology



Lie detector used as testing device in assisting veterans in psychological clinic functioning under psychiatrists, indicating relationship of psychology with medicine and physics. (Courtesy of U.S. Veterans Administration, Brooklyn Regional Office, and Kingsbridge Hospital.)

areas, but the results of glandular action, in terms of rational or irrational acts, are in psychology's domain.

These and other differentiations apply to medicine and psychology alike. Psychology can play an important part in medicine. For instance, "bedside manner" is a term used to describe a physician's use of psychological technique in the approach to and handling of patients. Environmental influence, habits, emotional stability or instability, and emotional overflow of patients are other psychological factors that are taken into consideration by physicians.

With the increased recognition of the close relationship between psychology and psychiatry, it has been estimated that a large percentage of illnesses are psychosomatic in origin, that is, without organic causes. These sicknesses are called functional and are psychological problems. Many of these ailments do not require purely medical or surgical treatment. Much clinical research in abnormal personalities, for instance, is carried on by psychiatrists. Personality and projective tests are used by psychologists and psychiatrists. Both use standard research methods in

studies of motivation, drugs, learning, habit formation, and retention and transfer of emotions.

While close ties exist between psychology, on the one hand, and biology, physics, chemistry, philosophy, and medicine on the other, there are, nevertheless, distinct differences. Psychology is not primarily concerned with the ills of the body, for that is the province of medicine; of the spirit, for that falls in the realm of philosophy; of masses of people, as that properly belongs to sociology; of natural changes, which are encompassed under chemistry; or of the forces of energy, which are classified as belonging in the field of physics. Psychology partakes of some of all these areas of human learning, in order to be able to study the whole person in his total environment.

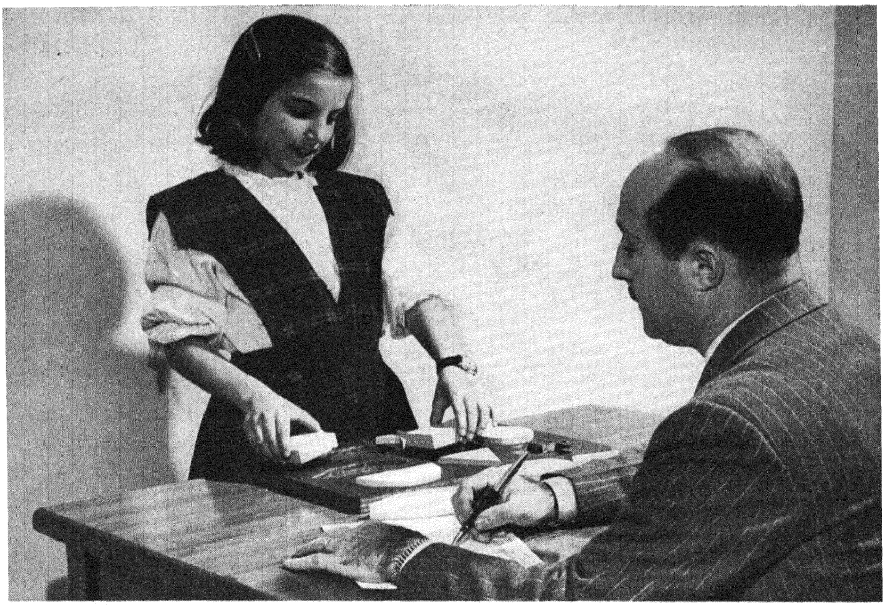
The outline of the various specialized branches of psychology indicates the many ways in which this science assists people. Personal adjustment in home, school, and community is aided by understanding some of the facts of psychology (see page 16).

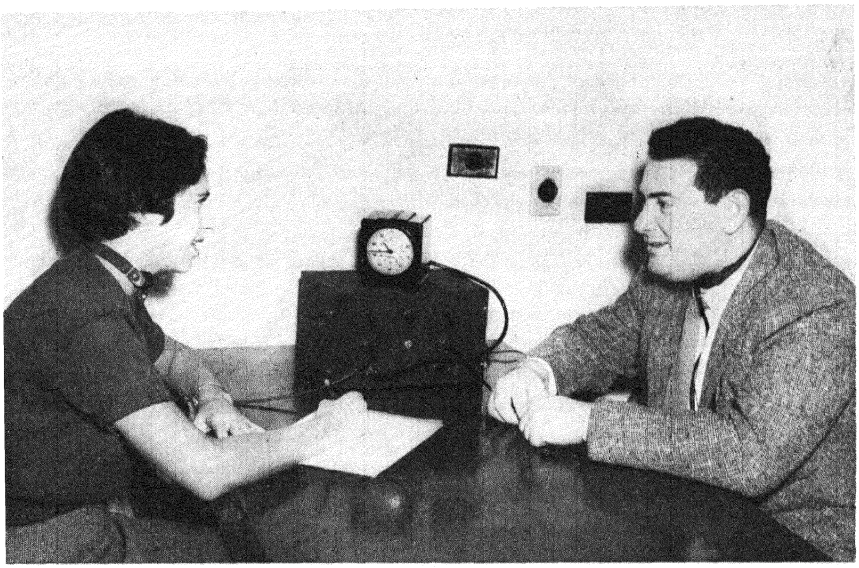
PSYCHOLOGY, PSYCHIATRY, AND PSYCHOANALYSIS

Fundamentally, psychology, as a science and field of study, seeks truth about human behavior, reports thereon, and studies consequential relations of man to his environment. A substantial part of the work of psychology is in the field of education and business. In professional training few, if any, psychologists seek the medical doctor's degree.

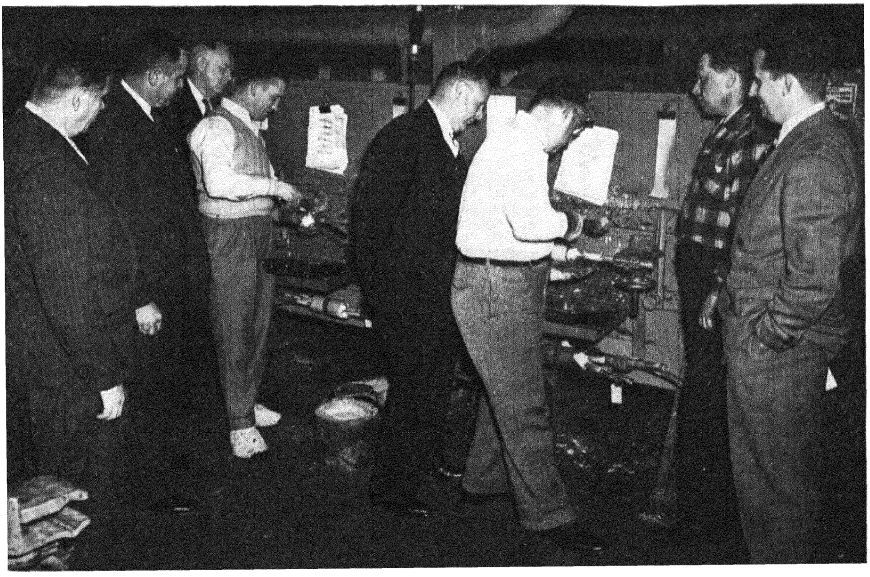
Psychiatry, on the other hand, is a medical specialty, devoted to the study, diagnosis, and medical and surgical treatment of the mentally ill. Psychiatrists are always physicians, with post-graduate training and experience in treating patients with disturbed personalities. They use medical measures which psychologists may not legally use, such as drugs; physical therapy, including various kinds of baths; and surgery on the brain in selected cases. In addition, they may use psychotherapeutic measures having their basis in psychology and psychoanalysis, which psychologists and psychoanalysts also use.

Psychoanalysis is a method of treating those who suffer from personality difficulties such as hysteria, compulsion neuroses, etc. Its practitioners, most of whom are physicians and psychiatrists, include also some psychologists, who are called lay analysts. They generally use the techniques of free association. This permits the patient to bring his unconscious conflicts to the surface of consciousness, which may lead to his understanding and correcting his personality difficulties.





Some of the functions of psychologists. LEFT, ABOVE: Testing. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College.) LEFT, BELOW: Counseling. (Courtesy of Hillyer College, Hartford, Conn.) RIGHT, ABOVE: Laboratory research. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College.) RIGHT, BELOW: Job analysis. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)



SUBJECT MATTER OF PSYCHOLOGY

Title	*Subject Matter of Specialty*
Abnormal psychology	Deviations of the organism from the average; irregular mental phenomena; exceptional and aberrant personality; techniques for the improvement of such deviations.
Analytic psychology	Analysis and classification of sensations, emotions, and other areas, including mental conditions, usually accomplished through introspective methods.
Animal psychology	Animal behavior in the laboratory; effect of experiments on the human animal; areas in which experimentation cannot be tried on humans, using as subjects rats, mice, monkeys, dogs, or other animals.
Applied psychology	An inclusive term, describing areas such as educational, vocational, clinical, and industrial uses of psychological discoveries; individual adjustment to various practical situations; the elements of human experience that favorably affect people.
Clinical psychology	Techniques in the diagnosis and treatment of mentally and emotionally abnormal personalities to help them become adjusted.
Comparative psychology	A term used interchangeably with "animal psychology."
Differential psychology	Study of man as he differs from others, particularly in intelligence, aptitude, and other areas subject to testing.
Educational psychology	Applied psychology to improve the education of children and adults; slow and fast learners; testing; teaching methods; personal maladjustments affecting learning; leisure-time education; homogeneous grouping.
Existential psychology	The content of individual experience, apart from its biological or social utility.
Experimental psychology	A term defining a method and courses in college in psychology rather than specific subject matter; includes those parts of animal, comparative, genetic, physiological, and applied psychology that are studied in psychological laboratories; determination of facts through laboratory experimentation.
Genetic psychology	Tracing of the development of mind and behavior in the individual and in the race; observation of the conscious and unconscious behavior of experimental animals.
Industrial psychology	That part of applied psychology that utilizes psychological principles to improve efficiency, productivity, and social adjustment of workers; group phenomena, such as the interpersonal relationships of labor, management, stockholders and public.
Personnel psychology	That part of applied psychology through which normal persons are aided to become adjusted; counseling; group guidance.
Physiological psychology	Research in body functions; sense organs; nervous system; muscles; glands; mental processes and interrelations with parts of the body.
Social psychology	Group phenomena; field study of people in large and small groups; individual studied in social situations.

Problems arise when, as occasionally happens, psychologists undertake to apply psychological and psychoanalytical methods to those who are psychotic, or mentally ill. In a well-organized mental hygiene clinic or hospital that is established to help such patients, it is common practice for the psychiatrist to be assisted by a clinical psychologist in certain cases, just as he may be helped by the home investigations of a psychiatric social worker. In so assisting psychiatrists, psychologists relieve them to treat the more severe cases of mental illness.

PSEUDO PSYCHOLOGY

Professionally trained psychologists use scientific methods and adhere to the high standards of performance established by their professional organization, the American Psychological Association. Unfortunately, there are practitioners altogether lacking in such qualifications who either pretend to be psychologists or set themselves up as specialists in other fields which may be grouped under the heading of pseudo psychology. There is no valid basis for the claims of these so-called sciences and their exponents.

Among them are the following: *astrology,* which pretends to foretell the fate and acts of individuals and nations by interpreting the influence of the stars upon human affairs; *numerology,* which is based on interpretations of the influence of numbers on the lives of individuals; *palmistry,* which presumes to tell fortunes and judge character, aptitudes, and probabilities by the lines and marks in the palm of the hand; *phrenology,* which assumes that the study of the conformation of the skull makes it possible to define mental faculties and traits of character; *spiritualism,* which presumes to interpret so-called departed spirits' communications with mortals through physical phenomena such as rappings and tappings or through mediums' trances.

These are nonscientific methods which are used to confound the ignorant: to get them to pay for spurious advice, to induce them to buy various objects such as love charms, to spend money for useless and even harmful consultations. The exponents of these procedures are no more concerned with the welfare of those who seek their help than they are scientific in their techniques.

SUMMARY

Psychology in all its ramifications covers a broad field of human interest and potential service to mankind. This is true of its laboratory as well as its applied aspects. The possibility of aiding man by scientific study

of his behavior is well-nigh limitless. The increasing acceptance of psychology represents a cumulation of centuries of thought and much research.

The student beginning the study of psychology can learn to better understand himself, his family, and his classmates. However, he must discriminate between true scientists and pseudo psychologists. He likewise must recognize the limitations of common sense, and appreciate the responsibilities as well as the advantages that his newly acquired psychological knowledge brings to him.

In his study of psychology and its particular application to himself and his personal problems, the student will require a sound understanding of the unity as well as the divergences of psychology. The various schools of psychology, each presenting a different approach to the explanation of human behavior, require investigation. Basic to research in this and every other field is the scientific attitude. The elimination of prejudice and bias and the lessening of subjectivity are vital tasks of living which can be furthered by comprehension of the greater accuracy of objectivity in research and in one's own life. In a similar direction, the attainment of knowledge of psychology should not form the basis for pseudo-psychological exercises or amateur attempts at psychoanalysis. A sound basis for mental health can be achieved by careful study of psychology and due appreciation of its potentialities as well as its limitations.

Similarly, there is need to understand the interrelationship of psychology and the other sciences. Psychology is fundamentally a search for truths and their applications to life. Such searching and application have had a long history. Many of the terms and facts that seem to be as new as psychoanalysis have antecedents in philosophies propounded by the Greeks two thousand years ago. A review of the history, theories, and subject-matter areas of psychology should give the student an understanding of the growth of psychology and of its varied uses in today's world and a healthy, scientific, skeptical attitude toward easy solutions to personality problems.

Finally, the student should approach a study of the basic facts of psychology with sound respect for past research and with serious intent to utilize pertinent information to improve his own adjustment. This affects him as a student who needs to develop a study technique; as a specialized worker, concerned about personality problems of employees; as a family member, alerted to his own contributions to familial harmony and disharmony; and finally, as a citizen, whose adjustment to his community influences it in countless ways. In all of these situations, wise application

of the facts of psychology offers a basis for living an intelligently planned life.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. List three contradictory pairs of common-sense sayings, for example, "Absence makes the heart grow fonder" and "Out of sight, out of mind."
2. What method would science use in trying to establish the truth or falsity of each of the six sayings listed?
3. Using the text material, study the differences between the various theories of psychology and summarize the differences as you interpret them.
4. Analyze (*a*) the similarities, (*b*) the differences between psychologist, psychiatrist, and psychoanalyst.
5. Using the definitions of psychology given in the text, show how the application of the facts of psychology is a matter for each individual.
6. Indicate the function of the various subdivisions of psychology and show how some of these subdivisions affect your daily life.
7. Sketch the history of psychology.
8. How can psychology be applied to assist you now and after graduation?

REFERENCES

Bentley, J. E., *General Psychology: Principles and Practice*, J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1947.

Blackburn, Julian, *Psychology and the Social Pattern*, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1950.

Dennis, Wayne, *Current Trends in Psychology*, University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, 1947.

Freud, Sigmund, *Dictionary of Psychoanalysis*, edited by N. Fodor and F. Gaynor, Philosophical Library, Inc., New York, 1950.

Munn, N. L., *Psychology, the Fundamentals of Human Adjustment*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1951.

Pronko, N. H., and J. W. Bowles, Jr., *Empirical Foundations of Psychology*, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

Roback, A. A., *History of American Psychology*, Library Publishers, Inc., New York, 1952.

Woodworth, R. S., and D. G. Marquis, *Psychology*, Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1947.

CHAPTER 2

FUNDAMENTALS OF BEHAVIOR

Psychology is concerned with an understanding of ourselves and others, and of behavior patterns. Through comprehending the influences exerted upon individuals it is possible to modify both individual and group conduct. Thus personal problems arising out of group living may be partially or even completely solved, to the benefit of all concerned.

Two factors are of prime importance in the growth and development of an individual. They are heredity and environment. Simply stated, heredity is the transmission of the physical and mental characteristics of parents to their children. The manifestations of heredity are never complete at birth, but are operative throughout life.

From the point of view of human behavior, environment may be subdivided into: the physical or inorganic environment, comprising such factors as climate and soil; the biological environment, involving plants and animals as well as bacteria and other groups of living things; the social environment, including everything due to human activity; and the psychosocial environment, made up of human behavior, customs, laws, language, etc.

The question has been endlessly argued as to which is more important in the psychological growth of an individual—heredity or environment. We are all the product of both, and any differences between individuals must be attributed to one of these two factors in human development. The question as to which has more bearing can be answered from a practical point of view in relation to some elements. For instance, the offspring of white

parents will always be white, of Negro parents always Negroes. The same rule applies to a few other physical characteristics. However, we cannot carry out mating experiments with humans as we can with laboratory or other animals. Nor can we fix the environment on a long-term basis for humans as is possible in an experimental laboratory for insects, birds, and animals of various kinds. Experience has shown that while environmental changes can affect personality, body structure and intelligence are not altered by them.

FACTS OF HEREDITY

In order to understand how a person can be influenced by heredity, it is essential to know certain biological facts. The life of a human being starts with the union of a male spermatozoon and a female ovum, or egg. Then the one cell becomes two, four, eight, and these keep on dividing until there are many millions of cells stemming directly from the initial fertilized ovum. Each living cell is composed of a mass with a dense center, or nucleus. Part of the first center keeps splitting until there are forty-eight centers, called chromosomes. They carry the hereditary factors, with twenty-four coming from the male and twenty-four from the female.

Although half of these chromosome transferral agents of heredity were in the mother's body before conception, or union of the male spermatozoon and the female ovum, her blood stream usually does not affect the baby before birth. The mother does not transmit her own strength, weakness, mental equipment, or fears to her unborn child. She can, however, affect the embryo by poor nourishment or the ingestion of harmful or poisonous substances, and possibly through syphilis and German measles during pregnancy.

The major developments from one generation to the next take place through the chromosomes. As germ cells, they do not carry any of the parents' experience to the child. Even though personality is not passed on from parents to a child, some inherited characteristics affect an individual after birth. They relate to metabolism, or the body's rate of food absorption, organic growth, and some factors in bodily development. It is interesting to note that the time of attaining sexual maturity and the development of masculine as well as feminine traits are controlled by the organization pattern of the cells. Heredity plays an important part in these phenomena.

Sex, color of skin, as well as of the eyes and hair, native intelligence, presence or absence of color blindness, muscular structure, development

of the nervous system, and, to some extent, certain specialized abilities such as inherent musical talent, are present at birth. In addition, the infant is born with a few instincts which are unlearned activities, such as the blinking, sneezing, and coughing necessary to take care of certain physiological tensions. But the habits, education, virtues, skills, and shortcomings of the parents are not transmitted to the newly born child.

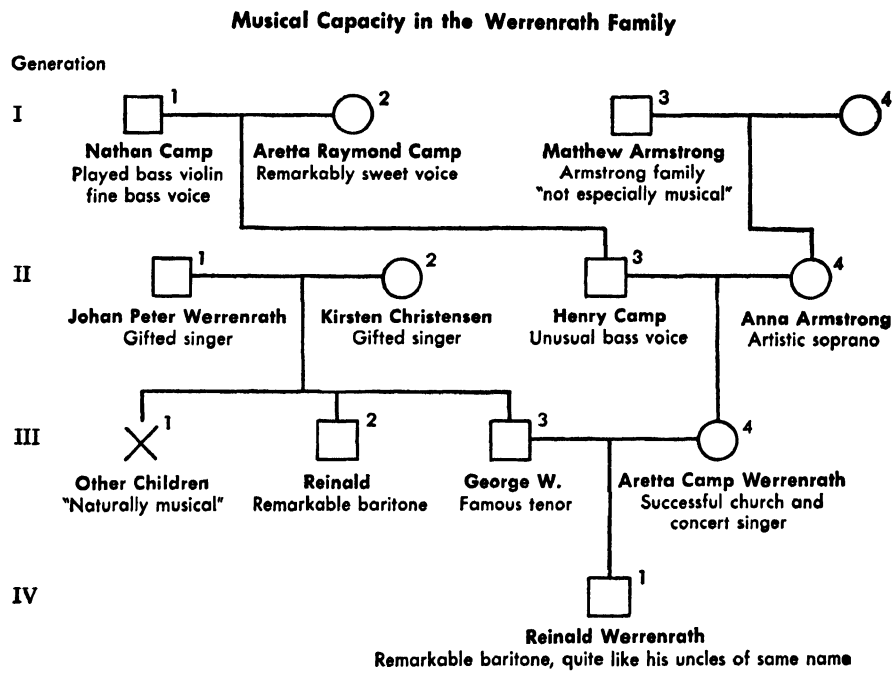
INTERRELATION OF HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

Environmental forces become vital after birth. Studies have been made of identical twins in order to discover the relative influence of heredity and environment. Such twins come from a single ovum or egg, and their heredity is therefore the same. When separated early in life, either through adoption into different homes following the death of one or both parents, or otherwise, such identical twins have shown a distinct difference in intelligence in adulthood. In addition, some difference in intelligence has appeared in the case of identical twins given similar educational opportunities but raised at a distance from each other.

Various studies have shown that intelligence as measured by psychological tests may be affected by environmental factors such as education. These researches indicate that children who live in rural areas and on farms, and those uncoached and with no experience in taking intelligence tests, achieve lower scores than those brought up in cities. Likewise, superior students and those specially coached and experienced in taking intelligence tests usually score higher than others.

The nervous system, including the brain, is changed but little by favorable environmental factors such as adequate training, good schooling, and secure economic status of the family. However, various traits of personality are modified by forces of environment. Many skills and talents fall into this category. For example, studies of great musicians' families indicate that some superior talent is inborn but may lie fallow or become developed in a family of musicians, as indicated in the accompanying illustration. Practice, continued study, and hard work can result in the maximum development of such inborn talent. Similarly, outstanding athletes can achieve unusual performance with the exceptional physiques which they inherited. But competent coaching and practice which are a part of their environment can compensate somewhat for shorter stature. However, distinct limitations are determined by heredity, irrespective of environmental factors.

To point up the interrelation of heredity and environment, an "up"

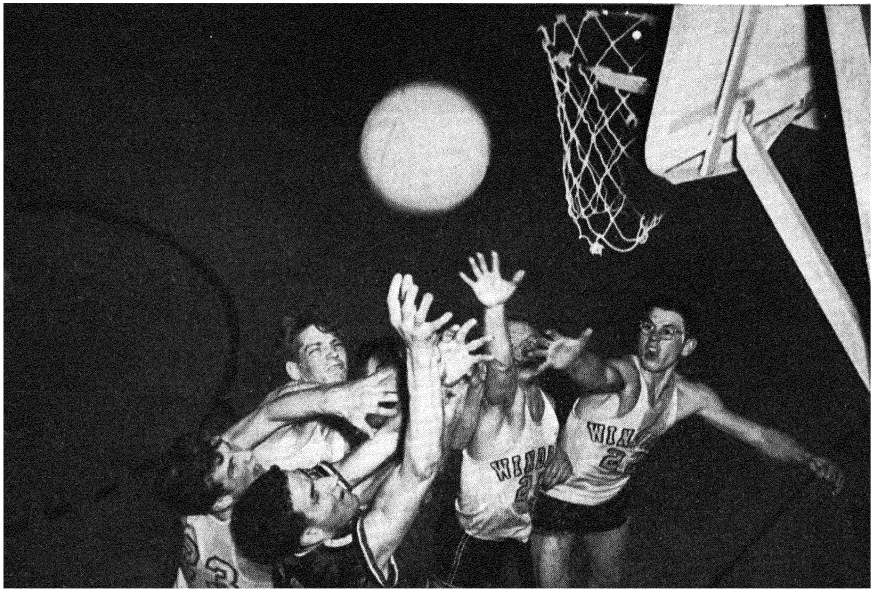


Musical ability in the Werrenrath family. (*Eugenical News*, Vol. 13, No. 11, November, 1928.)

escalator might be used as an analogy. A person gets on the moving stairway and is moved upward by electric power, which may be likened to the environment. But that power can move him only within the grooves of the stairway's frame, which may be likened to heredity. The person can hasten his ascent from one floor to another by running up the moving stairs, but he can neither get off between floors nor progress in a horizontal direction from one end of a particular floor to the opposite end. He must go up in a vertical direction from floor to floor.

Parallel conclusions as to the relation between heredity and environment have been reported in studies of successful and famous individuals in various walks of life. The studies made in England by Galton and in this country by Cattell, Terman, Woodall, and Rainey give cause for sober consideration of some families' unrealistic hopes for their children's success.

Other studies report that the influence of environment on intelligence can be measured by changes in the intelligence quotient. If such modifications of the environment are substantial, begun at an early age, and maintained for a comparatively long time, then the average modification of the



Heredity gives those with a tall body advantages. However, the shorter players can compensate somewhat for the disadvantage of their heredity through training and experience, which are environmental factors. (Courtesy of *Scholastic Magazine.*)

IQ will be up seven points if the environment is substantially improved, or down seven points if it becomes significantly worse than the standard.

A major problem faced in a specific analysis of the influence of heredity and environment on intelligence is the lack of an adequate definition of intelligence that is acceptable to all psychologists. Another standard of comparison is the "average American home." As this is hard to define with any degree of accuracy, it may be that the influence of environmental change on intelligence has been overestimated in several studies of this kind.

Analyses of available data seem to indicate that for some types of job success, children from families with a record of scientific achievement have what may amount to a "head start." When the son of a businessman seeks to follow a professional career, he must often compete with the sons of scientists for professional jobs. These scientists more frequently stem from professional families than do the parents primarily interested in business. Studies of mentally superior children indicate that they had more than an average number of ancestors who achieved fame and success based on intellectual achievement.

In a selected group of very bright children (with IQ ratings found in less than one out of 200 children) extremely interesting backgrounds were found. These superior children had ancestors with the following records: six signers of the Declaration of Independence, two United States presidents, two vice-presidents, two Supreme Court justices, six well-known authors, two inventors, many outstanding community leaders. One child had thirty-four relatives named in the *National Cyclopaedia of American Biography* or in *Who's Who in America.* Unquestionably, these intellectually superior children had many environmental factors in their favor, as did numerous of their ancestors.

The prospect of achievement by those with superior intellectual ability and ancestors need not in the least dismay anyone not so endowed. Many with fine minds achieve little, if anything, worthwhile because of innate laziness, lack of character, or some negative attitude toward life. On the other hand, many who are not so brilliantly endowed do, by dint of hard work, self-sacrifice, and study, reach goals of personal success in professional or other careers readily comparable with those of the more fortunately equipped. Many factors contribute to success. Intellectual equipment, though important, is only one factor.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Many an individual, by using his mental capacity, can modify or change his environment; learning application to present work, changing his job, shifting his place of residence, and other means are open to him. There are, however, some environmental forces over which a person does not have control. For example, events that occurred in Korea and elsewhere in the past decade of the twentieth century changed the environment for many young Americans. These changes were at least equally important to American youth as environmental factors which they could individually control or modify.

The progress of civilization might well be measured by the increase in the number of environmental factors that a person can change today, compared with the possibilities open to his recent or more remote ancestors.

The influence of environmental factors on the total personality must be considered in order to appraise the behavior of an individual. A fairly complete knowledge of the heredity and social background may reveal a complicated pattern of negative factors which are responsible for a specific type of behavior, as in the case of a delinquent. Experienced and cautious psychologists avoid snap judgments on the basis of limited facts.

Their training in scientific methods requires them to reserve judgment in a specific situation until fairly complete data on heredity, environment, and social experiences are available. Further, they realize that each case involves complications requiring thorough study to make it possible to appraise the basic influences.

Many studies have indicated that children brought up in homes favored with economic security, happiness, and compatible parents tend to be well adjusted. Those raised in broken homes, with maladjusted parents and the further complication of economic stress, are liable to face emotional difficulties in school and in their social contacts.

The part played by money, prestige, and power in social and intellectual growth and development is learned by children from parents, schoolmates, and playmates. The youngsters' scale of values and behavior patterns are determined to a considerable degree by such interpretations. These factors are part and parcel of environmental pressures. Their influence, however, can be modified by parental attitudes, as well as the concepts of teachers, religious leaders, and other adults with whom children come into contact.

There are many environmental factors that influence an individual. Among these are place and quality of residence, number and sex of siblings, character of parents and other adults in the family circle, social contacts outside the home, education, social experiences, job, and economic circumstances.

MECHANISMS OF BEHAVIOR

The behavior of humans is basically grounded in their heredity and environment. It has already been indicated how the latter influences the hereditary factors and how environment by itself may advance or deter the development of an individual. A further step in understanding human behavior relates to combinations of mental processes and how they affect behavior. There are various concepts of the mechanics of behavior. One of these is the stimulus-response theory.

Stimulus-Response Theory. The ways in which man reacts to his environment are called, collectively, his behavior. Anything which causes a reaction, or change in the organism, is known as a stimulus. Phenomena as different as an itchy scalp, a careening auto, an examination are stimuli. A reaction to a stimulus is also known as a response. Simply stated, every stimulus results in a response. However, some stimuli may seem to get little, if any, response. For example, jeers from the bleachers ordinarily

have no observable effect on a baseball umpire; they do affect him, nevertheless.

The entire field of the environment influences the self through stimuli. The individual responds in the way unique to him. The manner in which a person responds to specific stimuli in turn changes his environment to some extent.

In addition to the stimulus-response theory, there is the gestalt principle, which holds that the human being acts as a unit. This is called a *gestalt*—meaning a figure or a form of action. This is a kind of miniature of the total environment. The large whole is called the *field,* inside which there may be a limited or smaller unit or "gestalts," such as a stimulus-response. The sum of all the smaller figures comprises the total environment.

By combining these two ideas of the stimulus-response and the gestalt, we arrive at the concept that the individual functions as a whole. He is a unit composed of many smaller units. As an individual gets older he inclines to certain ways of acting. These are influenced by goals which he establishes for himself. His goals are based on his value judgments. In turn, they are the result of a larger whole, such as college, community, work, and home influences. If this whole is analyzed further, the gestalt becomes the entire body of hereditary and environmental influences from which the individual and his family derived their goals and values.

An understanding of these concepts helps in studying the sense organs and their interrelation. The simple one-stimulus—one-response rarely happens. The human organism is equipped to handle many stimuli and many responses at the same time. Some organs may be in a state of responding to stimuli while other organs of the same human may be resting in an in-between stage of half activity. This is the "set" or the synthesis of getting ready for a new joining together of previously separated responses.

These stimuli and responses influence both the environment and the person in a continuing process during growth and subsequent physical decline.

Autonomic Nervous System. In addition to the senses, some glands and muscles receive stimuli which cause responses. Besides the central nervous system, which is made up of the brain and the spinal cord, the human body has an autonomic nervous system. It is relatively independent and is composed of a double chain of nerve centers and nerve fibers. It extends on both sides of the vertebral column from the base of the skull down to the end of the column. There are also some nerve centers in the thoracic,

abdominal, and pelvic cavities, as well as in the heart, the lining of the arteries, and the eye cavities.

The autonomic nervous system is connected with the cerebrospinal nervous system; it is relatively independent and is self-directing. By virtue of its action, respiration, circulation, digestion, and the glandular processes are carried on without directly involving the central nervous system. This means that the mind cannot control digestive or heart action, although various stimuli reaching the brain, such as a fright, a loud noise, bad news, may influence the flow ot gastric juice and the rate of heartbeat.

Nervous System. The functioning of the senses is organized by the central nervous system, the muscles, and the glands. Each sense organ receives stimuli by way of the cells, as well as combinations of specialized nerves and muscles, to perform the functions of feeling, seeing, hearing, etc. This summarized description is a marked simplification of the actual processes that take place in the exercise of each of our five senses.

The cells called receptors receive the stimuli; those nerves known as connectors transmit stimuli to and from the brain; the effector cells accomplish the response. These, together with the muscles which they cause to act, provide the mechanics of human behavior. They are directed by: the spinal cord, in which some simple automatic transmission takes place from stimulus to response without going to the brain for decision; the medulla, or the enlargement of the top end of the spinal cord, which transmits nerve impulses to the spinal cord and to the brain, and also transforms simple stimuli directly to responses; the cerebellum, or little brain (located below the cerebrum and on the dorsal, or under, side) to which the senses send their "stimuli messages" for decision and from which come the response orders for the muscles. It is here that the work of the receptor, connector, and effector neurons is coordinated and behavior is structured; the cerebrum, or large brain, where the job of coordination done by the cerebellum is performed at a higher level. The cerebrum controls mental functioning of superior level, language, and speech. The cerebellum controls coordination of the body, seeing, hearing, and touch.

GLANDS

Glands are organs which secrete fluids for other organs or eliminate waste. There are two kinds of glands, the simple or compound glands of external secretion and the endocrine, or ductless, glands. The former have ducts through which they deliver their secretions for the organs they serve. The ductless type secrets the chemicals directly into the blood stream.

The exact function of the glands is complex, obscure, and of great interest to research psychologists. Pavlov and Lashley indicated that habit has real effect on the glands of external secretion. There has been much study of—and many popular misconceptions about—the ductless glands' effect on emotional tone. Briefly stated, the emotional set, or the drive of a person, is somehow affected by the endocrine glands. The human organism is not just a collection of fairly predictable responses to stimuli. For instance, at some times an individual can accomplish much more than his usual work output. Apprehension or a competition or a reward may get him to achieve better quantity and quality output. At other times the same person cannot carry his normal work load.

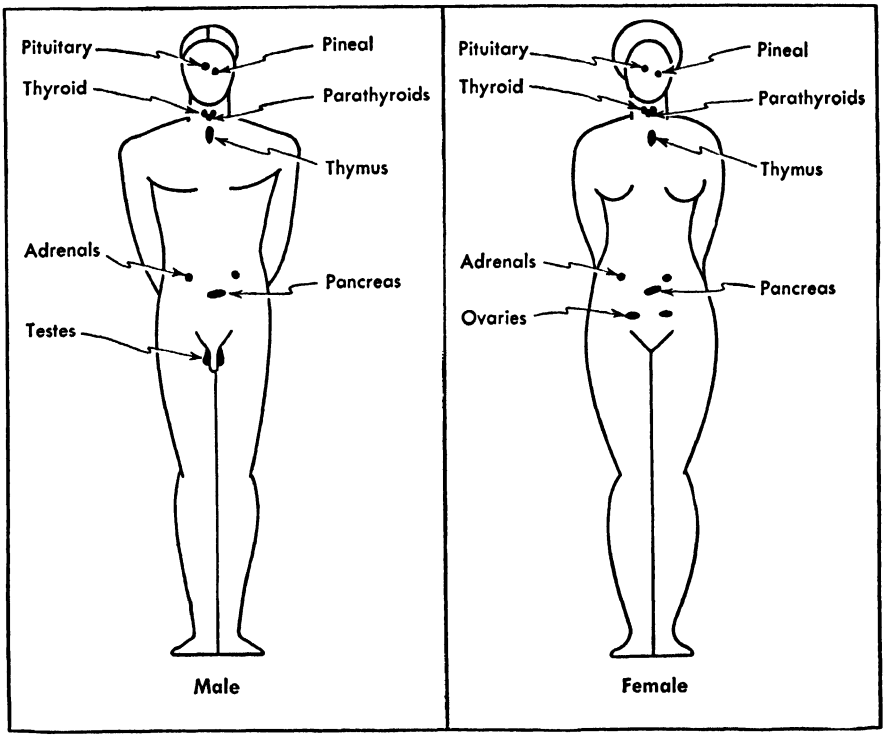
Various descriptions of such states exist, but their exact cause is unknown. A reasonable hypothesis is that the tone of the organism changes with emotional content, and the endocrine glands seem to be involved in these changes. When they occur, the person who was feeling cheerful may become depressed, or an unstable mood may give way to a steady one. In popular language, these variations are indicated by such phrases as "unable to get going," "full of pep," "not himself today," "blowing his top." The behavior of the organism cannot be charted like that of an atom. The person does not move in a strict stimulus-response direction like steel directed by a magnet. The human organism acts in accordance with the general rules plus the individual's uniqueness. It is somewhat similar to the odd notes a popular jazz trumpet player will make in blowing his own changes to some other arranger's ideas of the author's notes. In classical music it is politely called "variations on a theme." We all vary from the standard mold. Motivation, emotions, and glandular action affect the variations. Some of these effects take place in understandable, some in vague, subtle and little-known ways.

The glands of external secretion include the salivary, which are affected by the kind of food in or near the mouth and thereby aid digestion; stomach, pancreas, and liver that assist the whole organism in times of emotional upset. They change the chemical contents of the blood to provide extra reserves of physical strength necessary in emotional crisis.

Some emotional and personality maladjustments may result from the improper functioning of glands. Such difficulties can often be corrected by proper medical treatment. There is much popular misinformation as to the effects of the glands on personality and obesity; this is a field in which only the authoritative advice of a physician should be taken.

DIGEST OF ENDOCRINE OR DUCTLESS GLANDS' FUNCTIONS

Gland	*Location in the Body*	*Function*
1. Adrenals	One atop each kidney	Secrete cortisone and adrenalin; prepare body for emergency effort; increase red, decrease white blood cells; stimulate heart and brain action; slow onset of fatigue; change digestive and intestinal activity; dilate pupils; increase perspiration; release sugar stored in liver; improve openings for air to lungs.
2. Pancreas	Abdomen	Produces pancreatic juice, to aid digestion and insulin, a hormone that increases energy available through oxidation of sugar.
3. Parathyroid	Throat	Changes chemicals in blood, particularly calcium and phosphorus, which are ones that affect level of tolerance to the upsets of daily life. The parathyroid hormone quiets the organism, preventing overexcitability, and promotes quiet and emotional balance.
4. Pituitary	Base of the brain	Affects functioning of other glands. A kind of supervisor of their functioning; produces the hormone affecting growth of the body.
5. Thyroid	Throat	Complementary to parathyroids; changes chemicals or basal metabolism of the body; hyper- or overactive thyroid causes overactivity of the body and irritability; hypo- or underactive thyroid is characterized by sluggish behavior, depression feelings. Chemical stored in the thyroid is hormone called thyroxin.
6. Sexual or gonads (A) Testes These glands are only in males.	Scrotum	Produce spermatozoa that may initiate pregnancy when they fertilize ovum in a woman; secrete male hormone that develops masculine traits at puberty in the male and characteristics of masculinity such as hair, beard, voice.
(B) Ovaries These glands are only in females.	Abdomen	Produce ova that may initiate pregnancy when united with spermatozoa; issue female hormone that affects female development and characteristics at puberty. These are breast changes, menstrual cycle, production and secretion of milk.

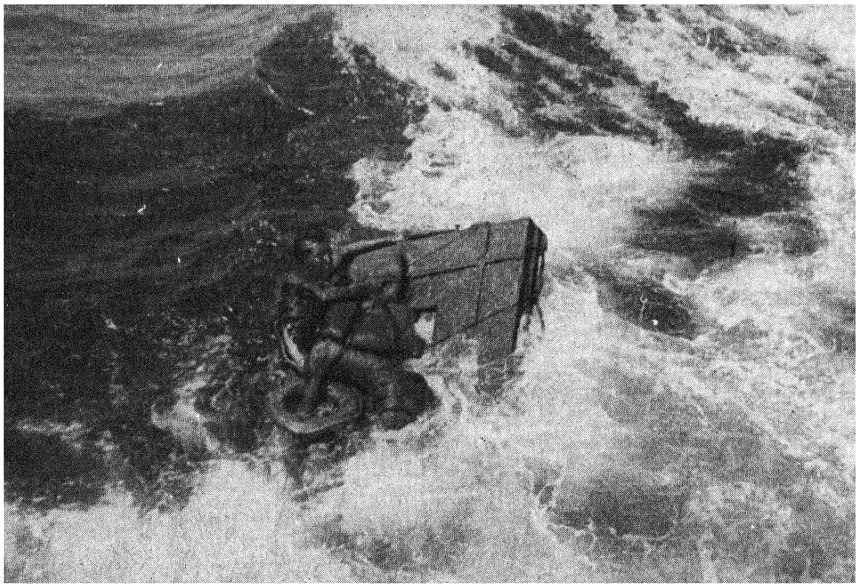


Drawing of the endocrine or ductless glands and their location. LEFT: Male. RIGHT: Female.

MOTIVATION

Previous sections have outlined the bases for behavior and the "how" of human action. This section is concerned with the "why" of human behavior, or *motivation* (from the Latin for "to move"). It is defined as any state or condition of the organism that prompts or moves it to act. Analysis of motivation is a first step in self-understanding and in understanding the behavior of others.

The causes of behavior are of particular interest to teachers, deans, employers, and parents. Achievement in any endeavor, whether it relates to college marks or promotion on the job, is based on the quantity and quality of application to a task as well as ability. Maximum application on the part of one individual, resulting from strong motivation, sometimes surpasses higher ability, with less application, on the part of an individual with weak motivation.



Emotions of men under conditions of stress provide the motivation to perform tasks which they could not or would not perform with normal motivation (Courtesy of U.S. Navy.)

Characteristics of Motivated Behavior. Strongly motivated behavior is characterized by its persistence, variations, and emotional overflow.

Strongly motivated behavior is persistent in that it tends to go on until an internal uneasiness or agitation is quieted. The amount of persistence is probably based on the quantity and quality of the internal tension that is agitating the organism to act.

Variations in motivated behavior may occur during the agitation of the self. This goes on until the tension is relieved by achievement, substitution of other acts, or continued striving for a goal. Behavior can be so varied under stress that violence may ensue. For example, if tension, incited by hunger, was not quieted by food, usual behavior patterns might be radically changed. Instead of asking or crying for food, a child might substitute actual physical attack upon those near him to get his needs satisfied.

Emotional overflow is generated by delays in attaining a goal especially if the individual is strongly motivated. In a child, anger, apprehension, crying, and uncontrolled elimination may result from delay or denial of satisfaction, particularly when the denial or delay is not understood or is considered unfair. On the other hand, emotions of joy and happiness are present when a strongly desired goal is attained.

Incidentally, such reactions on the part of individuals have their counterparts in the case of groups. "Mass hysteria" and "crowd psychology" are names given to strongly motivated behavior of large groups. The mass motivation of a group is different from the sum of all the individual motivations within the group.

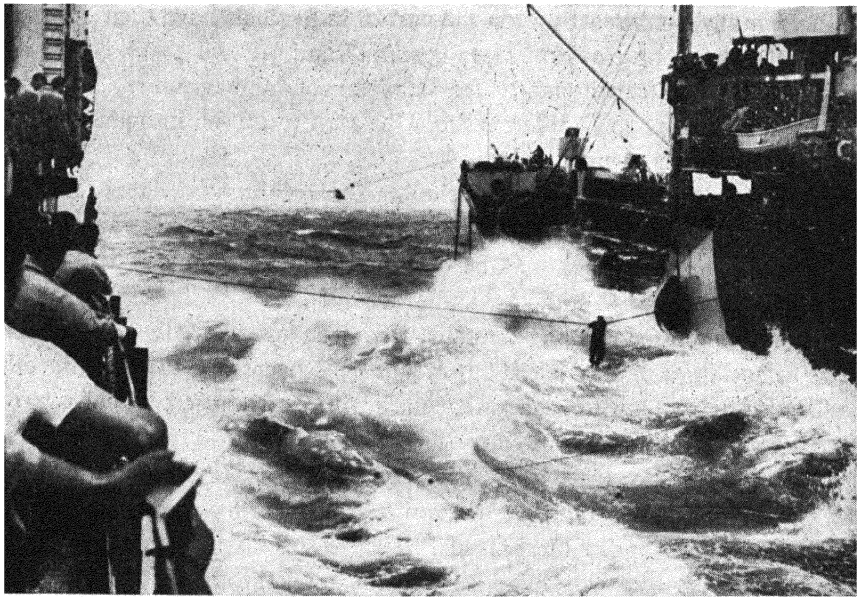
Needs. Animals' motivation, including that of humans, stems from a desire for change, which in turn arises from needs. These are many, constant, and changing. They may be classified as needs common to all animals, needs peculiar to humans, and other needs.

For all animals, including humans, the strongest of motivations is the need to sustain life. Because it rarely becomes necessary to do so in our civilization, many fail to realize that man will exert himself to the utmost to satisfy the urge to go on living.

This urge includes the organic needs of eating, drinking, sleeping, keeping warm. There is a relaxing of tension that brings pleasure to the organism on fulfillment of these needs. Because surplus food is available to many in the Western world, we seek gratification through food and drink beyond what is needed to sustain life. Extra-pleasant attitudes and relaxation result from fulfilling these needs. This is exploited by the numerous people who wine and dine those from whom they are seeking a favorable attitude. Their investment often represents good psychological planning. On the other hand satiation, or overabundantly meeting the organism's need, establishes discomfort. This may eliminate the psychological state of well-being that is incidental to the satisfaction of organic needs.

The level at which the organism is satisfied varies in accordance with individual differences and cultural forces. The proper way of meeting the needs of the organism is affected by many cultural influences, such as home and religion. Examples are such differences as those between the Protestant, the Catholic, and the Jewish attitude toward eating fish and pork, and between the American and the Japanese attitude toward eating reptiles. In other words, after the basic need to sustain life is met, an individual's motivation toward satisfaction is greatly influenced by his group. His culture materially influences the range of his needs.

Needs Peculiar to Humans. In addition to the universal animal needs, there are others that motivate humans. Such needs as strongly motivate man also occur in other animals and are sometimes as important as are those listed above. They are among those most desired and include sex relations, security from destruction, and freedom from pain.



Sailor saves himself by seizing life line, evincing ingenuity evoked by strongest of motivations, the will to survive. In the same situation many others have lost their lives. (Courtesy of U.S. Navy.)

Man has many needs that motivate him because he lives in a civilized, democratic era and a machine age to boot. In fact, some motivations stemming from the kind of world he lives in are questioned as representing too high a price to pay for civilization's benefits. The case against some peculiar but accepted motivations of today was excellently made in the popular song of 1947 called "Civilization," subtitled "Bongo, Bongo, Bongo." It seems that the native of the Congo preferred the uncivilized quiet of Africa to the difficulties caused by taxis, work strain, vacations, and other pressures of our civilization. The point is that some desires are too readily accepted as needs. They are needs only in terms of our value judgments and goals, and these should be carefully considered and not arrived at by chance.

Other Needs. Subject to individual values and goals, other present-day needs are for: satisfactory status in work and community; opportunity for improving that status; educational opportunity; unhampered fellowship with others; freedom to choose leaders; and religious freedom. The list can be extensively increased in terms of each person's sense of values.

Additional needs arise to be satisfied after the basic human and animal

needs are met. These are modified by the individual's direction toward his goals, a direction determined by his value judgments.

Frequently, such needs are based on early childhood experiences. This is the case when children seek to avoid parents' troubles, or when children's goals are set by their parents in an effort to attain satisfactions denied to them.

Some examples of forces motivating such persons are: money, advanced education, power, social status of public acclaim achieved through politics, sports, or glamorized occupations, and family approval. Many others exist, and practically all of them are the result of environment. Each stage of life—infancy, childhood, adolescence, youth, adulthood, old age—has certain needs in common with the other stages and certain unique needs. As the environment, the individual, and the needs themselves change, so do the responses caused by stimuli.

LEARNED AND UNLEARNED BEHAVIOR

One of the most important human activities is learning. In respect to responses, the human organism differs from plant life, which always reacts to stimulation in the same way. This is called tropism, and is illustrated by the constant tendency of plants to reach out toward the sun and light, even at times when these might be detrimental. Similarly, inanimate objects function according to patterns without control over responses. A drill press always stamps out onto the metal under it the design that is predetermined by the die. Animals have considerable control over their responses, but much of their behavior is instinctive, or unlearned.

The overwhelming majority of human acts are learned, but some of them occur early in life, or in the embryo, and are considered instinctive, or inborn. For example, the activity of the unborn child in the embryo, when responding to environmental stimulation, is a kind of learning, although it occurs before birth. Illustrative of this kind of response are balancing, sucking, and arm and leg coordination, which improve in the last weeks before birth. Interestingly, some American Indian tribes force children to use these inborn skills by requiring them to swim shortly after birth. This requirement capitalizes on the limb coordination and prevents the child from acquiring a fear of the water.

Other seemingly instinctive reactions are seeking food and friends; fleeing from danger; exploring; domineering; deferring; acquiring, possessing and defending property; gaining attention; greediness; teasing; bullying; and playing. However, many of these, along with fear of the dark, of

thunder, and of snakes, have been proved by behaviorist psychologists' experiments to be learned.

Whether or not reactions occurring at a very early age or in the embryo should be considered inborn, it is generally accepted that the native reflexes of sneezing, blinking, clutching, and reaching upward are unlearned. These activities make their appearance at various ages of infancy. An additional instinct is expressed much later, at the age of puberty: the natural inclination to seek the companionship of members of the opposite sex.

Although there is little experimental evidence to confirm it, a substantial amount of observation appears to indicate that the total organization of the person is unlearned. Common experience seems to indicate that equally skilled athletes, artists, and craftsmen have a certain individuality of style in their accomplishment. This uniqueness cannot be explained by learning alone. These and other individual differences may be inherited in some measure. They are based on the variations in nervous system, muscular or glandular organization, and basal metabolism.

Conditioned Reflex. The basis of learning theory is the conditioned reflex, first demonstrated by Ivan Pavlov, a Russian physiologist. In his famous experiment, he rang a bell before feeding a dog, measuring the salivation of the dog in anticipation of being fed. When the dog became accustomed to the bell-food sequence, Pavlov eliminated the food but retained the bell ringing. The dog had come to associate the sound of the bell with the prospect of food, so that his mouth continued to water when he heard the bell, even without food. Thus an unlearned reflex action had been shifted from one stimulus to another. The simple reflex action had become conditioned.

The variability of human stimuli and responses is sufficiently involved to cause many problems. A refinement of the Pavlov conditioned-reflex experiment illustrates this and shows some of the concomitants of motivation and learning. The experiment used apparatus similar to that of Pavlov to excite salivation and to measure it, and added a bell. When one bell was sounded, the dog was fed. But when the second bell, which had a very different tone, was rung, the dog received a slight electric shock. This he disliked and feared greatly. The experimenter gradually merged the tones and the time of sounding the two bells, until their respective tones became indistinguishable to the dog. Elated by the anticipatory pleasure of the one bell, threatened with injury by the sound of the second bell, the dog could not resolve the conflict caused by the merging of the tones. He lost control

of his actions, became disorganized, and behaved with what would be described as irrationality in human behavior.

Learning, which is one of man's vital functions, requires careful organization to be most effective and to yield positive results. Much of our learning is organized and directed toward the gaining of knowledge and acquiring facts. This planned learning is known as study. Maximum attainment can be aided considerably through learning good study technique.

EMOTIONS

An emotion may be defined as a vivid feeling and state of excitement induced by the apprehension of an object or situation which arouses an instinctive reaction. There are several schools of thought as to the nature of emotion. The following are the generally recognized major theories:

1. The James-Lange theory, which maintains that all emotions consist ultimately of sensations. James, American psychologist and philosopher, worked in the United States. He emphasized sensations resulting from skeletal movements caused by the exciting object, and the sensations caused directly by the exciting object itself. Independent of James, Lange, a Danish physician and psychologist, doing research in Europe, stressed visceral sensations (caused by movements of the viscera, intestinal organs) resulting from perception of the exciting object. A conscious emotion is simply a mass of sensations from all over the body, especially from the internal organs. Emotion is the way the body feels when in a disturbed organic state. This theory is now held by some psychologists to have been definitely disproved on a physiological basis.

2. The Cannon-Bard theory, like the James-Lange theory, is concerned with the way emotional experience arises in a situation in which there is a definite emotional object presented to the individual. Emotional behavior may consist of special patterns of behavior falling into the categories of pleasure, fear, and rage. Emotion serves the purpose of mobilizing the resources of the organism to meet a situation that might endanger it.

3. Psychologists who uphold the concept of instinct regard emotion as one aspect of the consciousness accompanying instinctive behavior patterns. This view has been carried still further by regarding emotion as the "inner" or "subjective" or "self" aspect of all action.

4. The tenets of leading psychoanalysts assume a libido (emotional craving which activates human behavior), with either one or two fundamental departments, sex or sex and ego. The last term is defined as that

part of the unconscious that has been influenced by the senses and has taken on consciousness in its contacts with reality.

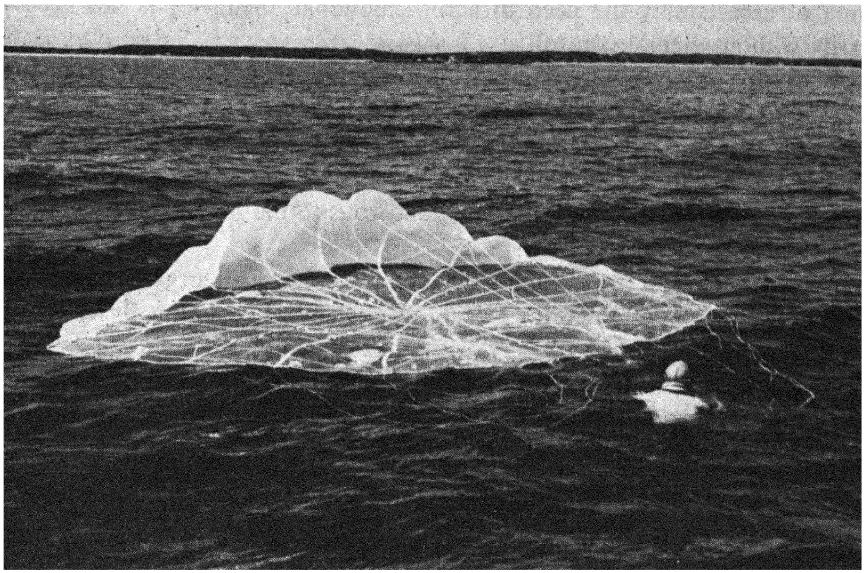
5. There are psychological and physiological theories which regard emotion and feeling as distinctive consciousness products of certain portions of the brain or nervous system. According to this view, some effective awareness must accompany all bodily action brought about by activity of the central nervous system.

Evidently all doubts as to the exact nature of the emotions are not fully resolved, though it is recognized that they represent complex mental and physiological states resulting in various manifestations. The emotions are clearly indispensable for the propagation of the human species, the nurture of the young, the protection of the individual in times of need and danger, and for other essential requisites of the race. Many kinds of emotions have been listed; the following include those which are generally agreed upon:

admiration	defiance	faith	pride
affection	desire	fear	rapture
amazement	disdain	fury	remorse
anger	disgust	happiness	repugnance
antipathy	dislike	hate	scorn
astonishment	dismay	hope	shame
aversion	dread	jealousy	surprise
awe	elation	love	suspicion
bashfulness	ennui	pain	sympathy
bitterness	enthusiasm	pleasure	vanity
contempt	envy	prejudice	wonder

Obviously, emotional reactions are to some degree dependent upon age, mental and emotional maturity, nature of various stimuli, and situations to which an individual is exposed. Few stimuli which cause fear or anger in an adult will bring forth the same response in an infant. Young children usually show no prejudice on the basis of race and color; it is only through contact with others who harbor such emotional states that they learn to respond the same way.

Since many emotional patterns are the result of learning and maturation, it is evident that young people may free themselves from undesirable emotional reactions. Antipathy, anger, hate, jealousy, pride, and prejudice interfere with personal efficiency on various levels. The young adult has the job of learning to face new emotional responses. He also has to unlearn



Training can overcome emotion of fear. (Courtesy of U.S. Navy.)

some of those he has learned from parents, siblings, and others, if he is to grow into an emotionally mature, stable, and socially adjusted individual.

Further analysis of this theory reveals that it holds we perceive danger through our senses and intellect. This perception, working through the stimulus-response channels, the centralized nervous system, the glands and muscles, causes tremendous bodily changes. For instance, when the organism is aroused by some danger, additional blood and other substances secreted by certain glands are dispatched where they are needed. The stomach is assisted, the muscles are reinforced, and the whole body is prepared for extra exertion to escape danger. Out of all these exertions of the body comes what is known as the emotion of fear. Its outward expression is well known. So are the outward indications of sorrow, disgust, hate, surprise, mirth, love, and joy.

Each of these and other emotions causes internal changes of the organism, resulting in the entire body becoming agitated, aroused, or wrought up. Frequently, though not necessarily, this stirring of the organism is due to the presumed need for strong action.

Sometimes such action is not well guided by the intellectual centers of control and a person is said to act "emotionally." However, there is some interplay between the intellect and the act. Certainly, this is true in the

area of ascertaining the need to act. "Emotional" behavior is not necessarily without mental control.

With this interplay in mind, it is desirable that emotional behavior should be kept under some intellectual control. Otherwise, disconnected, illogical, inefficient action results. Such disorganization is apparent in the acts of persons under the influence of liquor or drugs. Uncontrolled emotion is not only inefficient; it may be dangerous to the individual concerned and to society as well.

According to some psychologists, emotions have an organic "set." If the body is disposed to act in a certain way when it is emotionally aroused, then some type of learned behavior might result. For example, Army and Navy training for combat presumes that certain desired automatic reactions can occur, despite the onset of fear, if the soldier or sailor is properly and sufficiently trained. Such automatic action seems to occur despite emotional pressure to act differently.

SUMMARY

Understanding the foundations of behavior starts with the recognition of the fact that heredity transmits physical and mental equipment from parents to child. Environment will modify this equipment; these two, combined with the effort expended by the person, will determine his effectiveness.

Studies of heredity and environment reveal that they are closely related. For instance, children of the able and the economically fortunate, as well as bright children in lower social and economic levels, start life with definite advantages. On the other hand, this head start may be overcome through the expenditure of greater effort, by children of families in the lowest income group and by children with less intelligence.

We act as a result of the stimuli received, responding through the central nervous system. This is organized by the brain, and, to a lesser extent, by the autonomic nervous system. Most responses are effected through the interrelationship of the various organs.

These phenomena of the organism involve small units, then larger ones, so that the whole of human behavior is more than the sum of all the little actions. The underlying reason for action is that tension disturbs the individual until pressing needs, as for food or sleep, are met. The human being struggles constantly for status, or recognition of himself as a person. This struggle goes on within himself and in his relations with his family, teachers, friends, and others. Emotion may be intermixed with his needs, as are

the pressures of society. These may set up conflicts inside the self, as each need demands appeasement that is not available for all.

Long-term goals are helpful in resolving these conflicts, for they guide the total of the person's behavior in a logical direction, and keep him from following a haphazard direction or diverse courses. In planning, the application of intelligence should determine the choices the individual makes in his actions. Such choices are becoming increasingly involved because man is more free to determine his actions than he has ever been before. Knowledge of the whys and wherefores of behavior may improve the chances for electing satisfactory actions. That can give the security of status and further progress toward ultimate goals in life.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. In connection with the studies showing above-average success for the descendants of prominent ancestors, what influences have greatly changed the environment in the past fifty years so that today there are more favorable environmental factors for those from homes with less than average advantages?

2. Describe how persons you know react to the advantages others have, such as (*a*) greater wealth, (*b*) greater personal attractiveness, (*c*) greater intelligence, (*d*) greater freedom from family domination.

3. Give an example of intelligent planning replacing emotionally inspired, irrational motivation.

4. Name several areas in which (*a*) heredity has little to do with success, (*b*) heredity has much to do with success.

5. Trace a simple stimulus-response from start to finish.

6. Name the factors that heredity controls and those most influenced by environment.

7. Do you wish to change your present environment in any area? If so, how can this be accomplished? Do you have any plans to do so, and, if so, what are they? How do your parents fit into these plans?

8. What are glands? Name and describe three endocrine glands.

9. Outline the general function of the glands and their influence on personality.

10. Describe the Pavlov conditioned-reflex experiment and theory.

11. Indicate some of the characteristics of human learning. Using the text report of the refinement of the Pavlov conditioned-reflex experiment, indicate some implications for human behavior.

REFERENCES

Boring, Edwin, *et al., Foundations of Psychology,* John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1948.

Crow, Alice, and L. D. Crow, *Learning to Live with Others,* D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1944.

Guthrie, E. R., and A. L. Edwards, *Psychology: A First Course in Human Behavior,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949.

Hadfield, J. A., *Psychology and Morals,* Methuen & Co., Ltd., London, 1949.

Morgan, C. T., and E. Stellar, *Physiological Psychology,* 2d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

Murphy, Gardner, *An Introduction to Psychology,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1950.

Prescott, D. A., *Emotion and the Educative Process,* American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1938.

Scheinfeld, Amram, *The New You and Heredity,* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1950.

CHAPTER 3

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND INTELLIGENT BEHAVIOR

Heredity and environment, as has already been indicated, are determining factors in the intelligence, character, personality, and capabilities of an individual. As a result of the influences exerted by both heredity and environment, all humans differ from each other in varying degrees. These differences are evident in physique, in reading and writing ability, in hand skills and artistic expression in various media, and in other ways as well. Through the research methods developed by psychologists it is possible to measure the differences in individual capacity with some degree of accuracy. Likewise, fairly accurate means are available to psychologists for determining various behavior patterns.

The tools of psychological measurement are generally described as psychological tests. Such tests will doubtless become more exact in the future, but they are sufficiently accurate now to justify their use as efficient and time-saving procedures in the hands of experts. These means are designed to help the subject tested, through the interpretation of the scores by a trained person. Some knowledge of psychological tests and measurements is essential for college students, since it can aid them in comprehending the reports and findings of the tests they may take during and after their college course. These measurement devices are becoming increasingly important in college, industry, and the community.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED IN THE MEASUREMENT OF DIFFERENCES

Essential to the comprehension of the techniques of measuring individual differences are the terms defined below:

A *measurement instrument* is a device to compare a type of structure or performance with a standard set of values called a *scale*. This is a scheme of reference consisting of points or steps that are equal.

Central tendency is a single score near the center of a group, used to represent the whole group. *Mean, mode,* and *median* are various indications of *central tendency* and may be called *averages.*

Deviation is the amount by which one score differs from the average or central tendency.

Profile chart is one which shows the specific place in which a set of findings belongs in a group of several different psychological tests.

Raw score is the total of points scored on any subtest.

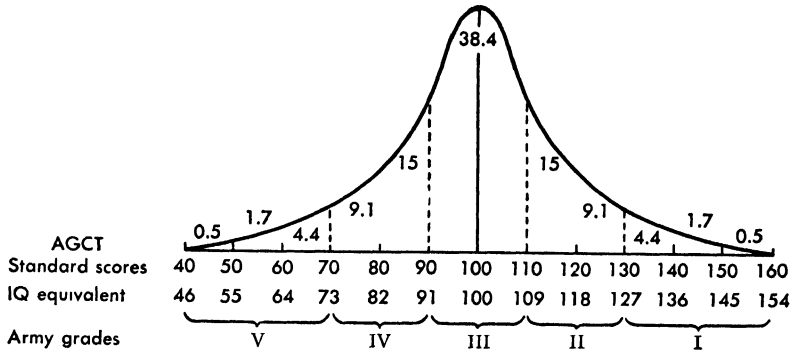
Percentile rank or *score* (expressed as 30 per cent or 40 to 50 per cent average) is the rank from 0 per cent to 100 per cent, which is the score on a test. If a person makes a percentile score of 20 per cent, it means that 20 per cent of those measured made lower scores and 80 per cent attained higher scores than he did.

Norm group (sometimes called *norm*) is the standard group of persons with whose scores the score of anyone taking the test using that norm group is compared.

Correlation coefficient (expressed as r) is the measure of how much variation in one phenomenon affects variation in another. For example, as rain increases, retail sales decrease; or, the higher grades a student scores in college, the better are his prospects for high-paying jobs. The relation between these is expressed as a score ranging from $+1.0$ through .00 to -1.0.

If every student with high grades got high-paying jobs, the correlation would be perfect and $r = +1.0$. If high marks had no connection with getting good jobs, it would be a question of pure chance, and $r = .00$. If every student with high marks got low-paying jobs, the correlation would be called a perfect negative one, and $r = -1.0$. Correlation is a standard way of measuring the degree of the change in one measure affecting the change in another. The coefficient of correlation is important for determining the degree of validity and reliability of all psychological tests. They can be examined as to their usefulness by the coefficient of correlation.

Validity is the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure. For example, does an intelligence test actually measure intelligence, that is, are the items on the test appropriate for the examination of intelligence? Are they fair, clear, unbiased in relation to all of those tested?



Bell-shaped curve indicating distribution of intelligence on Army General Classification Test (in percentages). (From Stagner and Karwoski, *Psychology*.)

Reliability is the degree to which an individual's scores on a given test are consistent. Although many tests do not attain it, a reliability of +.90 is desirable.

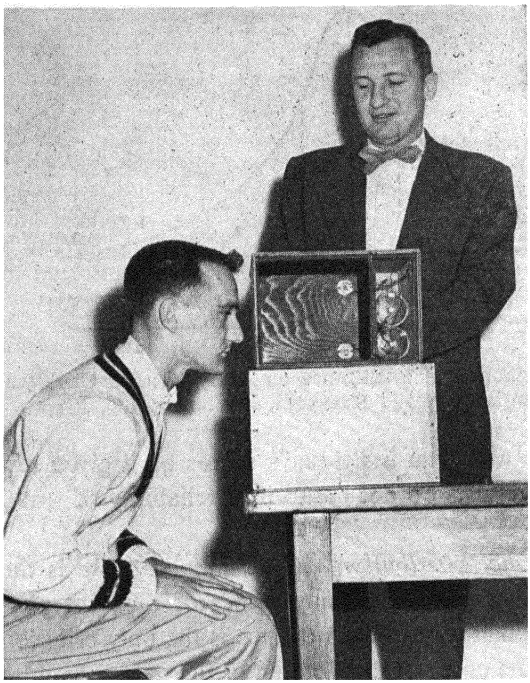
The *normal-frequency, chance-distribution,* or *bell-shaped curve* is the curve which illustrates the distribution of many scores of different phenomena in nature, such as human traits. When chance is the only criterion for the selection of the data, the curve of distribution of the data resembles a bell when drawn on graph paper. This is because such a distribution curve has a great many scores near the middle or average point. The fewest scores appear at the highest and lowest points.

It is comforting to know that this curve demonstrates that scientific tests establish the fact that the majority of people have about the same rating in measurable traits. Most people attain average height, weight, and intelligence scores. Few are giants or midgets, physically or intellectually.

KINDS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

There are many phenomena the distribution of which can be described by the bell-shaped curve. Some of these are the measures of biological characteristics such as height and weight; analysis of chance—for example, the occurrence of various numbers in throws of dice; the incidence of social attitudes; interests of people, such as the kind of literature they read; mental ability; and school accomplishment.

Mental ability, as shown by intelligence-test scores, illustrates the bell-shaped curve, or the curve of normal distribution. As the curve is a way to help to comprehend individual differences, it is appropriate to point out that there are few persons with really low IQ's, that is, below 30, or high



Souerwine's peephole laboratory equipment demonstrates merging of the normal and abnormal. Prof. Souerwine permits only one student to see two lights in the box, while all others see one. As a consequence of the position taken by the one student who saw "abnormally," the class is led to the conclusion that they should not condemn a seemingly queer conclusion because it disagrees with the observations of the majority. (Courtesy of Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.)

ones, above 120. Most people have IQ's near the average or middle point. The term normal, as applied to intelligence and personality traits, covers a wide range just above and below the exact average.

A popular error relates to the overemphasis of some particular strength or weakness which causes a departure from average that might be designated as abnormal. This is not a fact, for the "normal" may consist of a high score in one or more factors and low scores in others. Substantial deviations from the average that make up a real pattern of deviation might give a clue to a possible abnormal group of traits. But to designate anyone as abnormal, because of one or several odd scores on psychological tests, is misleading.

The concept that most people are endowed with normal amounts of human traits is illustrated in the IQ distribution given below. It shows the small percentage of deviates in our population, and points up the fact that most people attain IQ scores that are reasonably close to the average. Most human traits with which students of psychology are concerned are distributed similarly.

It is evident from the accompanying tabulations that the percentages of low and lowest scores balance those of high and highest scores.

DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE AS SHOWN BY IQ SCORES

(See Bell-shaped Curve)

With an IQ of 0 to 59	1 per cent	of the population, who are usually thought to be feeble-minded
With an IQ of 60 to 79	10 per cent	of the population, who are considered borderline to mentally deficient
With an IQ of 80 to 89	16 per cent	of the population, who are designated dull-average in mental caliber
With an IQ of 90 to 109	46 per cent	of the population, who are about average mental caliber
With an IQ of 110 to 119	16 per cent	of the population, who are designated superior mental caliber
With an IQ of 120 to 139	10 per cent	of the population, who are considered to be of very superior mental caliber
With an IQ of 140 and above	1 per cent	of the population, who are usually thought to be of genius mental caliber

Each of the groups merges into the ones immediately above and below it. There is no hard-and-fast rule that marks one group off from another by a mere difference of one point in the IQ.

UTILIZATION OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

An effective use of the distribution of individual differences is the technique known as *homogeneous grouping*. This is a method by which students are divided into groups of approximately equal learning ability. In this way "fast," "average," and "slow" individuals can be separated from each other in classroom work and taught at the rate of their approximate capacity to learn. Homogeneous-group members are spared strong feelings of inferiority or superiority because most of those in such a group have similar learning ability. Consequently, all in such a class must devote about the same effort to accomplish parallel results. The brilliant student is saved from boredom, and the poor learner from a sense of frustration, by homogeneous grouping.

In some educational institutions and industrial groups this method has been misused through segregation of students or job applicants on the basis of IQ scores alone. Many other factors need to be considered in homogeneous grouping, including age, personality traits other than intelligence, aptitude, motivation, grade accomplishment, specialized abilities, talent, social competence, and physical structure. Failure to broaden the base of classification has resulted in many errors of placement in schools, in industry, and in the military forces.

Before the child can write, many schools use nonverbal tests to assist in placement of children and in homogeneous grouping. School psychologist administers Seguin Form Board Test. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)

PRINCIPLES OF MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES

Some knowledge of the background of psychological tests is essential. The father of modern psychological testing was Alfred Binet, a French psychologist. In 1900 he published a study showing that bright children gave better attention and solved problems more quickly, working more accurately, than dull ones. As a result of his research, he defined "attention" as "mental adaptation to a new situation." Since then this statement has been used, with variations, as a definition of intelligence. Binet experimented with many ways of testing children. He was the first to use ink blots in a free-association test of personality. Dr. Hermann Rorschach, a Swiss psychiatrist, and Dr. Henry A. Murray, an American psychiatrist working at Harvard, later developed this kind of test into a technique that is widely used to analyze personality.

Binet's intelligence tests were revised by two Americans, L. M. Terman and F. Kuhlmann, who refined his methods of testing ability. The score made by each person in a given period of time is graded according to individual age in months. The basic concept is that similar questions applied to a selected group of children of the same age should result in approximately the same score. The tests are so constructed that they become

progressively more difficult as the age level increases from month to month, till the fifteen-year level is reached.

A child's score on such intelligence tests is called his *mental age*. If he can accomplish the tasks on a test of an average eight-year-old, his mental age, or MA, is eight, regardless of his true age. If he is able to do the tasks of a twelve-year-old, his MA is twelve, even though his chronological age (CA) is eight.

The concept of the intelligence quotient was developed in order to determine relative mental growth The IQ is obtained by, first, testing to determine a person's mental age; second, dividing that mental age by the chronological age; and, third, multiplying that result by 100. If a ten-year-old has a MA of 10, his IQ is 100; if his MA is 8, his IQ is 80; if he has a MA of 12, his IQ is 120. It follows, then, that the average IQ is 100. This indicates the ability to do the tasks on an intelligence test that average people of the same age can perform in about the same time.

Two questions now present themselves. One relates to the age at which the IQ becomes constant. The other is whether or not an individual's intelligence can be measured if he cannot read.

The problem of determining the age at which the IQ becomes relatively constant is the problem of determining the average age at which maturity of intelligence or of general ability is reached. This presents many complexities. To name a few: there seems to be no age at which one ceases to grow intellectually; there is very little change in intelligence from the late teens to the age of about sixty; true estimates of the intelligence of old persons are difficult to secure. Comparisons of IQ scores of younger and older persons are of doubtful validity. This is because most tests that establish IQ scores emphasize speed and other factors that give young people an advantage.

Terman thinks that the age of mental maturity is about fifteen, and many experts agree with this opinion.

Different conclusions have been arrived at by other psychologists. The age of eighteen was fixed on by Kuhlmann after seven years of research as the age of mental maturity. R. Pintner concluded that mental maturity comes at fourteen. This lowest age has the support of the data from the testing of 1,700,000 persons by the United States Army's famous Alpha Test of the First World War. It showed that the score of the average white recruit about equaled that of a school child aged thirteen years and nine months. Incidentally, it was the mass tests of soldiers in the First World War that established psychological tests as efficient instruments for determining in-

The performance part of intelligence testing. The subject tries to arrange the blocks to match the design shown on the card while the psychometrist records the time required. (Courtesy of New York Tuberculosis and Health Association.)

dividual differences in mental potential. It was during this war, also, that methods of group testing and techniques for nonverbal psychological testing were developed.

As for those who could not read, the United States Army psychologists successfully measured the intelligence of soldiers in this category by using words and gestures to convey the basic instructions and ideas of the pencil-and-paper tests. Then each person's score was compared with the scores made by all tested in the same allotted time. This test is known as the Army Beta Test.

Most IQ tests are speed tests, since they measure ability to give correct answers within a given time limit. Thus they give an advantage to those who react quickly. Also, they favor individuals with substantial schooling because they usually examine for the kind of knowledge generally possessed by those who are educated in schools. For example, most speed tests used to measure intelligence do not reveal specialized mechanical and other abilities, farm information, or nonverbal skills. To test those with efficient rather than speedy intellects, other procedures that do not depend on time have been developed. These are called power tests. They are constructed

so that the questions become increasingly difficult to answer as the test progresses; no timing is involved.

There are many other types of tests. It is important to bear in mind that all psychological tests are guideposts and not final answers; subject to limitations set by their creators and norm groups; substantially better than chance, but not accurate predictors of accomplishment in an involved job or difficult educational situation; not decisive; evaluative, not explanatory (that is, they report results and not the reasons for them, just as a college mark of A or F does not give the reasons for the A or F).

DEFINITIONS AND USES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

Psychological tests measure a person's behavior in any area by comparing his accomplishment of standard tasks with that of a known norm group. The members of such a group are usually about the same age as the person being tested. However, this is not necessarily so except in tests to determine the intelligence quotient. For example, in the attempt to find out the interests, personality-trait patterns, or opinions of an individual, his scores may or may not be compared with those of his contemporaries. A brief and general definition is that psychological tests measure an individual's variations in personality from the average of a known group.

The individuality of a person may be more sharply defined by expressing the results of psychological tests in percentiles. Expert interpretation is essential in order that the testee may understand with what kind of a group he has been compared and the significance of his subtests and total test scores.

A profile chart is sometimes used as a device to illustrate the scores a person may make on various parts of a psychological test or his scores on several tests. A profile is a chart, drawn on graph paper, of the various scores made by the same testee. The lines are calibrated according to percentiles or standard scores. The average scores for various tests are indicated on the graph paper, and the strong and weak points of a testee's scores are apparent as deviations from the average. By drawing lines connecting the various subtest or different test scores, a complete picture can be obtained of the subject's relative position in the various areas in which he has been tested.

Psychological tests are used in many fields: in education—to gear mass education to the individual's needs; in industry—to distinguish the potentially efficient from the inefficient; in the military services—to determine ability and potential leadership; in psychiatry and psychology—to uncover

BROOKLYN COLLEGE
COMMUNITY COUNSELING CENTER

Date: _____

Applicant's Name: Roe, Richard _____ Date of Birth: _____ Age in Years: _____ Sex: _____
Last First Middle Mo. Day Yr.

Address: _____
Street Number Town Zone State

TEST RECORD AND PROFILE CHART

TEST NO	TEST NAME AND FORM (OR SUB TEST)	NORM GROUP	RAW SCORE	%ILE RANK
1	Army Gen Class Test First Civ Ed, AM	Army inductees	74	47
2				
3	Minn Clerical Test	general employed		
4	Number Comparison		147	95
5	Name Comparison		119	88
6				
7	Purdue Pegboard	indust applic		
8	Right hand		54	78
9	Left hand		51	79
10	Both hands		41	75
11	Rt & Lft & Both		146	76
12	Assembly		133	42
13				
14	Test of Mech Comp (Bennett) Form AA	mech helper	15	8
15				
16	Rev Minn Paper Form Board, Series MA	electric & mech	34	33
17				
18				
19				
20				
21				

STANDARD SCORE SCALE
20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80

PERCENTILE RANK SCALE
0 1 2 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 95 98 99 100

Profile chart. The scores on various tests are calibrated to give a more comprehensive view of the subject's personality. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College.)

personality traits; by business, social and governmental agencies—to discover the choices, opinions, and judgments of the public.

STANDARD PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

There are many psychological tests. Psychologists frequently utilize several, or a battery, of tests in order to obtain a picture of the total personality of an individual. Tests vary from the subjective evaluation of behavior, as observed by the tester, to comparisons in group tests that give a reasonably accurate objective intelligence quotient.

Group testing. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)

Achievement Tests. Some special abilities are included in intelligence tests, but there are many tests devoted exclusively to special abilities. The area covered by these achievement tests is tremendous, ranging from language and number skills to critical thinking. Reading, perception, comprehension are some of the less specific skills that are tested. Knowledge of important persons and literature, reading readiness, study efficiency, scholastic potentialities are specifics usually included under achievement.

Detailed analysis of the subtests in three sections of various batteries of achievement tests shows that the major tests include many subtests, as follows: *Computation* includes whole numbers, fractions, decimals, percentiles, and arithmetical reasoning. *Language* includes comparison of words, grammar, meaning of paragraphs, punctuation, spelling, reading rate, source use and word meanings. *General culture* includes geography, general science, history, literature, mathematics, and social sciences.

In addition to these tests there are those in the fields of the physical sciences, foreign languages, business skills, and many of the major subjects taught in colleges, as well as mental hygiene and sense of humor. Many of the subject matters and some of the skills can be measured by sample techniques, that is, examining the testee's accomplishment on a portion of a subject such as arithmetic, French, or sales skills.

Achievement testing in grade school by group method. ABOVE: Children are introduced to reading test by school psychologist "playing a card game" with them. Cards are part of the test technique and the subjects are put at ease through play. BELOW: Students' reading is recorded by machine for play-back study by the school psychologist who will recommend techniques to improve reading to the classroom teacher of each child. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)

However, there are very subtle knowledges that are more difficult to examine. To estimate power of expression or conceptual achievement is difficult, as it is to measure word comprehension. For example, it is a challenging task to estimate what numbers and kinds of words, with what geographical modification, or dialect, are normal for persons of varied education and age. Analysis of a test of language reveals many factors, including speech, grammar, punctuation, comprehension of words from many learning disciplines, perception, reasoning, and concepts.

If any one of these factors is analyzed psychologically the task becomes more complicated. For example, it can be shown that a concept occurs when an idea is compared through experience with other similar or dissimilar ones. This process may be repeated until the peculiar qualities of the particular idea are so clear that it has its own identity. Then it is known as a concept. Concepts are generalized notions, relatively abstract but with some form and structure. Yet abstraction is hard to define, for it is almost impossible to determine how far imageless thought can go. But to test conceptual knowledge, which is a part of language comprehension, which in turn is a subtest of achievement, test components, as well as norms, must be established out of the experience of many people. Those items must permit the norms to be reasonably valid and reliable so that the testee's score can be scientifically compared with them to get his ratio of achievement.

This analysis gives some indication of the complicated nature of psychological testing and the many variable, subtle factors that must be considered in creating tests.

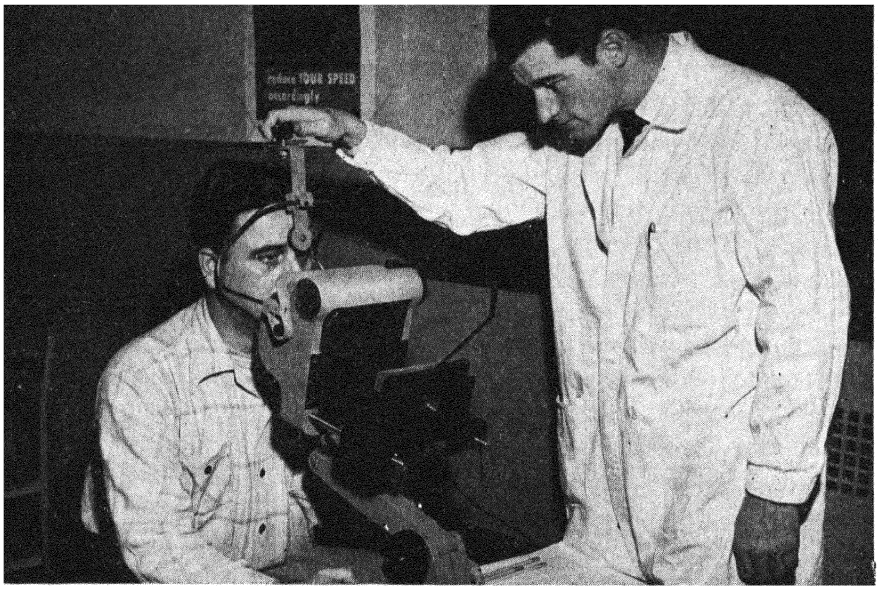
Acuity Tests. Some of the success or failure of a subject in demonstrating his ability on tests depends on how accurately he sees or hears. Sensory acuity can be tested with scientific precision.

Visual acuity is tested by the Snellen Chart and the Ishihara plates. Some color vision tests are the M. B. Jensen and the Holingren.

The audiometer is a standard instrument to test acuity of hearing.

Aptitude Tests. These are tests to determine if an individual has the potential to succeed in a certain educational or occupational area. Aptitude tests can be divided into three types: scholastic, occupational and advanced educational, and talent.

Scholastic aptitude tests assist both the individual and the educators concerned in the selection of educational courses which give good promise of success and fit the student's needs. To achieve this purpose there are tests at every level of the various divisions of our school system. For



Testing visual acuity (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

example, at both high school and college level there are the widely used American Council on Education Psychological Tests (usually known as the ACE), and the Ohio State University Psychological Test. These and other scholastic aptitude tests examine the knowledge of the testee in the branches of education that experience has indicated are necessary for success in average high schools and colleges.

The predictive accuracy of these tests is substantial. They are effective in assisting counselors to discern the subject matters in which students have strength and those in which there is weakness. Thus more efficient analysis of the causes of weakness, and their correction, are made possible by the use of these instruments.

Advanced educational and occupational aptitude tests examine the subject's potential to perform the usual tasks in fields such as drafting, engineering, accounting, office work, dentistry, medicine, law, general graduate school study, teaching, and mechanical trades. These tests are effective in assisting the officials who admit persons either to graduate study or to entering-level jobs. Consequently, they help those who are advising potential candidates for such admission in determining what preparation to seek for continued education or for a vocation.

Although these tests are helpful, there is need for sharper definition of specific abilities. The major criticism that evolves from this lack of specificity is that a testee with good general abilities makes test scores that indicate he can succeed in any one of many fields. However, it is a fact that able people do tend to succeed in various kinds of jobs. But more specific information that testees want to obtain is not attainable with our present knowledge. Psychology has not yet completely delineated or differentiated the traits that are needed to succeed in specific jobs. Our present research provides data on clusters of jobs and areas of human endeavor, such as the computational, sales, and scientific fields. Our test techniques are not sufficiently exact to predict certain success in a specific job such as that of bookkeeper, accountant, salesman, buyer, or die maker.

Talent aptitude tests examine for potential ability in art and music. One of the limitations of these tests is the inherent difficulty of determining when the degree of talent is great enough to justify the anticipation of a professional career. Because the real test in art or music is performance, and performance is reacted to subjectively and hence defies objective measurement, talent aptitude tests are considered to have relatively low validity.

The field of aptitude tests overlaps somewhat the field examined by interest and ability tests. This is because people tend to have an inclination toward and are able to perform tasks which they like to do.

Attitude Tests. These are tests to reveal how one feels about broad issues, ethical values, and moral judgments. It includes public opinion scales by various subgroups in our culture, as college students' opinions about current issues, and the opinions of minority groups. These tests attempt to discover generalized attitudes; they are somewhat similar to earlier efforts to learn if there are classes of people, as theoretical, economic, social, or political types. The decrease of prejudice, false values, and uninformed public opinion can be furthered by the wise use of these techniques, particularly polls of public opinion.

Evaluations of consumer opinion are a variation of the public opinion polls that have become increasingly important because of the reliance being placed upon them by advertisers. The attitudes of the public toward radio and television shows greatly affect our cultural opportunities. Consequently, the scientific quality of the appraisal of these attitudes requires improvement.

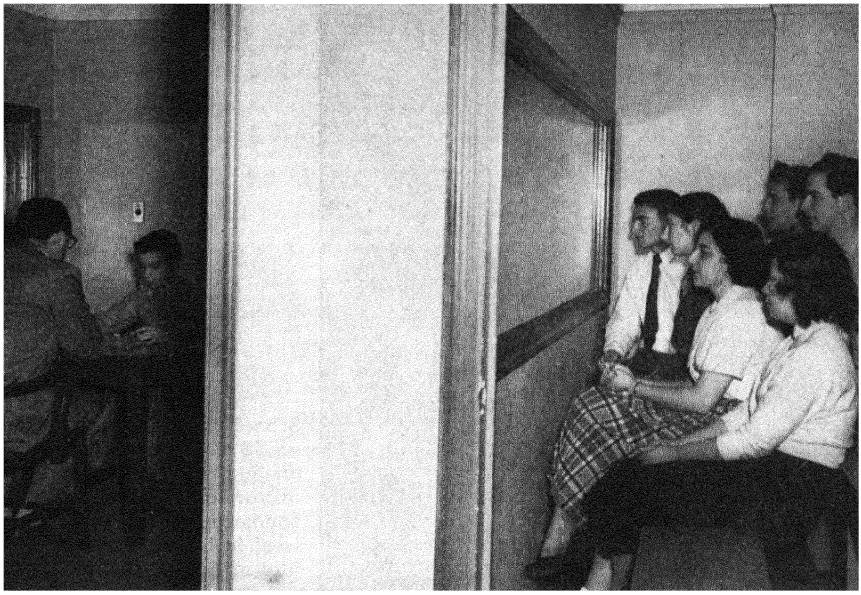
Behavior Tests. These are tests which consist of observation of the testee in natural situations. Some of them are limited to interviews by one person or multiple interviews by many persons. Other tests are based on

Finger dexterity test. Coordination, perception, and finger dexterity are being time-tested by the psychometrist. This test is frequently used to examine the ability of the subject to deal with relatively delicate and exact operations. (Courtesy of New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, Inc.)

stress situations; in these the tester creates an upsetting environment by difficult questions or posing frustrating, impossible tasks for the testee. Some observation tests are given in specially constructed rooms which permit the tester to observe the subject in play or problem solving unaware that he is being watched or evaluated. In some hospitals and military establishments a twenty-four-hour observation of the subject's behavior is made.

Similar in concept but less intensive are the oral interviews. These are being used increasingly by educators, industrialists, and military personnel experts to ascertain qualities such as leadership potential, interpersonal ability to deal with subordinates and superiors, poise, and personality balance. In order to attain some objectivity, many standardized interview and personality rating forms are utilized. They require the tester to register his reactions soon after his observations.

Much research is still needed to learn what weights should be given to subjective evaluations. The weakness in behavior tests is their subjectivity and the oversimplification of the elements that make up the personality. Isolated or particularized acts may seem important to the tester but may have little to do with the general personality pattern. There is little correla-

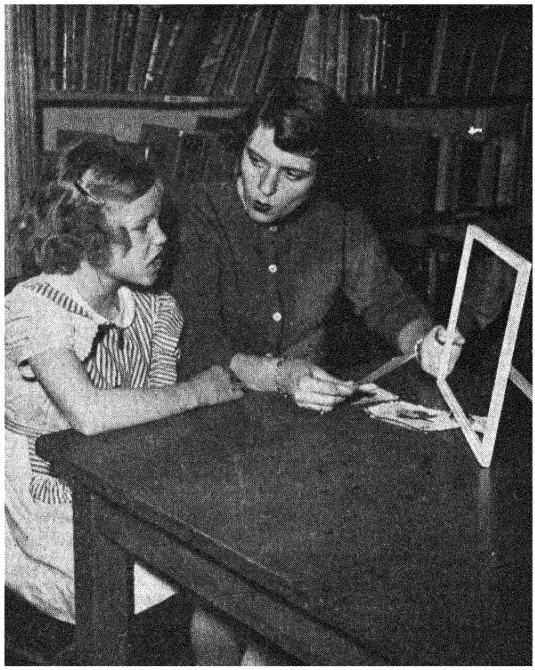


Students observing a performance test through one-way-vision glass in a psychology-demonstration session in an educational clinic. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College.)

tion between the variables that constitute what we describe as personality traits. Most of these that are observed are closely connected, and they may be brought out by a particular testing situation. If this is true they do not give an accurate picture of the total personality. For example, the attitudes and training of some supervisors may cause them to test a candidate for a job unscientifically by creating an unconscious bias in the test situation. Tests are biased when the personality of the tester, his environment, training, and value judgments become factors in the testing.

In these behavior tests, the great problem is to form a sound, scientific, unprejudiced general estimate of the subject's personality. This is no simple task, because the nature of the technique requires that the tester's judgment of the whole personality should be based on particular reactions to special situations, some of which the tester contrives, some of which the testee attempts to create, and some of which just happen.

Other methods that give a more generalized view of the personality are autobiography, self-analysis, and role playing. These are not objective evaluations and consequently lack scientific accuracy. However, to an expert they can be useful by indicating possible need for further clinical study of the subject. Personality inventories are a similar instrument. In these the



School psychologist in a diagnostic situation combines lip reading, visual aids, and mirror to keep a slightly handicapped child up to grade level in her studies. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)

subject answers questions that are designed to uncover certain general patterns or types of reactions, thus permitting the expert to get a fuller concept of the subject's personality.

While these inventories surpass autobiography in self-objectivity, they present a problem in realism. To get a realistic indication of personality from the answers "Yes," "No," and "?" demands that the questions asked be most carefully chosen. Many situations are not amenable to such answers because life is relative and complicated with cultural variations. The lack of gradation in personality inventories decreases their validity. To sum up these criticisms, wishful thinking and answers that may successfully obscure personality defects tend to make personality rating sheets and self-analysis forms relatively unscientific.

Diagnostic Tests. Reading weakness can be uncovered and corrected by using diagnostic tests. These usually improve the rate and comprehension of students' reading. In these tests the subject is shown his errors in comprehending or organizing or interpreting the English language. Various machines and audio-visual techniques are used to examine the vocabulary, the speed, and the span of the subject's perception in order to improve

his speed in reading application, and understanding of what he has read.

Intelligence Tests. These tests, described at the beginning of this chapter, examine a person's general ability, which can be said to be an average or composite of his competence with words, arithmetic, spatial relations, and memory. They are the most valid and reliable psychological tests yet devised and are useful in determining capacity for intelligent behavior. Unfortunately, their success has led many to expect IQ examinations to provide more information about the personality and guidance than such tests can provide.

There are many individual and group intelligence tests. In addition to the Army Alpha Test and the Army Beta Test, mentioned above, the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale, the Scovill Classification Test, and the California Test of Mental Maturity are well known.

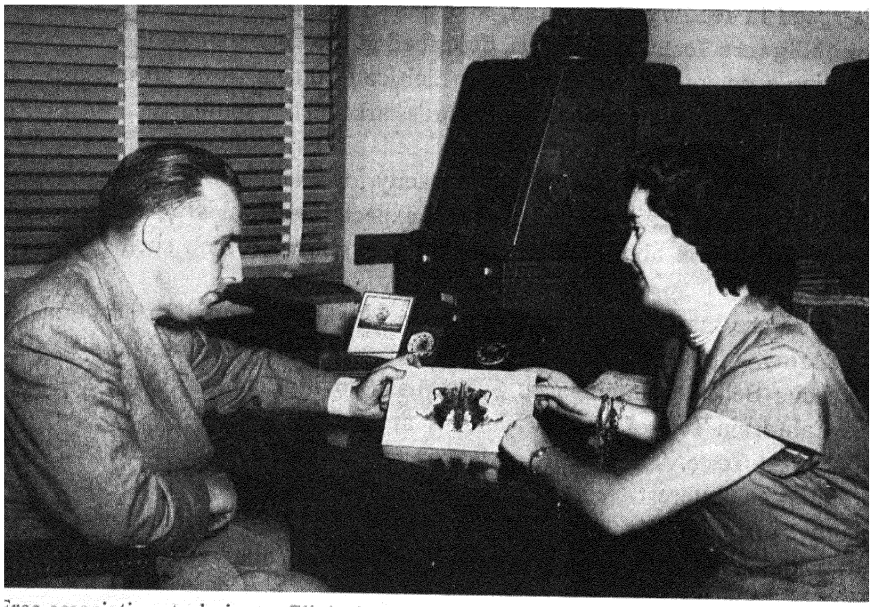
Interest Tests. These tests endeavor to find out the subject's personal preferences. Interest tests differ from attitude tests in that the former are highly personal and are free from emphasis on moral values, while the latter are designed to elicit the subject's personal concept regarding group good.

The main weakness of interest tests is that only a few of the many available methods of studying interests are used; tests are relatively subjective and norm groups require constant re-examination.

Most interest tests, such as the widely used Kuder Preference Record and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, attempt to match the interests of the subject with those of persons successfully employed in certain major occupations. Occupational interest tests are eagerly looked to by many parents and students as well as employers for guidance in the choice of work.

The major areas in which interest tests are useful are those dealing with the relation of sex differences to job choices; the influence of interests on academic success, particularly among poor students; the prediction of vocational success; and the effect of a worker's interests on his work and his total adjustment.

Before the effectiveness of interest tests can be increased many technical obstacles must be overcome and many defects eliminated. At present these tests are open to criticism on grounds such as the following: their correlation with one another is low; their validity is low; their reliability is low; they contain test items that are overly generalized, obscure, and easily misinterpreted; they make it possible for the testee to deceive the tester through purposeful untruths; there are technical weaknesses in the scoring



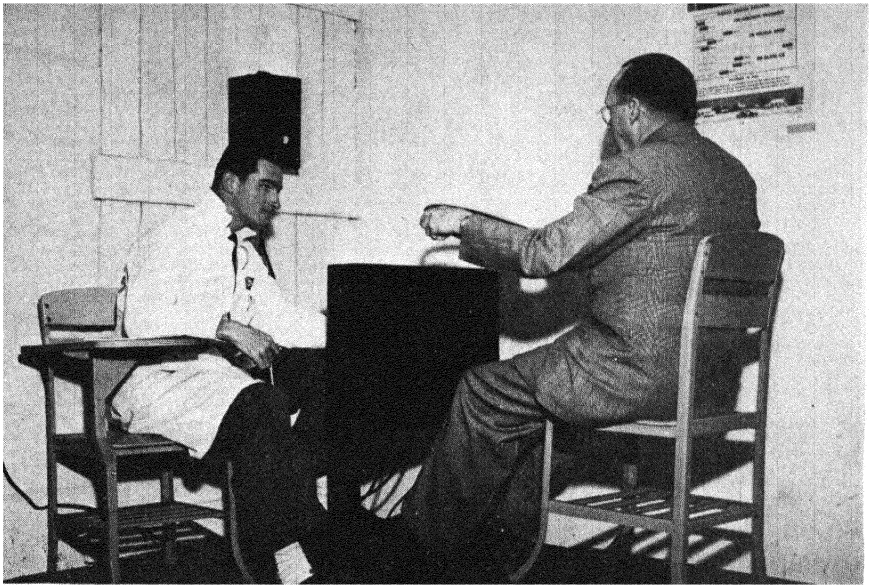
Free-association technique. Clinical psychologist notes what subject interprets as she responds to the ink blot of the Rorschach Projective Test. This is performed in a very well organized college counseling program. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College.)

methods; some of them include the interests of persons employed in many presently untested job areas in the skilled and unskilled fields.

Projective Tests. Some of the weaknesses of interest tests are avoided in free-association and projective tests. These are attempts to uncover hidden wishes which may become fantasies and thus attain expression. Fantasies are sometimes expressed in painting, folk-lore, drama, and by association of words, images, and ideas.

Of these tests, the Thematic Apperception Test (known as the TAT) of Murray and the ink-blot projective techniques of Rorschach are most widely used. The TAT uses twenty standardized pictures to stimulate fanciful interpretation and relieve conflict situations. It gives the expert tester a view of the subject when he is not so bound by self-conscious restraint as he would be, for example, in an interview.

Through the use of projective tests the individual virtually projects himself into a test situation. The Rorschach Test is the best-known of this group. The person being tested is asked to tell what he sees in a set of standard ink blots. A scoring is made by an expert and on the basis of his



Engineer takes speed-of-reaction test. Expert tests rapidity of braking reaction when simulated traffic light is changed. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

interpretation the basic organization of the testee's personality structure is revealed. This test indicates feeling, aspects of the intellectual status, psychic experiences, present mood, and special talents of the person tested.

The Rorschach technique has been refined by American psychologists in order to uncover mental activities that are basic to the testee's concepts. It reveals a person's ability to integrate his imagination and perception in accord with his own particular personality and experience.

There are other tests that are used to gain insight into the imagination and emotional pattern of the testee. Some use pictures, some use words as a means to the free association of ideas, and some are based on artistic preferences. All these projective and free-association tests are being refined in the direction of attaining greater validity and reliability.

Tests That Measure Motor and Mechanical Skills. Motor tests examine the testee in the accuracy, degree of coordination, endurance, speed, steadiness, and strength of his motor skills.

Mechanical tests indicate the subject's ability in working with tools and machinery. The evidence of this knowledge is obtained, as in intelligence tests, through pencil and paper.

Adult taking the Minnesota Paper Form Board Test for coordination. The psychometrist prepares to record the time the subject consumed in taking the test, as measured by the stop watch. Like many similar tests, this is a speed rather than a power test. (Courtesy of New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, Inc.)

Mechanical aptitude is also examined through various form boards into which the subject is required, in a timed test, to fit small pieces.

The ability to manipulate mechanical devices is examined through tests of assembly or stripping, that is, putting disassociated metal nuts and bolts into a unit of logical pattern upon a standard apparatus.

Another widely used test of mechanical aptitude, for boys, is to examine the testee's speed in such jobs as assembling a bicycle bell, a door lock, a push button. To assist in the task a small screw driver is used. Girls are similarly tested for their speed in tasks such as stringing beads, wrapping cards, cross-stitching, and cutting out trimming.

INTELLIGENT BEHAVIOR

The intelligence quotient is a good demonstration of the individual differences that characterize man. It is generally presumed to indicate a factual situation, that is, the intelligence of an individual. This is not quite accurate, because a person is not intelligent in the sense that he is tall, brown-eyed,

thin, or aged nineteen. It is more correct to say that an IQ of 120, for example, indicates that a person behaves more intelligently than the average person. What is popularly called intelligence is replaced in this text by the term intelligent behavior.

Misuse of the word intelligence is a holdover from the ideas of earlier psychologists. Various faculties, such as memory, perception, and intelligence, were considered to be separate parts of the mind. Intelligence in that sense, as distinct from personality, or as a unit distinguishable from it, does not exist. As is generally agreed, intelligence cannot be analyzed, defined, or evaluated. What can be gauged with some precision by psychological tests is the potential for intelligent behavior. Even this can be appraised only by its component parts, such as abstract reasoning, power of learning, language skill, and others.

Definition. There are many definitions of what is called intelligence. It is variously considered to be the ability to learn; to use experience wisely; to make social adjustments easily; to manage social situations; to handle new situations; to adapt to new or changed environment; to understand abstract concepts; to solve concrete problems; to master symbols; to comprehend words and formulas quickly and well; to manipulate the components of machinery; to act wisely in interpersonal relations; to understand people, particularly contemporaries. It would be difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain from a single test an individual's relative rank in the possession of these qualities in comparison with his age mates.

There are also variations in definitions of intelligent behavior. An all-inclusive definition would be quite meaningless. On the other hand, specifically defining what is evaluated in intelligence tests would be too specialized a description to be valid for general application. An acceptable definition is an amplification of the original one given by Binet, and is a simple description of what can be examined by psychological devices. It states that intelligent behavior is the ability to take and maintain a mental set, to adjust for goal attainment, and to be self-critical.

RELATIVITY OF MEASURING DEVICES

Inasmuch as intelligent behavior consists of acts that are comparable with those of others, its measurement involves many relative factors. One of these is the task or problem in relation to which the measure of intelligent behavior is being made. There is difficulty in establishing an over-all prerequisite common denominator of all intelligent behavior. As a result, it is estimated on the basis of a collection of special abilities. This method

presents problems because certain factors involved in measuring intelligent behavior are relative to other factors. For instance, a subject may behave wisely in demonstrating one ability and score high in the psychological test examining for that trait, but behave stupidly in demonstrating another quality, and score low. This situation occurs, for example, when a testee scores high in language skill but low in reasoning subtests. A person can also score high in pencil-and-paper tests, revealing one kind of ability, but score low on a manual dexterity test, showing the lack of another kind of ability.

It is not possible, however, to ascertain exactly what weight should be given to each of the abilities that comprise intelligent behavior. The frame of reference and orientation of the author of a test determine such decisions to some degree. There are other relative factors which have some subjective elements, such as the norm group used, the procedures selected by the person administering the tests, the purpose for which the testee seeks testing. An agency or tester may not be aware of all possible tests. In addition, the administration of the tests used may be faulty, or there may be bias in favor of some and against other tests owing to experience, ease or difficulty of administration, or a number of other factors. All of these impinge on the objectivity of the IQ determination.

Other factors which enter into the marked difficulty of accurately estimating capacity for intelligent behavior include the environment of the examination: the time of day; the nature of the examination; the factors of light, heat, humidity; and the place. Additional factors include the scoring of the examination, the norm group's validity and reliability, the testee's motivation, interest, physical condition, emotional stress, and experience with psychological devices. When it is realized that many of the factors listed, as well as others, are also relative to numerous conditions, persons, and environmental situations, there should be a disposition to be somewhat critical of popular overemphasis on the finality of intelligence rating on the basis of one high or low IQ score.

Correlation between Intelligent Behavior and Test Scores. Many believe there is a common "intelligence" because an individual who scores well in some tests, such as those in abstract reasoning, usually tends to attain high scores on other tests, such as problem solving. Similarly, those who score well on intelligence tests have a tendency to learn well. However, the reason for these correlations may be that what is called intelligence may really consist of skill in handling verbalisms and competence in num-

bers and writing. This is understandable and a common-sense approach because it is based on the importance of these skills in our culture.

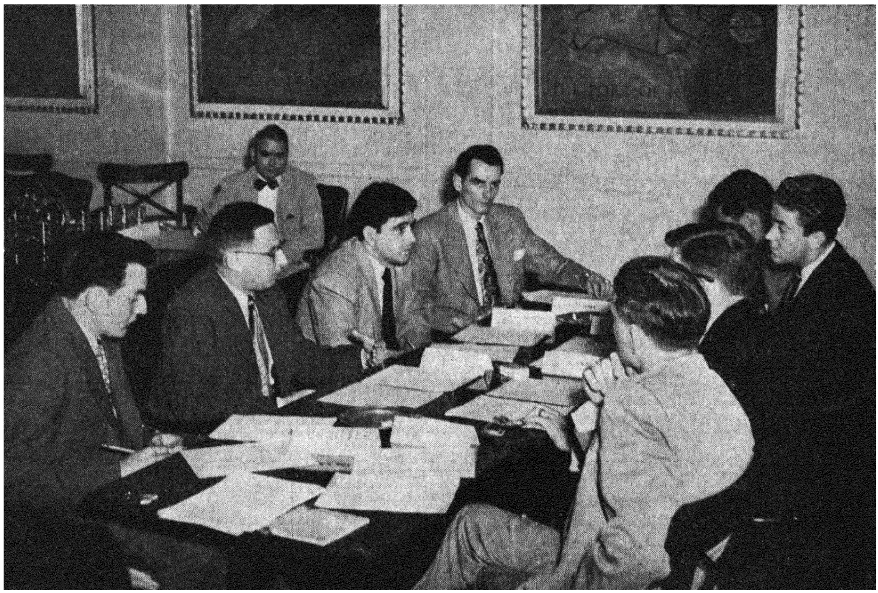
There is some reason to be concerned over the bland acceptance by many of parts of abilities as "intelligence." Such concern is not purely academic. Educational and employment opportunities, job classifications, and even draft eligibility and military assignments are often affected by what is scored on psychological tests and inscribed as "intelligence." The explanation that we have no better method at present is inadequate and is a direct challenge to those concerned.

Recent Research on Intelligent Behavior. Extensive study was undertaken during the Second World War by the German Navy, the British Army, the United States Navy, and the United States Office of Strategic Services to develop improved techniques and to widen the existing basis of examination for intelligent behavior. The results of these researches confirmed the United States Army test results of the First World War. These showed that superior abilities do not necessarily correspond with superior military rank. The indication was that the higher abilities of selected privates surpassed the IQ's of some of those with higher rates, and even of some officers.

This overlapping of ability as measured by tests of IQ is confirmed by modern industry's experience in the analysis of personnel by the use of psychological tests. These reveal that workers in minor posts sometimes achieve intelligence scores that are higher than those scored by persons occupying superior positions. These inquiries show that many persons have abilities which are latent—unexpressed or undiscovered. In these cases the potential for intelligent behavior was not revealed despite the fact that some good testing devices had been utilized in initial efforts to ascertain their abilities and determine suitable job assignments.

There has been some recent experimentation by the Port of New York Authority to improve techniques for revealing the quality of intelligent behavior by elaborate psychological devices. In this work, complete case histories, multiple interviews, extensive batteries of psychological tests, and advanced methods in creating situations of stress were combined. These efforts led to the emergence of a concept that is difficult to isolate, describe, or analyze objectively. When the varieties of examinations and tests were increased, both extensively and intensively, an elusive quality called leadership potential seemed to emerge.

Leadership potential is apparently an important, subtle trait that is difficult to evaluate objectively. However, it appeared to be quite generally



Junior executive applicants taking stress-type performance test. No chairman or other assistance is provided these carefully screened college graduates as they struggle with an intricate problem in group discussion. Their poise, leadership, judgment, and ability to resist stress are evaluated by assistant personnel director, psychologist, and department head. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

present in varying quantities in a group of graduates of American colleges who were most desired by industrial experts as prospective executives. Experienced personnel examiners place the highest value on this trait. Interestingly enough, leadership potential frequently eludes recognition in the usual intelligence-testing program. Those who possess it, according to the Port Authority's intensive, partly subjective, partly objective judgments, score in the top 25 per cent but their ability would not be discovered by IQ tests alone.

Intensive testing and interview techniques like those carried out by the Port Authority do sometimes reveal special qualities. Similar success can also be achieved by using various subtests that are parts of many intelligence, aptitude, and personality tests. A subject's potential for intelligent behavior is occasionally better indicated by his scores on several psychological subtests than by the IQ resulting from one test. This is probably because the group of subtests affords a broader and deeper examination of the person's special abilities.

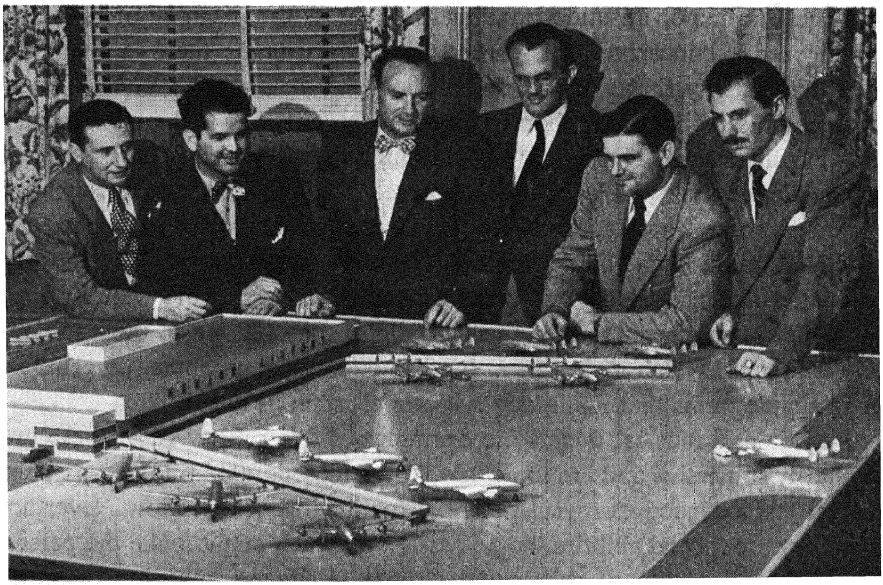
There is a major misunderstanding in so far as the meaning of the term intelligence is concerned. The error is that of assuming there is a quality of general ability that exists in all, varying only in quantity. The belief in this general attribute is probably rooted in the qualities that psychological tests usually reveal. These are varied, though the outstanding one is potential academic ability. Work success, personal adjustment, and personality factors such as honesty, values, and judgment, are greatly influenced by special abilities. Such abilities are too subjective or elusive to be objectively evaluated and scored by our present tests with satisfactory validity and reliability. The discounting of special abilities may be due to their subjective character, which makes them hard to express in numbers, percentiles, or in simple terms that find ready acceptance, such as the IQ.

Artistic and musical talents are examples of this subjectivity. These are primarily subjective and are too elusive to be incorporated into any psychological test designed to reveal potential for intelligent behavior. Nevertheless, they are special abilities the possession of which might make the person so endowed capable of substantially more intelligent behavior than the average individual or one scoring a higher IQ but lacking in talent. Yet testing devices are not, and they may never become, sufficiently discerning to accredit or evaluate such individualized capacity.

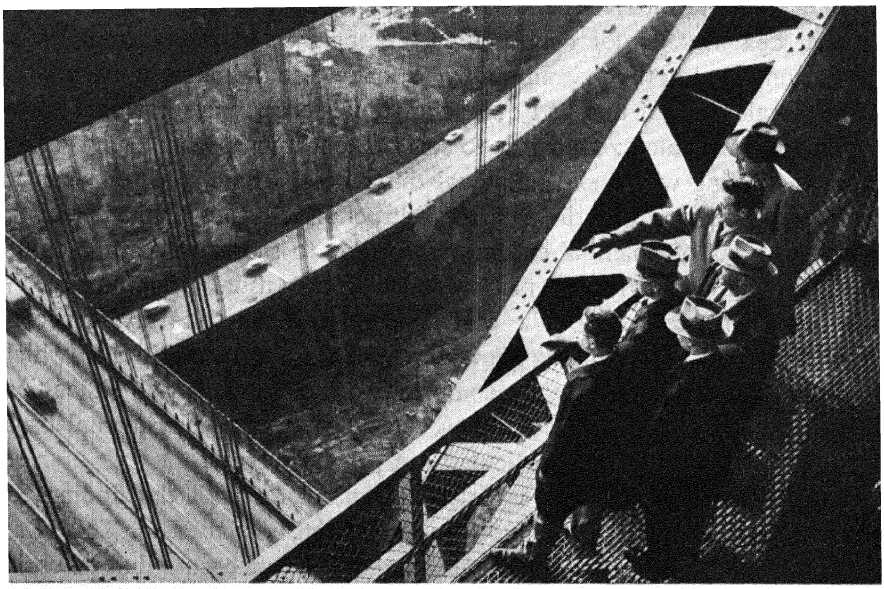
The evaluation of the effect of artistic endowment on intelligent behavior is a complicated matter. It is likewise difficult to integrate other special abilities into the measurement of intelligent behavior. Some of these are manual dexterity, motor coordination, competence in interpersonal relations, nonverbal aptitude, and ability to make discriminating choices.

The evaluation of this and other individualized abilities presents many problems to educators. They rely to some extent upon psychology to assist them in dealing with such individual differences. There is a tendency to increase the amount of individualized instruction and to evaluate academic effort in terms of potential capacity according to scores on psychological tests. Providing individually planned education is usually not possible in school systems, because of the cost involved and the wide divergence in specialized aptitudes. Finding common areas of selected abilities in which groups of students are equally competent presents additional difficulties. Some efforts along these lines have been made on an experimental basis in various school systems, particularly in private schools.

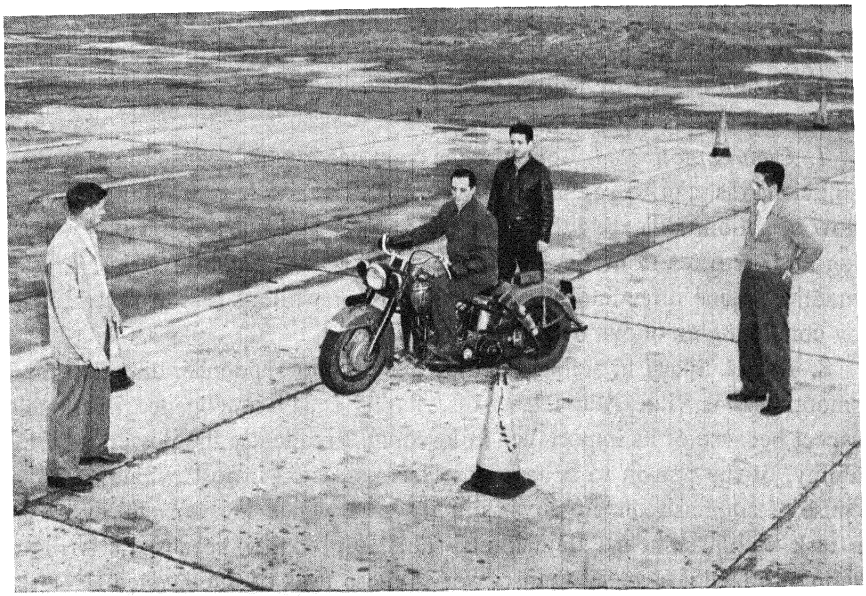
Some educators also rate students in accordance with the findings of psychological tests insofar as individual potential is concerned. This is an inexact procedure because existing techniques fail to measure that potential



Personnel experts study widely different jobs to determine trait pattern essential to each position, in order to establish a basis for selecting the right person for each job. ABOVE: Study of airport layout. BELOW: Bridge maintenance and traffic operation.



ABOVE: Typing and clerical work. BELOW: Motorcycle and police unit. After such studies, personnel psychologists may make their own tests or set their own norms. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)



with any degree of exactness. The result may be overemphasis upon the problems of the very bright and very dull students. In such instances there is a tendency to neglect the majority of students whose abilities are roughly within 20 per cent of the average.

PROPERTIES OF INTELLIGENT BEHAVIOR

Intelligent behavior is:

1. *Purposeful.* It has a sense of direction that is goal-motivated and so directed.

2. *Organized.* It coordinates the many parts of the personality and environmental forces needed to solve a task.

3. *Experientially influenced.* It bases action in novel situations upon past experience and retention of learning, involving the exercise of memory to reconstruct successful past acts in solving new problems.

4. *Physically well-toned.* It is bright, alert, and energetic. The importance of this property is illustrated by the fact that the original psychological tests were called mental alertness tests. In the military services and in industry there is constant search for psychological devices that will reveal this quality's existence.

5. *Adaptable.* It is ready to change plans and try new attacks upon a problem. It is not stereotyped, does not seek pat solutions, nor is it disconcerted by novel situations.

6. *Success-oriented.* It has a background of successful expectancy. This is an air of assurance, feeling of security in doing what is to be done, rather than tension caused by worry, depressed feelings, or doubts as to the outcome of attempts at problem solving.

7. *Clearly motivated.* Action stems from needs which cause the organism sufficient disquiet to require appeasement. The result is a relatively even flow of action, indicating that the need is clear and not a result of conflicting and/or obscure motivations. The self does not act in a jerky, intense manner in one direction, nor is it suddenly or without reason reversed, as by conflicting emotions or ambivalence.

8. *Rapid.* Speed in action when coupled with confidence, direction, and smoothness is vital. Many tests of what is called intelligence stress this aspect because of its importance in learning. Frequently the power, or total ability, of the person to behave wisely is neglected in test evaluations because of emphasis on rapidity, as in IQ tests, which measure ability to do a task within standard time limits. This is probably because it is more simple to evaluate speed than power in these tests of intelligence.

9. *Broad.* There is a rich background to which the intelligently behaving person may refer for analogies, to test results and to find the meaning of what is at hand in relation to total world experience. This implies the absence of parochial, narrow, uncritical attitudes and of prejudices. There is readiness to be self-critical and to accept outside criticism of the self.

INFLUENTIAL FACTORS IN INTELLIGENT BEHAVIOR

Intelligent behavior reflects influences that are generally noted in the variations as to IQ of differing groups in our culture. Some of these differences are that whites outscore Negroes; metropolitan area residents surpass rural inhabitants; professional persons' children outdo those of skilled and unskilled workers; and those with good socio-economic backgrounds get higher scores than do the inhabitants of slums.

However, many, if not all, of these differences are products of the kind of tests used, environmental factors, norm groups, and bias toward knowledge of the pencil-and-paper type rather than performance ability. The variations are due to the favorable backgrounds of the groups that achieve higher scores. This advantage does not indicate that lower scoring groups have a lower mentality or potential for intelligent behavior.

In addition, there is the bias that exists in all IQ tests toward academic, textbook types of knowledge as criteria. Because of this stress on school-acquired information, those who have had adequate formal education are better able to handle test questions than are those who have had less schooling. The latter have had limited experience with "school" knowledge and are less test-minded than the former. Those who have attended poorly financed schools are frequently handicapped. This situation, added to the language used in the psychological tests, helps those with more and better education, and gives them a decided advantage in achieving higher scores in the routine examinations of the accepted criteria for intelligence.

Some special abilities, such as speed of learning, recognition of symbols, and verbal ability, account in part for the better scores in IQ tests made by those with social, cultural, and socio-economic advantages when they are compared with their less favored age mates. In addition to this artificial advantage, the former group has a certain real superiority of position over the latter in the learning of accepted social usages, customs, folkways, and deportment patterns. Little, if any, of this knowledge, gained through casual learning, is reflected in most IQ test scores. Nevertheless, it is an element of social "know-how," that is, knowing what is considered, in our culture,

proper behavior in interpersonal situations. Without appearing as a subtest or as a part of IQ, it is a part of intelligent behavior.

Fortunately for our democratic way of life, no special group in our society has any particular claim to a high or low position in the distribution of those who behave intelligently. The members of the various groups and subgroups of our nation do not gain or lose potentiality for intelligent behavior because they are members of a minority or a special class. However, the same forces that cause them to be members of such groups, namely, economic, geographical, or educational opportunity, also influence their scores on IQ tests.

One of the results of these groupings in our society is the pressure by the more numerous and less fortunate ones to seek higher education to improve their status. Consequently, some fear that the pressure to accommodate the ever increasing number of students who are attending our colleges will result in lowering educational standards. This fear is not substantiated by tests comparing the subject-matter knowledge of present-day adolescent students with that of previous generations of students when education was not as widespread as it is today. Present-day students outscore their age mates of a generation ago in subject matter and in analytical skills.

Despite the theoretical improvement of our intelligent behavior, much study and experimentation are essential before it will be possible to discover all those with superior competence and use their abilities for the good of all. Many with high abilities are in dead-end jobs, as a result of factors over which they have no control. Nor will the selection and proper placement of possible future leaders automatically solve some of the nation's difficult problems. Neither more education nor leadership positions for those with superior abilities will necessarily bring about intelligent action. However, affording those who have the capacity for intelligent behavior the opportunity to use their abilities and capacities effectively is a wise investment. It is probably excellent insurance for future national welfare.

SUMMARY

It is important to recognize that most people have what is called average intelligence, and, further, that they can improve their potentialities for achievement. Individual personal differences evolve out of hereditary and environmental influences, but it should not be assumed that these set final limits to accomplishment. Character, determination, and application can

play important parts in raising the level of productive work. This has been clearly shown by various psychological tests covering large numbers of individuals.

A real need exists for an adequate understanding of the norm group in the population. There are few at the top of the scale and, similarly, few at the bottom of the scale of intelligence scores. It is vital to understand that some psychological tests have questionable validity and reliability.

The general concept of psychological testing is the development of a technique for efficient, homogeneous grouping, individualized instruction, screening to detect intelligent behavior and self-understanding. Tests are guides and not substitutes for judgment, intelligent behavior, and solutions to personal maladjustments.

In addition to the well-known measurements of what is termed intelligence, there are some subtle abilities such as artistic and musical talents, leadership potential, social awareness, skill in interpersonal relations, motor coordination, and others. These are not effectively measured by the psychological devices generally used to estimate the IQ.

Psychology can only measure what it is that is called intelligence. Knowledge of the exact physiological and neural changes that occur in the organism when its behavior has been intelligent or stupid is far from complete. Nevertheless, certain properties or characteristics of intelligent behavior are discernible. These are descriptive qualities that vary in accordance with individual differences. Intelligent behavior is purposeful, organized, based on experience, energetic, adaptable, clearly well motivated, success-oriented, rapid, and broadly conceived.

Despite the difficulties involved in describing intelligent behavior, techniques to uncover abilities will be refined to get persons with high ability into positions of leadership. The expansion of public education and interest in psychological testing will make it possible to recognize and utilize those who have marked potential for leadership in our society.

Overemphasis on the accuracy and importance of some aspects of psychological testing, such as the IQ, is to be avoided. Nevertheless, progress is evident in the use of psychological testing in education, industry, and governmental services, including the military. Use of testing in general and the IQ in particular represents substantial improvement over previous methods. These have been subjective, prejudiced, and unscientific in estimating individual potentiality for intelligent behavior.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Discuss some individual differences.

2. In view of many who score within 20 per cent above or below average IQ scores, what are the implications for: (*a*) public education in the United States, (*b*) the search for leaders in education, industry, and community aspects of our culture?

3. Check the norms of the tests you have taken. How do the scores you made on those tests help you to understand the group with which you were compared?

4. Describe the advantages of the IQ as a standard of measurement.

5. What are the limitations of the IQ as a standard of measurement?

6. What other measurements than the IQ tests are used by industry in the selection and promotion of employees?

7. What is wrong with the popular concept of intelligence?

8. Describe, from your own experience, evidence of intelligent and unintelligent behavior.

9. Name and describe any abilities that are in your opinion needed for intelligent behavior but are not usually examined for effectively by current psychological devices.

10. In current thinking on estimating intelligence, is education or lack of education considered to have any effect on the IQ?

REFERENCES

Burtt, H. E., *Applied Psychology,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1948.

Cole, L. E., and W. F. Bruce, *Educational Psychology,* World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y., 1950.

Freeman, F. N., *Mental Tests, Their History, Principles and Applications,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1939.

Goodenough, Florence L., *Mental Testing, Its History, Principles and Applications,* Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

Greene, E. B., *Measurements of Human Behavior,* The Odyssey Press, Inc., New York, 1952.

Havighurst, R. J., *Human Development and Education,* Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1953.

Ross, C. C., *Measurement in Today's Schools,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1947.

Wood, B. D., and Ralph Haefner, *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth,* Silver Burdett Company, New York, 1948.

CHAPTER 4

LEARNING AND STUDY TECHNIQUES

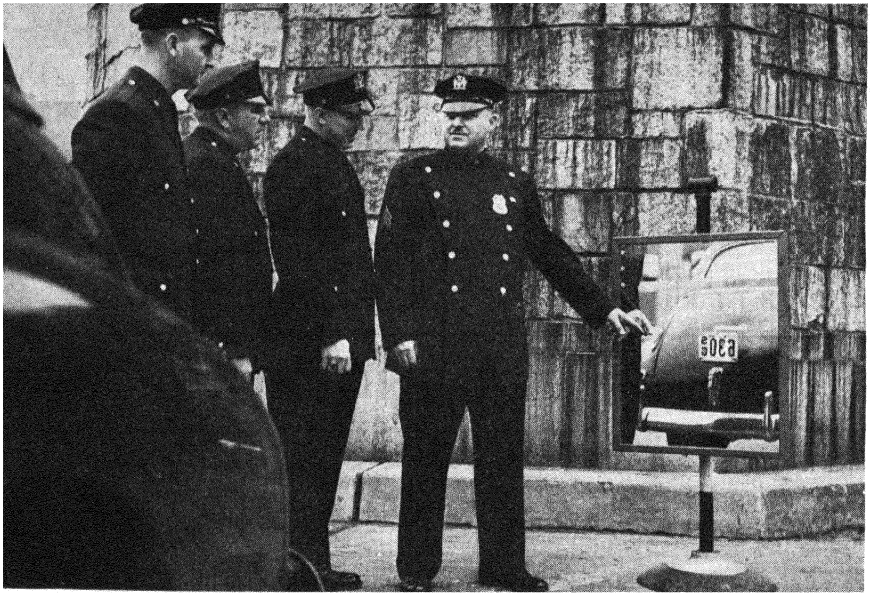
LEARNING

Learning is the most universal, distinctive, and essential occupation of mankind. Whether the individual is following a planned program of study, or casually following detour signs while driving an auto, he is learning. Learning capacity is greatest throughout childhood, declines only slightly, if at all, in adulthood, and usually continues until death.

It is this continuing activity as a learner that distinguishes man. Research indicates that the other animals have much more difficulty than man in solving simple problems such as moving through a maze, or getting into an enclosure by unlatching a gate. They engage primarily in trial-and-error learning, which is distinguished by accidental solution. Man, on the other hand, consciously tries to solve problems by coordinating his abilities through planning. In addition, he uses his past experiences in solving problems in a distinctive and effective manner.

Learning is essential to man if he is to retain control of his environment. To do so he must learn to put his inventiveness to constructive uses, lest it lead to self-destruction; to secure maximum effectiveness through mass production while retaining individualism; and to preserve spiritual values despite the pressures of the profit motive.

Definition. The word "learn" comes from the Anglo-Saxon *leornian.* Early meanings of "learn" include: to gain knowledge and skill through study; to lead the way; to teach. It is not an accident that concepts of motivation, effort, and goal occur in this word learn.



Learning mirror reading is applied to the handling of community problems. Police officers, by learning this technique of psychological laboratories, can spot license numbers of autos that are being hunted. In September, 1953, the use of this technique resulted in the apprehension, after a police pursuit and pistol battle in the Holland Tunnel, New York City, of two gunmen who had shot down a brother officer of those pictured above. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

We know relatively little about the way learning occurs, though the result of accomplishment or failure to learn can be clearly demonstrated. However, the technical changes which take place in the organism while it is learning that $2 \times 2 = 4$ are still not understood.

Consequently, current definitions of learning vary. The term has been defined as follows:

1. Learning includes practically all the activity of man that relates to modifying his behavior.
2. Learning is a technique for dealing with problems.
3. Learning modifies behavior to achieve a goal.
4. Learning is the ability to change the dependence of responses to nerve excitation.
5. Learning is the development of structure through activity.
6. Learning involves the establishment of a new relationship between a stimulus and a response.

The definition adopted for this text is that learning is the change in behavior which causes an individual to improve his relations to his environment. This definition covers learning in emotional and social situations. Such learning is sometimes overlooked because it may not happen to evolve from the typical student-teacher relationship in a classroom.

ESSENTIALS OF THE LEARNING PROCESS

People learn in various ways, though there is a common approach to the learning of new material. The basic problem is to learn the meaning and the logical sequence of the material, particularly if the material is of the lecture or textbook type. To do this, the learner must seek out the chief idea projected as well as its supporting parts.

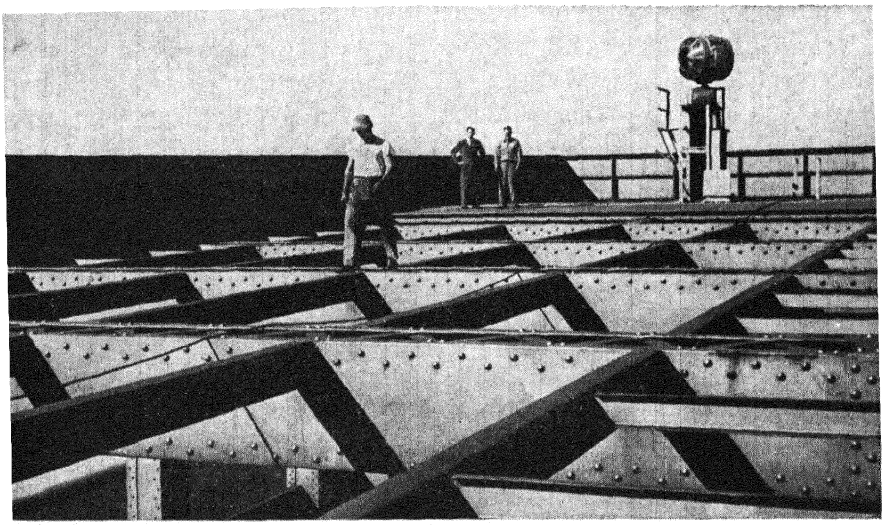
The quality of the learner's approach to the task and his general attitude influence his success. The associations he makes between the new information and that which is already familiar is the foundation of his newly formed ideas of the material he is learning.

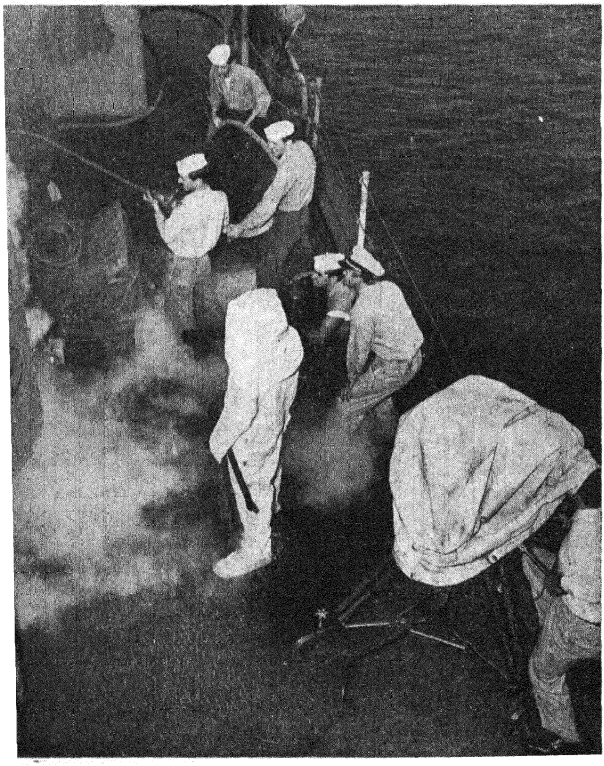
LEARNING EXPERIMENTS

Experiments in conditioning have confirmed the fact that learning takes place through the association of ideas. Such experiments were first carried out by Pavlov, whose work with dogs forms the keystone to theories of learning. In addition to the experiments described in Chap. 2, which established the concept of the conditioned reflex, Pavlov devised another variation which developed a new concept of learning.

Negative Adaptation. In this variation Pavlov replaced the bell of the original conditioned-reflex experiment with the beating of a metronome. When the sequence of the metronome beat followed by the feeding was established as a regular occurrence, the food was withdrawn but the metronome continued to beat out its rhythmic sounds. Following repeated tests in which the metronome sounded but there was no feeding, the saliva decreased in amount and eventually ceased to flow. The dog learned that the beating of the metronome no longer meant that he was to be fed. This experiment established the fact that the conditioned reflex and negative adaptation are the same process. In other words, one can learn to respond to a stimulus that has a favorable connotation but one can also learn to ignore a stimulus which once had a favorable connotation but no longer does so.

Pavlov proved that learning can come from practice, and unlearning from disuse or from the conscious act of negative selection, that is, choos-





Industrial psychologists analyze various learning situations. LEFT, ABOVE: Test to determine ability to work at high elevations. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.) LEFT, BELOW: Learning to fight fire while cameraman makes training film. (Courtesy of U.S. Navy.) RIGHT, ABOVE: Analysis of ability to operate directional and horizon gyrocompass. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.) RIGHT, BELOW: Testing for competence in detecting atomic radiations. (Courtesy of U.S. Navy.)

ing not to respond to a stimulus. He further showed that distracting stimuli, such as lights and sounds, and the physical condition of the experimental animal affect the quality of the conditioned reflex and of learning.

Other Experiments. Other experimenters established that additional factors affect learning. Their conclusions include the following:

1. A stimulus must be present at the time, or close to the time of response, in order to produce conditioning of the reflex. If the stimulus is remote or disconnected there will be no conditioned reflex.
2. An act is strengthened by repetition and weakened by disuse.
3. An act of learning is improved by reward or lack of punishment and weakened by punishment.
4. There is a personal pattern of individual differences into which new acts of learning fit. This pattern varies with each individual.

EMOTIONS IN LEARNING

In the study of emotional learning, Freud and others have indicated that anxiety or fear is a kind of conditioning. To prevent pain the organism will become motivated to avoid behavior that presumably will cause pain.

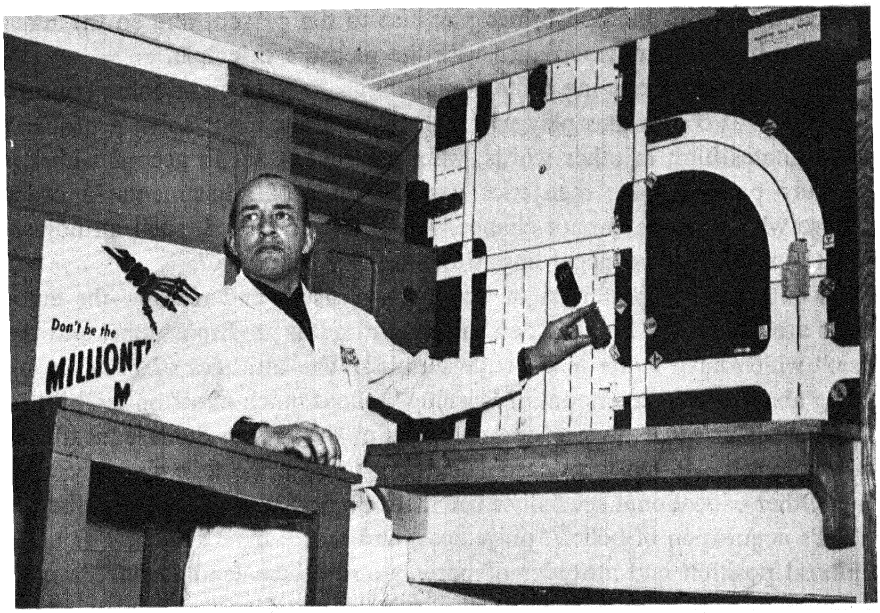
This concept differs from the one which holds that a reward improves learning, and punishment weakens it by blotting out the learning. Punishment does not eradicate the old habit that might bring pain. Through anxiety it causes the organism to inhibit or restrain the motivation and consequently the learning process. Thus an undesired, painful experience that may come from the old habitual process is avoided.

In this connection, there is a kind of secondary reinforcing of learning, indicated by a readiness to learn and an increased tension on the part of the organism. Such preparation of a person becomes a factor in the quality of learning, which is characterized by the "set" of a person. This alert pattern can be significant when one is threatened but determined to escape harm by the exercise of his faculties.

Visual and auditory aids are helpful in creating a favorable "set," thus improving learning possibilities.

Experiments indicate that emotional conditioning is a factor that affects the quality of the conditioned response. As a result, leading educators have stressed the need to consider "the whole child" in teaching academic subjects.

There is some difficulty in explaining the emotions in learning if the Pavlov concept is accepted in entirety. He believed that the shifting from the first stimulus to the second one resulted in the same response. Condi-



Visual aids improve association between familiar and unfamiliar materials. Magnetized miniature autos can be placed in all driving situations to aid in teaching safety. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

tioning to him comprised all of learning. But Freud, and others after him, have injected the factor of emotion into learning to add another part to the basic theory of learning.

Added to the Pavlov conditioning concepts are Freud's principles of mental functioning. When a person is well balanced and in good emotional adjustment these forces, the pleasure principle and the reality principle, balance each other. When the individual is mentally upset, these principles struggle with each other, and he is in a neurotic state. These two principles of learning have assumed greater importance in recent studies of theories of learning. The pleasure principle can be demonstrated by the tendency of a person to try to solve a problem which irritates him to action. The irritant may be a crossword puzzle, avoiding an auto accident, or a chemical problem.

In this process the person tries in any way he can to gain satisfaction by removing the cause that is disturbing his ease, contentment, or normal habits of life. He may accomplish this purpose through trial and error, and so some psychologists refer to "trial-and-error learning." As the effect is what the learner is striving for, the process may be called "effect learning." Freud

indicated that this method brings pleasure to the person, and so the individual is behaving in accordance with the pleasure principle.

Freud's second learning principle is similar to the conditioning concept of Pavlov. It comes into play when an individual cannot solve a problem that agitates him; in other words, when he cannot act in accord with the pleasure principle. He then tries various kinds of adjustments in order to live with what he cannot change. According to Freud, such an adjustment represents living according to the "reality principle."

In both Freud's principles of learning—pleasure and reality—the emotions are important, for they develop the attitudes, predispositions, and the "set" which have much to do with learning. The attitudes of one's group bring about a certain amount of learning without much effort on the part of the learner in order to meet the demands of the group. Some educational psychologists use the term casual learning to describe this type of learning. Other educational specialists use the term acculturation to describe the child's acquisition of beliefs, prejudices, and mores from adults. The basic cultural position and attitudes of parents and others tend to have a constant impact on the environment in which the child learns.

ELEMENTS PRESENT IN LEARNING

Although there is much research to be done before the process of learning can be described accurately, knowledge does exist as to the elements that are present when learning occurs. These are:

Existence of the Material Motivation and Criteria. This means that the organism must be faced with a task, problem, or other situation that is of sufficient interest to require action because the self has become disquieted.

Principle of Least Action. This means that once aroused by a problem and motivated to act, the organism will seek to return to a condition of inertia by expending only the amount of action necessary to solve the problem.

Principle of Continuing Action. In order to learn, the organism will be persistent in seeking efficient solutions. If an apparent solution is not correct, others will be tried until success is achieved or the attempt at learning abandoned. There must be continuity of effort to attain learning.

Permanence or Impermanence. Learning proceeds, as indicated above, until the organism is satisfied by success or discouraged by reaching what is known as a plateau. For example, one learns to type by laborious pecking at the correct keys with the proper fingers. After long practice one gains

skill in making not only the correct letter response but the correct word; then come phrases, and finally sentence responses. But before each success no amount of practice seems to cause any improvement. These are plateaus of learning. They occur when discouragement enters at seeming lack of progress in attaining the ultimate objective. Good studying requires breaking the whole task into smaller parts in order to decrease the number of plateaus that will be encountered in learning the entire material.

LOSS OF WILL POWER TO LEARN

A loss or absence of will power or difficulty in applying oneself to the job of learning is often experienced. Despite excellent motivation, plans, and environment, an individual may find many competing activities that use up time allotted to learning. These other tasks or interests may be of little immediate concern, may even be invented, undermining the will to study and preventing concentration on the learning task.

For example, a student may settle down to a period of study with all good intentions. He selects a quiet place, prepares his books, pulls up his chair, and adjusts the light. But the thought then comes to him that he wants to make several phone calls, rearrange the desk, wax his skis, or wash the car. In this way he procrastinates and rationalizes his inability to set his mind to the task of studying.

Such lack of will power and inability to concentrate, when manifested in an extreme form, are termed abulia. Many normal persons evidence a mild form of this characteristic. It may be caused by conflicting interests, motives, or some unconscious motivation that overpowers the conscious will to concentrate. When this becomes of frequent occurrence, counseling should be sought.

STUDY TECHNIQUES

Differences in intelligence, motivation, and environment spell out the need to understand individual abilities and limitations. Some who have superior mental capacity, including a very retentive memory, can achieve learning goals much more quickly and effectively than others who are not gifted in this way. This success, of course, presupposes that the better endowed individuals apply themselves to their study tasks. In considering study techniques, emphasis must be placed on the so-called average student, and most students fit into that general classification. Those who belong at both ends of the statistical bell-shaped curve—that is, those who learn very quickly and effectively, and their opposites who are slow and

deficient learners—are comparatively few in number. All students need to recognize their average strengths and limitations in carrying out study assignments. They should utilize recognized and tested study techniques and, in that way, improve the effectiveness of their educational careers.

Essentials for Good Study. Research has indicated that good and poor students study more or less similarly, but that the good student gets more out of the process. Related studies of two groups, the one receiving top grades, the other failing grades, showed that the former, though testing only slightly higher as to intelligence, spent half as much time in study.

This establishes the fact that the difference between success and failure frequently lies in the quality of study. A high quality can be attained by all, but the degree of success will still vary with the innate intelligence of a student. High intelligence plus the application of good technique usually results in the attainment of top grades; average intelligence using excellent technique may result in substantial improvement in grades with the same amount of time invested in study.

One of the basic rules is that for the usual college course the student should plan a minimum of one hour of study for each hour of class recitation. Individual differences and differences in courses affect this general principle, but it is a sound one for the general planning of learning time. Regular attendance in classes is essential, and a reasonable amount of attention to the instructor is needed to tie in the text and the lectures. A favorable environment for study means, for most students, freedom from distractions. These include radio, TV, conversation, traffic noises, recreational reminders such as telephone calls, athletic equipment, pictures of girl and boy friends, cards, games, puzzles, comics, and interruptions by chores, siblings, parents, or others.

Another requisite is that the environment should be conducive to study, In other words, the right equipment. This means a straight-backed chair, a clear desk, a good light, the necessary writing materials and reference books, including a dictionary. These should be arranged prior to studying, so that all the mechanics of the process of learning will add to, and not subtract from, the on-going habit of study once it is formed. Interruptions to studying may well be planned as relaxation periods. They should be arranged for the purpose of improving the study, and not of getting the equipment with which to study. Lounging chairs, beds, and divans should be out of sight whenever possible, in order to avoid the suggestion of relaxation inherent in these pieces of furniture. The point is that the organism learns better when there is a slight pressure toward accomplishment, ab-

sence of a completely relaxed attitude, and the promise of some reward. Self-pressure and self-rewards vary with each individual, but they are a real part of the stimulation. With some, self-denial as a method of punishment is an effective aid in the study process.

Many students have complained that the desirable environmental factors for study are unattainable in their homes. They and many others who live on campus frequently neglect to use the college library, which generally affords the best environment for study.

Background of Study Habits. There are other considerations than the particular environment in which studying is done. The first of these is the student's general adjustment to college. To study well, he must like what he is doing. This implies that he should carefully examine the desirability of attending the college selected and the courses chosen, in terms of their effectiveness in helping him to achieve his life and vocational objectives.

A background factor that hampers good study appears when students take courses for which they are not fitted, or the content of which they are not informed about. In this connection, the advice of the college faculty should be followed as to selection of courses, rather than the "tips" of fellow students.

Similarly, effective counseling can assist the student to avoid procrastination and time wasting. These account for many of the study difficulties faced by freshmen. Some of the reasons for these troubles are the new liberty of college, the lack of instructor supervision, and the onrush of "growing up." The result is that study is delayed or avoided in many instances until it is too late to establish good study habits. Also, the size of the subsequent task of catching up on the neglected work develops irritation and rationalization, which further prevent a student from using the ability that he possesses.

Many excuses and rationalizations are given by the student to account for his lack of application. He is quite honest in his explanations. He often does not realize that the expressed or implied justifications for his lack of work are self-gratifications used to relieve basic feelings of guilt over the fundamental and inescapable fact of procrastination. The student must learn that an important part of his maturing process is acceptance of the instructors' trust that he will budget his study time effectively.

Few students realize that this concept of maturity is basic to the traditional lecture, or the more modern group discussion method of teaching. Both instructors and students assume day-to-day preparation through study of the assigned texts, as much college instruction is cumulative and built up

step by step. Neglect at the start of a course often inhibits the attainment of a proper foundation of knowledge, and no amount of cramming can establish this foundation. Few college freshmen accept this as a sound psychological fact based on experience. They often face a rude awakening when their own unhappy difficulties confirm the fact that while "getting away with it" may have been successful in high school, it often causes college failure.

The psychological reason for this situation is that the college freshman is in a screened group. This means that the curve of distribution is "skewed" to the right. There are more persons with superior abilities in the norm group in college than in high school. If the curve of distribution of the abilities of college students were compared to that of high school students both curves would be bell-shaped. However, the curve of the college students would appear farther to the right on the graph paper because the points that show higher abilities are at the right side of the graph. Thus the curve is said to be skewed to the right or indicative of a higher than average bell-shaped curve of distribution. While the same distribution of ability holds true as in high school, the college's norm group is a higher one, for the dull students of high school are usually not in the college group. Those with low abilities are in the lower part of the distribution and often they do not go to college. Thus they are out of competition, replaced by bright youths who are graduates from various high schools. Only the superior students from many such schools are in the distribution of intelligence among college freshmen. This is, of course, a perfect illustration of how a group that is screened, that is, of higher mental caliber, still follows the bell-shaped curve, but at a level in which the competition calls for much greater effort.

Accelerating Reading Ability. Research and experience indicate specific methods of improving the process of learning. First, a plan is needed to establish regularly scheduled study periods. Before the plan is drawn, the student should keep a record of the 168 hours of the week preceding the making of the study schedule. As a result of this time study the hours wasted in nonproductive activity can be cut down by planning a balanced program of study, classes, work, sleep, eating, recreation, and a smaller "waste-time period."

The second technique is to learn to analyze printed material. This may require an improved vocabulary and ability to concentrate quickly on the core of the material. After this is achieved, study moves faster because the student learns to grasp the meaning of printed material from the topic

College-clinic students using individual reading accelerators. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College.)

sentence in each paragraph. He should study chapter headings and subheadings, tables of contents, introductions, and conclusions, and develop the helpful skimming technique.

These methods are introductions to the technique of improved reading. To increase one's ability in reading, it is essential to know that learning from print is effected by the eyes alternately sweeping the page and pausing. Speedy reading comes by forcing oneself to increase the sweeps and decrease the pauses. Experience in college clinics and reading improvement courses has shown that this can be accomplished through practice.

This speedy reading is done by timing each trial period to force faster reading without lowering reading comprehension. In the early stages of such practice, comprehension may seem to be lowered. If this lowering of learning capacity persists, the student should seek expert help from an instructor. Improving the speed of learning at the cost of understanding the material is to be avoided.

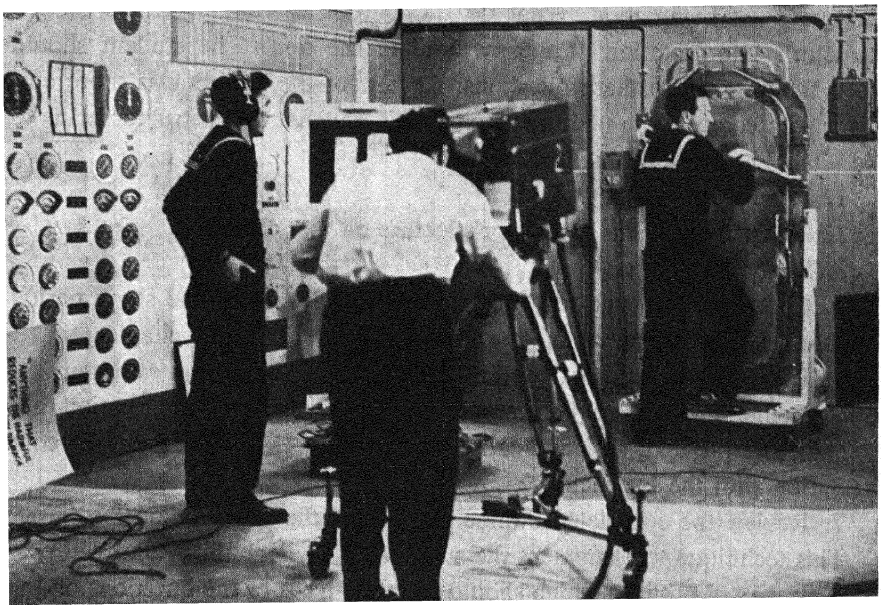
The technique of increasing the speed of reading is to train the eyes to anticipate the next line of print during the rest period they normally take when they have just completed reading a line. A useful experiment is to

set apart 10 per cent of the normal study period. The 10 per cent period should be divided into five equal portions. Each of these can be used to force the most rapid reading possible. The student should train himself to increase the number of words read during each of the five trial periods. He will gradually develop a method of reading by phrases and sentences rather than by letters and words. Careful recording of successive scores provides an incentive to improve in what can be a profitable educational and psychological experiment.

Increasing Vocabulary. Reading improvement can get its next greatest impetus from increasing one's vocabulary. The chief delay to rapid reading is eye regression. This is the return of the eyes to review an uncomprehended word. This can be remedied by dictionary study during odd times and regular study periods. The interruption of regular study to look up important unknown words is efficient in the long run, for the same kinds of words tend to reappear in many texts. In this connection, language study or study of other subjects requiring similar memorization can be done more effectively by using 3- by 5-inch "flash" cards. One unit that is to be memorized is written on these cards, for example, a shorthand symbol or a psychology definition or a chemistry formula. At convenient times, which might otherwise be spent daydreaming, these cards are taken out of the pocket and studied, then replaced to test ability to recall each one. This is an ideal way to apply what is called the spaced distribution technique of learning.

Skimming. Considerable efficiency comes from skimming, which means scanning as rapidly as possible so that the eyes glide over whole sentences with comprehension of the general sense rather than the particular parts of the information. To do this well, special attention must be devoted to the sentence that follows guide words such as *consequently, accordingly, it follows, on the other hand, but, nevertheless, despite, in addition, first of all, in summary.* These and other similar words warn the reader of passages that change, elaborate, or emphasize ideas. Spotting guide words and using them to learn the change in the author's thought are the keys to intelligent skimming.

Superficial examination is another definition of skimming, and it is obviously no substitute for complete learning. Hasty scanning is an invaluable technique for newspaper, magazine, recreational, and reference reading in which the attainment of general information and background material is the objective.



Training of naval reservists reaches high level of utilization of modern television techniques over Station WOR-TV. In widely separated armories in New York, New Jersey, and Long Island, for a half-hour each week for several months, USNR sailors view a carefully planned lesson, integrated with face-to-face lecture and testing devices, with good learning results. (Courtesy of U.S. Navy.)

Varied Methods and Materials. Just as skimming and reading differ from study, so do their techniques for improvement vary. The methods of study vary with different material. To learn shorthand symbols or French vocabulary, for instance, repeated short spans of study are usually most effective. Distributed periods of study are more successful than concentrated study. Five periods of ten minutes' study are probably better than one hour of steady studying. There is experimental evidence to prove that once the process of mental activity is started, it continues onward even if interrupted. Repetition captures this "hang-over" advantage. This is somewhat similar to the recollection of the earlier chapters of a book when one returns to the middle of the story after he has had no contact with or thought about the book for days or even weeks.

Another technique is needed to learn larger wholes. Generally, one learns whole units better than particular parts, since if one learns the particular parts there is the additional process of putting them together to make a whole. In this connection, an entire course can be learned most effectively if the student tries to get the viewpoints of the instructor and the author of

the textbook being used. What do they stress as vital? What is the instructor's interpretation of the material in the text? The student should seek the answers to these questions. Review of the textbook is more efficient with careful note taking and emphasis on what the instructor holds to be vital. The steps in this method are:

1. Read a chapter of text;
2. Make notes on the instructor's lecture on that chapter;
3. Study those notes;
4. Carefully study the text, closing it regularly during the study period so that it is possible to outline the important material in the chapter;
5. Preserve the outline material and skim over it twice a semester;
6. Refine the outline before examination by adding information obtained from the text, assigned collateral readings, class discussion, or conversation with the instructor;
7. Review the completed outline just before the examination.

This technique will augment the student's analytical ability and will provide a series of outlines which should form the basis of the questions on the final examination.

The objective attitude, rather than hopeful clutching at straws, should carry over into the field of study techniques. There are no substitutes for intelligence and the expenditure of effort in relation to study. The specific values in skimming, outlining, and whole-part study are confirmed by experimental findings. Intelligently arranging suitable environments for study, time planning, and avoiding procrastination are essentials for good study habits. The utilization of knowledge is a measure of maturation. In all matters relating to study, the student must appreciate the fact that his total objective is to apply effort to change his potential to actual achievement.

The concept of general adjustment is successfully used in improving study in specialized subjects. The following case of Jane shows how a remedial-reading laboratory dealt with a problem of learning arithmetic.

Jane was a 12½ year old girl who evidenced superior intelligence. Her mother was employed as a high school teacher while her father was self-employed. She was a dependent youngster who had always toed the mark. Her grades were very good but "still not in the high nineties." She was in the seventh grade and measured at an early sixth grade level in computation and at a beginning seventh grade level in reasoning.

Jane immediately objected to the permissive atmosphere of the group. How

could a child learn if some other members were talking with each other and another was humming a tune while lazily thumbing through his workbook? Jane demanded arithmetic and attempted to gain the clinician's full attention. The group, however, set its own limits and when Jane found that she could not hold the clinician throughout the period she attempted to punish him by joining in with the conversation of the other members. Jane was on a strike. The other children, however, were discussing the negative aspects of their school or home life. Jane still could not understand why such feelings were permitted to be aired and in voices that were above a whisper! The problems, however, were her own and after the third week Jane could not resist becoming an active participant. The discussions were unscheduled and irregular.

When Jane learned that she could say what she pleased and actually engage in errors in her arithmetic work without being admonished she lost her restrictive and academic manner. Being able to mix with the group, talking very freely to an "authority" figure became more important than pure achievement. *The atmosphere proved successful* for on a retest *three months later Jane gained* four years in *computation and 2½ years in reasoning.*[1]

SUMMARY

Learning is a major occupation of man, and his success in it distinguishes him from other animals. The physiological and psychological processes that comprise learning are not known. We know when and if it happens, but not how it occurs. It has not been possible to trace nerve action that causes learning or its opposite, forgetting.

In learning, the entire environment is involved, sometimes assisting and sometimes causing negative learning, or forgetting. In order to learn there must be: material and methods of evaluating the learning; motivation; and efficient and continuing effort to learn. Sometimes these efforts wane because there seems to be no further progress toward learning. These pauses in the learning process are called plateaus. Improved spacing of the periods during which the learning occurs will diminish the frequency with which plateaus occur.

Good study technique is to learn, to forget some, and to decrease forgetting by more learning. Review at regular periods assists in overlearning, or learning that is so well done that it prevents the forgetting process from following its usual course.

[1] Sturm, Joseph, "An Approach to Remedial Arithmetic," *Remedial Reading Newsletter,* Vol. 3, No. 2, December, 1952, The Brooklyn College Advisement Center, New York.

Sound study methods require:

1. *Appreciation.* One must understand that reading is a characteristic of maturity, an important criterion of one's status as a civilized being and cultured person.

2. *Understanding.* The thoughts and ideas behind words, rather than the routine or unusual aspects of the material, should be grasped.

3. *Personal Adjustment.* Fatigue, "wool gathering," daydreaming, and inattention may impede study for moments, or in a regular sequence for short periods of time. Prolonged inability to get at or stay with the material in planned study, or not being able to comprehend an assignment, despite repeatedly reading it, implies some emotional difficulty that requires solution before study technique can be developed.

4. *Knowledge of Methods.* These include the proper way to take notes, outline, increase vocabulary, observe, and digest large amounts of information into small, usable form. Methodology in study technique includes comprehending the practical use of subjects that are being learned and their function in furthering the student's life goals.

5. *Review.* This should be planned to prevent forgetting.

6. *Examination Technology.* Emotional upsets can be prevented by the proper organization of material for use in examinations. Skimming, cramming, or the method appropriate to the material in which the person is to be examined should be used.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Relate any experiences you have had in which learning occurred subsequent to a previous failure to learn the same material. Account for the change in terms of the material under "Study Techniques" above.

2. What are the basic "keys to learning"?

3. Give examples from your own experience of the various kinds of learning, using the text material to guide you in analysis of experiences.

4. Outline casual learning that you have accomplished, citing particularly evidences of changes due to new groups or influences.

5. What comprises good teaching and what are the characteristic patterns of the good teacher? How can you use these in self-teaching when the "artist teacher" is not available to inspire you?

6. The following question is from the New York City Board of Education examination for psychologists: "A teacher of economics in an academic high school states almost half her senior year students spend most of their class time in daydreaming. Should the teacher (*a*) refer daydreamers to the psychologist;

(*b*) realize daydreaming is normal for adolescents; (*c*) base lessons on economic problems confronting her pupils; (*d*) give surprise quizzes when inattention becomes widespread?" What is your opinion?

7. Evaluate your present method of study as compared with the techniques discussed in the text.

8. What are the forces that motivate you to do your best studying?

REFERENCES

Deese, J. E., *The Psychology of Learning*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1952.

Horrocks, J. E., *The Psychology of Adolescence*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1951.

Kitson, H. D., *How to Use Your Mind*, J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1951.

McGeoch, J. A., and A. L. Irion, *The Psychology of Human Learning*, Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1952.

Mursell, J. L., *Using Your Mind Effectively*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1951.

Staton, T. F., *How to Study*, McQuiddy Printing Co., Nashville, 1952.

Stephens, J. M., *Educational Psychology*, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1951.

Tilton, J. W., *An Educational Psychology of Learning*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1951.

PART 2

Personality and Family Relationships

Traditionally, families were of the authoritarian type. Either or both parents represented the ultimate in determining each member's conduct, regardless of individual needs, interests, or wants. Growing out of widespread educational and psychological research, a new liberating movement developed the concept of the "child-centered" home. Much criticism has been leveled at this kind of home, because in it the domination has merely been switched from parent to child. Whatever the validity of this criticism, it is now generally recognized that families should be "family-centered," that is, each member should participate in family activities in accordance with his ability and be cared for as his needs require.

In attaining this desirable objective in family life, the application of psychological facts can be helpful. If the factors that influence relationships and their causes and effects are understood, the gap between adolescence and adulthood can be effectively bridged.

Difficulties of communication and understanding between teen-age youth and their parents are common. Misunderstandings in these areas add to family tension. With increasing knowledge and awareness of psychological techniques, there is the opportunity to bring parents and college-age children into closer, mutually co-

operative understanding. Much can be achieved by learning the areas of agreement and of difference through study of the motivations and goals of the various members of a family unit.

Knowledge of the basic facts of psychology forms a background for discussion of the psychological implications of family life. Students may find it possible by applying the facts of psychology to lessen any existing tension and to create good familial relationships. Thus, they can help to prepare themselves for the mature responsibilities of courtship, marriage, and parenthood.

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

There are many definitions of *personality* in psychology. Some are broad, including the individual and those affected by him. Others are narrow and are concerned with traits, or parts of the personality. In popular use, the term implies many different things.

Personality interacts upon people and the environment. It is not static, but is always changing. It is not social allure, presently called "glamour," nor can it be changed at will by using advertised commercial products or the devices of pseudo psychologists.

As used in this text, personality is defined as the total of man's characteristics integrated with emotional trends, behavior, tendencies, and organic needs, interacting upon others. More simply stated, personality is the unique conduct of a person which individualizes him. It includes impressions he makes on other people. The important point to be considered is the quality of the behavior as it is estimated by others. The quality effect of personality defies measurement because it varies with different people and changing situations. This subjectivity is difficult, if not impossible, to reduce to measurable terms. Consequently, personality tests are generally of questionable reliability and validity.

Individual differences in intelligence are much easier to express in objective figures than are similar differences in personality, although both follow the standard curve of distribution. However, most people may exhibit part of one or more unusual or abnormal tendencies and still be quite average. The span of normal personality is wide, and great leeway exists for individual peculiarities.

ABNORMAL PERSONALITIES

An excellent example of the broad range of personality characteristics is the self-inventory that was used in the Second World War to try to spot disturbed personalities. A few of the questions were:

1. Do you have bad dreams at night?
2. Do you blush frequently?
3. Do you often feel that people are laughing at you?
4. Have you ever had a vision?

Persons answering "yes" to these questions might give psychologists some clues to possible emotional upset. On the other hand, scientific analysis would reveal that many normal people would answer them affirmatively. The abnormal person deviates substantially in his behavior from that of the average. A pattern of peculiarities known technically as a *syndrome* (aggregate of symptoms in a disease), is what differentiates the really maladjusted individuals from those who have some quirks and oddities in their otherwise normal personalities.

Actually, it may be that these very quirks comprise the uniqueness of a person. Distinct mental abnormalities are not discussed in detail in this text because of the emphasis on the normal personality and behavior. However, some data are presented to help in differentiating normal personalities and conduct patterns from abnormal.

The *psychotic personality* is mentally disorganized, disintegrated, and unable to focus attention on reality. Consciousness is changed so that the unreal becomes real. The separation between the psychotic and his environment is so wide that what most people consider real and matter-of-fact is not recognized by him. This type of personality is characteristic of the overwhelming number of persons committed to mental institutions.

Organic psychotic personalities result from damage to the brain. Included in this category are psychotics whose abnormality results from (1) some brain injuries, (2) invasion of the brain tissue by germs, such as those of syphilis, resulting in paresis, or general paralysis of the insane, (3) hardening of the arteries of the brain, resulting in senility, (4) excessive use of alcohol and various poisonous substances.

Functional psychotic personalities include all psychotics whose mental abnormalities are not of organic origin. In these cases the brain is apparently uninjured. Intensive investigation is under way to determine the causes of these disturbances. Thus far, various theories have been propounded, along physiological, biochemical, and glandular lines. Some re-

missions appear spontaneously; others have been brought about by brain surgery. Personalities with functional psychoses include: *manic depressives,* who have periods of excessive excitement alternating with others of severe depression; *schizophrenic* or *dementia precox* personalities, also called split personalities. There are several types of schizophrenics, and they make up about 65 per cent of all mentally ailing persons; *paranoiacs,* who manifest the fixations of dementia with delusions of greatness, persecution, etc.

The *neurotic personality* suffers but little, if at all, from mental disorganization. He maintains contact with the environment and does not substitute unreality for reality. The neurotic often recognizes his own maladjustment; ability to observe and judge the expression of his personality in an impersonal manner may be considered characteristic of the neurotic. The fundamental difference between the psychotic and the neurotic are the latter's ability to review the maladjustment, to survey and judge it for what it is, namely, a partial upset of the personality.

There are many kinds of neurotic personality. Tension, hysteria, and anxiety states represent some groups. Other neurotic personalities include: the *obsessive,* in which the person is carried away with one fixed idea; the *compulsive,* in which one is, or seems to be, driven irresistibly toward repeating to an irrational degree an act such as handwashing; the *ruminative,* in which the individual constantly brings one matter to mind for consideration and reconsideration.

CONCEPTS OF PERSONALITY

The preceding psychiatric concepts are comparatively modern. Many common-sense judgments about abnormality have been handed down from ancient and medieval concepts of personality. For instance, "a black mood" and "a sanguine temperament" are terms still used today, although they describe traits that modern psychology does not accept.

Throughout the Middle Ages personality was thought to result from the relative proportion of four "humors," or fluids in the body, which determined a person's health and temperament. This followed the teachings of the Greek physician Hippocrates (born 460 B.C.). These were likened to the known elements, such as the earth and water. The properties of one of these elements were ascribed to a person in terms of whichever of the four humors seemed to dominate him. Of course, no proof or experimental evidence existed, and all estimates were based on outward actions and appearance.

The Human Side

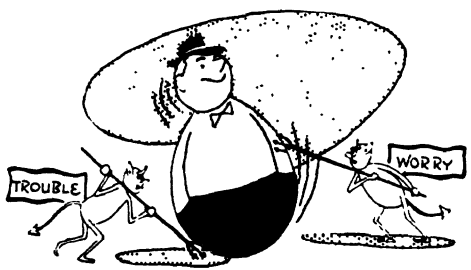
LOOK AT THE GOOD SIDE

1.

Dealing with people can be a frustrating business. Every once in awhile you're bound to get discouraged and ready to throw in the sponge. The vagaries of human nature seem like more than mortal man can bear

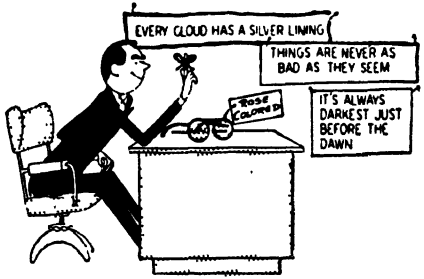
2.

But if you look at the people who are most successful in dealing with others, you find they have at least one thing in common: they don't get easily upset. Somewhere along the line they've learned to roll with fate's punches. They've developed a sort of mental balance and emotional equilibrium. They don't make big difficulties out of little ones.



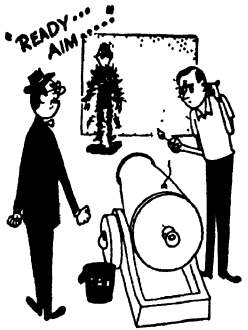
3.

One of the best ways to cultivate this attitude is to make it a practice always to look at the good side of things as well as the bad. The problems and difficulties that arise in dealing with people are rarely as bad as they seem at first glance. But trouble is never pleasant. Unless you're careful, it's very easy to take a distorted view of the situation.



4.

For example, suppose a man has just made a foolish error and ruined a valuable piece of work. The first reaction may be that he is a careless, stupid dolt. He ought to be boiled in oil, tarred and feathered and shot at sunrise.

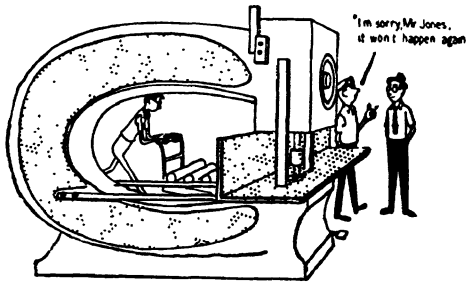


5.

But take a look at the good side. He may ordinarily be a very competent and careful workman. In reprimanding him this fact ought to be recognized. If it isn't, he has every right to resent it.

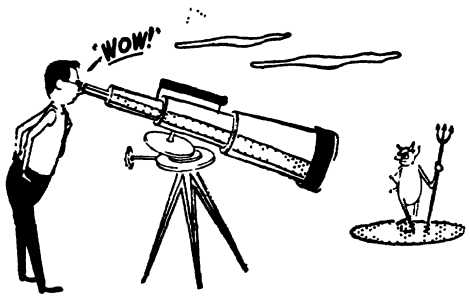
6.

People often get overly excited and chagrinned by difficulties. As a result, they react too harshly. Trouble is to be expected— try to take it in stride. If you can keep a reasonable, fair-minded point of view, it almost invariably produces better results than blowing someone's head off. Fair-mindedness generates respect and cooperation.



7.

Whenever you find yourself getting discouraged or resentful, stop! Things aren't that bad. Take a look at the good side and get your picture back into proper perspective. Don't lose your personal equilibrium and good judgment. There's enough trouble in the world without exaggerating it.



8.

Get others to look at the good side, too. Make allowance for the fact that people have to blow off steam, but let them know, at the same time, that there really isn't any need or reason to be so upset.

Twelve-page pamphlet issued by personnel service organization to assist foremen in interpersonal relations. (Courtesy Bureau of Business Practice, New London, Conn.)

The four humors, their outward evidences, and the presumed effect of their dominance on personality were:

1. *Blood.* A ruddy complexion, showing what was thought to be a surplus of blood, was believed to indicate a sanguine (from the old French for "bloody") temperament, that is, one cheerful and optimistic.

2. *Phlegm.* Coldness and moisture of the hands were believed to indicate a cold, sluggish temperament, likened to a slowly moving river.

3. *Choler,* or *yellow bile.* A yellowish, sallow countenance meant a "choleric" or "bilious" disposition (terms still used by pseudo psychologists), that of a person easily roused to anger, irascible and irritable.

4. *Black bile.* A dark, swarthy, heavily browed countenance indicated melancholy. The black bile was presumed to come from the spleen and to be the cause of dourness, "black mood" depression, a sour disposition, and dejection.

These old concepts of personality still appear in literature, plays, and even in movies and TV as estimates of personality traits. In fact, many evaluations of personality are based on appearances and are judged by the standards of the humors. Yet, ample psychological research has disproved the existence of any relation between the appearance of one's countenance and personality.

ADJUSTMENT CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

Many of the ancient errors, such as those relating to the humors, are eliminated by the modern adjustment concept of personality. This holds that intelligence applied to living implies adjustment of the personality in relation to what cannot be changed. However, unquestioning acceptance of the environment is not advocated. Many individuals who became outstanding leaders changed their environments in varying degrees. Internal tensions cause individuals to try to modify their environment; if this is not possible, they must attempt to adjust themselves to it if they are to be at peace with themselves and with those about them.

The stresses of competition and internal strife cause some persons to become emotionally upset. Others subjected to the same degree of tension are but little affected, if at all. This differing level of being influenced by the pulling and hauling of the self and environment varies with individuals as a result of physical, social, educational, and other forces. Actually, the entire environment of the person influences the level of his threshold of resistance to emotional imbalance and possible maladjustment.

Because emotional difficulties accumulate with little, if any, clear notice to an individual, the settling of internal stress and strain receives little attention in the normal course of events. It is usually during or after an emotional overflow that a person becomes aware of an interest in preventing personality upsets. Teachers, counselors, and physicians can be of assistance in trying to raise the threshold of susceptibility to emotional disturbance.

This process might be started through aiding a person to become aware of his true values, goals, and motivations. The objective is to establish realistic and acceptable values and goals. The elimination of removable forces interfering with good emotional health is another possible aid. These are some ways in which an individual can resolve his conflicts, though he cannot eliminate all of them. It is also certain that no physician or psychologist can settle them for him. The process of guidance is one of mutual exploration of the self and the environment. Merely defining the difficulty does not solve it. There is need to plan personality improvement after knowledge of the conflicting forces is clear to the person concerned. Before an individual can reach the final stage of action and solve his own emotional difficulties, he has to go through many stages of little progress and much discouragement.

Many day-to-day upsets can be lessened by self-study. Achievement of self-understanding is the goal of professional advisers in helping people with ordinary upsets. The psychiatrist deals more particularly with abnormal disturbances. Segments of personality problems vary in normality. In fact, there is no hard and fast rule that can be applied in appraising the normal as distinguished from the abnormal personality. The ultimate in personality adjustment to the environment is elimination of the causes which create the maladjustment or other difficulty.

INTERACTING FACTORS OF PERSONALITY

Mechanisms of personality are devices for the resolution of the constant conflict of motives. But there are many persons who are hindered by lack of one or more of these mechanisms. The general approach to these problems is to consider that each person gradually learns how far he can go to become an acceptable social being while, at the same time, still satisfying his own personal needs.

These ever changing situations that require decisions start in childhood. The making of a choice between self and society is the basis for self-criticism and self-control. The rewards and punishments of childhood lead to

the ethical codes and adult judgments that are the basis for maturity. During the teen age, the early childhood urges to be loved and to attain security are expressed in seeking favorable attention from members of the opposite sex and in being fearful of not meeting the "gang" or group standards.

Sometimes excessive resentment toward older persons, the family, or the school, results. If this is carried beyond the early stages, delinquent conduct may follow. The individual who cannot appreciate how social needs affect personal needs may seek only his own satisfactions; such a state of mind may cause lack of recognition of any conflict of motivation. Convinced that there are no issues to decide, the individual then makes use of various avoidance methods. The objective is to attain only pleasant escape from the real problem of reaching decisions.

Variations of this kind of situation occur in the procrastination and perfection factors of personality. Procrastination may also be a type of rebellion or denial of conflict. Usually this denial is due to an unwillingness to face a deep resentment which the personality fears to express.

On the other hand, perfectionism may represent an excessive anxiety to please others, as by earning high grades and always being early for appointments. Overdoing the right or the good may be the opposite of delinquency, but this scrupulousness can be an overstressing of one's social needs, just as delinquency is often an overemphasis on personal needs. These interacting factors are examples of the need to resolve the conflicts of motivation in terms of the total personality. One-sided solutions require examination and serious consideration.

PERSONOLOGY—THE TYPE CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

Personology is the study of the types of personality, particularly of those with abnormal tendencies. It holds that achievement, acquisition, dominance, and aggression are major tendencies of mankind.

The typing of personalities points the way for future research. In many ways it is a truly scientific approach to the study of personality, even though it presents specific deficiencies. The strongest of these seems to be a certain amount of overlapping. Typing of personality is built upon the functions of thinking, feeling, sensation, and intuition. In addition, the effort has been made to classify people according to physical types. This has been done especially among mental patients in order to determine whether physique has anything to do with a tendency toward mental ill-

ness. In these and other studies the difficulty has been to break down personality into its specific parts.

TRAITS

Traits are distinctive parts of personality. They reveal the strong emphasis in personality description that is placed on the effect that the self has upon others. This effect varies with culture change. For example, an aggressive trait would be interpreted differently in relation to a subway rush in New York and in a finishing school in New England.

There is a considerable body of data indicating the involved nature of traits. Recent research findings show that the relation between intelligence and conduct is not as simple as some studies of delinquency seem to indicate. Intelligence and good behavior do not necessarily go together. Studies of prisoners jailed for crimes of nonviolence, or against property, such as embezzlement and forgery, have shown that such crimes are often committed by individuals of comparatively high intelligence. On the other hand, crimes against persons, or of violence, are more frequently committed by those of low intelligence.

There is much support for the theory that a general moral or immoral constitution does not exist, any more than an inborn inclination to good or bad conduct does. The truth is that environmental factors tend to greatly influence the way an individual behaves in each particular situation. However, a repeated situation of the same nature may cause a pattern of similar or identical behavior to be formed—in other words, a habit. Neither the general environment, such as slum living conditions, nor an over-all pattern of traits induces good or bad acts. The particular acts and their repetition make the "set" for behavior, within the dimensions of the possibilities afforded the individual by virtue of his inherited equipment.

Many colleges and employers evaluate individual traits, and some psychiatrists have joined psychologists in pointing to the advantages of self-evaluation. Traits listed in the accompanying table can be used for the purpose of self-evaluation. They can also be checked by one's family and friends and the separate scores compared.

A fair self-analysis, compared with similar evaluation of the same traits by others, can help one in gaining self-insight. Note should be taken of high scores on undesirable traits and an effort should be made to modify them. The differences between self-evaluation and evaluation by others also require careful thought.

TRAITS FOR SELF-RATING

	None	Very Little	Some	Average	Substantial	Very Much
1. Aggressive						
2. Alert						
3. Ambitious						
4. Conservative						
5. Conventional						
6. Courteous						
7. Deceitful						
8. Forward						
9. Grasping						
10. Happy-go-lucky						
11. Hilarious						
12. Imaginative						
13. Impulsive						
14. Industrious						
15. Intelligent						
16. Jovial						
17. Lazy						
18. Loyal						
19. Meditative						
20. Mercenary						
21. Methodical						
22. Musical						
23. Naive						
24. Neat						
25. Ostentatious						
26. Passionate						
27. Persistent						
28. Pleasure-loving						
29. Practical						
30. Progressive						
31. Pugnacious						
32. Quarrelsome						
33. Religious						
34. Reserved						
35. Revengeful						
36. Shrewd						
37. Shy						
38. Slovenly						
39. Sly						
40. Sophisticated						
41. Sportsmanlike						
42. Stolid						
43. Straightforward						
44. Stubborn						
45. Talkative						
46. Treacherous						

A difficulty in interpreting traits is that a trait breaks down, when analyzed, into several other traits or is seen to consist of parts of other traits. Furthermore, personalities have little consistency of traits. A person may have a pattern of traits indicating that he is an outgoing kind of person, but he may also have some traits characteristic of the shy and retiring person.

The fact that traits break down into other traits, and that they are expressed as part of the whole environment, provides support for the concept that the personality functions as a whole. It is like an orchestra, with various instruments grouped in choirs because of their similarity. All are playing individually, yet they are in group harmony and in total agreement under the direction of the leader. This leader decides the over-all harmony of the personality and its impact on the environment.

PSYCHOANALYTICAL CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

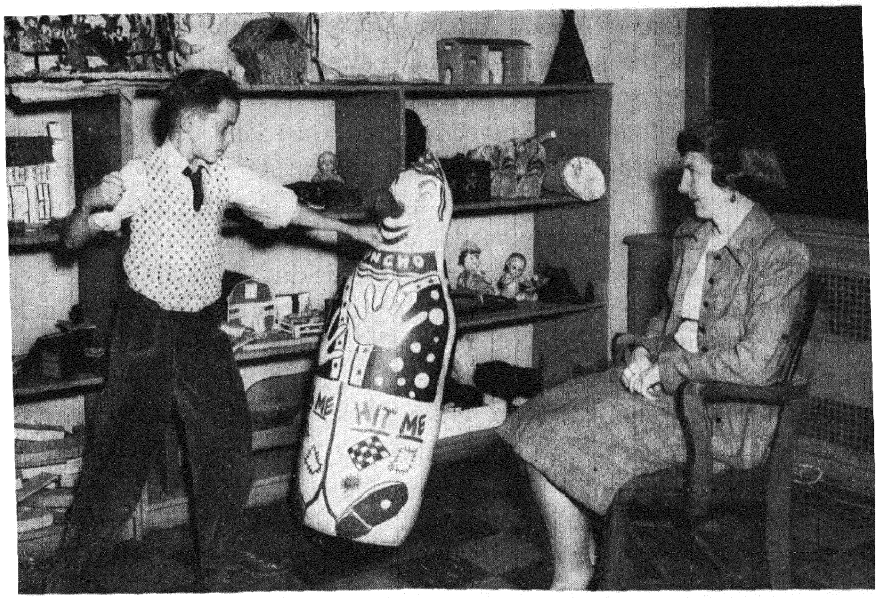
The leader is the *conscience* in the psychoanalytical concept of personality. The conscience ordains or should ordain what the personality may or may not express. Conscience is likewise the ruler of the divisions of the personality called the *conscious* and the *unconscious.*

The conscious consists of the mental activity known to and controlled by the self.

The unconscious is the mental activity, existing beyond the self's knowledge and control. In the unconscious, which is much more extensive than the conscious, lies the energy behind feeling and thought. Apparently forgotten infant and childhood experiences such as fears and denied desires are some of the forces stored in the unconscious. It is an obscure motivating force that causes the emotional outburst that seemingly has no reason to occur. In such cases the individual may not be able to comprehend his own behavior, much less its unconscious causation.

According to some interpretations of Freud, personality results from struggles of the unconscious to get expressed. The struggles are settled by: avoiding the issues through unrealistic substitute activity; direct clashing, with some variations in degree of violence; or compromising on long-term goals for the good of all concerned.

Freud believed that man's fundamental motivation was for love and pleasure. As sex seemed to him to be the keystone of life, he considered basic motivation revolved around it. He called the force through which the sex instinct is expressed the *libido.* Freud defined the conscience, or censor, and the ego as the real personality struggling for expression.



ABOVE: Psychologist studies individual traits to promote early adjustment. Aggressive tendencies may be expressed in "big-muscle"-type play. BELOW. Attention seeking may indicate unexpressed anxieties and unconscious motivation. (Courtesy of Brooklyn College.)

Alfred Adler, one of Freud's followers, considered this struggle for expression based on the need for personal power. The primary motivation, according to Adler, was not sex but a feeling of superiority.

The third of the founders of psychoanalysis, Carl Jung, coined the terms introversion and extroversion. He divided personality into two types: the *introvert,* inward in orientation, away from doing, inactive; and *extrovert,* outgoing and very active. He made further subdivisions of personality types, depending on their sensation, feeling, thinking, or intuition.

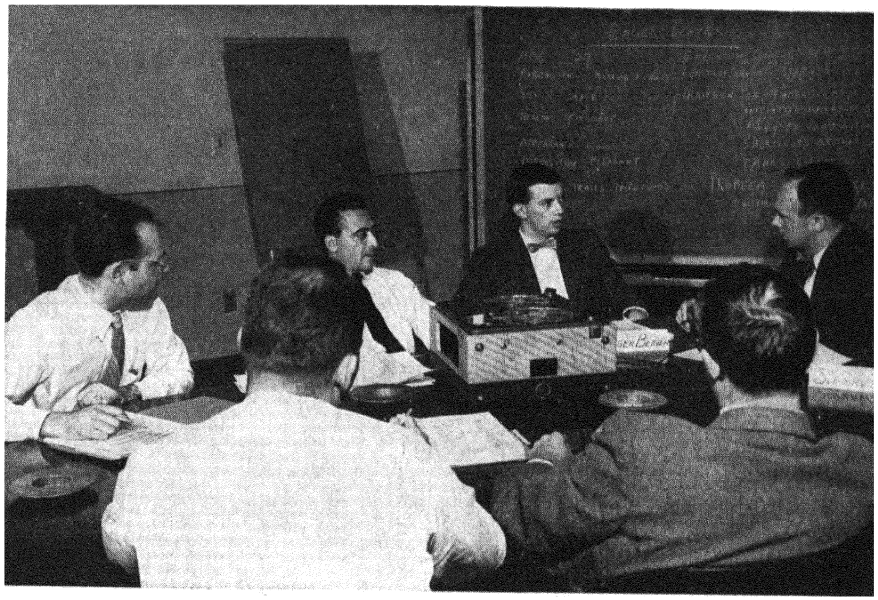
These physicians—Freud, Adler, Jung—were engaged in the main in treating people with disorganized personalities, and much of their theory was based on case material. This type of theory does not lend itself to objective tests. The same is true of much of the presumable objectivity of personality testing despite attempts made in the area of psychological testing to increase validity and reliability.

It is generally admitted that much of the writing by the pioneer psychoanalysts, particularly by Jung, is intuitive rather than scientific, subjective rather than objective. However, the concept of the struggle between the conscious and the unconscious, as well as of conflict between personality and environment, represents the outstanding theorizing that has taken place concerning the foundations of personality.

PERSONALITY MEASUREMENT

Various objective and standardized tests and devices are employed to measure personality. Other techniques of measurement are also used in analyzing, evaluating, and assisting in the treatment of personality maladjustment. These methods as well as standard personality tests have relatively low reliability and validity when compared with that of intelligence tests. This may be attributed to technical problems in test construction and to the fact that personality is more subject to change than is intelligence. However, the importance of personality in all phases of human endeavor has encouraged personnel experts to devise many different methods, and these have proved to be better than guesswork in the study of personality.

Uses of Personality Measurement. Several methods are used to uncover personality information. These methods differ in accordance with the purpose of a specific inquiry about personality. Thus the interview technique is widely used in the selection and separation of employees by personnel men. Their opinions are sometimes entered on a personality rating form showing their evaluation of the desirable and undesirable traits of the person whose personality is being studied.



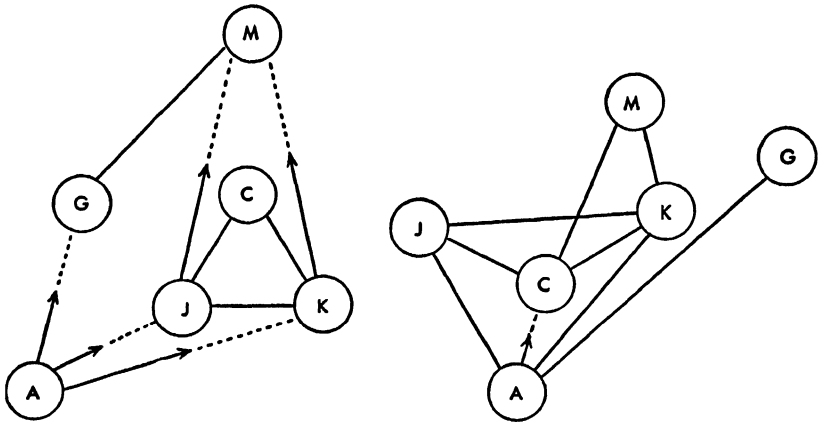
Problem interview technique utilized in handling personal-tension situations. Personnel expert discusses "eager beaver" in conference with supervisors. Role playing is being recorded. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

Also, pencil-and-paper, free-association, and projective test techniques are utilized in the attempt to gain objective information by comparing the personality of the person being examined with that of other individuals.

In addition, stress or problem interviews are used. In the former, many frustrating situations are forced upon the subject to ascertain how well or poorly he can withstand pressure-, tension-, frustration-, and irritation-provoking situations. This kind of personality measurement was used by the German Navy, the British Army, and the American Office of Strategic Services in the Second World War.

Problem interviews are methods of discovering how candidates for responsible positions will meet the difficulties of group discussion and committee cooperation in solving the day-to-day high-level problems of administration. The Port of New York Authority has pioneered most successfully in this field.

Projective tests are used to assist psychologists and psychiatrists in the clinical analysis of personality. The subject may reveal associations through tests involving single words, ideas, ink blots, interpretations of colors, pictures of persons or nonsense pictures, story creation, painting, coloring,



(a) Before role playing

(b) After role playing

Sociogram of Souerwine and Conway experiment in role playing. (1) Each letter represents a sixth-grade boy. (2) The solid lines mean that the boys they connect chose each other as mutual friends. (3) The broken lines are unreciprocated choices, *i.e.*, in Fig. (a), A chose G, J, and K as his friends, but G, J, and K did not choose A; K chose M, J chose M, but M chose neither of them as friends.

Fig. (b) shows (1) the changes in the choices of friends made by the same boys after they had participated in role-playing type of therapy; (2) all friendships had become mutual; (3) the only unreciprocated choice, shown by the broken line in Fig. (b), in that A chose as his friend C, who did not select A as his friend.

block construction, finger painting, fantasies, verbal responses. Story composition is sometimes used with a group of subjects. Each of these techniques is a particular testing method and can be combined with other tests to help the expert interpret the underlying motivation of the personality.

PLAY; ROLE PLAYING; PSYCHODRAMA AND GRAPHOLOGY

These are comparatively new techniques that need substantial research before they are completely accepted as valid and reliable tools to aid in therapy. *Play* has been widely used to relieve tension and create self-confidence, particularly with maladjusted children.

Role playing is a diagnostic tool used to assist in analyzing personality; in this technique, individuals act out their problems while experts observe them. There has been a recent increase in the use of role-playing by personnel workers in industry. Supervisor-worker, personality conflicts, and evaluation of candidates for jobs and promotion are areas in which the technique is finding increasing usefulness. Role playing affords the psychologist the opportunity to discern how the subject would solve problems by observing him freely acting out the problem.

An authority in parent education has reported a new use for role playing in family situations: members of the family interchange their roles for a designated time, such as dinner on a certain predetermined day of each week. The mother may play the role of her ten-year-old boy, the father the mother's role, and the son the father's role. Thus some possible tension areas may be revealed for mutual consideration. This is a technique of self-analysis that gives some promise of bettering interpersonal relations in the home.

Psychodrama. Similar to role playing is psychodrama, which gives a deeper insight into personality conflicts. Subjects with problems outline their difficulty to the examiner and then perform as actors would in a play in which the themes are determined by the examiner. The subject matter of the theme is the problem which is bothering the testee-actors.

This is a technique designed to release tension and is definitely a therapy device, as well as one that gives the expert information about the subject's inner personal problems.

Some success has been reported among Eastern public schools through the use of professional actors participating with school children in psychodrama. Children who have problems are given an opportunity to act out some of their difficulties. This type of work requires close supervision by psychologists working in the schools. The peculiarities of local situations can best be met by a professional person who is aware of them when using a technique that to the community is new, unusual, and of undetermined efficacy.

Graphology. Personality analysis through the study of handwriting has been the subject of intensive research. There is some promise that graphology may one day be clinically very useful. Before this can occur, however, the method will have to develop added statistical and objective measurement procedures. Graphology has possibilities in the field of maladjusted personality, in trait analysis, and in uncovering personal problems. It is a highly technical field and few are sufficiently qualified to warrant being rated as experts. Research results have proved more reliable than chance observations when interpreted by competent graphologists.

VALUES

All concepts of personality are attempts to explain how an individual functions. Underlying such explanation is interpretation of the reasons for

Experts, observing children at leisure activities, utilize play therapy to attain redirection through play sublimation of aggressive tendencies. Desired outcomes are self-discipline, experience in democratic living, development of new appreciations, understanding, and performance-capability increase. (Photograph by Philip Bonn. Courtesy of Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency.)

his acts. There are various forces with which social man has to contend. He cannot control them, and yet he must establish a basis of satisfactory adjustment to them. To do so effectively requires faith for living. Such faith may stem from an inherited religious setting or it may be an outgrowth of experience.

Value judgments, which are the crystallization of what a person holds most vital in life, strongly influence behavior and are basic to adjustment to life. The pattern of an individual's beliefs greatly affects the day-to-day routine. His behavior on controversial issues at home, in the community, and at work, consciously or otherwise, tends to support or further his values.

The values of an individual are partly the product of the influences exerted by family, community, and education. To a lesser extent they are a reflection of life experiences. A person inclines toward accepting as "good" the values judged as being "good" by his society. Religion and education

continue to influence youth to accept that standard of behavior as desirable which is acceptable to the older generations. To some extent youth modifies the definitions of "good" and "bad" received from parents and grandparents.

For centuries youth has challenged its elders to change their values. This appears to be healthy for society, because the energy, enthusiasm, and newer knowledge of youth can prevent society from becoming static, resistant to change.

Conflicting Goals. Our society faces the opposite problem. Change and speed are confused with progress, and some of youth's questions are cynical instead of scientific. In the opinion of many college leaders, their students are overly concerned with short-term goals. These leaders hold that society and personal long-term values are being sacrificed for short, temporary measurable gain, usually financial in nature.

This attitude of "What's in it for me?" as contrasted with "How does this improve the world and me?" is the result of many influences. Wars, the decrease in the influence of religion, scandals in public life, decline of parental leadership in ethics, and the increasing acceptance of money as the single standard of value, replacing most of the other ways of judging personal worth, have all had an effect.

The above influences increase the adjustment problems of young people. Youth are subject to pressures to act in accord with time-honored religious and moral standards; at the same time they observe many successfully defying such rules. Sometimes adults break the very behavior rules they require their children to obey.

Unfortunately, the lack of direction, the doubts and tensions of society, tend to cause individuals to overemphasize nervousness, fears, and tensions. In fact, popular stress upon today's tensions creates the background for a fad of acceptance of maladjustment as an expected rather than an unusual condition. This may encourage individuals to stress negative aspects of civilization, and to bolster personal acceptance of shoddy behavior and questionable values. The ordinary, the mediocre, the easy-to-attain, the "quick dollar"—all become ways of achieving security. That true security, the search for the ultimate good, is what brings true peace of mind is lost sight of.

The problem facing young people is to comprehend the basic values inherent in what they have been told is good behavior. Such values seem to lack realism, because acts which are good in themselves usually have

little apparent measurable value according to certain standards. The stress is altogether too much on money value.

SUMMARY

Personality development is a constant process of growth. Like intelligence, the exact point of the normal or average is lost in the merging of various traits one into the other. For centuries man has sought to classify the types of personality in a common-sense way. Recent research gives some promise of success in the area of treating mentally ailing individuals. The merging of the normal with the neurotic impresses the scientist with the idea that so-called normal personalities merge with maladjusted ones.

Another basis of agreement is that a person does not necessarily have to accept his environment. He can modify many of the forces of environment if he plans well and expends thoughtful and steady effort. However, the direction of the changes in both himself and the forces of his environment, by and large, depends on the values in which he believes.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Explain the difference between neuroses and psychoses in terms of the neurotic and psychotic personality as described in this chapter.
2. Reflect on your own and your family's evaluation of personality and discuss the connection with psychological theory.
3. List some of the factors in the environment that tend to have negative effects on your personality, and discuss what you can do about changing such forces.
4. Look up the definition of "Profile" in Chapter 3. Construct your own profile chart of personality traits, using the list of traits given in this chapter. Compare your self-evaluation profile with the evaluation of your traits by your family and the friend who knows you best.
5. Using the profile charts listed in Problem 4, consult with your family in a "family circle" conference on personality. Then write down the areas in which you can and should plan action for the improvement of your personality.
6. Indicate some recent developments in the field of personality analysis and discuss their various uses.
7. Differentiate between (*a*) scientific graphology and pseudo-psychological graphology and (*b*) acting and psychodrama.
8. Write down five fundamental "goods" that are important to you. Analyze how you attained these values.
9. Write down five behavior patterns in our culture that would have been labeled "bad" or "questionable" in 1914 but are "acceptable" now.

10. Analyze carefully the relation between your "security" desires and your value judgments.

REFERENCES

Allport, G. W., *Personality*, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

Carrol, H. A., *Mental Hygiene: The Dynamics of Adjustment*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1947.

Cattell, R. B., *Personality: A Systematic, Theoretical and Factual Study*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

Harsh, C. M., and H. G Schrickel, *Personality, Development and Assessment*, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1950.

Murphy, Gardner, *Personality*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

Overstreet, H. A., *The Mature Mind*, W. W. Norton & Company, New York, 1949.

Ruch, F. L., *Psychology and Life*, Scott, Foresman & Company, Chicago, 1948.

Travis, L. E., and Dorothy W. Baruch, *Personal Problems of Everyday Life*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1941.

CHAPTER 6

PERSONALITY CONFLICTS

The personality of an individual depends to a considerable degree on the psychological make-up of his parents and the home climate they provide. Some of the major problems in life relate to the discrepancy between impulses, yearnings, and ambitions on the one hand and actual opportunities and ability to perform on the other. Many individuals are trying to do jobs for which they are ill-suited. This sets up emotional reactions that markedly affect personality.

The foundations for a desirable psychological adjustment must be laid in the home during the formative years. A requisite in this process is an understanding of the reasons for individual behavior patterns. Growing out of this knowledge of mental and emotional mechanisms, satisfactory interpersonal relations should evolve in the family circle. Such an achievement is the objective of all emotionally mature and mentally healthy men and women.

However, there are varying types and degrees of maladjustment which have deep roots in the personality of individuals. A number of these manifestations are briefly discussed in this chapter. Satisfactory interpersonal relations in families can be achieved only if all concerned are prepared to do their part in attaining the desired goal. Some fail because of mental and emotional disturbances. Others consciously attempt to fulfill their responsibilities but find themselves inhibited and thwarted in various ways. Whatever the personal problems may be, methods of meeting them must be explored if family relations are to be maintained at a high level.

AGGRESSION

Aggression is that aspect of the will to power which involves treatment of other individuals as if they were simply objects to be used in the attainment of a goal. The person to whom aggression is directed is an unwilling victim. Aggression is one of the most primitive reactions to being thwarted, and is generally indicative of a sense of frustration. Infants begin to show aggressive behavior by screaming, biting, shouting. But society, in the guise of parents, curbs the aggressive child and tries to mold him to suit the accepted pattern.

Aggressive manifestations may also be the outgrowth of hostility and jealousy. Examples include the bully who does not get good scholastic grades; the sibling who resents the social successes of other members of the family and points up this resentment by aggressive, irritable, and emotional behavior. The socially unsuccessful college student may give evidence of aggressive attitudes by severely criticizing fellow students and spreading uncomplimentary rumors about them. The parent who has been unemployed for a period and cannot make a satisfactory adjustment may show his emotional disturbance by aggressive action, at the same time blaming others for his predicament.

Those who are driven to aggressive behavior may not always find it possible to give vent to their feelings. Parents who are themselves disturbed by feelings of aggression will tend to suppress such manifestations in their children, with resultant feelings of inferiority and asocial conduct on the part of the children. The same process of suppression may take place when an adult hides his aggressive feelings in his place of employment but directs emotional outbursts of irritability at his wife and children.

Aggression is a psychological mechanism through which an individual tries to put himself in a position to gain satisfactions which he cannot achieve through normal interpersonal relations. Such a person is often difficult to live with and may require professional advice and treatment.

COMPENSATION

Compensation is a psychological mechanism by which an individual covers up or disguises an undesirable trait by calling into play a desirable one and exaggerating its manifestations. According to Freud, the purpose of this process is to conceal from the individual's own consciousness the opposite, undesirable tendency in the unconscious, thereby developing an exaggerated character trait. Adler holds that the basis of compensation is always a sense of inferiority and the purpose is the attainment of superiority.

The process of compensation may represent an effort to cover up or overcome physical, mental, social, or economic shortcomings, whether real or imaginary. Feelings of inadequacy, timidity, failure, and emotional conflict may become involved. The individual who attempts to compensate for an actual shortcoming may give evidence of his unhappy state of mind.

Some try to compensate for physical shortness and consequent feelings of inferiority by acting forcefully and noisily. Adults who have experienced a poverty-stricken childhood frequently compensate by overindulging their children and trying to pattern their lives so that "the children will not have to go through what we did." Such efforts may be desirable in one sense, but when carried to extremes they bring harm to the offspring.

It is essential to recognize that no one is perfect and that some form or degree of compensation is necessary for all. Many short persons are inclined to walk straight, while those who are tall often have a tendency to stoop. Since the need for compensation in certain areas is so general, the individual may try to develop a desirable personality trait to offset the negative factor to which too much attention is being paid. In this mental process, one must guard against exaggeration as a protective screen. Such overemphasis brings additional problems to the fore. Negative manifestations such as withdrawal may result, and a defensive attitude may be adopted in all activities.

DISPLACEMENT

This psychological process is a shifting of emotion from one person to another, or from one symbol to another. Such action is often related to a state of anxiety or hostility. A man who inwardly hates his son may not wish to make this evident for various reasons. He may be in need of his financial assistance or of other help. A process of mental displacement may result, with indications of antipathy to some or all young men who remind him of his son. A woman may hate her husband, but because she needs his support for herself and her young children she does not make this deep feeling obvious. Instead, she displaces her reactions and is antagonistic toward other men—it may be the grocer, the butcher, or a neighbor, or even another man related to her husband.

A young man who does not get along with a brother may express his resentment by a process of displacement and attempt to bully or argue with classmates who are psychological substitutes for his hated brother. A troubled mind, representing an internal conflict, brings on a feeling of

anxiety. In order to meet the situation as best he can, the individual goes through a process of displacement and in that way attempts to solve his emotional problem.

Freud writes of a man who complained of severe nausea whenever he saw or smelt violets. Study of this patient revealed that his proposal of marriage had been rudely rejected by a young woman while she was wearing violets. His feeling of wounded pride was displaced and transferred to violets.

Since few individuals have a clear understanding of psychological processes, it is a common tendency to find or conjure up invalid reasons for situations and problems which seem insoluble.

DISSOCIATION

The mechanism of dissociation relates to a breaking up or detachment of certain mental processes from the mental core. This results in disintegration or disorganization. The individual may behave in an irrational way and manifest distinct hysterical symptoms.

The psychological process of dissociation, as an escape from unpleasant situations, is fairly common. A young man of neurotic or hysterical make-up becomes involved in an automobile accident, or is accused of some crime. In either instance he wants to avoid the unpleasantness which will inevitably follow. He seeks a way out through forgetting the event in question.

This type of hysterical response is called amnesia. In this state the individual is able to dissociate from his mind events which took place within a certain period of time. He segregates a number of ideas and emotions and for the time being has no control over that part of his mind which is involved in the process of dissociation.

Hysterically inclined individuals in whom there is a strong tendency to dissociation are often emotionally immature. They may seek out various ways and occasions to avoid the problems of life and the consequence of their own acts. Many will cling to presumed pains and aches as a defense mechanism for their conduct, even though careful medical examination fails to confirm the claim of illness.

In some individuals an actual disintegration of personality occurs. They then act in an irrational way and blame others—usually members of their families—for personal difficulties. In such instances the process of dissociation has entered a stage in which the affected person requires psychiatric and psychologic treatment.

Overindulgence in fantasy interferes with school work and normal emotional growth and development. (Courtesy of American Social Hygiene Association.)

FANTASY

Fantasy is a type of thinking which takes place without conscious direction, and in which ideas follow one another without selection. Such thinking occurs during the dreams of sleep and in daydreaming. Fantasies are usually dominated by unreality and are primarily in the nature of wishful thinking.

An individual who is not able to measure up to the demands of the real world may sink back into a world of fantasy, in which he hopes to escape the demands of reality. For many this is a pleasurable activity, occasionally indulged in, with no serious consequences. A study among college students revealed that 69 per cent admitted frequent daydreaming.

Fantasying is not necessarily an abnormal process. Many ideas for writing, inventions, business plans, and other constructive efforts find their roots in such mental activity. Studies indicate that most normal people are prone to utilize daydreaming either in solving problems or as a means of release from emotional tensions and of the achievement of emotional satisfactions. It is only when an individual habitually substitutes dreams for realistic thinking and action that difficulties arise.

A person who is unable to measure up to the demands of day-to-day living and sinks back into a world of fantasy in which all his wishes are met and his aims achieved is in danger of mental deterioration. When overindulged in, this psychological mechanism may be tied in with a lack of courage to face study requirements in college and may result in scholastic failure. It may also involve inability to meet the demands of a job, and to achieve a state of economic security.

Young men and women who are planning to marry are especially prone to fantasy. They are apt to build castles in the air, think of their mates-to-be as paragons of perfection, and conceive of marriage as the source of innumerable satisfactions and a release from various chores and burdens. Those who are emotionally mature eventually make an adequate adjustment between reality and fantasy. Others find reality a severe shock and react poorly to the facts of life. Such an unrealistic approach to marriage by one or both of the partners is often the cause of incompatibility.

FIXATION

Fixation is a psychological mechanism that functions as a defense against anxiety and interferes with emotional development. The normal individual goes through states of emotional growth in which there is first of all attachment to self. Subsequently there is a tie to parents, then to members of the same sex, and finally to those of the opposite sex. In cases of immature or even abnormal reactions, a strong emotional bond to one of the same sex may develop. If there is no subsequent transference to a heterosexual status, various personality difficulties may result.

Parents who show abnormal attention and affection to a child not only hinder his maturation but become involved in fixations themselves. This is often a sign of emotional immaturity on the part of the parents. Mothers are more frequently involved in this process than fathers. The former spend much more time with the children and so are in a position to exert greater influence. In addition to evidence of parental immaturity, such conduct may indicate personality defects for which the particular parent is attempting to compensate. This is usually an unconscious process.

Fixations may center about a business or professional career; in this case, little time is left for the family circle. Some satisfy their anxiety states through joining various groups, or by fixation on a party or other leader. In these ways they try to satisfy emotional needs, the group or leader substituting for the mother or father attachment. Fixations on the high-school

or college level, through marked and prolonged interest in teams and sports, also interfere with emotional growth and maturity.

Men who have been strongly influenced early in life by their mothers may find difficulty in breaking away and forming heterosexual attachments. When they marry, the choice of a mate is largely determined by the image of the mother, and adjustment in marriage becomes a difficult problem. This also applies to daughter-father fixations, as a result of which no man is ever found good enough to select as a mate. No one measures up to the father image. Most young people escape parental fixations because of the strong drive or urge for emancipation from their homes. Immature, self-pitying, and even strongly determined parents may so influence some children that the break almost becomes emotionally impossible.

IDENTIFICATION

This is an unconscious mental process which expresses itself in the form of an emotional tie with other persons or situations, the subject behaving as if he were the person with whom he has this tie. Identification can be a source of satisfaction through the tendency to align oneself with an admired and respected person. The young boy usually admires his father and would like to grow up to be like him. This psychological process has distinct cultural values, particularly in parent-child relations.

Positive identification can be of considerable help in making satisfactory adjustments. The well-balanced person tries to identify himself with such individuals, movements, and activities as will aid him in his own growth and development. This may start with the child in his identification with parents and older siblings, and carry on through youth and into adulthood.

Identification presents various problems in the case of those who are emotionally immature and neurotic. An example is the high-strung and neurotic woman who seems to have all the pains and aches of which an ailing husband or other relative complains. The emotionally immature daughter who acts as if she were afflicted with the same ailment from which her bedridden mother suffers is another example.

For some this psychological process is a form of emotional escape from a sense of inferiority. They are inclined to identify themselves with those who are successful in chosen careers; yet they do little to prepare themselves for similar achievement. An element of hero worship may be involved, as well as an unconscious refusal to strive to get ahead.

The tendency to identify oneself with an admired and respected person can be a source of satisfaction. The young boy usually admires his father and would like to grow up like him. This psychological process has distinct cultural values, particularly in parent-child relationships. (Photograph by Esther Bubley, Courtesy of Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency.)

Many enjoy motion pictures because they can identify themselves with the strong and handsome hero, or with the beautiful and happy heroine. Students who are physically unsuited for severe exercise or are too indifferent to train as members of a football or other team may identify themselves with the top scorers and college heroes. Identification can promote accomplishment and the development of character. It can also have negative and undesirable effects, particularly in the case of emotionally immature and neurotic personalities.

INTROJECTION

This mental process is the tendency or act of absorbing personality factors of others into one's own make-up, thus producing identification of oneself with other persons. Introjection is frequently utilized by children who desire to emulate and adopt feelings, attitudes, standards, and characteristics of parents, teachers, ministers, and group leaders whom they may admire and respect.

The personality of the individual can be expanded and developed by the mechanism of introjection. Among children, as well as adults, there is the desire to avoid ostracism, humiliation, and rejection by a parent or others.

Those who fear such a reaction attempt to meet interpersonal situations by introjection, as though they want to become part of the individual whose good graces they desire to retain.

Such a mental mechanism is one upon which emotionally immature individuals readily fall back, to bolster their own deficiencies. Those who belong in this category easily follow the pattern set by a leader or by a controlling group. As students they may try to be "teacher's pet"; as employees they will attempt to identify themselves with the boss, carrying out or even trying to anticipate his every wish. In industry it frequently happens that an efficient worker becomes upset when promoted to a position of responsibility, such as that of foreman or supervisor. He is much happier in his original job, with less pay but with no burden of supervision over fellow workers.

Psychiatrists have found that many depressed and melancholic persons, including those who are psychotic, are given to introjection. The explanation is that such individuals tend to estrange themselves from those whose love, affection, and attention they have vainly sought; when signs of interest and introjection are not responded to sufficiently, a marked degree of hate develops. Some of it may be turned back against the individual concerned, and he comes to hate himself. This in part accounts for the depression.

NEGATIVISM

Negativism is the mental process of deliberately refusing to recognize a real situation, whether pleasant or unpleasant. It is usually characterized by rebellious reaction against authority or the suggestions of others. Such an attitude may be general or specific. In the latter instance, negativism of a child is reflected in a refusal to eat, to dress, to hear or see, or even to open the eyes. The response to a parent's or teacher's request to do something usually is "I won't."

Phases of obstinacy or negativism in children are to be expected. Such manifestations on the mature or adult level create various problems. The college student who has assignments to complete but deliberately neglects his work and goes off to play—and habitually so—may give expressions to negativistic attitudes. The woman who is spiteful in relations with her husband—and vice versa—is acting in a similar fashion. Many lovers' quarrels have this mental reaction as their basis. It is not always a question as to who is right or wrong. The negativistically inclined man or woman brings on such disagreements because of personality deficiencies.

Egotism may be one cause of this response. The person who is interested primarily in himself, whether because of egotism, selfishness, or emotional immaturity, finds it difficult to assent to the desires, requests, and wishes of others. Negativism is a method of asserting dissent and rebelliousness.

Individuals showing such characteristics are difficult to get along with. They are inclined to be unsocial and fail to cooperate in joint enterprises unless given control over a given situation.

The question arises as to how such a negativistic habit pattern develops. Parents or others responsible for the rearing and teaching of children are most likely the cause of the undesirable conduct, not only in childhood, but in subsequent years as well. The student who will only work hard enough at his studies to get by may be expressing negativistic attitudes in the sense that he rebels against the high scholastic standards of his parents. He may also resent his instructors, who symbolize the parents and effective achievement. The same applies to the worker in industry or commerce who does his daily stint and no more.

PROJECTION

This is a process by means of which an individual attempts to escape from facing his own fears, failures, emotional pressures, and undesirable conduct. He tends to blame someone else for his own limitations and ascribe to others personal drives which he prefers to submerge in his consciousness. Drawing attention to the shortcomings of another, he aims to divert attention from behavior and traits which he prefers to keep hidden.

The effort to escape from emotional conflict by the process of projection may result in victimizing others. An incompetent and alcoholic father may accuse his wife and children of financial extravagance when the difficulty in meeting the family budget is due to his own spendthrift ways. Blaming others for flaws in one's character may temporarily serve as an emotional release, but it does nothing toward the solution of a personal problem.

Many students who fail in courses are prone to blame the instructors, and project upon the latter the faults which are inherent in themselves. The real cause may lie in the mental inadequacy of the student, or in his refusal to face reality and apply himself diligently to his studies. Projection in such instances serves as a plausible excuse when confronting questioning parents who have received a note from the dean.

The individual in whom an aggressive drive has an unconscious basis may be inclined to project his actions upon another. Finding it difficult to provide a satisfactory explanation for his own undesirable conduct, he

issues denials and blames others for such behavior. Men who fail in business may not accept any of the responsibility because of personal inadequacies, lack of experience, and incompetence. Some tend to project the failure onto competitors, accusing them of using unfair business methods.

Imputation of unsatisfied emotional drives can be carried out through projection of these drives onto others. This may be done by making accusations of immorality, by the writing of "poison pen" letters, by addressing newspaper editors, and by taking a marked interest in police actions against sex offenders.

REGRESSION

The term regression implies a reversion to earlier levels of behavior and an earlier happy state of affairs; it is apt to occur when certain difficulties are faced and the individual is unable to cope with them. The common admonition "Don't act like a child" is in line with the realization that some try to avoid their responsibilities and draw attention and sympathy to themselves. This kind of action is apt to be particularly pronounced during an illness; at such times fretting and whimpering over presumed lack of personal attention by immediate relatives are the evidences of regression.

A wife who believes she is losing the love of her husband, or a mother who can no longer dictate to her maturing children, may indulge in such behavior in order to retain affection. This is a defense mechanism used by neurotic personalities who have not developed fully on the emotional plane Regression is a way of meeting threats to status as well as of coping with the ordinary demands of daily living. In the case of young children, the advent of a new baby in the family may be the immediate cause of regressive conduct, because the new arrival deprives them of the love and attention previously given them. Many emotionally immature persons resent the fact that they have grown up and seek solace in daydreams and behavior reminiscent of earlier years of life. This tendency is characteristic of aged men and women.

REPRESSION

Repression is the mental process by which perceptions and ideas which would be painful to consciousness are forced into the unconscious system while still remaining dynamic. An individual may have gone through an experience of which he is ashamed and which he prefers to hide for obvious reasons. It brings up painful memories, and may result in restlessness,

sleeplessness, and other disturbances. To overcome these troublesome pressures, he attempts to rid his memory of the original urge or happening by repressing it in his mind. Thus repression serves as a defense mechanism against the urge, desire, or behavior which does not meet the moral standards of the person concerned.

When there is a conflict in the mind of an individual, he may attempt to explain, excuse, or hide the troublesome problem or urge from himself. The only way he can do so effectively is to repress it into his subconscious. Thus, though the original problem is not solved, it is excluded from the conscious mind, and the individual finds it possible to carry on without emotional disturbance.

The mechanism of repression is also a method of adjustment to frustrations and taboos. Experiments have indicated that people tend to forget unpleasant memories more readily than pleasant ones. This is probably true of most persons. Other experiments have shown that selfish desires are more readily forgotten or repressed than generous ones. In both sets of experiments those tested faced situations they preferred to set aside mentally. The psychological process they pursued was that of repression.

Obvious manifestations often follow repressions, especially among psychoneurotics. Such individuals suffer from a functional disorder of mental origin, but do not manifest any organic brain disease. A young woman thwarted in love through parental pressure attempts to forget or repress the memory of the young man her parents oppose. But she may subsequently manifest an anxiety or hysterical state which seemingly has no connection with the mechanism of repression which she indulged in under duress.

SUBLIMATION

Sublimation is a method of diverting energy originally set toward meeting one desired wish or goal and directing it to another. An individual may have many desires which he prefers not to express. The way to satisfy emotional demands which cannot be met is through the process of sublimation. Personal happiness is largely dependent upon the development of a sense of self-sufficiency. In order to attain this goal, it is essential to utilize sublimation in various areas.

Many women who desire to be married and to have their own homes and children are denied these opportunities for various reasons. The maternal instinct, therefore, has to be sublimated in some way if a measure of happiness is to be achieved. Many men who remain unmarried have to

face a similar problem of sublimation. Both groups usually seek out emotional outlets and interests which will help them in making a satisfactory psychological adjustment. Such substitutes must be socially and morally acceptable if the ultimate objective is to be achieved.

In the case of young people of college age, sublimation may take the form of increased interest and participation in group activities; in affiliation with a religious organization; in the rendering of various types of service through communal agencies. Through these and other channels various personal difficulties may be solved by contact with and service to others. Such activities may also help to reveal previously unrecognized potential abilities in practical and cultural areas.

SUBSTITUTION

Substitution is a process of providing new outlets or engaging in agreeable activities in order to overcome frustrations and emotional disturbances. A trial-and-error method is often pursued until a desirable adjustment has been attained. The motivation may be to overcome various hindrances of which the individual is aware. He substitutes one set of activities for others which interfered with his initial desire for achievement.

The hyperactive child who is troublesome at home or in school because of his urge to keep moving may be helped by being given a specific task or responsibility. Through an arranged plan of substitution, certain needs of the individual can be met. On the adult level there are many urges and desires which press for satisfaction. They might lead in the direction of conduct considered to be antisocial or immoral and inimical to the rights of others. The well-adjusted adult meets this problem partly through daydreaming and partly through the practical expedient of substitution of other goals.

Some inner demands cannot be met. Therefore, the emotionally stable and socially conscious individual compromises between what he would like to do and what is socially acceptable. Various conflicts may be involved in this process of substituting a desired goal for another. Such adjustments are made regularly by all emotionally mature individuals. Social existence would be seriously affected if this were not the case.

On the college level, those who are athletically inclined but do not have the physique to stand out in sports may become business managers of teams, reporters of athletic events, officials in sports, or find other related tasks. The frustrated athlete may resort to moping; the well-adjusted individual attempts to follow substitutive plans.

There are many hindrances in so far as progress in chosen careers is concerned. The college student who wants to be a physician but finds he does not have the physical stamina, or for some reason is not admitted to a medical school, may substitute a career in public health or research, teaching biology, or doing administrative work in a hospital. The young man who, for financial reasons, cannot achieve his goal of a career in a particular profession can make a satisfactory adjustment by substitution of some work or study related to his first choice.

SUPPRESSION

Suppression is the tendency on the part of an individual to dismiss from consciousness the memory of unpleasant experiences in thoughts and desires which are under social taboo. The distinction between suppression and repression is that the former is a conscious, deliberate process, while the latter involves an unconscious mechanism. Suppression is often a desirable process and may be helpful in the development of a wholesome personality.

Persons in positions of responsibility frequently have occasion to avail themselves of the process of suppression in order to carry the burdens which they have assumed. The administrator whose presence is essential to the functioning of a large business or other enterprise may suppress his feelings when a loved one is ill. A student may receive a disturbing letter on the day of an important examination but suppress the troublesome news and go ahead with his test. The actor trained in the tradition that "the show must go on" suppresses personal sorrow and physical discomfort for the benefit of his fellow actors and his audience.

There are many human urges which the emotionally mature and well-adjusted individual finds desirable to suppress. Various situations arise in family life in which it is virtually essential that this psychological process should be applied. It would hardly lead to marital happiness if a husband made a practice of telling his wife his negative feelings about her. It would not enhance the ego of a husband if his wife constantly did likewise.

Emotionally mature adults deem it essential to suppress some of their ideas and desires for the common good of the family. Those couples who fail to do so, or are inept in their attempts, find their mutual criticisms increase the tension between them, often to the breaking point.

SUMMARY

It may be taken for granted that virtually all individuals present some evidences of personal maladjustment or personality problems. Getting along reasonably well in a family circle requires definite efforts on the part of all concerned. Since personality problems occur among parents as well as among their offspring, it is evident that success in family life depends on the willingness and ability of the individual members to live in peaceful relations with each other. This may sometimes be a trying experience, for example, in a family with an aggressive father or a frustrated mother.

Understanding the psychological and other problems affecting personality is one of the requisites of successful family life. This is so even though one or both elders may be struggling with emotional disturbances that are reflected onto the siblings. Parents require an understanding of the psychological growth and mental mechanisms that affect their children. The latter, on their part, when sufficiently mature, should appreciate the influence of social, economic, health, and emotional factors upon their parents.

Where there is adequate appreciation of specific problems that beset each member of a group, the chance of emotional adjustment is improved. The personality problems discussed in this chapter are among the major factors that disturb family life and interpersonal relations outside the family circle. Recognition of simple as well as complex signs of emotional disturbances, and the concomitant matters that lie at the base of them, is a first step in achieving satisfactory adjustments in family life.

Because a son realizes his father is aggressive, is given to much daydreaming and little accomplishment, or is beset by a number of frustrations does not mean that the father's problem is solved. Rather, the advantage is that the young man who recognizes and understands such manifestations is better prepared to deal with the resulting problems. The same applies to parents who are aware of the emotional disturbances of their children. Such adults are in a position to take positive action to deal with the situation. They are alerted to guide and correct the child requiring help, or they may consult a psychiatrist or psychologist.

Given appreciation and recognition, it should generally be possible for parents and children alike to get along effectively in the family circle, irrespective of the personality problems which any members of the group may manifest.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Define aggression, fantasy, frustration, rationalization. Give an example of how these mental mechanisms may affect members of a family.

2. What can be done to help an individual who is given to excessive daydreaming?

3. A young student is markedly prone to rationalization to excuse his failures and reject familial responsibilities. How should an older sibling get him to recognize his responsibilities?

4. Give three examples of persons known to you who are prone to make use of the psychological mechanism of projection. Explain fully what are the elements and experiences involved.

5. Define the term regression and cite three examples out of your own experience and observation.

6. What is repression? Detail instances in (*a*) your family, (*b*) your classmates.

7. Describe the utilization of substitution by (*a*) a parent, (*b*) a friend or neighbor, (*c*) a classmate.

8. What is the difference between repression and suppression? Give examples of each.

REFERENCES

Anderson, J. E., *The Psychology of Development and Personal Adjustment,* Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

Bossard, J. H. S., and Eleanor S. Boll, *Family Situations,* University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1943.

Burtt, H. E., *Applied Psychology,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1948.

Gray, J. S., *Psychology Applied to Human Affairs,* 2d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1954.

Hepner, H. W., *Psychology Applied to Life and Work,* 2d ed., Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1950.

McKinney, Fred, *Psychology of Personal Adjustment,* 2d ed., J. Wiley and Sons, New York, 1949.

Symonds, P. M., *Dynamic Psychology,* Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1949.

Wallin, J. E. W., *Personality Maladjustments and Mental Hygiene,* 2d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

CHAPTER 7

PARENTS AND SIBLINGS

Satisfactory family life involves many factors. Chief among these is the psychological adjustment of parents and children. Such adjustment involves various emotions, from parental love of the children to faith and pride of the children in their elders. The intimacies of family life present a wide range of opportunities for the expression of emotional reactions, resulting in adjustment and agreement or conflict and disagreement.

The nature and degree of emotional reactions will depend in part upon the individuals concerned—their age and emotional maturity, and factors in their personal lives which tend to provide satisfactions or disappointments. These in turn may be further influenced by the physical, social, and economic status of fathers and mothers. The father who is in excellent health and has a sound business, a good position, or a lucrative profession is generally emotionally well adjusted in his relations with his wife and children. The reverse of the picture is also true.

Men and women of college age often fail to consider these elemental facts, with unhappy results to all concerned. On the other hand, elders who have not learned to understand the emotional drives, interests, problems, and activities of their sons and daughters bring uneasiness to themselves and frustration to their maturing offspring. The problem is not insoluble for either parents or children. What is primarily required is adequate appreciation of essential factors in the conduct of parents and children alike. This can be achieved through comprehension of the basic facts relating to the emotions.

Satisfying father-son relationships can be built up in joint outdoor activities (Courtesy of the National Board of the YMCA.)

EMOTIONAL INFLUENCES

Every individual has basic emotional needs, and if these are not adequately satisfied he suffers pain and discomfort. As a result, he takes whatever action seems indicated at a specific time in order to be relieved of the unpleasant feelings that oppress him. Psychologically, the individual inherits certain potentialities the extent of whose development will be dependent in part on the environment during the period of growth. This implies that function and behavior are both inherited and acquired. Emotional influences thus have as their basis certain distinct factors which cannot be fundamentally changed because they are inherited and others which evolve out of the home, school, and community environment. For instance, a student may achieve a brilliant scholastic record in high school and college, and even in graduate study, and yet be so immature that he cannot attain satisfactory emotional and social adjustments to his parents, siblings, and classmates. He may function emotionally on a childhood level and find difficulty in maintaining satisfying contacts with the adults about him.

Emotional development during childhood has to be followed by more

mature adjustments during adolescence and early adulthood. If emotional growth is normal during adolescence, the individual is on the way to full maturity. Otherwise, he may stagnate emotionally at the youthful level.

The home is an excellent testing and proving ground. There the individual can give full expression to his thoughts and emotions. The chances are that he will be understood and even catered to by loving and sympathetic parents, whether or not they agree with his attitudes and reactions. For some, the danger is that the home may represent a haven from the harsh outside world and thus come to be relied upon as the place to which to retire emotionally. The home is a suitable place in which to grow up emotionally. It is also necessary, however, to develop outside of its physically, socially, and emotionally circumscribed areas.

INFLUENCE OF ORDER OF BIRTH

Position in order of birth may be the cause of sibling jealousy and affect other emotional responses as well. In some families, certain behavior patterns on the part of parents tend to favor the first-born for a time at least. Usually, only children have closer emotional ties with parents because of overprotection and overindulgence. But the picture often changes with the coming of the second child and subsequent siblings. Then sharing of parental attention, which seems like partial neglect, becomes the rule. Jealousy and even sibling hatred may result. These reactions can be avoided when parents take intelligent and well-conceived steps to orient the only child to the forthcoming change in his status. Undesirable emotional reactions can become deeply rooted in the minds of young children, with jealousy and hatred of siblings lasting into adulthood.

INFLUENCE OF SEX OF CHILDREN

Emotionally frustrating situations develop in many families on the basis of special attention, consideration, affection, and favors bestowed by one or both parents on a son or daughter, as the case may be. If the first-born is a son, that may satisfy the ego of the father; if it is a daughter, he may show evidence of severe disappointment. The opposite may be true in the case of an emotionally immature mother. Higher emotional sensitivity of a girl in a family is accepted more tolerantly than in the case of boys. Likewise, the same expectations of economic independence are usually not applied to boys and girls alike.

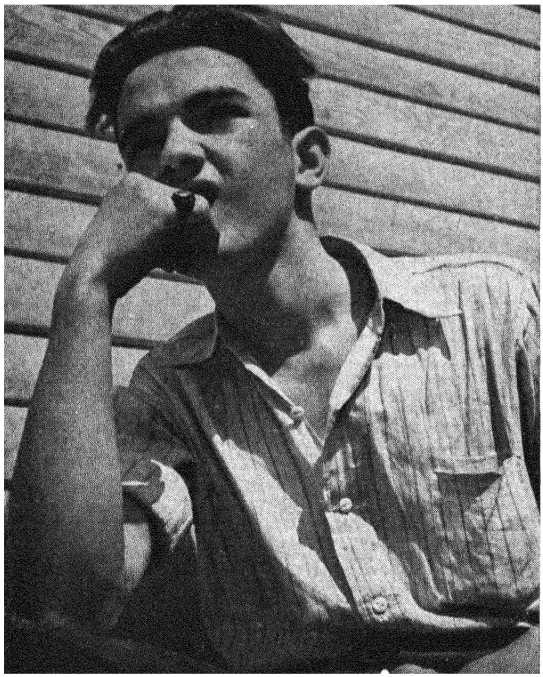
In the area of parent-child relations, there are possibilities for emotional

Father's participation in caring for infant helps to establish normal family relationships. (Photograph by Philip Bonn. Courtesy of Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency.)

clashes between parents on the basis of competition for a child's affection. The young adult needs to understand this factor. He may have to find a way of resisting domination by either parent and to learn to steer a clear course between the emotional tugs of both. This may be difficult in some families. However, awareness of this human urge of many fathers and mothers virtually to "possess" a son or daughter will most likely aid in the process of adjustment in a given situation.

THE EMERGING ADOLESCENT

Adolescence is the period from approximately fourteen in males and twelve in females till the age of twenty-one. This represents the age of most high school and college students. It is a span of years in which young people grow rapidly and start on the path of emancipating themselves from their homes, assuming individual responsibility, gaining self-control and emotional maturity, and developing heterosexual interests. Because of these marked developments in a comparatively short time, adolescence tends to be a stormy emotional period. There are those who resent the necessity of assuming mature responsibilities, of having to break with childhood



The adolescent period represents the transitional period between dependency of childhood and independence of maturity. It finds many young people emotionally unprepared to face the realities of life. (Courtesy of National Youth Administration.)

patterns, of being thrown into competitive situations for which they have no taste or desire.

This transitional period between the dependency of childhood and the independence of maturity finds many young people emotionally unprepared to face the realities of life. As a result they develop bitterness, various resentments and antipathies, and other negativistic attitudes which serve to frustrate them in their day-to-day activities. Fortunately, most young folks take the newer situations, including physical maturity, independence, and responsibility, with a sense of happiness and even elation. They make the necessary emotional and social adjustments and move ahead toward the goal of full physical, mental, emotional, and social maturity. Studies have indicated that those who grow up with a feeling of security and in an atmosphere of affection have the best chance to make satisfactory emotional and social adjustments. They also tend to do well in their studies.

A major emotional problem that the emerging adolescent has to face relates to the development of the physical evidences of sexual maturity. He becomes physiologically capable of heterosexual relations, and yet the mores of his home, of his church, and of society as a whole are opposed

to the exercise of the biologic function of sex outside of marriage. Most young people are influenced by these factors, and for one or more reasons determine to conform to the standards set by our Judaeo-Christian teachings and tradition.

The studies of Kinsey [1] and his associates indicate that those males who have had a minimum of education—not more than public school education to the eighth grade—show the highest rate of sexual promiscuity; high school graduates show a lower rate, while those who have gone to college show the lowest rate. There are certain selective factors at work in these findings, including home environment, economic status, mental capacity, etc. It is not to be assumed that most or all personality and emotional problems among young people have sex as their basis. There are many other forces which are at work. Emotional disturbances presenting some sexual symptoms may play a part in the emergence of youthful maladjustments and even psychotic manifestations.

PARENTAL ATTITUDES

Emotional emancipation is a desirable goal for all adolescents and young adults. Many affectionate parents, however, resent the fact that their young boys and girls are rapidly growing up and are developing a marked urge for independence. Psychologically, the youth come to resent insistence on behavior patterns which were agreeable only a short while back. They tend to loosen their ties to the home, and to seek various emotional satisfactions without the help or intervention of their parents. If the latter are adequately mature and sympathetic to these strivings of their young folks, much unpleasantness, argument, and recrimination will be avoided.

On the other hand, when oversolicitude, which often has a purely selfish basis, is forced on children by parents, difficulties may arise. In emotional turmoil because their kindnesses and presumed sacrifices are not appreciated, some parents resort to insistence on the carrying out of their own plans, and attempt to exert whatever pressure they can to hold their ground. The struggle is usually a losing one. Unfortunately, some parents cannot adjust themselves to newly evolving situations in so far as their children are concerned.

Oversolicitude has effects upon adults and children alike. The parent who dotes upon a child, who is overanxious about his activities and friends,

[1] A. C. Kinsey, W. B. Pomeroy, and C. E. Martin, *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male,* W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia, 1948.

who makes him the center of personal and family interest, is doing distinct harm to the offspring. The latter comes to feel that his welfare is of major concern, and thus he finds difficulty in making various social and emotional adjustments outside of his family circle. Instead of being helped in his over-all development, such a youth is actually retarded psychologically. As he grows older and reaches marriageable age, he may find it difficult to make a satisfactory heterosexual adjustment.

It is not generally recognized that extremes of parental solicitude are often the expression of emotional instability or emotional starvation. For example, a mother who does not love her husband, or is not loved by him, transfers her affection to a son. In another situation, the husband may have died or may be frequently away from home for business and other reasons and the wife and mother is left to seek another love object. For various reasons, some mothers likewise expend much solicitude upon daughters; many young women are thus led to remain unmarried in order to cater to a selfish mother's desires and possible needs. Of course, fathers can also be involved in these situations.

The urge to dominate others is often an emotional reaction to feelings of inadequacy, inferiority, and dissatisfaction. Parents whose desires and life ambitions have not been rewarded with success because of their personal shortcomings or adverse economic and other conditions may try to find satisfactions for these lacks through domination of their children. An effort may be made to exploit the youngsters and to control their lives. The young people are faced with two unpleasant choices: they must either submit to parental pressures, because of their desire to live peacefully with their elders or because of their own lack of strength and character; or, they may leave their families and start out in life without the benefits which accrue from a happy home circle. The egoistic motivation of such parents is ordinarily not understood by the young people. Even if it were, few children could make their elders aware of the true state of affairs.

Prerogatives. It is recognized that parents have certain prerogatives and some just claims upon their children. Parents may properly expect love, respect, courtesy, and consideration from their offspring if they have conscientiously tried to be good parents in the generally accepted meaning of that term. Further, they have a moral and legal right as well to expect their children, when old enough to do so, to assist them in case of emergency and in times of need. By and large, these represent the major claims that can be made upon children by parents.

Close contact between mother and daughter stabilizes emotional needs of the child and is a source of gratification to the mother. (Photograph by Philip Bonn. Courtesy of Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency.)

Aside from the accepted legal obligations, parents have a duty to help their youngsters prepare for adulthood and independence. This objective can be achieved largely by the maintenance of a satisfying family life. Essential requirements include teaching, guiding, and helping the offspring till they are physically, mentally, emotionally, and socially prepared to take their places as mature individuals in the world outside the home.

In the process of give-and-take between parents and children an adequate sense of balance is often not achieved. Children naturally tend to love and respect kind, considerate, and helpful parents. However, with the passage of years and emergence from childhood into late adolescence, objectives in life change for the offspring; some social values are reinterpreted; and standards and interests undergo a transformation. This is understandable and to be expected.

Parents instinctively offer love and affection, and provide protection, sustenance, and guidance. But many fail to recognize emotional changes in themselves with the passage of time. Some also falter in realizing that as their children mature there are strong urges to become independent of elders in various ways. The emotional and social relations between parents

and children have to progress if youngsters are to find their proper place in the outside world. Difficulties arise, however, because, consciously or otherwise, some parents insist on trying to retain all the prerogatives they exercised when their children were young and could not care for themselves physically and socially. They insist on continuing the earlier status even after a son or daughter has reached college age. Emotional conflicts between parents and children find their origins in such situations.

Ambitions. Parental ambitions fall into two general classes: those of parents motivated by vanity and the desire for their offspring to excel and succeed in life, and those evidenced by parents whose major drive is the quest for satisfaction of the parental ego, or the urge to live their lives over again through their children. Whichever category their ambitions belong in, parents who attempt to predetermine a youngster's career, make all his decisions, determine what friends he shall make and what studies he shall undertake, are placing emotional hazards in his path.

The curious thing about parents who are overambitious for their children, or who try to meet their own emotional needs in the guise of devotion and concern for the welfare of a child, is their conviction that all is being done only for the best interests of the offspring. If such adults were to analyze their motives they might realize that there was a distinct selfish motive involved. But few parents seem to appreciate and be willing or able to come face to face with their underlying motives. Altogether too many delude themselves into thinking they are activated solely by self-sacrifice, devotion, and concern. There may indeed be self-sacrifice and devotion. But these qualities often serve to mask a drive toward self-glorification and self-fulfillment gained at the expense of immature youngsters whose emotional development cannot but suffer as a result.

As to the reactions of the children, it appears that while they are preadolescents, they generally tend to follow parental guidance and planning. But it is inevitable that with the passage of time a change will come. Disobedience, resentment, and even emotional disturbances of a more serious nature may result. Youngsters are usually dutiful in the presence of their parents, but once they are away from them they may break out into conduct patterns which evidence emotional conflicts.

More serious situations may evolve in late adolescence and early adulthood. By that time the drive for emotional emancipation from parental control is at its highest point. Parents who insist on guiding and determining the careers of their children may bring on unpleasant family scenes, and drive them to plan to leave home—or even to actually do so—at the

An understanding parent appreciates children's need for attention. (Photograph by Esther Bubley. Courtesy of Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency.)

earliest opportunity. Understanding of parental ambitions and their motivation should help young people of college age to be tolerant of their elders. Normal family life provides the opportunity for social and emotional growth and development, but the fulfillment of this opportunity depends on all the individuals involved, parents and children alike.

Conflict. Conflicts in the home can have emotionally harmful influences upon the parents concerned, but the ultimate results may be more devastating to the children. The younger the children are, the more lasting and emotionally disturbing will be the effects. However, even offspring of college age can be seriously disturbed by parental bickering, argument, and disagreement. Occasions may arise when sons and daughters feel compelled to take sides. At other times the effort is made by parents to use them as buffers or pawns in an unhappy and emotionally charged home atmosphere.

Some differences of opinion are inevitable between two adults living in the same home and being in each other's company day in and day out. A leading sociologist has described the association of men and women in marriage as "antagonistic cooperation." This sounds paradoxical, but it is sufficiently expressive of a common state of family affairs. There are many

causes of parental conflict. While some clashes apparently cannot be avoided even with the best of intentions, others are based on emotional immaturity, selfishness, jealousy, and dishonesty.

Conflicts between husbands and wives most frequently occur in connection with the following: the bringing up of children, the handling of money and other property, differences in religion, sex maladjustments, in-law interference, maintenance of accepted moral standards, respect for social conventions, use of leisure time, differences in temperament. It is essential to emphasize, however, that many husbands and wives have their disagreements in one or, usually, more of these areas and yet manage to avoid serious discord. Such individuals are presumably mature emotionally, have real affection for each other, and recognize that disagreements on minor matters do not necessarily mean failure in marriage. Difficulties in severely trying situations call for calm analysis of the causes and realization that either or both husband and wife may be at fault. It is only when stubbornness and warped attitudes are permitted to intervene that these manifestations can lead to real husband-wife conflict.

In order to clarify the area of such conflicts, it is necessary to recognize that they may have their source in domination by the husband and father, attempt at domination by the wife and mother, or headstrong efforts by both husband and wife to determine and control the family affairs. In the first situation, if the wife is a complaisant individual, loves her husband, and is emotionally immature enough to welcome a dominating husband, all can turn out well for her. The situation may not, however, be a satisfactory one from the point of view of the children. In the family where the mother is a dominant personality and the husband is willing to let her have the upper hand, interpersonal relations may be reasonably pleasant. Strong reactions may occasionally become evident on his part. Children in these families may be placed in embarrassing positions, with the psychological dethronement of the father as presumed head of the family at stake.

In families in which two domineering personalities strive for control, and do not bridle the exercise of what they consider to be their rights and authority, conflict inevitably arises. Again the children are placed in an emotionally precarious position. Each parent may endeavor to win the exclusive affection of a child by various means. In the end this spells trouble and even catastrophe for all concerned.

Young people should not be placed in the position of serving as arbiters in the emotional tug-of-war between parents. It is sufficiently depressing and emotionally disturbing if they remain on the sidelines and helplessly

watch the struggle. They can, however, recognize some of the reasons that have brought on the unhappy situation. In all cases relating to such disagreements, there may be other than purely emotional factors involved.

Sometimes an unsuccessful business or professional career or thwarted progress in another area is the fundamental basis of the apparent difficulty. High blood pressure, arteriosclerosis, severe heart disease, migraine headaches, menopausal manifestations, gastric ulcer or tumorous growth—these and many other physical or mental disorders may be at the root of a personality disturbance expressed in harsh, domineering action in the family circle. Learning and understanding the facts often help to maintain an emotional balance in a troubled home environment.

SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

Mention has already been made of the influence of position in the order of birth and of the sex of children in connection with parental reactions. These factors also influence sibling relationships. The oldest child and an only child have parallel positions in the family, for a time at least. The latter retains his status and does not ever have to face any sibling competition. The reign of the former may be short-lived.

Boys in a family evidently have one type of reaction to each other and another to sisters. The oldest child is apt to develop a protective attitude toward the younger ones in the family group. If any siblings are near his age this type of response may vary. In the Freudian concept, the oldest brother sometimes is a father symbol or substitute, and a parallel symbolism may be present in the case of an older sister. This is especially true in cases where the father or mother is deceased.

The relations between brothers and sisters, particularly when the age difference is about one to three years, often give evidence of affection. Still, much repressed hostility may be present. Jealousy and rivalry for the parents' affection, coupled with resentment over presumed favoritism and undue attention or solicitude, cause many sibling conflicts.

A wholesome phase of the brother-sister relation lies in the area of learning from one another and dealing with each other as equals. The authority of parents may weigh heavily upon children, but a similar situation does not prevail in so far as contacts and dealings between siblings are concerned. Through them a youngster learns how to cooperate and to compete with equals, and thereby is helped to develop emotionally on a satisfactory plane. Contacts with other children in the family have positive values for which there are few, if any, substitutes.

Some studies have indicated the existence of exceptions to the general rule that cooperation and learning stem from sibling contacts. It is evident that the social and economic status of a family may be decisive in this area. Children brought up in low-income families must learn to cooperate and share with others the minimum of available food, clothing, and other necessities. On the other hand, in middle-class families, where essential goods are more abundant, the competition among siblings for equal or larger shares may become keen. The type of home an individual comes from determines many aspects of his social and emotional conduct patterns.

Jealousy. Jealousy may be defined as a frequent egoistic reaction to a sense of oppression, coupled with apprehension, suspicion, resentment, and mistrust of others. The jealous individual comes to feel that he is being deprived of what rightly belongs to him. This emotional reaction is a common manifestation in family experience, which is one explanation of why family quarrels, disagreements, and even lawsuits are frequent. Those who give evidence of a jealous disposition are affected with an emotional response which is probably akin to inferiority feelings. The beautiful girl usually does not harbor a sense of jealousy of her friends; it is more common in the so-called ugly duckling. The child who is strong is less prone to jealousy of the athletic prowess of playmates. He believes he can outdo them, and often proceeds to do so. The puny and physically below-par youngster, on the other hand, may be the one to feel a sense of jealousy.

In sibling relationships, these and similar situations are generally duplicated. Early evidence of jealousy is manifested when the first child believes he is being displaced in the affection of his parents by the newly born brother or sister. Jealousy may show many facets in the young child. Selfishness, excessive pugnacity or timidity, thumb sucking, nail biting, and other habits may be indicative of emotional disturbance with jealousy as the basis. When the first child becomes upset because of the birth of a brother or sister, he may at first try to hurt the baby by pinching, pushing, hitting, and otherwise molesting it. He may take away the toys of a younger brother, refuse to play with him, and reject him as one of his playmates.

Jealousy and behavior problems growing out of emotional maladjustment largely rest on parental reactions, rather than on poor sibling relationships. If deprived of parental love, the essential and intimate evidence of attachment, children are left in an emotional void with no possibility of finding an adequate substitute. Jealousy in a neglected child can be healed with the return of signs of affection by the parents. The feeling of

Sibling jealousy is alleviated by enlisting assistance of older child in caring for new baby. (Photograph by Philip Bonn. Courtesy of Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency.)

neglect, as has been pointed out, may come with the arrival of the newborn. It may also develop in homes that are temporarily or permanently broken by illness, separation, war service of the father, divorce, or death.

Sibling jealousy has long-term effects which may appear in the form of severe social and emotional maladjustments in late adolescence and young adulthood. These aftereffects can even persist throughout life. Understanding of the source of certain personal problems in the home or in contacts with those outside may require an evaluation of family upbringing. Facts about position in the order of birth, sex of siblings, parental bestowal of attention and affection, and early manifestations of jealousy can aid in clearing up some maladjustments even in early adulthood.

Rivalry. In early childhood, sibling rivalry is an outgrowth of resentment at the loss of parental affection and attention. This may be only a matter of time and degree. The distraction of parents, particularly of the mother, with the birth of another child is inevitable. The youngster who is the victim of the changed state of affairs, however, cannot supply satisfying explanations. He feels left out and denied a source of emotional gratification to which he has been accustomed.

New demands may even be made upon him by a troubled and harassed parent to meet the urgent needs of the newborn. The only way the troubled child can regain the attention he craves is by drawing attention to himself and regressing into the earlier status of infancy. Wetting, refusal to eat, night terrors, crying spells, and temper tantrums are some of the means used by children in this plight. These are the only ways to express sibling rivalry. If, because of the negligence or ignorance of his parents, a child fails in these efforts to regain his previous position, a state of rivalry may continue for some years.

Hatred. An emotional reaction of hatred may follow sibling jealousy and rivalry. If parents do not handle these negativistic reactions between their young children properly, the emotional situation may carry over into adolescence and beyond. Inevitably, siblings are in competition for the attention and affection of loving parents, especially of the mother. The claims of the several children may be excessive and conflicting, so that they can be only partially met. The basis of sibling rivalry, and ultimately of hatred as well, may rest on this struggle for parental affection. It may carry over beyond the efforts to share and retain parental affection.

Sibling hatred can be engendered in a family circle by various factors. There is the matter of sharing parental possessions. Simple problems arise in most families, such as spending allowances, the purchase of new clothes, funds for toys, books, trips, vacations, and college. In these and related situations much sibling hatred can be evoked because of feelings of prior claims, neglect, and partiality. Lack of parental understanding of how to meet the varied and ever changing emotional needs of their children looms large in creating a sense of frustration. Potential parents of the coming generation, possessing the knowledge that modern psychology makes available, should be in a good position to become effective parents in the years ahead.

SUMMARY

Appreciation of the part that the emotions play in parent-child and sibling relationships can aid materially in the building of effective family life. In some families there may be evidence of parental rivalry for love of an only child. But the majority of children are members of family groups with two or more siblings. The strivings of parents for affection of their children, and the competition of the youngsters for their share of parental love and attention, bring on distinct emotional reactions.

For the young adult, the problem presented has two facets: his own siblings and "why they behave that way"—that is, understanding the emotional expression of desires, urges, and other drives which may conflict with those of brothers and sisters; and understanding why infants and young children behave in emotionally negativistic ways, and how these affect personality and emotional adjustment during adolescence and adulthood. In learning to resolve the emotional problems growing out of the first category, the young adult should find the way to personal appraisal and emotional adjustment in so far as sibling relationships are concerned. By comprehending the facts relating to emotional responses of children, he can prepare himself to meet problems that will arise after his own marriage and the birth of his children.

Parental competition for the love of their offspring may be rooted in repressions and emotional problems which are not readily evident even to the adults involved. Selfish efforts based on competition may have as an end result the emotional bondage of the child to one or the other parent. Freedom from such ties is essential for sibling happiness and normal psychological adjustment.

Parents who are reasonably careful and intelligent in dealing with a child's reactions toward themselves and other siblings will usually help a troubled child to overcome the primitive drives of jealousy, rivalry, and hatred. In large measure, the welfare of society depends on the satisfactory psychological adjustment of the men and women who determine what the course of society shall be in the years immediately ahead. They are in the key position to provide emotionally effective home environments. In these the children of today can grow into maturity, prepared to take their places as the adults and leaders of the next generation. If competitive aspects of family life could be markedly mitigated or eliminated, much would be accomplished in preparing the youths of the present to be psychologically well-adjusted adults of the immediate future.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. How does position in the order of birth influence the emotional adjustment of siblings?
2. What part does the sex of a sibling play in parent relationships and in parent-child ties?
3. How do parental emotional reactions toward siblings affect (*a*) a young child, (*b*) an adolescent, and (*c*) a young adult?
4. From personal experience, describe how parental ambitions (*a*) have

aided you to progress and make good social and emotional adjustments; or (*b*) have thwarted you in your aims, ambitions, and various adjustments.

5. Conflicting and competing parents adversely influence family life and the psychological adjustment of their offspring. Describe in some detail how this has worked out in your immediate family, or in other families with which you are acquainted.

6. What are the major sibling interpersonal problems and how do they affect (*a*) young children, (*b*) adolescents, (*c*) young adults?

7. From personal experience, explain how you have been influenced by brothers or sisters in your social and emotional development.

8. What are some of the basic findings of the Kinsey report on the sexual habits of males?

9. List (*a*) parental responsibilities to their children and (*b*) children's responsibilities to their parents.

10. What are the psychological effects of jealousy and hatred in sibling relationships?

REFERENCES

Arlitt, Ada H., *Psychology of Infancy and Early Childhood,* 3d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1946.

Barker, R. G., J. S. Kounin, and H. F. Wright, *Child Behavior and Development,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1943.

Becker, Howard, and Reuben Hill, *Marriage and the Family,* D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1948.

Burgess, E. W., and H. J. Locke, *The Family,* American Book Company, New York, 1945.

Groves, E. R., *The Family and Its Social Functions,* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1940.

Hurlock, Elizabeth B., *Child Development,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

Murphy, Gardner, *Personality,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

Newcomb, T. M., *Social Psychology,* The Dryden Press, Inc., New York, 1950.

CHAPTER 8

PROBLEM HOMES

Problem homes are of many kinds. They include the broken homes caused by divorce or separation or by the death of one or both parents; the temporarily broken homes caused by the extended absence of one or both parents due to vocational reasons or to hospitalization or to incarceration in prison; and the homes marked by cultural or religious conflicts and by discord between the parents.

Studies have indicated that children raised in problem homes do not have as good a chance to mature into fully efficient, well-adjusted individuals as do those brought up in what might be called normal homes, that is, homes with parents who are emotionally mature, mentally and physically healthy, and culturally well mated. These and other requisites are necessary to produce the kind of family circles which makes for the effective psychological adjustment of children.

Many young men and women raised in problem homes have managed to become psychologically adjusted to their familial environments and have established effective interpersonal relations outside their homes as well. Others have found their problem, or broken, homes severe psychological burdens. The absence of a father or mother—and in some instances of both—has brought about a sense of frustration and other emotional problems that constantly beset them.

Some recognize that their parents are not well suited to each other; that the cultural and other differences between them cause discord and bring a sense of defeatism to both parents and children. For effective living, such young people need to learn the major factors that are the basis of these differences, and attempt to work out an adjustment to them. If there should

be a break-up of the family, the harm done may be worse than that resulting from the original situation. On the other hand, such separation, by whatever legal or other process it is achieved, may be the only way out in some family situations.

BROKEN HOMES

Data compiled by the National Office of Vital Statistics [1] on divorce have shown some wide variations. The accompanying table presents figures for the ten-year period 1941–1950 inclusive.

DIVORCE IN THE UNITED STATES

Year	*Number*
1950	385,000
1949	397,000
1948	408,000
1947	483,000
1946	610,000
1945	485,000
1944	400,000
1943	359,000
1942	321,000
1941	293,000
Total	4,141,000

It is apparent that there was a marked increase of divorces in the years immediately following the Second World War. The same situation developed after the First World War. These increases may be assigned in large measure to hasty marriages contracted during the war years. The 1950 figure represents 2.5 divorces for every 1,000 persons of all ages. Since the 1946 all-time peak, the divorce rate has dropped approximately 44 per cent. It has been estimated that in the United States there are between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000 children under eighteen years of age whose homes have been broken by divorce.[2]

Another major cause of broken homes is mental illness. The *Journal of the American Medical Association* [3] estimated that in 1950 there were 938,000 psychotics in the country. There are almost as many hospitalized mental patients as there are patients in all general hospitals and sanatoria in the United States. The total number of hospital beds for nervous and mental

[1] Prior to 1946 figures were compiled by the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

[2] J. F. Landis, "Community Responsibility in Family Life," *Journal of Social Hygiene*, April, 1951, p. 153.

[3] May 26, 1951, p. 324.

patients was 732,929 in 1952, and 808,686 for all other types of patients[4] in the same year.

The psychological effects of broken homes become evident in various ways and at different age levels. Many infants and young children brought up in institutions tend to react with negativism; others react with exaggerated regression. In infants the latter reaction may take the form of a kind of stupor and lack of normal development. Boys from broken homes enrolled in a military school showed 2.4 times as many cases of mental retardation as those from normal homes; in addition, behavior and emotional problems were twice as common and health problems nearly four times as common among the former group. Various studies of adolescents who lived in institutions for a number of years have indicated defective emotional development, as well as lowered mental and physical development as compared with children of low-income families. Homes that are broken, for whatever reason, present distinct problems in psychological adjustment to children who are a part of them.

CLASSIFICATION OF PROBLEM HOMES

A study of family maladjustments among college students divided the problem homes into the following classifications: "foreign social background"; "inadequately financed"; "lower social level than college"; "high pressure"; "antagonistic to college"; "interfering and clinging"; "chronic desertion"; "prejudiced in favor of one child"; "overly religious and narrowly moral"; "recently disrupted." [5]

This classification was based on the probation students who were being helped to develop satisfactory methods of study. It was found that many of them knew how to study and were failing in their work for reasons other than personal inefficiency. Some of the real reasons for failure were found in the family situation. In general, it made little difference whether a failing student lived at home or not. Family "remote control" was usually able to interfere with the educational process. Study of five hundred case records indicated that such difficulties in the home as mentioned were responsible for the failure of 10 per cent of the students. The negative aspects in the home were contributing factors in 30 per cent of the students studied.

Foreign Social-background Home. Parents of foreign extraction often find it difficult to accept some American concepts of parent-child rela-

[4] *Journal of the American Medical Association,* May 9, 1953, p. 149.

[5] Louella Pressey, "Some Serious Family Maladjustments among College Students," *Social Forces,* December, 1931, pp. 234–242.

Slum environment influences personality.

tionships. On the other hand, their sons and daughters readily adopt the social habits and customs of their friends and classmates. Conflict with rigid Old World traditions of the parents tends to cause ill feeling in the groups concerned. On the American scene, a young woman of college age naturally expects to choose her own friends of both sexes. Many foreign-born parents resent such conduct and attempt to interfere and impose their own ideas upon their children. It may take a lot of discussion to persuade an authoritarian father that his eighteen-year-old daughter has the right to make her own selection of boy friends; a twenty-year-old son will insist on picking his girl friends, and not necessarily from those of the same national origin as his parents.

Its customs carried over from countries where mate selection is often determined by parents, the "foreign social-background" home is often a source of chagrin and ill feeling. The young people themselves have a measure of responsibility in teaching their elders that such matters as friendships, mate selection, and marriage are handled somewhat differently in this country. It is not assumed that such attitudes are limited only to parents of

foreign extraction. In some homes of American antecedents the mother or father attempts similar dictatorial tactics.

Inadequately Financed Home. In many families sacrifices of all kinds are necessary to enable a son or daughter to go to college. The pressures exerted by such sacrifices affect all members of a family. Parents who have to deny themselves various essentials and give up many simple pleasures often tend to put the college student under severe pressures. Allowances for books, clothes, adequate food when living away from home, and incidental expenditures may loom large in families that are inadequately financed through the limited income of the chief wage earner.

Parents in such homes, especially if they have not had a college education themselves, are inclined to overemphasize the achievement of high grades and various honors. They are likewise apt to place a value on the college course which is somewhat out of proportion to reality. In many of these families it is assumed that the college-trained son or daughter will not only add prestige to the group as a whole but will favorably affect the economic status.

Sibling jealousies are another factor. Many older brothers and sisters gladly make personal and financial sacrifices so that a younger member of the family can go to college. This may, in the long run, result in various manifestations of jealousy and in recriminations communicated on many occasions to the favored individual. The attitudes and pressures of the parents, as well as of other members of the family, may have a deterrent effect upon the college student. These factors affect his studies, his social relations, and the other satisfactions that are derived from a college course. Emotional adjustments to the family and others outside of the home are likewise interfered with.

Lower Social Level than College Home. The college student whose parents have had little schooling and no opportunities for the development of the usual social graces faces distinct problems. It is often difficult for such parents to realize the full implications of sending a son or daughter to college. One important item relates to the gulf that may develop between them and the son or daughter at college. Academic training above the family level, plus social education, which is an essential part of group studying and living on the college campus, may bring about emotional conflicts and raise questions of family loyalty.

It is readily evident that parents whose lives have been spent in a rural area cannot, as a rule, live according to social standards acceptable in urban and college circles. The girl who comes to college in home-made clothes

quickly realizes that there is a difference between herself and her smartly dressed classmates. The boy from a rural area may find that his table manners, style of dressing, and lack of the social graces make him stand out, much to his discomfort. Such young people tend to draw invidious comparisons between their hard-working, simple folks and those of their more sophisticated classmates. They dread the time when their parents will come on a visit, naturally expecting to be shown around and perhaps introduced to classmates and instructors.

The thought of holidays and vacations at home may cause emotional upsets. Parents who are making many sacrifices to send a son or daughter to college often cannot understand what is the cause of the uneasiness and irritability. The end result is often one of unhappiness and frustration to all concerned.

High-pressure Home. The so-called self-made man, or the successful businessman who sends his son to college, may expect a record of high achievement from Junior. He wants him to get into the best fraternity, be a campus leader, get on the varsity team, and of course attain high academic standing. In addition, the high-pressure parent may have the son's future career all marked out for him as an associate, partner, and eventual successor in the family business. An overheard conversation between such a father and his son wound up, as the train was pulling out, with these words: "Remember now, don't dare get lower than an A, and be sure you make the team."

What happens when the son is not college material? Or when he is a good student and wants to prepare for a professional or artistic career, and just hates the family business? The father may refuse to admit that his son cannot do well in college, and refuse to hear of any other career for his son than that of following in his footsteps. Strong letters may pass from father to son; allowances may be cut as a punishment for failure to get high grades; other pressure methods may also be used, including threats of various kinds.

The student may be trying very hard, but to no avail. His classroom achievements usually suffer from the additional handicap of parental pressures, and his social adjustments are likewise affected. If he flunks out, his feelings of shame, incompetence, and inferiority will be markedly aggravated. This effect may be so severe as to influence his entire future. Various psychological implications follow the inability or refusal of the father to see his son's point of view. Often such men dominate their wives as well, so that the mollifying influences of a mother play no part. In fact, the tendency

may be for the mother to side with her husband against the emotionally troubled student.

Antagonistic-to-college Home. There are cases in which parents are antagonistic to the idea of their sons and daughters obtaining a college education. This is most apt to happen when the parents have not gone to college themselves. Their attitude is usually mixed. It may be partly based on the belief that such an education is unnecessary, or costly, or even a handicap. Feelings of inferiority may be involved, based on the thought that educated children look down upon parents who have not had similar opportunities or have failed to take advantage of those available to them. Then too, parents may simply be jealous of the presumed four years of ease and social life that the course of study affords.

The motives of antagonism may be mixed, but there is no question that the end results may be emotionally harmful to the son or daughter who is made the butt of the antipathy, criticism, ridicule, or jealousy of a parent. Additional harassing methods may be employed, such as the failure or refusal to pay college and board bills on time or the withholding of necessary allowances for books, clothing, transportation, and incidentals. It is readily understandable that parents who are pressed financially may be slow in producing the needed funds. But these pressures and directly antagonistic acts are evident even among those who can well afford the cost of a college education, or who are in a position to subsidize a son or daughter to a considerable degree.

The serious effects of such a nagging father or mother on a college student are almost inevitable in so far as grades, emotional adjustment, affection for parents, and loyalty to the family are concerned. The tougher-minded student will usually find a way out of the harassing situation; in the case of others, it may mean low marks, threats of dismissal, poor work on part-time jobs, and even physical and emotional illness.

Interfering and Clinging Home. As has been indicated, parents who dominate their children and are inclined to make all their decisions for them are guilty of a distinct disservice. If questioned or chided about their conduct, they usually insist that they only mean well, that their children are incapable of deciding various things for themselves, that their help in picking a college, in selecting clothes, in approving or disapproving friends is welcomed by the offspring. The urge to dominate is often the unconscious expression of a sense of inferiority or of a desire for the satisfaction of unrecognized needs.

The interfering tendency may find expression in various ways. In one

family the parents sent word to an English instructor that they objected to their daughter being required to read an assigned text and insisted that one which they approved should be substituted. In another instance a parent requested a zoology instructor to excuse a student from the section on evolution, to which there was objection in the family circle on general principles.

In many families courses of study are determined neither by the wishes of the enrolling student nor by the advice of college authorities. The tastes, wishes, and prejudices of parents, grandparents, and even uncles and aunts are the deciding factors. The clinging type of parent is often an emotionally immature and also insecure individual who tries to attain vicarious satisfactions through close ties to a son or daughter. Such parents may insist on picking their children's friends and helping them with their lessons. Their general attitude is one of apprehensiveness, with resultant interference in the daily activities and emotional and social development of their children. When the latter go to college, long distance telephone calls, daily letters, frequent visits to the college and dormitory or boarding house become a set pattern, much to the dismay of the students.

Chronic-desertion Home. Disturbance of the stability of a family, by whatever cause, inevitably leaves its permanent impress on the children. The reasons for disagreement, quarreling, separation, and desertion by the father or mother are many. Some of these matters have been previously dealt with. The man who becomes abusive to his wife and children may be unhappy in his marriage, dissatisfied with his job, emotionally immature, or mentally ill. One or several of these factors may be at the root of his problem. Some men and women take to alcohol and even narcotics; others just run away and desert their families, either temporarily or permanently.

For the college student, as for any young person, such a home environment is a distressing one. The probability is that the abusing parent has a long history of misconduct at home and elsewhere. His escapades, alcoholic excesses, periodic desertions, and other manifestations of a disturbed personality, leave their permanent effects on the marital partner and children alike. Going away to college is a way out of the unhappy home environment, though it is not a solution in itself.

Thinking back to past experiences with an erring parent, wondering what the current status is at home, are not conducive to good academic work. These factors often result in low grades and the possibility of a warning from the dean. A major crisis may arise when graduation time

arrives, the college course is over, and return to the unsatisfactory and unhappy home environment has to be faced. In some instances this situation develops even sooner, because the emotional stress has finally led to the necessity of dropping out of college.

Prejudiced in Favor of One Child Home. In the case of a favored-child home, there is usually a situation in which one child is the parents' favorite, to the discomfiture of the other children. The reason may be attractiveness or illness, mental capacity or definite accomplishment in music, art, or some other field. Frequently the ailing or physically handicapped child is the one who receives most attention. This may be because the youngster actually requires more personal service from the parents. Sometimes such a child has been spoiled by parental solicitude and makes unusual demands upon them. Then again, some parents harbor a guilt feeling when they have a son or daughter who is born physically or mentally defective.

It is natural for parents to draw comparisons between their children. If one son is a superior student and gets better grades than another who is perhaps a year or more older, the latter is often the one upon whom parental pressures are exerted. Demands that more time be given to study, that less attention be directed to social activities, insistence on helping with class assignments—these and other parental attitudes may cause emotional reactions on the part of a student of normal intelligence and average competence as a college student.

Parents who have themselves achieved high scholastic distinction are frequently the greatest offenders against youth in this respect. They often come to feel that it is a sign of family disloyalty for a son or daughter not to be elected to scholastic honor societies. Such direct and indirect pressures and appraisals seep into the mentality of the student who is discriminated against. They may even arouse a feeling of antipathy toward the parents themselves and toward the favored brother or sister, a belittling of the value of a college education, refusal to complete the course, and general emotional upset.

Overly Religious and Narrowly Moral Home. A religious upbringing is undoubtedly of value in the development of character and a moral way of life. Many have raised the question as to whether young people of the present are as religious as their parents or grandparents were at the same age level. Apparently the changes in society as a whole and the extension of educational opportunities have had a definite influence on religious observances. The problems as they affect college students often relate to their full acceptance of the beliefs and practices of their parents. College

students of today are evidently as moral—using that term in the broadest sense—as those who preceded them.

Difficulties arise between parents and their children when the latter fail to adhere to some specific conduct patterns insisted upon by the former. In homes in which drinking and smoking, card playing and dancing are looked upon as irreligious and immoral, pressures are put on the young people which may be the cause of emotional conflicts. In one family situation the parents likewise impressed upon their children the idea that all modern fiction is immoral and must not be read. They told their son that boys who think too much about sex go insane, and warned him not to fall in love at college.

It is evident that modern young men and women brought up in homes in which narrow and fallacious concepts prevail are placed in an emotionally conflicting situation. They must try to make an adjustment between what their parents have taught them and what they see and learn at college. If the inner struggle is severe, academic work is certain to suffer, social adjustments will be restricted, and efforts to evade the questions of parents may lead to emotional distress.

Recently Disrupted Home. Family disruption may follow the death of a parent, separation, desertion, divorce, etc. The decease of a loved father or mother may cause much emotional upset and leave lasting effects. Similarly serious results may be the outgrowth of permanent separation and divorce. Figures already presented indicate the extent of marital disruption. Such a sequence to marriage leaves certain emotional marks upon the two adults concerned. The most serious effects fall upon the children who become the innocent victims of a poorly planned marriage; a union broken up by interfering relatives; immorality of a parent, etc. Destruction of faith in a loved parent is a catastrophe in the life of a child of divorced parents.

The young man at college has a hard time adjusting himself to the idea that his father and mother are permanently separated. His psychological foundation, based on his home, is seriously affected. The competition between the parents for his affection only results in conflicting loyalties. Attempts at open and subtle bribery to win his favor put him in an equivocal position. This is particularly so if the mother turns to her grown-up son for comfort and emotional support in the absence of her former husband. In the case of a daughter of college age, there is the same chain of effects, with a further complication. While the son may easily plan to live away from home, and thus avoid conflict with both parents, difficulties are often placed in the path of a young woman similarly placed. Whatever adjust-

ment is made, both parents may create further problems through their separate efforts to prove their own justification. Inevitably, the academic work suffers, and a sense of shame may permeate the thinking of the young people, with consequent confusion and unhappiness.

Culture-conflict Home. In listing the causes of familial conflicts, stresses based on cultural differences between parents should be included as having serious psychological effects upon the children. Difficulties arising out of the religious backgrounds play an important part. The varied antecedents of the American population have led to a wide range of religious groups. Thus, the 1951 *Yearbook of American Churches* lists 242 denominations in the United States. With the personal and religious freedom and freedom of movement characteristic of our democratic country, it is obvious that men and women of diverse religious backgrounds will meet on a social plane, will become friends, and will often go on to marriage. Much patience and understanding are called for if individuals of different religious backgrounds are to make a success of marriage. While many may succeed in doing so, others fail in the attempt, and as a result, conflict situations arise in the family group.

Intermarriage of individuals of different cultural groups, like those in which religious differences play the dominant part, may also be the source of conflicts. Initially, there may be considerable love and affection, much of it based on strong physical attraction. While parents on either or both sides may raise their voices against such unions, their actions may only tend to arouse a greater degree of determination to go through with the projected marriage. Such a reaction, and unwillingness to admit the possibility that a mistake has been made, may keep the couple together indefinitely. The basis of a cultural conflict may be laid. The psychological impact on the offspring of such a union is sometimes severe.

Because of family background, many young people face a severe cultural conflict. At college they naturally draw comparisons between their new contacts in the classrooms—instructors and fellow students—and their parents and brothers and sisters at home. Looking up to the former, and without making due allowance for the handicaps to which their parents may have been subject, they draw unfavorable and unhappy conclusions. Often such students are hesitant about returning home for vacation periods, and plan to settle in other than their own communities after graduation. To a degree, this state of mind represents rejection of the parents by their children. Inevitably, unhappiness and emotional conflict affect all concerned.

Parent-child culture conflicts also have their roots in other areas of human experience. There is usually a difference of at least twenty to thirty years between parents and children. With the rapid changes that have taken place in our society during the past few decades, it is inevitable that traditional customs and ways of thinking, plus mental attitudes and strongly held opinions, should bring about clashes in family groups. The rapidity with which cultural changes take place widens the cultural gap between the generations. These changes have a tendency to belittle the value of parental experience in the eyes of their offspring. Precedents, traditional ideas on politics and economics, social customs and religion are brought into the areas of argument and disagreement.

The family, however, retains its stabilizing influence. All that emanates from the minds and limited experiences of youth is not necessarily of permanent value. Many of the so-called newer concepts harbored by young people of college age will pass by them as they mature and learn more about the permanent values of society. The psychological problem that is posed by the seemingly conflicting concepts of parents and children may be based on the narrowness—the limited education, experience, and mental capacity—of the parents. The same applies to the children. It is to be expected that both generations will approach social, political, economic, and other problems from different points of view. Still, recognition of these facts by the younger group should mollify their feelings of conflict. It should also broaden their appreciation of the fact that further learning and experience may influence their own thinking.

In family groups in which specific elements are present which may incline the children toward psychological maladjustments, the remedy may rest largely on their own conduct. They need to recognize parental values in relation to educational, emotional, and social issues, as well as parental shortcomings. It is the responsibility of the younger generation to work out plans of adjustment to meet their own specific situations.

Families with Patterns of Rejection. Fortunately, parents generally love their children, irrespective of their looks, abilities, and accomplishments. But situations develop in which some parents virtually reject their children. This is particularly the case when families are broken by divorce, followed by remarriage of one or both parents. In a study of over 500,000 marriages in New York State, it was found that 18.5 per cent were remarriages for one or both partners and 6.2 per cent were remarriages for both. In such instances the children become pawns in a series of events which affect them socially and emotionally to a considerable degree. Other causes of

parental rejection may be pregnancy before marriage and mental and emotional incapacity of one or both parents. There are also parents to whom a child is a nuisance because their primary concern in life is self-indulgence. Their social, economic, business, and other plans and ambitions are interfered with, and rejection of the child follows.

As an outgrowth of the inevitable culture conflicts in our society, various pressures and differences arise between parents and children. As previously indicated, this is particularly true in the homes with a basis in foreign culture. Other difficulties arise out of the patterns set by our press, radio, motion pictures, and, more recently, television. The tendency of youth is to conform, while that of parents is usually to continue their own patterns of conduct and way of life.

For these and many other reasons, including social inadequacy, incompetence as parents, failure as wage earners, unwillingness to change some undesirable fixed habits, children reject their parents partially or totally. In the latter instance they leave home, marry early to get away from the family circle, take jobs in other communities, etc. If they find it necessary to live at home there is almost constant bickering and arguing, with emotional conflicts and severe reactions for all concerned.

Disgraced Families. Families which are disgraced because of the conduct of one member face a serious problem in human relations. Such families lose social status among relatives, friends, and neighbors. The degree of condemnation and ostracism varies from one social group to another, and from one part of the country to another. Criminal acts and imprisonment, pregnancy outside of marriage, prostitution, chronic alcoholism, and narcotic addiction—these are examples of situations that result in social ostracism. It seems cruel to put the blame for the misconduct of a father or mother on the children, or to stigmatize parents for a misdeed of their offspring.

Public disgrace brings in its train varied psychological and sociological problems. As to the latter, there is the tendency to shun the children and other members of a family group in which some one has transgressed the social code or the law. Such action on the part of friends and neighbors has a distinct psychological effect which usually cannot be combated successfully. The idea of being shunned is often coupled with a self-sought isolation induced by the feeling of shame. This may be followed by almost enforced removal from a neighborhood or community and the attempt at social reestablishment elsewhere.

From a psychological point of view the consequences of an antisocial act or misconduct by a parent or sibling may not influence young children. For adolescents and those of college age, the effects may take on a serious aspect. They are cognizant of what has taken place, of what the immediate results are, and the long-term implications. Young women may lose their boy friends; their brothers may come to be unwelcome in the homes of their girl friends; both may be ostracized and talked about by friends, neighbors, and classmates. Tensions and nervous strain develop in the family circle. Various plans are made to get away from the situation, even though family loyalty may be brought to a high level because of what has happened to one member. Other consequences of an unlawful act, aside from arrest, trial, and possible conviction and imprisonment, follow, including illness, loss of job and wages, costs of the trial, etc.

OTHER FACTORS IN PSYCHOLOGICAL MALADJUSTMENT

There are many other factors which are the basis of psychological maladjustments in problem homes. A number grow out of various tensions that exist between the parents, with inevitable effects upon the children. The following are some of the sources of tension: marital relations; the struggle between ascendance of one and submission of the other parent; lack of sympathy, understanding, etc.; failure to cooperate in the upbringing of the children; refusal or inability to talk over differences and arrive at mutually acceptable solutions to interpersonal and family problems; the selection of friends; relatives; the work of the wage earner; expressions of affection; the critical attitude of the husband and father; and finances.

Young men and women sensitive to the requirements of a happy home life find these and other tension factors between parents destructive to normal psychological adjustment for themselves. They are often the victims of parents who argue and seriously disagree with each other. At the same time an emotionally distraught mother may turn to her college-age daughter for sympathy and understanding, and a troubled father may seek comradeship from his maturing son. The children are thus put in a position of being expected to take sides between differing parents, despite the fact that they may have high regard and affection for both. It is not their fault if the marriage of the parents was a mistake in the first place. The perplexity which they face in problem homes is often the basis of their own psychological problems. With an adequate understanding of the emotional factors involved in their home situations, they may be helped to ride the storm, reach full maturity, and make adequate adjustments in their own lives.

SUMMARY

Satisfactory emotional adjustment in a home is helped and fostered when parents are themselves emotionally, socially, and economically well adjusted. Even in homes where a comparatively happy state of affairs prevails, there are times when stresses and tensions arise. Of course, in homes in which either or both parents give evidence of psychological maladjustment on their own score, conflict is more or less continual. When this is the case, the family circle can properly be termed a problem home, one in which the normal psychological adjustment of the children is faced with serious challenges.

Once late adolescence is attained, many patterns of thought and conduct are fairly well fixed. Where parents give evidence of interpersonal difficulties which are of recent origin, perhaps resulting from illness or economic instability arising out of loss of a job or business failure, the children can readily understand and make due allowances. However, individuals who have been brought up in what may accurately be called problem homes are apt to have hard and fixed attitudes towards a harassing parent.

The study of psychology is intended to teach the fundamentals of mental mechanisms—why we act as we do, and how to overcome certain mental or emotional difficulties. It is, therefore, to be assumed that the student will attain an understanding of the conduct patterns of parents and siblings alike. Out of such knowledge should come psychological insight adequate to divest living in a problem home of any serious consequences to the individual concerned.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Define what is meant by a problem home and give five examples of such homes.
2. How does a period of international crisis, followed by war, affect families?
3. Would family stability and reduction in number of problem homes be favorably or unfavorably influenced by laws (*a*) making divorce stricter, (*b*) making divorce easier? Give your reasons.
4. How can the foreign background of parents affect the psychological adjustment of children?
5. How do cultural differences influence family stability?
6. What part can young adults play in helping to meet their parents' objections to a college education?
7. What are college students' responsibilities in homes in which parents are (*a*) inadequately financed, (*b*) overly protective, (*c*) recently separated or divorced?

8. Describe two homes in which children faced problems such as (*a*) parental jealousy, (*b*) high pressure, (*c*) chronic alcoholism or other severe mental or emotional disturbances involving one or both parents.

REFERENCES

Baruch, Dorothy W., "Items of Tension in Marital Relations Irritable to Child," *Journal of Genetic Psychology,* September, 1938.

Becker, Howard, and Reuben Hill, *Family, Marriage and Parenthood,* D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1948.

Bossard, J. H. S., *Marriage and the Child,* University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1940.

Bossard, J. H. S., *Sociology of Child Development,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1948.

Groves, E. R., *The Family and Its Social Functions,* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1940.

McKinney, Fred, *Psychology of Personal Adjustment,* 2d ed., John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1948.

Terman, L. M., *Psychological Factors in Marital Happiness,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938.

CHAPTER 9

COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE

Marriage can be the most important and satisfying psychological experience in the life of an individual. The fulfillment of daydreams, hopes, and aspirations; the satisfaction of physical, emotional, and social needs; the culmination of plans for a career, financial success, happiness with children —all these can and often do come with marriage.

Young college students are, as a rule, sufficiently mature mentally and emotionally to realize that marriage brings in its wake a series of obligations and duties, and that it is their responsibility to avoid entering marriage as though it were a lark. They should first learn as much as possible about their own potentialities, about their prospective mates and families, and about the changes that will accompany their new status. With such an approach, it is probable that this major undertaking—marriage—will have an excellent chance of success over the years.

CHOOSING A MATE

The process of choosing a mate involves a number of important considerations. Many young and inexperienced persons are inclined to be impatient, to jump to conclusions, and to make hasty and ill-considered decisions. It is easy enough to get a "crush" on a member of the opposite sex and think this is "the one and only love," this is "love at first sight." Such an attraction may merely be an expression of adolescent daydreams, of emotional and unconsidered glorification of an individual.

A primary essential in the selection of a suitable mate is emotional

maturity. It cannot be expected that a young person in the late teens or early twenties will possess the type or degree of maturity that will, as a rule, be evident in later years. However, the prolongation of adolescence by parental overprotection and failure to achieve adult maturity may seriously conflict with the objective of suitable mate selection.

Factor in Mate Selection. Various qualities have been held to be desirable in a potential mate. However, while certain qualities appeal to some individuals, they may not have the same hold upon other individuals. In any event, all human qualities are relative, and their proper appraisal depends on the bias and personal interest of the one who is attempting to make the decision. Each individual, as a rule, wants his or her future mate to give evidence of specific gifts, abilities, qualities, and capacities; mental and emotional maturity, honesty, fairness, self-control, cheerfulness, sense of responsibility, common sense, sense of humor, sense of value of money and other personal belongings, recognition and respect for the rights of others, devotion to work, and a sense of justice are generally considered desirable traits. The passing of judgment on the possession of these qualities will be influenced by various considerations. The individual concerned with making a choice will want to evaluate the listed qualities, as well as others, in terms of their importance to himself or herself. If, after due consideration, the appraisal is a favorable one, the task of choosing is simplified.

There are also the factors of physical health, mental and emotional health, social adaptability, and ethical standards. Physical health is essential if the man of one's choice is to be able to support a wife and children as well. Good health is also a requisite for the wife if she is to manage a home efficiently, bear children and raise them, and take care of other responsibilities that are usually the lot of a wife and mother.

Mental and emotional health are of similar importance for a successful marriage. It is fair to assume that one should not knowingly select a mate who gives evidence of mental illness or abnormal conduct, or has a history of recent mental incapacity and hospitalization. Likewise, the individual who is highly excitable, is given to severe temper tantrums, flares up into a state of anger with or without apparent cause, and is extremely jealous or suspicious may be a difficult person to live with as a marriage partner.

Physical attraction plays an important part in mate selection. Such attraction cannot be defined in exact and specific terms. However, with the freedom of selection open to most young people in the United States, as contrasted with some European and other countries, unless a possible

mate is physically acceptable, the choice is usually not made. If two young people are not physically attracted to each other, there is but slight chance of a happy union between them. It must be remembered that looks change with the years. The fresh, beautiful, and attractive young woman of today will in years ahead lose her bloom. Childbearing, housekeeping, and other responsibilities, and work both at home and in factories or offices take their physical toll. The attractive young man will likewise age with the passing years. While physical attraction is distinctly important and good looks are often a distinct asset, a successful marriage must be based on additional qualities as well.

Other considerations are: the heredity of the prospective mate, including knowledge of the health of parents and siblings, and history of past major illnesses; the prospective partner's vocation and avocation, if any, with definite indication of financial ability to undertake the responsibility of marriage and future parenthood; common interests in music, art, hobbies, recreation, and leisure-time activities; and standards of conduct. These are matters which require careful thought and deliberation. If the facts in each area are favorable, the prospects of a satisfactory outcome in mate selection will generally be good. No absolute standards or rules can be applied in human affairs, especially in so complicated a relationship as marriage. Some matters must necessarily be left to chance.

Causes for Poor Selections. Our American culture permits young people of college age a wide range of freedom in choosing their friends and future mates. An outgrowth of this phenomenon has been the acceptance of and emphasis on romantic love as a requisite for marriage. Such love is mainly based on physical attractiveness and glamour. Our movies, magazines, novels, and plays have put so much emphasis on this phase of interpersonal relations between young people that many become seriously handicapped in the selection of a mature mate. They are apt to fall in love romantically without adequate preparation. The serious aftermath is altogether too often a rude awakening, with separation and divorce actions that clog our court machinery and spell sorrow to those directly concerned.

Romantic love is an essential of the process of mate selection. But enduring love must be built on a firmer basis than romantic love alone.

Love has been defined as an intense and abiding desire to produce together an intellectual soil and an emotional climate in which each can flourish, far superior to what either could achieve alone.[1] The objective

[1] F. A. Magoun, *Love and Marriage*, p. 4, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1948.

of a happy marriage is to achieve such a state, but romantic love alone cannot supply the necessary ingredients.

Infatuation is often confused with romantic love, and represents an emotionally immature reaction, irrespective of the age of the person concerned. In many cases an individual who is infatuated with another is inspired with a passion that is too overpowering to be controlled by reason or is so strong as to deprive him of ordinary judgment. Mate selection under such circumstances can hardly be the forerunner of a happy marriage.

Other factors which may adversely affect the proper selection of a mate include the lack of an adequate time interval between first acquaintanceship and the final steps of mate selection, engagement, and marriage; failure to give due thought to the negative qualities and characteristics of the person under consideration; attempt to change or reform undesirable habits and questionable patterns in the conduct of another; ignorance of the real purposes, functions, meaning, and responsibilities of marriage; desire to marry for the purpose of finding economic security; agreement to marry a person to please one's family rather than to satisfy one's own emotional and other needs; and agreement to marry not because of true and abiding love but for other reasons which have no bearing upon this basic cornerstone of happiness and emotional satisfaction.

COURTSHIP

Courtship has been defined as including all forms of behavior by which a man seeks to win the consent of a woman for marriage.[2] Since the idea of arranged marriages is generally alien to our American culture, courtship remains as a distinct concept and practice in mate selection. The period of courtship follows initial interpersonal contacts and the friendship that follows. During the courting period, both the man and the woman concerned will generally attempt to "put their best foot forward." It is the interval during which they have the opportunity to come to know each other fairly well, to be introduced to each other's families and friends, and to lay a sound basis for a successful marriage.

Length of Courtship. The prime purpose of courtship is to provide time and opportunity for two people to become well acquainted, and adjusted to one another. Studies have indicated that the chances of a successful marriage are greater if the young couple have known each other for a period of months or even years. The period of acquaintance and the

[2] E. W. Burgess and H. J. Locke, *The Family*, p. 361, American Book Company, New York, 1945.

duration of courtship weigh heavily in the ultimate result—the longer these two are, the greater is the chance of satisfactory adjustment in marriage.

It is not possible to set a definite time limit for courtship. Many factors are involved, including the ages of the couple; whether or not they have gone to school, high school, and college together; their permanent and temporary places of residence and work or study; their emotional maturity and economic status.

Hazards of Extended Courtship. For mature men and women it is not essential that courtship be as lengthy as in the case of those who are of college age. There are certain hazards that go with an overlong courtship. One is that seeing much of each other for a comparatively long time may lead a couple to tire of each other. In one study among college students, it was found that those who start to go steady too early and against parental wishes, and who have had several steady companions, tend to be socially aggressive and emotionally maladjusted.[3]

Other hazards relate to the emotional and social problems that are apt to arise out of indulgence in petting that often follow extended courtship. Such situations are of particular concern in the instance of emotionally immature young people and those who cannot look forward to early marriage for various social, economic, and other reasons.

The increased freedom in social contacts between young men and women, as compared to a generation and more ago, does not necessarily mean that there has been a similar increase in sexual promiscuity. Still, young men and women need to understand courtship in all its aspects, including the possibilities for extreme emotional arousal that may have serious consequences.

Petting is defined as physical contact between a man and a woman for the purpose of experiencing sexual pleasure as an end in itself. It arises from sexual desire in one or both but stops short of coitus. There are produced an increased sexual sensitivity and response and marked sexual tension, and these may lead the participants to indulge in full sex experience.[4] Those who are courting need to be fully aware of the consequences that may follow in the wake of petting.

There are various psychological consequences that may also follow unrestrained petting. The young woman concerned may acquire an un-

[3] M. F. Nimkoff and A. L. Wood, "Courtship and Personality," *American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1948, p. 269.

[4] Henry Bowman, *Marriage for Moderns*, 2d ed., p. 216, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

desirable reputation; the young man may switch his affections to another because of his desire to experiment and seek new thrills; feelings of guilt, resentment, hatred, jealousy, and disillusionment may complicate the relationship if petting does not lead to early engagement and marriage.

Courtship Initiative. It is generally agreed that the young man is expected to take the initiative in courtship—to do the inviting, to be prepared to suggest how time together shall be spent, and to pay the expenses involved in meals away from home, theater tickets, transportation, and incidentals. Young women seem to prefer this procedure, in which they take the conventional part of being sought. Sometimes they may have to provide some of the initiative, especially in the instance of the shy young man or the one who has had a limited social life.

One aspect of initiative in courtship relates to expenses and "Dutch treating," or both paying equal shares. Many young men prefer to meet all expenses, even when this puts a heavy burden upon their limited financial resources. On the other hand, some young women like to feel independent and to pay their own way. There should hardly be any marked disagreement on such matters between good friends, for they can come to a ready understanding. As a matter of fact, many young women are better provided for financially than their male friends. Still, the morale of the male must be considered in such matters. His ego may be affected by insistence on the part of his girl friend to pay her share of expenses on a date.

Courtship Customs. These have changed "since mother was a girl," or at least since grandmother's day. Time was when the father of a household might ask a young man what his intentions were after he had called on his daughter for the third time. The increased independence of all women, their improved status and equal participation as college students, citizens, and voters, as workers in commerce, industry, and government, the changes wrought by the wide use of automobiles, commercialized entertainments, and other phenomena of modern urban life—all these have affected courtship customs.

The young woman of today usually makes her own choice of friends and selects her mate with or without parental approval. The drift of population into urban areas and apartment dwellings has affected the customs and living habits of many families. As a result, courtship is often no longer possible on the front porch or in the front parlor; and other facilities essential for a satisfying courtship have to be found by those whose homes are not adequate.

ENGAGEMENT

The term engagement has replaced that of betrothal. An engagement is a mutual promise or contract between two persons for a future marriage. It is understood to be a deliberate, free, and true promise of marriage in the near future between two people who are mentally and emotionally fit. It is further a promise, contract, or agreement and not merely an indication of intention. Like most contractual arrangements, it should be entered into with deliberation. It should be free from force or fear.

The engagement is customarily announced when the young man gives his future bride an engagement ring or some other object of jewelry that is a sign of his intention to marry her. That formal engagements have distinct value is borne out in studies by Popenoe [5] and others. He found in a study of 436 successful marriages only about 5 per cent reported no formal period of engagement before marriage. In another study, 40 per cent of unhappy couples who were clients of the Institute of Family Relations in Los Angeles reported no engagement ceremony or period.

Purposes of Engagement. When two people are engaged, they presumably have passed through the friendship and courtship stages. If these have been brief, and one or both are either in their teens or early twenties, it is usually advisable to prolong the engagement period. Some young women hasten into an engagement because of their anxiety to show their friends that they, too, can "get their man." Others want to prove to themselves as well as to their friends and classmates that they are popular and so rush into an engagement on short acquaintance. Still others do so to please parents or other relatives, such as an aging and ailing grandmother. None of these are satisfactory reasons for an engagement. It is too serious a step, and one that involves too many hazards to be taken lightly.

The engagement period is in many ways a prolongation of the courtship period. This is particularly true in the sense that it permits two people to come to know one another more fully and to become adequately adjusted to each other prior to the final step of marriage. It is a time when they should be more frank with each other than formerly, for with their engagement the time has arrived for a full understanding on marriage plans, economic status of parents, financial details, place of residence, the raising of a family, plans for further study, the possible choice or necessity of job holding by the bride-to-be, and many other important details. These should

[5] Paul Popenoe, *Modern Marriage,* 2d ed., p. 175, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947.

be thoroughly and honestly discussed before final plans for marriage are made.

The engagement period affords an opportunity to test the emotional and social maturity of the partners and to determine whether they are actually ready for marriage and the responsibilities of parenthood. One matter that must become clearly evident is the readiness of both to break away from their immediate families and go out on their own to start a new home. If the young man is so tied to his mother that he must ask her advice on everything, if the young woman concerned hesitates to reach decisions until she discusses them with her daddy—such evidence indicates that one or both are emotionally immature and not yet prepared to assume the duties of husband or wife. In these instances, consultation with a college or other marriage counselor would seem to be indicated before final plans are made for marriage.

The engagement period is a good time in which to decide whether or not the person selected as a future mate is physically and mentally healthy. Of course, it is not assumed that the young people themselves can pass judgment on all questions of health or disease. That is the task of competent physicians and, under the laws of most states, an examination by a physician is required prior to the issuance of a marriage license. But the behavior, work habits, emotional reactions, recreational activities, history of illnesses and operations—all these may throw some light on the capacity to assume the added duties and responsibilities that come with marriage and parenthood.

During courtship it is natural for the two people concerned to try to appear at their best at all times. In the engagement period they are apt to be less on their guard and more familiar with each other. Both men and women should know that their mental and emotional reactions are frequently quite different, even under similar circumstances. Still further, it is essential to realize that the emotional responses and behavior patterns of people of the same sex may vary to a marked degree under parallel situations. The young man's mother or sister or Aunt Susie may show distinct responses to certain stimuli; he should not be upset if his bride-to-be does not show like enthusiasm, for instance, when he sings, or plays the piano, or shows a taste for certain exotic or strange foods. Of course, this point of view applies to both the prospective groom and bride.

Complete adjustment cannot be achieved during the engagement period. With the passage of time, both partners to a marriage mature, change, develop new tastes and desires, and sometimes difficulties arise from the

new situations thus created. However, those who are truly in love learn to make allowances for each other, express or imply excuses for actions that some may question, and tacitly accept patterns of conduct without overt criticism. This is fully justifiable when moral questions are not involved.

Length of Engagement. A question many young people are concerned about is how long an engagement should last. In their happiness they are often anxious to marry as quickly as possible. This is especially so if there are no serious hindrances, such as the desire to complete a college course, finances, family opposition, getting a place to live, etc. It is easy to understand why mature men and women, in the upper twenties and older, may not need as long an engagement period as young people in their teens and early twenties. Maturity helps considerably in making satisfactory emotional and other adjustments. Experience has shown that the comparatively young, that is, those under or near twenty-one years of age, often find it difficult to adjust satisfactorily to marriage demands. Of course this is not always the case. Generally, it is best for fairly young people to prolong their engagements in order that they may have sufficient time to get well acquainted and adjusted to each other before the problems of marriage face them.

Those who live in different communities, or are away at college and see each other only on occasional visits, will require a longer period of engagement than others who see each other frequently. Studies have indicated that a lengthy engagement is good insurance for a successful marriage. It has been found, for instance, that couples engaged for two years or longer made the best adjustments in marriage. Of those who had been engaged for such a period, only 11 per cent in a group showed poor marital adjustment, while 50 per cent of those who had been engaged less than three months were poorly adjusted in marriage.[6]

In addition to the age of the couple concerned, the length of courtship is a factor of importance in deciding how long an engagement should last. Overlong engagements, however, are likely to be undesirable. Seeing each other frequently during two or more years may result in emotional tensions and possible misunderstandings and quarrels. It is generally agreed that when there has been a courtship period of about a year or more, the engagement should last at least six months to a year.

[6] E. W. Burgess and L. S. Cottrell, Jr., *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage,* pp. 167–168, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1939.

Behavior during Engagement. A major problem that an engaged couple faces is one that they had to deal with during courtship, and that is the extent of petting and the possible sex experimentation that may grow out of it. Such sex activity, even between those who are betrothed to each other and are deeply in love, involves distinct moral, physical, psychological, and social hazards. In our culture sex relations outside of marriage are looked upon as being morally, legally, and socially harmful and undesirable. Young people who become involved may, and often do, face a severe moral jolt. Out of sheer love the young woman may be prepared to give her husband-to-be anything he wants, often without realizing the full consequences of their joint act. In many instances, the bride-to-be will forever retain a sense of guilt, of lapsing morally, and will blame her future husband for taking advantage of her.

The emotional problems that grow out of the situation may often make the marriage difficult, if not impossible. Many young women have broken their engagements because of such an experience, blaming their future mates for violating their love and trust. Young men, even though they usually take the initiative in such premarital experiences, may come to doubt the moral standards of their brides-to-be. All in all, much recrimination, regret, and sorrow may be the toll of the furtive experience.

There is also the possibility of pregnancy from even one premarital experience. Many young people glibly assume that they know how to prevent an unwanted pregnancy. Still, a large number of married women become pregnant even though both they and their husbands have tried to prevent such an eventuality. Another indication that unwanted pregnancies occur is the fact that over 132,000 babies are reported as being born out of wedlock in one year in the United States. Many thousands are not reported. In addition, a large number of so-called forced marriages take place every year because the bride-to-be became pregnant before marriage. Also, a large but unknown number of illegal abortions are performed yearly on unmarried girls and women.

There are many other reasons why every effort should be made to avoid premarital sex experience during the courtship and engagement periods, some with a psychological bearing. Satisfactions in the sex act grow out of more than the mere physical contact. In addition, there are distinct psychological values which arise from the relationship between a husband and wife who are in love with each other. It is these which mean so much to the wife, and to the husband as well.

In relation to the matter of premarital sex experimentation, it should be realized that a fairly large number of engagements are broken. In a study of 1,151 college girls, most of whom were still in their teens, 287, or approximately 25 per cent, reported they had already been engaged once, and 66, or 6 per cent, more than once.[7] In another study of 1,000 engaged couples it was found that 238, or 23.8 per cent, of the men and 358, or 35.8 per cent, of the women had broken one or more previous engagements.[8]

Broken Engagements. These figures indicate the fairly large number of engaged couples who change their minds and do not go through with a marriage. In a sense, the engagement period is one of trial, of attempts at adjustment and gaining knowledge and understanding of each other. Some matters may come to light which make it advisable from all points of view to break an engagement. This should only be done after the most careful deliberation, and, if possible, consultation with a competent marriage counselor. There are major factors which warrant the ending of an engagement. It is obviously better to take this step than to go through with a marriage and after a time have recourse to a separation or divorce.

Disagreements and lovers' quarrels are almost inevitable between two people from different family and social circles who are trying to adjust to each other. Therefore, any contemplated steps leading to a broken engagement need to be soberly and carefully considered, without anger, and preferably after a period of separation of days or even weeks. Second thoughts may show that either one or both were wrong, and amends and excuses can be made as may be necessary.

Termination of the engagement may be imperative, however, when the problems involved are of a truly serious nature, for example: when a marked change has taken place in feeling and it is fully evident that love does not exist, even though high regard and respect may still remain; when serious doubt develops as to the moral character of an individual (this must be based on sufficient proof and not hearsay, and the person concerned must be given an opportunity to offer any valid explanations); when there is evidence of legal complications which may restrain a partner to engagement from legally consummating the marriage; when it becomes plain that an individual is suffering from a severe and chronic physical or mental illness, and this is confirmed by a physician; and when the engagement was

[7] Bowman, *op. cit.*, p. 258.
[8] Burgess and Locke, *op. cit.*, p. 390.

entered into under false pretenses, under pressure from relatives, and not because of mutual affection and love.

Immature young people in their teens may think engagement is a lot of fun, with parties, presents, and all the attendant excitement. The opportunity to mature afforded by the engagement period may lead them to a fuller awareness of what is involved—and to the realization, in some cases, of the unwise nature of their choice. Again, it is far wiser to call a halt at this point than to go through with an unsound marriage.

FACTORS IN MALE ADJUSTMENT TO MARRIAGE

A couple who have been courting and subsequently become engaged thereby give evidence that they have some degree of understanding of each other. But this is only the beginning. It is most important for the young woman to be conversant with the psychological attitudes of the man she is to marry. Vice versa, it is essential for the man to be aware that the psychological make-up, outlook, and attitudes of the young woman he has been courting and is engaged to are in many ways different from his own. It is the failure to understand such significant differences that leads to many lovers' quarrels, and often to separation and divorce as well.

An important factor that requires attention relates to biological variations in human beings, and the influences of the hormones on sex characteristics and manifestations. While males are essentially males, and females are females, the degree of maleness varies from one male to another, and the degree of femaleness from one female to another. Though the sex of an infant is determined when the X (female) or Y (male) sperm fertilizes the female ovum, the external genitalia of the human foetus do not become differentiated for about three months. When the infant is born, it retains to a varying degree certain characteristics of the opposite sex. This accounts for differences of masculinity in men and femininity in women in adulthood. This phenomenon has distinct psychological bearings and major influences on attitudes, relationships, and conduct.

Aggressiveness. An outstanding characteristic of the male is his aggressiveness. Out of this grows his urge to achieve, to succeed in sports, and, more especially, in his chosen adult career. Aggressiveness also leads a man in striving to provide his wife and children with a good home and other essentials, to give his children an adequate education, and to make a name for himself in business or professional life. The man who is endowed with a low degree of this essentially male characteristic may wind up as a somewhat futile being, as one resigned to a life that is not marked by distinct

drives. Over the years more or less satisfied with things as they are, he is unable or unwilling to put much drive into his daily activities.

From the point of view of marriage, some women prefer a mate of this type, but the large majority choose the "go-getter" type, the virile, forceful, aggressive male who gives promise of future success in life. Such men are characteristically males, but when their aggressiveness is overdone, they are apt to be difficult people to live with. If they marry weak and gentle women who do not object to domineering, forceful, demanding husbands, all may go well. If, on the other hand, the women they marry have some measure of the same type of male aggressiveness, an emotional clash is almost inevitable unless one or both learn to curb the aggressive instinct. In such families of markedly aggressive personalities the children are the chief sufferers.

Sex Excitability. The normal male is so constituted that he is sexually much more readily aroused, as a rule, than the average female.[9] This has an important bearing on his attitudes and behavior in relation to his women friends and to his future mate and wife. If he has had the benefit of adequate and effective sex education by his parents, and later in school, he may be prepared to deal with his own emotional problems that have a sexual basis. If such education has not been his lot, he may be led to promiscuous relationships, and look upon females in general as a means of satisfying his sexual drives. Young women who are being courted and those who are engaged should be aware of masculine sex excitability. They will not then unknowingly dress and behave in such ways as to stimulate sexually the men with whom they keep company. It is readily seen that by certain types of dress and behavior, male friends can be led to assume that young women are "free and easy" in their relationships, and embarrassing situations may thereby develop.

Certainly, young married women should be aware of the sexual nature of their husbands. Many serious quarrels and disagreements occur because young brides have not been told by their parents or teachers the essential facts in this regard. On the other hand, understanding husbands attempt to curb their biological urges and thus give their recently married wives an opportunity to become adjusted to normal husband-wife relationship.

[9] Kinsey notes that, while this is the generally accepted opinion, the female is not appreciably slower than the male. The speed of reaction to sexual stimuli involves several factors and may vary under different circumstances. A. C. Kinsey, W. B. Pomeroy, C. E. Martin, and P. H. Gebhard, *Sexual Behavior in the Human Female*, pp. 625–626, W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia, 1953.

Male Gregariousness. Man is a gregarious being. He likes to associate with other men. Even during courtship and engagement there is a natural urge to meet with "the boys" occasionally. This attitude carries over into married life as well. Sometimes men are accused by suspicious and jealous female friends and wives of caring more for their men friends than they do for them or their own families. This, of course, is a far-fetched interpretation of a natural desire and characteristic of the male. Understanding of this male attitude, and proper adjustment to it on the part of both individuals concerned, can avoid a lot of harsh feeling and misunderstanding.

Egocentricity. By custom and tradition, the man regards himself as the head of his family, and the chief provider. During the interludes of courtship and engagement he often tries to appear to be a "big shot," and is inclined to overemphasize his abilities, accomplishments, and future prospects of success. This is all part and parcel of the male ego and, indeed, it may be of much help to him in setting goals for himself. The young man trying to impress a young woman is often merely acting out the boastfulness of a grown-up boy; in many instances, he still is emotionally immature.

However, this egocentric attitude is a characteristic which must not be taken too lightly by the young woman being courted or by the young married woman. It is an aspect of the male to which he often clings with tenacity. If his ego is shattered by one he loves, the consequences can be severe for those most intimately concerned.

A man's ego is threatened particularly when he has to face up to a wife who not only possesses or earns her own income but has more education and general ability than he has. It does not take him long to recognize that his position as presumed head of the family, as the main provider and protector, as well as the whole structure of his ego, are all being challenged. Various psychological problems may arise in such a situation, growing out of emotional conflicts that follow. If the man is a fully aggressive male, he may attempt to dominate his family with the proverbial iron hand in order to compensate for his sense of frustration. However, if his wife is an understanding person and intent on maintaining a happy home and successful marriage, she will do everything reasonable and possible to soften the impact of the existing situation.

There are certain specific masculine psychological characteristics, though they necessarily vary from person to person. Men must face the task of adjusting themselves not only to inner emotional and biological drives but also to the impact of these drives upon their immediate families, their fellow workers, and others with whom they come in contact. The changing status

of women has a further effect upon them. The males must at the same time attempt to adjust concepts they have carried over from a past generation to the changing social scene. In all of this their mates can be of help in the essential adjustments that are involved. Appreciation and understanding will pay off in the long run.

FACTORS IN FEMALE ADJUSTMENT TO MARRIAGE

In the female, physiological factors have a far more important effect on psychological reactions than in the male. After physical maturity is reached and the menstrual cycle is fully established, the female is subject to periodic variations in emotional response. On some girls and women, menstruation has but little effect either physically or psychologically. It usually lasts three or more days and with the ordinary sanitary precautions passes by with but little, if any, disturbance in the regular routine. There are no pains or cramps, and no emotional or severe psychological reactions. For some females, on the other hand, this period is one that is regularly dreaded for the pain, discomfort, disability, and emotional upset that accompany it. In such instances, medical examination and treatment may be required to overcome the severe reactions.

Male Understanding of Female. It is most important that men should have a basic understanding of female anatomy and physiology, especially in so far as they affect female attitudes and psychological reactions. Many misinformed men assume that girls and women are frail and delicate creatures and to be treated as such. Others tend to treat their girl friends as they would their male companions, causing hurt and chagrin.

Such mistakes and lack of understanding seriously affect courtship, and may carry over into the engagement period and beyond. Some young women become easily upset, unhappy, depressed, and subject to crying spells with the onset of menstruation. The appreciative and informed suitor may try to change dates, to cut his visits short, or to avoid visiting his girl friend at such times. There is, on the other hand, a responsibility which the young woman bears if she is given to severe psychological evidences of the menstrual process. That is to appreciate the effect her own reactions may have on her male friend, suitor, or mate. While she can talk such matters over with a husband, she would most likely feel it to be a somewhat indelicate subject to discuss with another male. Knowledge of these matters is essential for both men and women if they are to learn to get along well and grow in mutual regard. Modern medical therapy can be of considerable help in dealing with severe menstrual reactions.

Childbearing. Attitudes of women are affected in many ways by the fact that they are the bearers of children. It is essential for men to recognize this unique place that women hold, and to give them the consideration that is due them therefor. A major misunderstanding that harasses both men and women is that the former frequently look upon marriage largely as a means of satisfying the sexual urge—at least in the early months and years of marriage. Women, on the other hand, while likewise capable and desirous of enjoying the satisfactions that sex in marriage may bring, have another and perhaps more pressing urge, and that is the maternal desire, the wish to bear children. Most married men, of course, likewise look forward to the joys of parenthood.

This is an area in which appreciation of attitudes and psychological traits by both sexes can lead to understanding and fulfillment of hopes in marriage. While the process of maternity places many burdens on women, it fulfills an innate desire. Some women are resentful of these burdens; they give expression to their attitude either by complaints to their husbands and others, or they simply refuse to bear children. In either case, marital happiness is affected. Those contemplating marriage, and especially during the engagement period, should discuss the subject of children freely and come to a definite understanding. Of course, there are men, too, who prefer that their wives shall not bear children. Fortunately for posterity, both types are the exceptions.

Competition between Men and Women. With the improvement in the status of women, they have been able to participate in virtually all phases of our scientific, educational, economic, legal, commercial, governmental, and cultural activities. Women are increasingly being given their rightful place in our society, with only occasional complaints from the males. Of course, this does not hold true in all strata of our society, nor in all parts of the United States. However, since educational and other opportunities are almost as fully available to women as to men, it is inevitable that they will arise as competitors to some men in selected areas of activity. Such a leveling upward of opportunities for all women must bring about a change in their attitudes, and eventually a wholesome reaction on the part of the men.

No matter what part women may elect to play in our daily lives, the important functions of wife and mother still seem to be their major concern. Young men and women who are at the age of mate selection and courtship should remember that in our economy men have a specific place, and, by and large, women have theirs. For some years prior to and frequently

following marriage, many young women will be engaged in remunerative employment of many kinds. With the birth of children, most women find it desirable and essential to withdraw and manage their households. Some, of course, continue indefinitely as workers and as professional women in various categories. Their personal situations, responsibilities, and attitudes will usually determine what course they are to follow.

MARRIAGE

A marriage represents a contract between a man and woman legally able to enter into such an agreement. Upon entering the married state, they agree to live together as man and wife and freely accept the responsibilities and duties that go with marriage. The state recognizes marriage as a binding legal obligation; it cannot be dissolved without permission of the constituted legal authorities. Some religious groups do not recognize the validity of divorce, at least for their own adherents.

Both parties to a marriage must be of sound mind and capable of understanding the nature of the marriage contract and the marriage ceremony. If, for any reason, one party to the marriage is at the time of the ceremony incapable of understanding the nature of the marriage because of mental illness or intoxication, or is under the influence of narcotic drugs, the marriage is not legal. It must be based on mutual consent; if entered into under duress or threats, or the fear of bodily harm, mutual consent is absent and the marriage is therefore not legal. The marriage ceremony binds the husband to support his wife and such children as may be born to the couple. The wife, on her part, assumes the legal responsibility of caring for her husband if he should become incapacitated by illness or accident. Of course she is deemed jointly responsible with him for the care of any children born to them.

These are some of the basic legal details that relate to the marriage contract. Laws dealing with marriage may vary in some details from state to state, but all such laws are basically the same. Young men and women who contemplate marriage should learn what the marriage laws in their own states stipulate and whether there are any legal impediments to their prospective union.

Wedding Ceremony. Marriages may be performed by licensed ministers of religion and by certain specified officials. When the decision is reached, the couple should work out all the details with their families—whether it is to be a church wedding or a civil ceremony, whether it is to be at the bride's home or elsewhere. The prenuptial period is apt to be a trying one

for all concerned, especially for the young bride-to-be. Therefore, care must be taken not to get into any arguments or disagreements over details during this time. It is not a good thing to start off a marriage career as a crying and hysterical bride.

The Honeymoon. The couple will presumably make all their honeymoon plans some time before the wedding ceremony. The main purpose of the honeymoon is to help the newly married couple to make the change from the unmarried to the married state. Being away from immediate relatives and friends facilitates this process. The excitement of the wedding, the taking on of major responsibilities, and the beginning of a new way of life may be the cause of much nervous tension.

The honeymoon helps to relieve such tension, and at the same time to provide the opportunity to begin the process of sexual adjustment. This is a time when the fatigue and tensions growing out of overactivity are to be avoided as far as possible. The newly married couple should look ahead into the future, as they will, and think of their marriage as only the beginning of a long-term honeymoon. With such a point of view, they may be able to deal more effectively with irritations and other difficulties encountered during the short honeymoon period.

Economic Planning. It is presumed that before the wedding ceremony the man and woman have been completely honest and frank with each other, especially in the matter of money. Both should know what their total financial assets will be, and they should reach a decision as to whether it will be necessary for the bride to work and for how long.

The man's wages or salary, plus any income he may have from other sources, coupled with his savings and other assets, should be fully weighed. So, too, there should be consideration of whatever financial assets the bride may bring to the new family. Such appraisal should enable the couple to decide whether or not their probable income for the first years of marriage will be adequate to start the purchase of a home, to furnish an apartment or a house, to buy and maintain an automobile, etc. The advice of parents, of a local banker, of a home economics teacher, or of a marriage counselor may prove to be of much help to inexperienced young people.

Preparation for Parenthood. Since one of the major purposes of marriage, and one of its most satisfying aspects, is to raise a family, the young couple need to give early attention to this question. They should preferably have had some premarital instruction in high school and college, or at least have attended a course on the subject or consulted a marriage counselor. A young wife may find that she is pregnant a few weeks or months after

Some national and local organizations arrange courses on preparation for marriage. (Photograph by Jerry Cooke. Courtesy of National Board, YMCA.)

marriage, and then both she and her husband must make fairly quick decisions. The mother-to-be will require the early attention of a physician, instruction on how to care for herself during pregnancy and what to do in preparation for the birth of the baby. Both prospective parents should enroll in classes for expectant mothers and fathers as well, if such are available in their communities. Otherwise they should depend upon the physician who is to deliver the baby for the essential advice and guidance.

The birth of a baby entails joint responsibilities, and a suitable division of labor in the home can help soothe the harassed nerves of the new mother and jittery feelings on the part of the father. Some men take readily to such household chores and can be of much help to their young wives who are faced for the first time with the nursing and care of a delicate infant. The joys that are in store for both of them help to soften the trials of much labor and many sleepless nights.

Birth of a baby entails joint responsibilities. (From film "Birthright." Courtesy of Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University.)

SUMMARY

The interpersonal relations that are involved in courtship, engagement, and marriage present many opportunities for personal adjustment and emotional growth. On the other hand, it is during such periods, when contacts between men and women are close and intimate, that many of the psychological situations discussed in preceding chapters may become evident. For instance, mention has been made of the aggressive nature of the average male and the part this trait plays in his life. It has been found necessary to indicate the negative aspects of aggression, whether evidenced by a child or by an adult of either sex. As defined earlier, aggression is a psychological mechanism through which an individual tries to put himself in a position of gaining satisfactions which he cannot achieve through normal interpersonal relations. An aggressive person is often difficult to live with. This is one facet of the previously discussed psychological problems that young men and women contemplating marriage need to be aware of. There are others that have been dealt with in preceding chapters.

The new aspects of life that come with courtship, engagement, marriage, and subsequent parenthood incorporate almost the entire gamut of psycho-

logical reactions and problems, from the expression of jealousy by the young woman being courted to the many frustrations faced by married couples and parents. Knowledge of these and other aspects of the field of psychology dealt with in this volume can be of much help to the college student and others who are about to step out into the world—to court and be courted seriously, to become engaged to the "one and only person in the world," and to follow through to marriage and later parenthood. All these relationships between men and women are involved, emotionally charged, complicated by conflicting attitudes, and always demanding courtesy, consideration, understanding, sympathy, and just simple goodness of heart and mind. Given these attitudes and attributes, coupled with basic knowledge of psychology, there is every chance of satisfactory interpersonal relations, adjustments, and happiness in marriage.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. What are the major functions of courtship?
2. What major qualities would you look for in choosing a mate?
3. What are the fundamental purposes of an engagement?
4. Give your views on the matter of premarital sex experience.
5. How long should courtship last? How long should an engagement last? Give your reasons in each instance.
6. Do you believe it desirable for college students to become engaged? Give your reasons.
7. Explain why you approve or disapprove of marriages between those of differing racial and religious backgrounds.
8. A young man and young woman in college are very much in love with each other and are anxious to get married. Which plan do you think they should follow: (*a*) both complete their studies; (*b*) the young man get a job and his bride-to-be finish her studies; (*c*) the young man graduate and the young woman get a job; (*d*) both discuss the matter with their parents and ask for financial assistance? Give reasons for your opinions.
9. In view of the materials presented in this volume, make a list of (*a*) psychological traits that are favorable to a happy marriage; (*b*) traits tending to lead to marital maladjustment.
10. Should parental approval be sought to a marriage? Why?

REFERENCES

Adams, C. R., and V. O. Packard, *How to Pick a Mate,* E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1946.

Becker, Howard, and Reuben Hill, eds., *Family, Marriage and Parenthood,* D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1948.

Duvall, Evelyn M., and Reuben Hill, *When You Marry,* D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, 1945.

Groves, E. R., *Preparation for Marriage,* Greenberg: Publisher, Inc., New York, 1936.

Landis, J. T., and Mary G. Landis, *Building a Successful Marriage,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1948.

Merrill, Frances E., *Courtship and Marriage,* William Sloane Associates, New York, 1949.

Terman, L. M., *Psychological Factors in Marital Happiness,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938.

PART 3

College Career and Vocational Guidance

Major steps in lessening the influence of parental authority and attaining adult responsibilities occur when young men and women enter college and subsequent employment. Parents and children are often not ready for these steps when the time comes. This is a result of our cultural patterns, which tend to delay adulthood. In fact, there is a general haziness as to the age at which the average youth emerges into adulthood. This lack of clarity is indicated by the variation between the ages at which a youth is confirmed in his religion, enters college, is eligible to live independently, volunteer, or be selected for military service, is considered marriageable, and is able to vote. Each represents a part of our culture's definition of maturity and adulthood. All these parts of our culture differ in their determinations of the age of maturity, yet few of them recognize the fact that maturity is a growth process strongly influenced by individual differences.

These differences and other psychological facts discussed earlier in the text are dealt with in so far as their adaptation to the young person in college and preparing for his life's work is concerned. The peculiar and sometimes conflicting influences of family, peer groups, faculty, academic work, vocational preparation, college life,

and job information are discussed in order to indicate their influence on the individual's maturation.

Our culture provides little to substitute for the ceremonies and rituals of primitive societies marking the attainment of adulthood by young people. There are few symbols, and coming of age in our civilization is an easy process. In fact, not only is it difficult to know when the process of maturation is near fruition, but potential conflicts are established by divided loyalties of the youth. For example, parents think of their offspring as children, college faculty often treat them as fully developed adults, while age mates consider them as what they are—fellow teen-agers.

College and job preparation are experiences which can assist the individual in gaining full adult status and enhance his maturity. He can be aided by college study in preparation for work, which is essentially an adult experience. Work is a symbol in our culture of independence and status.

CHAPTER 10

PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT

The college curriculum and program of activities involve continuing personal and interpersonal adjustments on the part of students. This is especially true in the case of those who come to college for the first time. The break with the protected home environment; the contacts with new teachers and fellow students from various communities, foreign countries, or even from different sections of the same city; the increased freedom as contrasted with the usual high school disciplinary pattern—these and other factors face the new student. For those who must leave home to live on or near the campus there is an additional group of necessary adjustments.

Successful achievement of individual and social adjustment at college is dependent to some degree upon an accurate understanding of what needs a college education can meet. Students enroll in colleges for various reasons. Many do so because they want to continue their education and prepare for a specific career. Some come to college because it is presumed to be the right thing to do in their social circle. Still others do so for economic reasons, that is, they believe that an education will help them to get a good job. Some do not know what else to do, and others enroll simply because of the insistence of parents.

A college education evidently does improve the possibility of obtaining a desirable job. However, the over-all purpose and major values in college attendance are social, intellectual, and moral development. In our democracy each generation must depend upon an educated group of men and

women for leadership in various fields of human endeavor. Without the educational opportunities provided by academic and technical institutions of higher learning, our country would find it difficult to maintain its high standards and to develop its human and economic resources for the benefit of the total population.

There are a number of facilities and opportunities for personal development on the college campus outside of the classroom. The student who achieves satisfactory personal and interpersonal adjustments can enrich his life by participating in the activities of these extracurricular clubs, organizations, fraternities, sororities, committees, and other groups which function in many colleges.

MOTIVATION AT COLLEGE

Students need to give careful thought to the budgeting of their time. The choices they make in courses of study, as well as in nonclassroom activities, should follow deliberation and be based on personal tastes and needs. The experience of investing their time without outside pressures presents them with a specific challenge. Many require guidance from deans, faculty advisors, and others. Some are fully aware of the motivation which induced them to enroll in college and consistently strive for specific and attainable ends.

Because of the rapid pace at which most students of college age develop physically, mentally, and socially, it is essential for them to determine the basic values which are to guide them through college. These values will be closely integrated with the motivation which leads them in specific directions of study. In the light of changes that take place it may be essential from time to time to review the study and activity programs which are being followed. There should be no hesitancy in making necessary modifications when these are indicated. Carelessly formed habits which follow a nonspecific and indistinct pattern may undermine the values inherent in a college career. They may likewise seriously affect the total values to be garnered from investing important years of late adolescence in study and in personal and interpersonal growth and adjustment.

Those who fail are often poorly or inadequately motivated to study on the college level. If they follow any plan, it is that of avoiding the making of decisions when called for, putting off the completion of course assignments, and trying to get by with the least amount of effort and inconvenience. A low-motivation level is usually the forerunner of difficulties with the dean's office, and unfavorably affects the drop-out percentage.

Self-analysis and planning of the college career are essential because of the wide degree of liberty of action that goes with college life. The student usually determines much of his own course of study, governs his own leisure time activities, and forms his own study habits. Relations with fellow students and others, the daily routine of dining, working, studying, and playing, are generally more subject to self-determination during the college career than at most other times in life. In college the student has the opportunity of developing critical attitudes. In addition, he is usually sufficiently mature to plan for and think about himself, his environment, and his future career.

For the college freshman, this freedom and liberation from immediately preceding bonds of family and school ties present a distinct challenge. College life and teaching methods release him from close supervision. The college intentionally throws the student on his own resources. In this way he is encouraged to think and act as an adult, participating with fellow students in activities in which self-determination and the burden of responsibility play an important part.

Such participation with his own age mates in joint enterprises shapes the student's personality to meet the requirements of his emerging adulthood. However, this molding involves an intense psychological experience because it consists of mixed relationships. These include child-to-adult bonds with parents; youth-to-youth ties with fellow students; and youth-to-adult contacts with members of the faculty. Sometimes conflicts arise because of the different levels of relationships, different standards, and different requirements of parents, students, and faculty.

Many of those who make various demands upon young students do not realize the intense pressures under which they labor. They do not comprehend that compromise between what youth wants and what parents and others demand leads to half-hearted agreement, to a tendency to appease rather than settle issues, and to reluctant conformity to society's requirements—all of which increase his sense of insecurity. These psychological reactions make of him a marginal adult—one who, while still an adolescent, is expected to act as an adult and undertake tasks set on an adult level. College teaching is generally intended to develop a critical and adult type of thinking by the student. Such teaching may contend with parental attitudes and those of fellow students. The emerging youth faces difficulties in making satisfactory adjustments to the sometimes conflicting demands of

three groups of individuals who impinge upon him—his parents, his fellow students, and his instructors.

PERSONAL PLANNING

Campus life is valuable experience in helping a student to reach maturity. He must learn how to develop his individuality and personality and, at the same time, to make the necessary adjustments and compromises that group residence and pressures demand. Those who live in dormitories or fraternity houses quickly learn that they face problems which were usually cared for by others while they were staying at home. These newly acquired responsibilities of budgeting and housekeeping—arranging for meals, laundry, clothing, room cleaning—and of meeting various college and dormitory requirements are all excellent opportunities to develop orderly habits of adulthood and prepare for job holding and homemaking.

The fixing of routines in ordinary living and studying may appear to be an annoyance to some. Reactions of irritability to the new pattern of existence only tend to compromise the total benefits that accrue from an orderly planning of the college career. Habits are developed during these formative years that have a permanent psychological effect. The student who learns how to adjust himself to the daily needs of college life, who establishes satisfactory interpersonal relations with roommates and classmates on the basis of effective group living, is laying the basis of future values as a worker, homemaker, parent, and useful citizen. These exercises that living away from home demands can determine the ultimate success of an individual in all his personal adjustments. The fellow who is a good sport, who realizes that certain things must be done day after day, and proceeds to follow through without procrastination and grumbling, is developing habits that will stand him in good stead in the years ahead.

COLLEGE STUDENT'S ECONOMY

Distinct psychological values are inherent in the effective management of one's business affairs. Whether or not the student finds it necessary to work while at college, he usually must face up to the situation of a specific allowance or income. This may come from parents or other relatives, or be derived from college scholarships or loans, and from personal earnings during vacations and throughout the academic year. Proper management of income from any source helps to establish habit patterns and a sense of responsibility that are essential for effective mature living.

It is through learning how to make ends meet and in facing financial obligations while at college that one learns to appreciate important fundamentals of adult economic problems. There are always many opportunities to spend money on various things and activities that are deemed to be essentials while at college. But choices have to be made by most students. It is in the individual deliberations and decisions reached on this plane that those of college age virtually determine for themselves what will be the financial pattern they will follow in the years to come.

Preparation of a budget and fairly thorough adherence to it, plus plans for part-time employment, are matters that require careful consideration. If available funds are inadequate to meet more than the basic necessities of tuition, books, rent, food, and some incidentals, it is obviously not possible to indulge in nonessential spending. Some students start on a borrowing campaign, without knowing beforehand how these newly acquired debts will be discharged. Others spend beyond their means and those of relatives and then complain about their problems. A young woman walking on the campus of a well-known college was overheard to say to her companion, "What do you think of my dad, the ——. I sent him three letters asking for a check and he hasn't even answered one."

There is much to be said for the value of job holding and part-time work during the college year. Studies have indicated that such experience provides a type of training which may in the long run prove to be of much value. Perhaps that is why many personnel executives ask college-trained men and women who are applicants for positions what extracurricular activities they engaged in, what jobs they held, what skills they acquired, and how they managed their finances.

But there is another side to the picture. Some courses of study, especially in the sciences, require so much of the student's time that but few hours are left for part-time work. Then again the rate of learning and accomplishment vary among students. It would therefore seem to be the part of wisdom to make a full appraisal of total college costs and of available funds and other resources that can definitely be depended upon. If these totals are too far apart, the best choice might be to stay out of college a year, or even longer, get a job, and, through careful saving, make adequate provision for essential expenses.

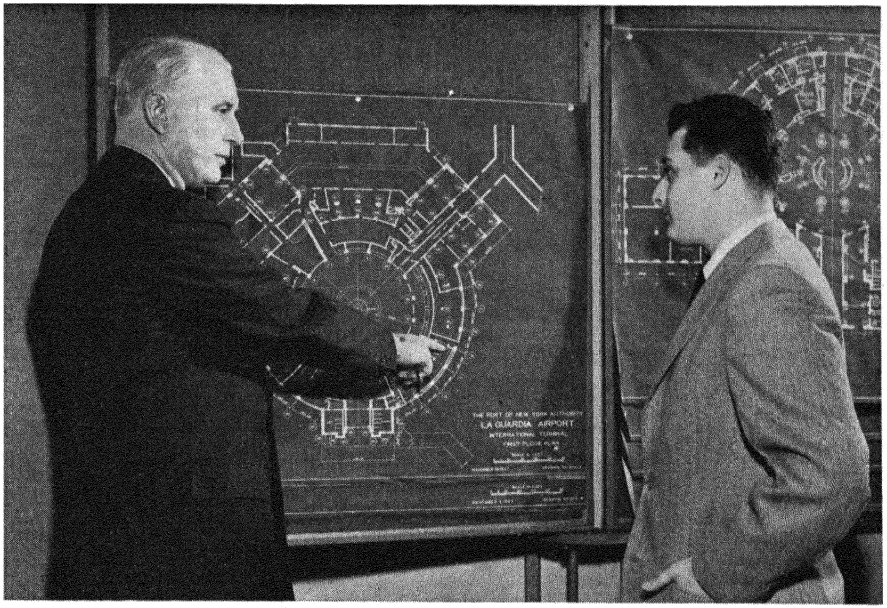
Attempting to complete the full college course in less than the prescribed time; and engaging in employment which may be obviously excessive from the point of view of time, physical and mental exertion involved, are to be avoided as a general rule. The creation of additional tensions through pres-

sures growing out of these efforts may result in a harried, unrelaxed state of distinct psychological significance. Some students can compress the four-year course into three or three and a half without undue strain. The effort to do so is often laudatory and may be the result of social and economic pressures growing out of family situations. But this should be attempted only under the guidance and advice of college administrators and advisers.

The following case illustrates such a situation.

At a large Eastern college R. was in the top 1 per cent of all entering freshmen in his IQ rating and general scholastic aptitude. But he was dismissed from college in his first year because of low scholarship. He had graduated from a large high school with top grades in three years and felt impelled to make the same kind of record in college. He assumed his family needed the income he would derive from full-time employment after graduation. Actually, this was not so. Because he was only fifteen on entering college, his family considered him a mere child and did not confide in him. They did not realize that their gripes about the economic problems of the day created anxiety in R. This caused him to attempt to complete his course in three years while employed 15 hours a week. No proper planning was done. The psychological impact of his first low grades, his fatigue, and harried state prevented him from reorganizing his efforts and using the fine intelligence he possessed. He flunked out, the victim of expedient solutions to nonexistent problems. The family realized too late that he never comprehended that they neither wanted his financial help nor his early graduation.

Student Employment. The kind, diversity, and amount of student employment vary widely in different colleges. Studies have shown that the average wage received by students in larger institutions ranges from 65 cents to 85 cents per hour, depending upon individual ability. Tutoring and secretarial work bring a higher hourly rate of pay, and are skills that most experts in college placement recommend that students acquire. Other merchandisable skills are those of camp counselor, soda fountain attendant, sandwich maker, and receptionist. Unskilled jobs pay least well; the highest wages go to experienced camp counselors, machinists, skilled artisans, and salesmen. It is difficult for college students to secure work experience in receptionist-typist jobs, in stenography, bookkeeping, tutoring, and camp counseling, even though they may have the requisite skills and educational background. By taking minor jobs in any kind of clerical work, or as assistant teacher or proctor, students may gain work experience in a semester; this, when added to high school or college course work, will help them to



College student instructed in practical problem at La Guardia Airport by industrial official gains on-the-job experience in cooperative college–industry work-while-studying program. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

get jobs in higher brackets. These in turn are frequently the most valuable positions, leading to permanent vocational placement.

For those who must get work, college personnel advisers usually suggest either curtailment of courses or limitation of employment to about twenty hours per week. Factors that may affect amount of employment are distance from the campus to the job, nature of the employment, college work-study programs as in surveys, assignments to social agencies, college subjects, grades, health, emotional stability, and ability to withstand nervous tension and fatigue despite heavy study and working schedules.

Work experience has psychological values in establishing personal status and lessening adolescent dependency—the latter being one of the major problems faced in our higher educational system. Whenever possible, the student should seek the aid of placement officers and professors to obtain employment which provides experience or training for a permanent calling. If such prevocational training is not obtained, part-time and summer employment aid those who need the added income. In addition, it is found that employment while at college assists materially in job placement after graduation.

In a survey of the employment of students in a large liberal arts college, the following reasons were given [1] for seeking jobs:

Since in some cases students mentioned two or more reasons, the total percentage in the table adds up to more than 100 per cent.

Reasons for Seeking Employment

83%—to earn personal expenses
40%—to make contributions to family
26%—to gain work experience

Over one-third of the students questioned felt that their outside jobs helped them to some extent in their courses at school, and the same number were of the opinion that their jobs had some relation to the kind of work they hoped to do upon graduation. Thus, while outside employment may injuriously affect a student's scholastic achievement if it is too extensive, there are some counterbalancing gains in experience which either increase the value of education or contribute to eventual vocational goals.

ALCOHOL AND DRUG USE

Moderate or social drinkers are the group from which come problem drinkers and alcoholics. A survey [2] was made of the drinking habits of 17,000 students in 27 colleges from all parts of the country. The results show that if both parents do not drink, neither do 81 per cent of their college daughters and 49 per cent of their sons. If both parents drink, 90 per cent of their sons and 83 per cent of their daughters do. Sixty-six per cent of the men students and 30 per cent of the women of families with less than $2,500 annual income are drinkers, whereas 86 per cent of the male students and 79 per cent of female college students from families with annual income of $10,000 or more are drinkers. Twenty per cent of the male students who drink and 35 per cent of the women students who do so started drinking in college.

It hardly needs stressing that the use of liquor in excess and of narcotics by youth is psychologically and physiologically harmful. Studies made of liquor, drug, and barbiturate consumption among those of college age confirm the validity of traditional taboos against their use; excessive alcohol consumption and marihuana or reefer (goof butts) smoking lead to personal disintegration. Liquor and drug addiction may have deep psychological causation. Some of the reasons for the start of the habitual use of these

[1] W. R. Gaede, *Looking at Brooklyn College Students, Studies Made by Their Teachers and Counselors,* pp. 69–70, Brooklyn College, New York, 1949.

[2] Adapted from Robert Straus, "Yale University Survey of Drinking," reported in *Time,* July 28, 1952.

intoxicants are lack of status, depressed and anxiety states, academic failure leading to a sense of futility, efforts to escape from tension, and sexual or other emotional upsets.

Seeking relaxation and release from problems or increased alertness at examination time through the use of liquor and drugs may seem to be a simple expedient. However, the use of such substances, especially by young people, is fraught with serious consequences. Sometimes a seemingly innocent diversion becomes a fad of a social set or group. This may lead to habituation, and sometimes to alcoholic or narcotic addiction.

COLLEGE ADJUSTMENT

The college student grows by adjusting to individuals as well as to groups, and by planning sound work-study programs which will help him to avoid bad habit patterns. The process is constant and subtle and is based upon earlier experience and growth. Childhood, adolescence, adulthood—each merges into the succeeding period, and the change from one period to another is hardly discernible.

Many students are convinced that their situations are unique, but this is far from the truth. Life follows a pattern of continual change in the content of problems and a matching continual change in the experience to handle them. Intelligence causes an individual to react in such a manner as to make the best use of the forces of his environment to solve his difficulties and further his growth. As a result, immediately available forces that are most familiar from recent experiences are employed to try to solve new problems. The known forces are as comforting as old friends in their familiarity. They will be replaced when the student becomes accustomed to his new environment. Out of the changed set that the new phenomenon interjects come the material and technique to create new solutions to the unfamiliar.

Background of Academic Adjustment. Academic adjustment early in college is based on previous experience of successful achievement in elementary and high school. This success pattern is illustrated by the fact that about seven of every ten children with whom the average college freshman entered elementary school do not go on to college. According to the standards of psychological measurement of ability, the average college freshman represents approximately the upper one-third of the ability of American youth. This seems to confirm the family, teachers' and freshman's own opinion of his academic competence. Generally, this judgment stems from

good grades attained in high school and probably elementary school as well.

Variance in High School and College Attainment. Sometimes the high opinions of academic attainment in high school are shattered by a student's poor marks as a college freshman. Studies have indicated that even in colleges with the highest admission requirements, 10 to 15 per cent of the students drop out at the end of each term during the first two years of college. All kinds of reasons have been given for these high rates. They include discouragement over home problems, poor study habits, and many others. In some colleges with low admission requirements, the separation of students is even greater.

A recent report [3] provides information on the academic attainment of 11,000 Los Angeles high school students between the ages of sixteen and eighteen who were given a series of tests. The findings are indicative of the reasons why there is such a heavy drop-out record, among college freshmen especially. Fifty per cent of the students tested did not know how many United States Senators each state has; 4 per cent did not know the position of the letter M in relation to the letters K, L, N, and O; 19 per cent spelled the word writing as writting; 6 per cent did not know whether the correct spelling could be found in a dictionary, encyclopedia, newspaper, or directory; 3 per cent could not tell time correctly; and 16 per cent did not know why the Fourth of July is celebrated.

Other surveys show that some top-ranking high school students have serious difficulty in adjusting to college studies. Major reasons for these failures are the higher requirements in college, and the fact that the student body in college represents a much more select group than does the hometown high school population. In each college class, according to current competitive marking systems, students are graded as to their knowledge of the subject taught in a given class. Each student competes for his mark with the remainder of the class. This is because it is customary for the instructor to estimate the ability of the class as a whole and to establish an estimate of the average ability. He then works out the individual marks in terms of how the entire class seems to perform. Sometimes he may mark in accordance with the normal curve of distribution.

Despite seeming inequalities and the lack of scientific certainty and objectivity in awarding grades, the norm of the total group against whom each freshman competes for marks is higher in college than in high school.

[3] Los Angeles School District Curriculum Division Survey, reported by United Press, November 28, 1951.

Many of the dull students and some bright ones in the high school group could not be admitted to many colleges. They become clerks, typists, machinists, salesmen, or enter some other full-time employment. Owing to standards of admission, fellow students of the college freshman consist of high-standing high school graduates like himself.

Causes of Academic Difficulty. In addition to the fact that he is competing for grades in a higher norm group, the freshman is tackling subject matter that is quantitatively and qualitatively more difficult than that in high school. For example, in some colleges a semester of freshman elementary language study is evaluated as equal to a full year of the same subject taught in the senior high school. This is in proportion, for greater speed of learning is expected in college. Because the average college freshman's ability is substantially higher than that of the average high school student, and because of the traditional superiority of college students, much more ability to learn is expected of the latter by their instructors. Grades are awarded with these high expectations in mind, although little, if any, prior warning is given to the student body.

Furthermore, few college instructors cajole, plead with, or threaten their students—methods that may have been used on them in high school. The usual professorial attitude in college is that the student either learns or does not learn. It is strictly the student's affair. There are usually no assigned study hall hours or closely supervised checks with weekly recitations to bolster up weak student motivation by instilling the fear of failure. Escape from the high school routine of required study invites an accumulation of neglected college assignments. These do not seem to be potentially threatening to the freshman because no one warns him until mid-term tests are given, by which time damage has been done to his grades.

The lack of regular checking upon the student is incidental to the college system of lecture and laboratory education. This places a premium upon individual effort and planning, for which many freshmen are ill-equipped because of lack of experience with college methods. Further, they have had no specific training in reading techniques and in developing study habits. Most freshmen know little about college teaching methods, the size of assignments, the high faculty expectations, and study techniques. These may have an overwhelming psychological impact. The failure of the college staff to check on procrastination permits many students to let studying drift until examination time. This is usually too late for the achievement of good grades, and certainly too late for effective learning.

Help can be obtained from instructors and counselors if the student will consult them and explain his predicament. Many freshmen fail to realize that time is set aside by the staff to help and advise students; but ordinarily the initiative must come from the latter.

When students avail themselves of counseling services in college, they tend to have a good chance to avoid academic difficulties of a serious nature. These troubles, which sometimes end in being dropped for poor scholarship or quitting college, are very important in the freshman and sophomore years. Research, as yet incomplete, gives some indication that counseling has positive and helpful effects upon the academic achievement of first-year students. Similarly, in a recent study [4] under controlled conditions at the University of Iowa, counseling favorably affected the scholastic performance of failing students. Also, under the same conditions systematic academic advisement seemed to be associated with higher scholarship than that of uncounseled students.

Academic difficulties in the early stages of college also arise from the following:

1. Uncertainty of vocational aims
2. Poor planning of time (TV, radio, movies, sports, and dates interfere with study)
3. Weak grammar (junior high and high school preparation)
4. Educational attitude that is critical of learning, resulting from successful high school bluffing, favor seeking, cramming, cribbing, sharing assignments
5. Little knowledge, training, and experience in (*a*) study technique, (*b*) reading efficiency, (*c*) library and reference methods
6. Personal maladjustment in (*a*) home, (*b*) social life, (*c*) sex
7. Overemphasis on (*a*) employment, (*b*) extracurricular activities
8. Poor scheduling of courses through ignorance of college programing and avoidance or rejection of advice available for freshmen in course planning

Many students achieve low grades in freshman courses through a combination of some of the above difficulties. College counselors, however, find that students frequently blame the favorite stereotype that has bothered them in high school and make it their scapegoat for low marks. For example, a freshman might blame the study of French grammar, whereas an

[4] Edwin L. Klingelhofer, Ph.D. dissertation, University of Iowa, *Personnel-o-Gram,* Vol. 8, No. 1, p. 14, University of Kentucky, October, 1953.

accurate analysis would reveal weakness in English grammar and a limited vocabulary.

An instance showing the effect of internal unrest on academic achievement is the following case:

P. was a bright student in a midwest university, who was troubled by low grades in elementary German in her freshman year. Although she studied this course more than others, she was barely passing. In other courses her grades were high. She cut German and explained to the dean that she was unable to learn any foreign language, that this had been so in high school as well as at college. Her German instructor confirmed the aptitude test prediction that she was capable of doing average to good work in languages. Her previous grades in high school had been excellent in all courses but German and French.

A series of counseling interviews brought out serious home problems. There was a pattern of sibling jealousy, parental domination, and rejection of the mother by P. She also revealed that when pressed by her parents because of her poor record in German, she had decided to leave college, give up her excellent prospects (she was already successfully employed as a part-time fashion designer), and escape the family's criticisms by going to New York to get a sales job.

The academic problem presented by P. was one in which many of the problems of adolescence are involved. Her need, as is true of many college students, was liberation from the part-child, part-adult split world that was dividing her inwardly and leading her to attribute the entire language problem to weakness in comprehension in that area.

It is possible that many students make this kind of adjustment to their inability to make decisions that are contrary to the families' or friends' suggestions. The attainment of mature self-control is a growth procedure, and patience is necessary to achieve it. However, the effort must be made to face difficult situations and attempt to solve them in adult fashion if satisfactory adjustment to life's problems is to follow.

Even the most interested and helpful parents may fail to understand that events of early life can have specific effects on academic failure.

The following is an example of this experience:

R. was the only son of a successful and self-made lawyer. R. had a good high school record and was a model pupil. He had been very close to his parents, particularly to his mother, and had refused their offer to send him to a prominent Eastern college. His preference was to attend a large West Coast university, in his home town. When he made low grades as a freshman, his parents evaded the fact of his inadequate academic performance, in order to

continue the stereotype of R. as a brilliant student. He could not or would not study, despite the family's bribes and threats. R. wanted to join in his father's law work and realized the importance of good college grades. Still, he would not study.

A college counselor uncovered a deep underlying problem that was the crux of his difficulty. He carefully rebuilt the student's self-confidence and brought about the end of parental extremes of professed love and attention. R. eventually attained fair grades. He was helped to solve his problems involving anxiety, fear, guilt feelings, and parental oversolicitude.

GRADE ACCOMPLISHMENT AND SUCCESS AFTER COLLEGE

Many freshmen and students in other years as well are concerned about the relation of marks to success both in college and after graduation. High school success in academic achievement, when combined with high scores in scholastic aptitude and intelligence tests, are excellent predictors of high grade attainment in college. The first mid-term and semester marks in college generally give the student a clue as to his future academic performance. Many college counselors stress early adjustment to college academic work because of the importance of cultivating good study attitudes and techniques. These are usually formed at the beginning of the college career. Consequently, the first year is often stressed as the most important one in preventing scholastic difficulties.

Studies show that college academic standing has some influence on success after graduation. This concept of success is independent of financial success and job competence. There are various opinions as to what constitutes success in life. A recent report [5] notes that "if a student ranks among the highest 10 per cent in a college graduating class of reasonable size, his chances of being regarded by his contemporaries as a distinguished person are 40 times as great, on the average, as they would be if he belonged to the lower 90 per cent of the class, and that, likewise, his chances of appearing in 'Who's Who in America' are 50 times as great."

It is not to be assumed that high college grades in themselves are always indicative of future success in business and other areas of adult activity. Psychologists have long known that good grades in college and success in business do not always have a high positive correlation. Many students who rate high in native intelligence do not elect to work for high grades because they do not consider high grades to be of prime importance or they

[5] Wilma T. Donahue, C. H. Coombs, and R. M. W. Travers, *The Measurement of Student Adjustment and Achievement,* p. 203, University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1949.

may have various nonacademic interests. Still, successful achievement in college as measured by marks is often the determining factor in admission to a graduate professional school. In the competition for jobs, the superior student frequently has the edge over his less gifted and accomplished classmates. In general, high academic attainment in college indicates a better opportunity for graduate school and business success.

EFFECT OF COLLEGE GRADUATION ON CAREER

College graduates have a better chance than do non-college graduates for job security and the higher-paying positions in industry. Various insurance companies have estimated that the difference in life earnings between non-college graduates and college graduates is from $50,000 to $75,000. Studies were recently made of graduates of the classes of 1941 and 1947 of New York City's tuition-free municipal colleges. These institutions, The College of the City of New York, Hunter College, Brooklyn and Queens Colleges of New York, admit and graduate only students with high academic attainment. Their graduates compete for advancement in metropolitan New York, which is probably one of the most competitive job markets in the world. Consequently, the studies of these highly selected graduates with approximately twelve and six years of business experience are excellent criteria as to the value in terms of business success of college graduation. The survey indicates that men who were graduated from these municipal colleges earn 60 per cent more than the general male population. Women graduates earn twice as much as the general female population in their own age range. Seven out of ten of the municipal college graduates of the two years studied work at jobs related to their specialization in college. Also, there is little unemployment among the graduates who desired jobs, in the study of the '41 and '47 classes of the municipal colleges of the City of New York.[6] This is probably due to vocationally motivated plans and the elaborate guidance and testing facilities, characteristic of the municipal colleges.[7]

PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPLICATION OF NATIONAL DEFENSE PROGRAM

College students are confronted with national defense plans which may have long-lasting effects upon them. There is particular need for the young college man to consider the necessity of integrating his plans with those of

[6] Adopted from the *New York Times*, September 28, 1952.

[7] From records of survey by Placement Office, Brooklyn College, by R. E. Link, 1952, unpublished.

the community. Realistic planning is essential. Students should be able to resist the tendency to give expression to the frustration of personal plans by aggressive or apathetic behavior patterns on campus. Likewise, they should avoid the tendency to surrender self-responsibility in planning educational, vocational, and military service plans. A sense of uselessness and inability to work out a constructive personal program is often a sign of defeatism. Relating national to personal goals, and understanding the need and opportunity for the individual to plan carefully and choose wisely are positive, outgoing steps to counteract passive inward frustration.

In dealing with all matters relating to participation in the national defense program, plans should be based on facts, not hearsay or hunches. Students should consult not only college and selective service authorities but their parents as well in getting facts and making plans. With national regulations and policies changing quite rapidly, each student's position and decisions may be changed from week to week, with long-range implications. Consequently, the importance of accurate, complete information cannot be overstressed.

WOMEN STUDENTS' PROBLEMS IN THE DEFENSE PERIOD

Young women, since they are not subject to military service, do not have the problem of anxiety as to personal safety. But in some measure, young women have to make more difficult psychological adjustments in the defense period: the status of young men at least is clear, once they attain draft age. The former are hampered by personal indecision as to goals, for these must be modified by readily changeable short-term plans. The possibility of being married some time in the future is an essential of their pattern of thought.

A recent authoritative study [8] states as follows:

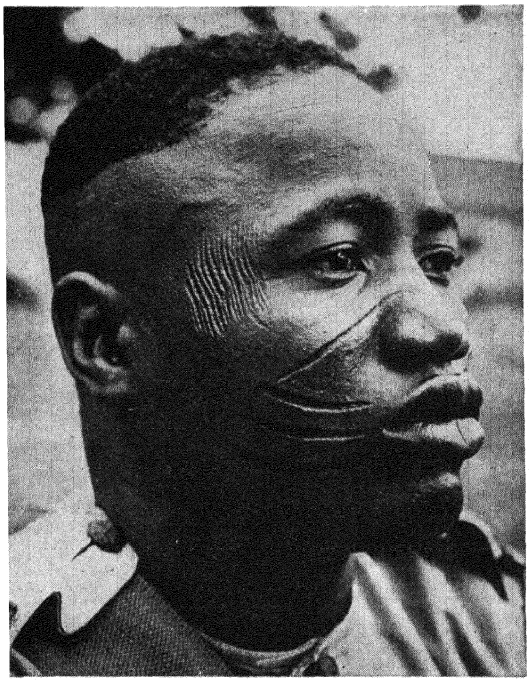
> The young woman who really wants to serve must decide for herself which is the area of greater service. There is great competition for her services from the military, from industry, and from education. If she is old enough, should she enlist in the women's military services? Or should she wait till graduation from a college makes her eligible for an officer's responsibility? Does the demand for industrial workers apply to her? Or is she likely to make a more valuable present service and better life for herself and the community if she continues her studies?

[8] W. W. Bleeser and E. H. Hopkins, *Counseling College Students during the Defense Period*, p. 13, Federal Security Administration, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1952.

Trained women can also be helpful in the national defense program. (Photograph by Dan Nichols. Courtesy of National Youth Administration.)

She must make her own decision on her best area of service, its relative value in the near and distant future, and guess at how long it will be before she can return to her peacetime plans, if ever. These competing elements, together with her family relationships (and these may include overprotective parents) have to be reckoned with by the young woman.

These problems will often be mixed up with marriage plans. College years are naturally the ones in which young people fall in love and plan for their marriage. . . . However, two strong elements, having effect only for women, are now a part of the familiar problem—defense demands, and the increasingly high value which society is placing on a woman's marrying. The other real force is expressed, for example, by the girl's family, by the stories she reads and the movies she sees, by the accepted patterns of recreation, and perhaps most of all by the attitudes of her fellow students. Its strength is intensified for some when the supply of eligible young men is being limited, as is presently the case. The strength of this social opinion is often behind otherwise inexplicable cases of extreme selfishness, irrationality, and irresponsibility in the behavior of women students. These forces give a peculiar emphasis to this otherwise familiar situation.



Tribal facial marks, painfully acquired, identify this native warrior as an adult. In Western culture bewildering and conflicting indications of adulthood often make it difficult to know when an adolescent becomes adult. (Courtesy of British Information Service.)

SUMMARY

When young people attain the status of adulthood is not clear in our culture. There is no particular time, event, or ritual when a young person becomes an adult in the opinions of his peers, parents, teachers, or society. Our society differs in this appraisal from primitive ones. The latter have many ways of marking the attainment of full status. All members of a tribe recognize it by facial markings, dress, bodily adornment, or other outward symbol. Our society delays adulthood beyond physical and sexual maturation. In our culture the length of time devoted to formal education plays an important part in postponing adulthood.

Personal adjustment in college provides an ideal entry into the problems of adulthood. The job, including academic and defense situations, housekeeping, and leisure, are sample areas in which the college student gains maturing experiences. These are typical of the emergence from adolescence to adulthood. The college intensifies this change by lessening home discipline and increasing the student's freedom.

The process of development toward adult status is difficult because of the conflicting demands placed upon the student by parents, who may con-

sider him a child; by his fellow students, who regard him as a teen-ager; and by the college faculty, who treat him as a man. Despite delay in attaining adulthood, these conflicts are increased because the college curriculum and teaching techniques deliberately put him on his own, to facilitate his maturation. Meanwhile, he has mixed feelings. He yearns for the comfort and security of his home and the parents' assumption of decision making for him. At the same time, he desires the liberty of college and the irresponsibility of youth and its carefree attitudes.

However, there are many spheres where he uses this new college freedom by making choices, for example, part-time employment, extracurricular activities, peer-group selections, courses and vocational elections, and study. In choosing his paths of action, he needs to be aware of the causes of academic maladjustment. Some of these are inability to adjust to the college's freedom, weak motivation to study, earlier and deficient educational experiences, home and personal problems, employment, overestimation of his ability and underestimation of curricular difficulties, as well as lack of good study technique.

College problems are being aggravated by those of national defense. Both can be dealt with effectively by planning to attain achievable short-term goals. Such plans should be followed by positive efforts to secure the objectives which have been set. In this process the basis is being established for the development of desirable habit patterns, which carry over after graduation.

Forming good personal and study habits, holding part-time jobs, and cultivating the ability to get along with people are excellent ways to develop successful career patterns. This kind of behavior enhances a student's potential employability and adjustability in community life. On the other hand, poor habits, such as indulging of appetites in sex, liquor, or drugs, and careless work, study, and leisure patterns, negatively affect the student's total adjustment, before as well as after graduation.

The character of total adjustment during college, as revealed in academic grades, affects the evaluation of the student whether by Selective Service Board or by businessmen. Successful completion of college marks a student as of greater value to society than a non-college man. Business concerns usually pay him a larger salary and offer him a better job; defense authorities consider him a potential leader and a possible candidate for a commission. These preferences for the man with the degree assume that the college student has learned to use superior intelligence in planning, in studying, and in personal relations.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. What do surveys indicate is the economic result of (*a*) college graduation, (*b*) high marks in college?

2. Name some of the factors that create demands upon adolescents and that are intensified by attending college.

3. What are some of the areas of your present experiences in college that you think will assist your adjustment after you graduate?

4. List the causes of your academic difficulties and lay out a plan to correct them.

5. What are the differences between high school and college teaching?

6. List the short-term goals you have formulated in view of national defense requirements.

7. What are some problems of adolescence that are intensified by attending college?

8. From your reading and experience explain the reasons for (*a*) a college education, (*b*) our culture's evaluation of college education.

9. Indicate areas in which a college student has considerable control over his actions while in college. Point out desirable and undesirable psychological aspects of this freedom of choice.

10. Analyze the current problems (*a*) of yourself and other college students of both sexes in relation to national defense needs, (*b*) of families of college students, indicating whether their attitudes are psychologically helpful to college students in view of national defense needs.

REFERENCES

Bernard, H. W., *Toward Better Personal Adjustment*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1951.

Horrocks, J. E., *The Psychology of Adolescence*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1951.

Keliher, Alice V., with Commission on Human Relations, *Life and Growth*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1938.

Klein, D. B., *Mental Hygiene: The Psychology of Personal Adjustment*, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1944.

Murphy, Gardner, *Personality*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

Murray, H. A., *Explorations in Personality*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1938.

Prescott, D. A., *Emotion and the Educative Process*, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1938.

Travis, L. E., and Dorothy W. Baruch, *Personal Problems of Every Day Life*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1941.

CHAPTER 11

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

The way students act toward others influences personality and group morale. The effectiveness of a college education depends in some measure on how well a student learns to live and work with others. Students living together in groups achieve a fairly intimate knowledge of one another. The diversity of social, religious, cultural, and educational backgrounds, as well as of attitudes and personality traits, may result in interpersonal tensions and conflicts. If these are not eased or resolved early in the college career, they may have a lasting effect on personality, accomplishment in studies, and future adjustment.

While it is desirable to get along with fellow students, artificial enthusiasms or sociability should not be cultivated in the attempt to please everyone in a dormitory or fraternity. The need is for a balanced approach to personal problems—unruffled, unemotional, tensionless attitudes toward the many vexations and irritations that are bound to arise. Such difficulties are similar to those which students will have to meet after graduation, when they go to work. In college, personality difficulties may mark the unsuccessful individual along with the one who lacks skill in learning. In campus life, as in industry, complete freedom to choose those with whom to share studying, playing, or working facilities usually does not exist.

Some interpersonal difficulties may require the help of college counselors and dormitory supervisors for their adjustment or solution. Each student brings to college his home tensions, disagreements with family and friends, scholastic problems, and personality difficulties. He cannot completely re-

lease himself from these involvements of his own accord. However, he can learn to analyze and evaluate his personality assets and debits and thus develop his potentialities to meet new situations he faces on the campus.

PEER CULTURE

Studies of adolescents reveal their deep urge to conform to standards of the gang, group, or clique. Social psychologists define these "peer groups," composed of "age mates." A fraternity, sorority, team, corner gang, or a club may be a peer group, characterized by the similarity of its members in age, preferences, attitudes, and ideals.

In some colleges a student may seek peer-group satisfaction by joining a fraternity or sorority. Such societies tend to create the fiction of exclusiveness. They are self-contained social units with strong prestige values attached to them through their background of power, campus politics, and alumni strength. Socioeconomic factors and scholastic standing have a bearing in other peer groups. These groups tend to cultivate the illusion, if not the fact, of desirable socioeconomic and scholastic standing of their alumni and undergraduate members.

On some campuses athletes and social groups are important parts of the peer culture. Subsidized athletics and beauty contests, as well as other trappings of publicity-minded businessmen, have invaded certain American campuses. However, many students are not carried away by the emphasis placed on incidentals of college life such as big-time sports. There are comparatively few opportunities for membership on teams, with the result that to most students the incidental social activities and spectator participation are the attractions. In the tense world of today, attending large sports spectacles is a means of escaping from reality, through identification with the players. This is apparently psychologically helpful to many, since it affords some release of tension.

There is need for students to play some part in working with others as a unit performing a team function. Masses of students joining in certain sports events might help to decrease spring riots, "town and gown" fights, and other disturbing behavior patterns. Students' energies, pent-up emotions, and strained nerves need legitimate outlets. Athletic activity and interest, as well as support of a college's team, can be helpful in this respect. Athletic overemphasis is undesirable, and the obvious time to check it is when team play interferes with the students' prime job, which is that of getting an education.

The size and policy of an educational institution affect the peer groupings within it. Thus, students in large universities are confronted with possible loneliness, while those in small colleges can get to know a majority of their college mates, as well as most of the faculty. Owing to the similar backgrounds and interests of students in small colleges, their peer groups tend to be limited in numbers, narrow in interests, and not as concerned with political and economic problems as students in larger colleges. They are usually social in character, and frequently have close contacts with nearby institutions so that coed activities can be arranged.

Institutions supported by taxes are frequently located in large cities. As a result, many students commute to classes. In these schools there is little dormitory living and less campus life than in other colleges. Social groups and fraternities frequently meet off campus, and students tend to participate in peer groups that are oriented toward the community in which they live. Commuting college students retain closer contacts with their high school classmates than do others. Consequently, they have social units that encompass relationships with noncollege friends, such as church groups or local neighborhood teams. Municipal college students' peer groups receive close scrutiny and often face objections from parents. Club organizations and leisure-time groups of nonresident college students have a strong vocational direction. Groups that educate a student in etiquette and social behavior, as do the fraternities, are not characteristic of municipal colleges.

Naturally, teachers' colleges and vocational institutions are mostly vocational in their interests, and this influences the kinds of peer groups that are popular on campus. However, there has been a marked growth of athletic interest and some emulation of liberal arts values in these schools.

The character of the college, as well as its location and background, has a distinct influence on students. They, in turn, affect it through the campus life and the kinds of emphases that they put on specific values. Religious, political, social problem, athletic, intellectual, artistic, and cultural values, all are stressed to varying degrees in different institutions' peer groups.

Fraternities and Sororities. Fraternities, sororities, and clubs serve the important psychological purpose that is inherent in groups whose members are of similar ages and interests. The college fraternity is flourishing and is a significant feature of American culture. The importance of college fraternities in our cultural background was indicated when Grover Cleveland was initiated into Sigma Chi while he was President of the United States. Thomas Marshall, when he was Vice-president of the United States (under

Woodrow Wilson), stated that the influences that had been greatest in his life were his faith in God and his college fraternity.

The issue of democracy in fraternities is a primary problem on many college campuses.

Fraternities have potential employment values, as is borne out by the following statement: [1]

> Of the members of my class in law school who belonged to my legal fraternity, at least 50 per cent were placed in various law offices after graduation through their fraternity connections.
>
> . . . On the undergraduate level the control exercised over the economic and social "plums" of our society can be enormous. A statistical breakdown of the opportunities in the industrial, financial, medical and legal, advertising and journalistic fields afforded to the highly selected individuals "tapped" over the years by the three top secret Yale honorary societies, Skull and Bones, Scroll and Keys, and Wolf's Head would tell an amazing story. . . . The picture among the honorary societies in other major colleges is not markedly different.

Two psychologists [2] studied fraternity and nonfraternity, sorority and nonsorority students' evaluation of Greek-letter societies at Cornell University. They reported as follows:

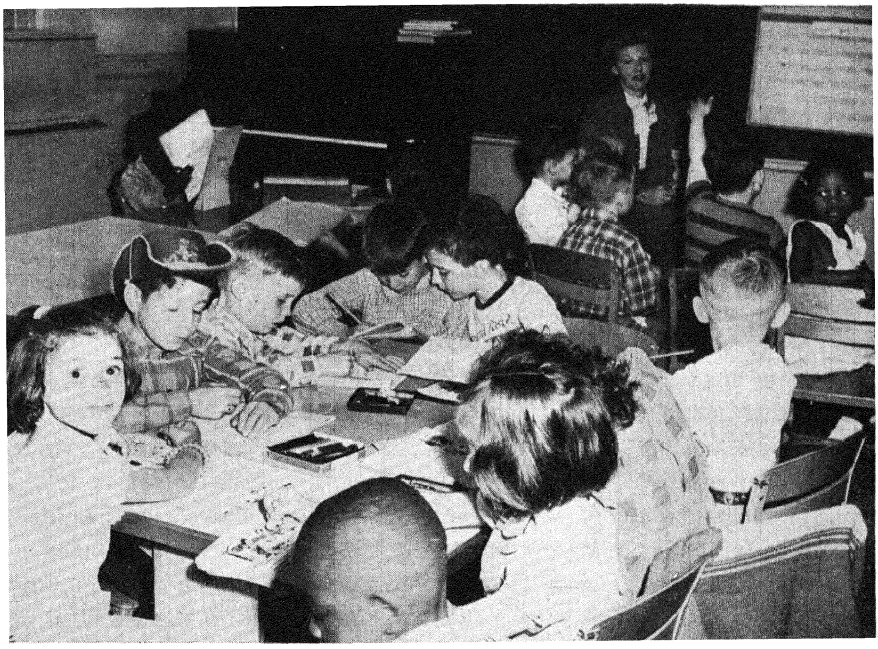
> Members of fraternities and sororities seem to feel that their organizations are going to be highly beneficial to them socially, financially and morally in the years after college, although they are financially detrimental during college years. There is a tendency for members to project these tendencies over onto non-members to some extent. Non-members are inclined to feel that the organizations have little effect on them during or after college, but deviations from neutral tend to be toward the detrimental side rather than the beneficial side. There is little evidence that they fear any strong detrimental effect either on themselves or on the members.

Further findings of the study were: members and nonmembers agree that fraternities are good for American social life, that they are not morally damaging to members or nonmembers; members think that fraternities and sororities help them scholastically while in college.

Effects of Peer-group Membership. The effect of the peer group on the personality of each member varies with each group and each individual member. It is difficult to assess the results because of the number and

[1] Carey McWilliams, "Fraternities or Equality," *Commentary,* Vol. 412, February, 1949.

[2] F. J. DiVesta and A. D. Woodruff, "Students' Concepts of Fraternities and Sororities," *Journal of Social Psychology,* Vol. 29, pp. 119–122, 1949.



Pupils of like age learn cooperation and canons of social behavior from kindergarten through college by good teaching and group experience. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)

diversity of peer groups. It is likewise impossible to define the typical college student or peer group. However, as peer groups are phenomena that are relatively important among those of college age, an attempt should be made to appraise them; some general observations as to their effects will contribute to this end.

Some Positive Effects. On the positive side peer groups lend support to the artificial, conformist, learning, outgoing, emotionally insecure, rebellious, undisciplined, unanchored characteristics that characterize the adolescent stage of life. They establish a center in which the young person can safely express his objections to the behavior requirements of society. His age mates are sympathetic and understanding; they suffer similar impositions by their parents, teachers, bosses, and perhaps even their girl friends' mothers.

Peer groups are schools in which youth learn the socially accepted behavior patterns of age mates. These may not always be in accord with those of parents. Such learning is particularly important in heterosexual relationships because many adolescents are reluctant to discuss them with

members of the family or other relatives. This is because the young person's behavior with those of the opposite sex might be considered indiscreet, or even disgraceful, by his relatives. The adolescent usually does not know what attitude his family may take in regard to his conduct, and so he prefers to share some of his secrets with age mates in whom he can confide and trust.

Some patterns of adjustment with those of the opposite sex may be learned through peer-group associations. In such relationships the active, aggressive, emotionally-toned behavior of youth is not subjected to contrast with the more thoughtful, orderly, and controlled ways of those in authority. The latter are responsible for judging the acts of youth and requiring them to conform to the restrictive patterns respected by adults. Thus peer-group membership helps to avoid conflicts between youth and adults by lessening the amount of tension in contact points between them.

Another positive effect of peer groups is that their members tend to take a realistic view of each other. They believe that determination of right and wrong is not merely a matter of understanding, or of acquiescence to admonition and allegiance to accepted values. While they feel the power of emotion and even of irrational urges, they recognize that many others in the group experience similar pressures. Unlike parents, who are inclined to look upon adolescents as miniature adults, age mates are apt to appreciate the difficulties their associates face. Mutual appreciation of these difficulties within the peer group helps to break the control of parents in an orderly fashion. Thus peer groups aid in weaning young people in a culture that tends to delay adulthood for too long a time.

Negative Effects. Some negative criticisms that have been made of peer-group membership are:

1. It tends to overemphasize the split between youth and adults.
2. It alienates youth from parents by supporting fads and undermining accepted traditional values such as those of family and religion.
3. It weans youth too early.
4. It causes the individual to be divided in loyalty between age mates and authoritarian adults sometimes on issues which cause maladjustment due to the split rather than the issues themselves.
5. Peer-group standards may be false, illegal, or too difficult for some members to adhere to; consequently out-group status is a threat to those who cannot or will not conform to the peer group's requirements.
6. Gang-type domination may affect individual peer-group members negatively.

Analysis of Effects. Most evaluations of the rightness or wrongness of peer-group membership are a function of the basic value judgments, attitudes, and motivations of those making the decisions. Personality enters into such "good" or "bad" judgments because there is little objective research available in this field.

Such studies as are available, although far from scientific, indicate that in those areas in which youth state they have problems, peer groups seem to be of some assistance in their solution. For example, the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth polled 6,000 teen-agers and 856 adults, and found that

> next to Selective Service, unhappy homes were the major worry to a majority of both youth and young adults. Further, from 35 per cent to 49 per cent of the 6,000 teen-agers listed the following items next on their list of major worries, in the order of importance.
>
> 1. Developing a healthy attitude about sex.
> 2. Being misunderstood by parents.
> 3. Finding the right job.
> 4. Use of narcotics.
> 5. Finding the right girl or boy.
> 6. Responsible driving of automobile.
> 7. Use of alcohol.
> 8. Religious uncertainties.
>
> Most of the young people felt that economic problems were the least of their worries. "Lack of good clothes" bothered only 10 per cent, while "lack of automobile or TV set" ranked lowest, presenting a problem for only 6 per cent of the group.

While no attempt was made to set up a scientific sampling of opinion, the response represented young people in schools, church groups, and other organizations.[3]

This listing indicates that the potentially emotionally upsetting problems tend to be those in which the pattern of acts of peer groups would be important. On the other hand, the least important problems in the listing are those on which peer-group membership would have little, if any, bearing.

An evaluation of the outcomes of peer-group membership was recently made by counselors who, as psychologists, are professionally concerned

[3] *Guidance Newsletter*, March, 1953, p. 4, Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill.

with such results. They are affiliated with one of the largest college personnel departments in the country.[4] Their findings were as follows:

1. The student seeks occasions to meet boys and girls of his own age.
2. He enters a new situation, classroom or otherwise, able to initiate or respond to friendly overtures.
3. The student does not constantly compare himself, favorably or otherwise, with others his own age.
4. He accepts casual as well as more intimate associations with his peers without feeling uneasy or afraid.
5. He accepts most of the current values of his age group but understands and utilizes in his behavior the values of the larger community. He is not overdependent on the approval of his peers, but is able to appraise values critically.
6. He is able to express himself with spontaneity and to experience real pleasure in his dealings with his friends.
7. He has sufficient maturity in establishing emotional relationships so that he can make realistic estimates as to the goals that are mutually possible.
8. He is able to be warm and affectionate where the situation warrants it. He is also able to define limits to his responsiveness.

Peer-group Stereotyping. Like many other groups discussed in the chapter on Stereotypes, college groupings are thought to be all of one kind by uninformed persons. Such a misconception may originate with the popular mediums influencing public opinion—newspapers, radio, TV, movies, etc. Frequently also the truth is distorted because of emphasis on the lurid.

Current stereotyping of college peer groups results in false concepts of the individual college student and the organizations to which he belongs. In the public mind fraternities and sororities, as well as other groups, become centers in which distinctly "un-American" or unconventional behavior is learned. Consequently, a current stereotype is that of the college man as a radical and the college woman as full of progressive ideas that conflict with traditional morals.

These ideas are a result of a lack of knowledge of the true nature of college peer groups. Such stereotypes are accepted by some through ignorance of modern campus life. Vestiges of romantic novels and movies, plus radio and television dramas or older alumni's college experiences, add to such misconceptions. These partial reconstructions of college life

[4] R. L. Lawrence, Irving Stuart, and Gladys Watson, "Evaluation of Counselling Services," an unpublished report, prepared for the Ford Foundation Evaluation Studies of Colleges, Brooklyn College, June, 1953.

are generally untrue in the opinion of experienced counselors, and are not borne out in the findings of careful studies. The facts do not support stereotypes of hard drinking, loose morals, political radicalism, sports and gambling addiction, atheist- and Communist-dominated groups as characteristic of colleges. Of course, individual college students are characterized by some of these, as well as other undesirable types of behavior, but so are many persons who do not go to college.

There are differences between college student and adult norms of behavior. This is because the student is at the age when the younger generation is traditionally strongest in its objections to the cultural patterns and moral requirements of its elders. The college student is also at the age for radical political thought. Many of our Founding Fathers developed their then radical opinions during early manhood, and the traditional leaders of the opposition to the *status quo* have been university students in practically all countries, except the United States.

Many foreign observers have commented upon the generally conservative nature of American college students as compared with students in other countries. There seems to be no doubt that the average American student is more conservative than his counterpart abroad. The influence that is largely credited with being behind this noncritical acceptance of our culture and social scene is the American fraternity. It has no parallel in foreign universities, with the possible exception of the recently reactivated secret German dueling societies. Incidentally, these groups, like American fraternities, are conservative and traditional in their political and cultural outlook.

Despite the predilections to political and moralistic radicalism, and popular opinion to the contrary, the radical groups in our colleges seem to be the training grounds for relatively conservative businessmen of tomorrow. Studies made of alumni as divergent as those of the City College of New York and Princeton University lead to substantially the same conclusion. This is that undergraduate progressives or radicals become almost conservative in politics by twenty years after graduation. Certainly, there has been some Communist recruiting done in recent years among college students, but the strength of the Communist Party rests on the quality of the converts' devotion, rather than on the quantity of their proselytes.

Out-group and In-group Status. The psychological effect upon those who fail to be admitted to fraternities is not fully known. The following cases provide some relevant information:

M. and K. were both good high school students, of upper-middle-class New England families, and lived in the same town. They attended X, a socially acceptable small New England college. As both were socially very active, they made the most desired fraternity as pledgees. However, they flunked out of college as lower freshmen as a result of too much social life and too little study. Through the good offices of their fraternity sponsor, a senior, they were admitted to Y, a large university in a different part of the country. Both expected to be admitted automatically at Y to the fraternity to which they were pledged at X. However, the chapter of that particular fraternity at Y did not accept them, largely because of sectional prejudice. M. tended to confirm the judgment of those who did not admit him to their chapter by following a frustration-aggression pattern of behavior. He tried to force, cajole, plead, and buy his way into the fraternity chapter. K., although equally, if not more deeply, hurt by the rebuff, made discreet inquiries and learned the reasons for his exclusion. He discovered that the local chapter was within its rights in not accepting him, and then readjusted himself to his nonfraternity status, while retaining the respect and friendship of many members of the fraternity. His grades improved and he graduated a credit to his college. Over the years he became the envy of many who had voted against him, for he was an outstandingly successful business man, well poised, world-traveled, and well adjusted. M. brooded over his out-group status, dropped his artificial friendliness, became bitter, coarse, gay, and supercilious. He avoided his former friends, left college (in time to avoid being expelled for poor scholarship), and continued a bizarre, foot-loose pattern of life. He was eventually jailed on fraudulent check charges, after a series of drunken brawls. He wound up as a severely maladjusted person.

Both of these men never really recovered from the serious consequences of being rejected by a peer group of their seeking. They had long-term desires, needs, and plans to be part of an in-group. They became rejected and part of an out-group. This loss of status occurred at the worst of times, and the total effect influenced their whole personality in different ways.

Students with strong feelings about social change, critics of the power of money and position, those with a keen sense of personal privacy and individual rights as against group pressure for conformity—these would have some difficulty in adjusting to the conventional pattern of Greek-letter societies. Fraternity membership offers certain potential financial, job, and social advantages on and off campus, both before and after graduation. Prior to joining a fraternity or any peer group, a student should weigh its value to him. One cannot easily develop the expected brotherly regard for those with whom one disagrees on fundamentals. A chief asset of fraternity membership is belonging to a group with fairly similar likes

and dislikes. However, the patterns of approval and disapproval in most chapters are not for the individual—much less the pledgee—to decide. Members may have their attitudes determined for them by the peer group.

The individual is markedly affected by peer groups. The influences are so strong that any prospective member of a peer group should use his best judgment to determine the dominant values of its members. Conflicting concepts of values after an individual joins a group make for difficulties, unhappiness, and even emotional maladjustment within the group.

PRESTIGE FACTORS OF PEER GROUPS

Fraternities and sororities are mentioned as examples of peer groups with a long history of functioning on the American college campus. They possess some of the prestige factors sought by students. Other peer groups may emphasize different aspects that are of value in a particular set. Social psychologists have discovered various behavior patterns to be considered desirable among adolescents. These traits are obviously important, for they are the criteria used by young people of college age to evaluate each other. In the peer group it is the age mates who determine much of adolescent behavior. This stems from the human desire to act in a way that is looked upon with favor by one's own group.

Below is a list of traits presented to a group of adolescents as part of a study of the traits felt to have prestige values among teen-agers.[5]

ADOLESCENT TRAITS AS PRESTIGE FACTORS

1. Enthusiastic
   Peppy
   Quiet
2. Assured in class
   Assured with adults
   Grown-up
3. Enjoys practical jokes
   Serious-minded
   Enjoys hearing or telling jokes
4. Has many friends
   Good-looking
   Wealthy
5. Cooperates with a group
   Enjoys working on his own hobbies
   Good leader
6. Friendly
   Reserved
   Hail-fellow-well-met
7. Neat in appearance
   Good dresser
   Well-mannered
8. Talkative
   Good listener
   Silent
9. Talented in arts and crafts
   Bright in school work
   Athletic
10. Loyal to friends
    Loyal to family
    Will not fight or argue

[5] Anne Anastasi and Shirley Miller, "Adolescent Prestige Factors in Relation to Scholastic and Socio-economic Variables," *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 29, pp. 43–50, 1949.

Certain of these traits were preferred by more young people than others. Highest in the preference of both sexes was the characteristic "has many friends," which was chosen 199 out of 200 possible times.[6] The two characteristics which fell consistently low in the choices of all subgroups were "wealthy" and "will not fight or argue." These findings are in general agreement with the results of earlier investigators using different and more detailed techniques. It is interesting to note that having many friends, or being popular, is in itself regarded by these subjects as a desirable trait, quite apart from any other worth-while characteristics which may lead to popularity.

Social Groups. Young college people are thrown upon their own isolated college groupings in class, club, or fraternity, where they develop their own norms or rules of behavior. These rules are frequently different from or even contrary to those of the adult world of family and community, or college regulations. This is because our American culture has not fully liberated the young adult, and delays his entry into complete partnership in community functions. The conduct patterns demanded of youth are rooted in the values of older generations. These seem to be unrealistic to young people, particularly in view of the rapidly changing world in which we live.

Groups of young people naturally try to establish themselves as fully important, participating adults, and not as part child, part grownup. Such clusters of young people may be formed in college because their members have similar backgrounds as to social stratum, high school, city or state of residence. Groups may be based on parallel intellectual, social, sports, or job interests. Students may join together because of mutual boredom or loneliness. Groups grow out of contacts in classes, freshmen orientation, "rushes," dining halls, dorms, or commuting to college.

Though some social organizations are temporary in nature, they still influence their members' personalities. Interests and friends may change quickly during the period of getting used to college. But the sense of security in being "in the same boat," facing the same problems, having similar likes and dislikes, establishes status for each student member and mutually acceptable values. All seek an in-group, just as their parents do when they join a bridge or social club. Like them, and like members of groups in all cultures, students desire to avoid being in an out-group where they will languish unaccepted and forlorn. They want to be in a gang to keep up their

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 44.

morale, and to avoid a sense of rejection. This feeling of being outside and looking in is one difficult to explain to those who are not excluded.

Another advantage of these groupings is the peace that comes through self-expression. The student adheres to standards and values he helps to create. They may seem queer to many older persons, but this only adds to their appeal because youths express their adult status in many ways. Some group expressions of youth are sloppy clothes, jazz, pseudo sophistication, gambling, drinking, boredom, excessive study, and loafing. Inside the walls of the in-group, the student gains approval of his own age mates and feels secure against parental desires to keep him in his place (a child-adult status), and teachers' efforts to make a man out of him (an adult-to-adult status). Basically, the college student is between child and adult status. He seeks the security of his college mates, who may be in a similar situation of facing parental pressures to prolong their childhood and struggling against faculty attempts to plunge them into full adulthood. The knowledge that other age mates have similar problems gives to the individual student a sense of temporary security of the insecure. By joining with others who are similarly situated, the individual's feeling of in-between status and uncertainty is lessened. This phenomenon is characteristic of crowds and is discussed in Chap. 16.

Before participating in social groups the student should give careful consideration to the hours of the week. The psychological impact, particularly on young girls, of the busy extracurricular life of college is overpowering unless tempered by careful planning. Budgeting time for social activity competes with the deep urge of all adolescents to enjoy the good opinion of their own age group and consequently to participate in those leisure-time activities in which one excels or feels comfortable.

Mental health is aided by taking part in meaningful, desired group recreational activities with a peer group of similar age and interests. However, both play and work are means and not ends in themselves. They should further the total development of the self if they are to be of value.

Leisure-time groups usually consist of fellow students who have similar interests, such as dormitory socials, sports, and religious, vocational, community, or political subject matter. Clubs should be joined because they provide really satisfying recreation and not merely because they may add luster to the student's transcript for admission to graduate school or because industry tends to employ people who have been active in extracurricular activities.

A study [7] of the purposes of co-curricular or extracurricular activities made by experts in a large college personnel department stated their effectiveness in terms of students' needs to be as follows:

1. The student recognizes the need for effective participation in school government. He takes an enlightened interest in school problems and learns to relate school to community problems. He keeps an open mind about issues until he has secured relevant information. He looks for and attends meetings arranged to clarify issues, speaks freely at these conferences, and accepts as part of his own responsibility the implementation of his views.

2. The student is able to participate in one or several college clubs if he wants to. These include social as well as professional interest groups. He attends meetings regularly, and takes part in developing plans for the group's activities. He learns to initiate and direct some activities and to be a cooperative participant in others.

3. The student learns to apportion his time so that he is spending the greatest effort for those clubs which return the maximum satisfaction to him. He is thus enabled to develop a perspective on what is meaningful and constructive, as well as pleasurable to him.

4. Through college extracurricular activities and other social activities on the campus, the student develops enduring patterns of aesthetic expression and appreciation. He has more than a verbal familiarity with the meaningful creative expression of his era. He reads, listens to music, goes to the theater, to art exhibits, to museums because he enjoys spending his leisure time in that fashion and not because it is the "right" thing to do.

5. His social experiences enable him to develop emotional flexibility. He learns in social interchange to understand and appreciate the differences between himself and his fellows. He begins to see that these differences in values, perspectives, and ideals may serve as a means of enriching his culture.

6. The student participates in social situations with security and pleasure. He accepts the social amenities and does not feel awkward or inept either in planning for or participating in social gatherings. He is able to carry on casual conversations with elders or peers at such occasions without discomfort or anxiety.

SOCIAL AND PERSONAL NEEDS OF STUDENTS

Interpersonal relations among students raise the question of their social and personal needs. Primary among these is companionship with those of whom one approves. This involves liking and being liked by those of the same age group—a vital need all through college. Of course it involves

[7] R. L. Lawrence, *et al., op. cit.*, p. 10.

dating. Most college students are in their late teens and early twenties. The expression of primitive sex urges may be at a maximum during these years.

These urges may be sublimated by social experiences such as coed dances, hikes, games, swimming, and other activities which fulfill specific needs. Students who have happy dating experiences are likely to have a more satisfactory emotional tone and balance. Emotional expression of sex forces that does not create tension and guilt feelings improves the self.

The serious aspect of a student's need for judgment in this area is that long-term values, habit patterns, traditions, and religious teachings are affected by social-sexual behavior while in college. Deceiving families, college authorities, and friends in order to enjoy secret sex trysts establishes undesirable behavior patterns that may be retained throughout life.

Simply stated, there is a basic conflict between what most families teach about sex behavior and some concepts about self-expression through sex. Psychologically, there is much disagreement about the idea of sex as a basis of personality. Certainly, sex experience as psychological release of tension is a questionable technique. Guilt feelings and tension may result when and if students indulge in sexual experiences that are essentially at variance with what they have been taught as being right and moral.

Intelligent students must give consideration to a specific aspect of their newly acquired status. This is that the liberty of college life requires decision on retention, modification, or rejection of traditional standards. Rationalization, guilt feelings, depressed and elated periods can result from careless confusion of liberty and license when sex relationships are involved.

Preaching or attempts at psychological justification of traditional or liberal attitudes on sex are not appropriate to this volume. It is, however, essential to point out that mere sex gratification creates motivation that affects the self and other personalities in many unsuspected and subtle ways. Just as faulty eating habits, overdieting, inadequate rest, or work exhaustion present unique interpersonal problems, so does sex. If a student cannot resolve the tension resulting from sex conflicts, he may have prolonged fantasies and dream images. If these interfere with normal functioning, counseling should be sought from college authorities equipped to help with socio-sexual problems. No guilt or shame feelings should prevent full and complete confiding in such professional counselors.

An illustration of the need for students to obtain information from college counselors in order to formulate a judgment in keeping with basic values is the following case:

S., an eighteen-year-old, conservatively educated girl, when admitted to a relatively small, strict, denominational college, had not had the benefit of any sex education. Her family never mentioned facts relating to sex, and pestered her over any dates she had, lest she indulge in petting and engage in fearful, specifically unnamed activities of the devil, generally labeled lust. At college and away from home, she continued the pattern of avoiding any kind of serious involvement with young men. Then she fell hopelessly in love with M., thirty years old, a much sought-after, sophisticated veteran. He dominated her completely and capitalized upon her deep-seated sense of fair play and her ignorance of sex. Subsequently she consented to regular petting sessions with him.

After a few months of this relationship she became quite upset and maladjusted personally and in her studies, and became unable to participate in the social life she had formerly enjoyed in clubs and in her sorority. She was torn by her familial attitudes, her training, her ignorance, and her guilt feelings.

Eventually she appealed to a counselor and told her entire story. She broke off relations with M. and readjusted herself to normal social patterns of behavior, without giving any indication to her family of the difficulties she had faced.

Many students lack adequate sex education, and some have serious difficulties in learning whether any type of sex activity is good and right for them. This problem may become intense when they have not had proper instruction from parents and others competent to teach and guide them. Conflicts may arise when they observe schoolmates' behavior which is contrary to parental and religious injunctions. If standards conflicting with their training are socially acceptable on campus, further tensions are set up in appraising what is ethically and psychologically sound. In resolving these tensions, decisions must be reached as to conduct patterns in order to avoid long-term maladjustments and to develop wholesome attitudes toward adult sex roles.

COLLEGE POLICIES

Decisions pertaining to college policies and standards are usually set by the faculty and the Board of Trustees, with some consideration of student opinion as expressed through the organs of self-government. Conformity to rules and regulations is assumed, whether or not the student agrees with their logic. Once admitted to a college, the student must accept the standards of that institution.

However, he can work through the proper student channels for the reformation or change of regulations that he believes to be onerous or burdensome. It should be clear that colleges are not operated on a democratic

basis with control by the students. Nevertheless, there is usually some opportunity in most institutions for undergraduates to join in policy formation in matters affecting student welfare.

Such participation is excellent experience in dealing with personal problems. If a student tries to understand the aims and functions of the college faculty in discharging their responsibilities, he will thereby learn some general problems encountered in government and industrial administration. On the other hand, if he takes part in political squabbles on a student-versus-faculty basis, his one satisfaction may arise from expressing the adolescents' traditional irritations at their adult "dictators."

A student who has strong negative feelings about some group, philosophy, or policy of his college should try to understand and tolerate it even if it cannot be changed. Such tolerance is an adjustment device to avoid blocks or frustrations growing out of the demands on the individual resulting, in this case, from living together on the same campus with many other individuals.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH ADMINISTRATORS, COUNSELORS, AND SERVICE PERSONNEL

The first contact of a college student is with administrators. Their function is to supervise and administer the college in accordance with the policy of the Board of Trustees. Sometimes these administrators may be members of the teaching staff. Usually, they are personnel-minded and interested in each student, his background, capacities, potentialities, and plans.

Because these administrators warn, discipline, and dismiss students, contact parents, and determine the rules by which students are governed, they are frequently feared and avoided by them. In many respects these college rulers are similar to the officials of industry and the community. Students should cultivate familiarity with college administrators and gain some knowledge of their problems. Thus, the groundwork can be laid and sound habits developed for becoming acquainted with business, college, and political leaders after graduation. In both college and community, the rulers and the ruled have a like interest in proper administration.

College students can obtain counseling on personal, vocational, and college difficulties, and information about their total college record from administrators of the institution. These officials are interested in student viewpoints, in intelligent comments on admission, scheduling, courses, living conditions, and the many problems that vex the student. Observations

and facts about any campus problem, from dining room to laundry difficulties, can be reported to proper officials when thought necessary.

The interrelationship of counselor and student, from the viewpoint of professional counselors, is well stated by an evaluation team headed by Dr. Ray Lawrence.[8] They stated:

1. The student accepts a relationship with the counselor which has well-defined limits.
2. He understands that a person in trouble who seeks help is not degraded by it and does not lose prestige. He understands, further, that mutual respect must exist in order for both the counselor and himself to speak freely.
3. He recognizes that the counselor is friendly and sympathetic, but will not help him to evade responsibilities.
4. The student learns that the goal of the relationship is to enable him to determine and appraise his own aims and values.
5. He is able to see that a part of the therapeutic process consists in examining his relationship with the counselor so as to clarify his attitude to authority and his understanding of the meaning and purpose of the defenses he utilizes.

In connection with college secretaries, clerks, cleaning, and security personnel, many students have had little, if any, previous experience in dealing with them. These persons are employed to care for the needs of the college and the students. Student pranks, mischievousness, and practical jokes should be tempered by judgment as to the extra duties and trouble they may cause service workers. Some of these are older persons with rich experience in life. They can either assist lonely freshmen, lighten student housekeeping, and be good friends, or demand letter-perfect compliance with onerous rules, spy on student misdeeds and privacy, and generally become meddlesome troublemakers. Which position they take toward any one student will depend on interpersonal relations largely determined by him. Oversensitivity, aggressiveness, suspiciousness, or quarrelsomeness on his part will develop a similar negative reaction in both service personnel and other students.

A student should meticulously respect the rights and duties of custodians and clerks, and quietly but firmly seek proper service, nothing more. Requests made in this spirit by one person to an equal will develop harmony between students and college workers. This kind of relationship may help to develop habits that will be valuable in future dealings with those in service occupations, from traffic cop to president's secretary.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 11.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS WITH FACULTY

Many students do not comprehend the psychological implications and advantages that are a potential part of their relations with faculty members. Students learn from their instructors in an orderly and usually rather impersonal way through the lecture method and in the laboratory.

However, the highly personalized human qualities that are indispensable in able teachers exist in some measure in practically all college instructional personnel. Otherwise their interests would have taken them into occupations other than teaching. It should be realized that the most aloof professor may simply be struggling with problems similar to those of his students. Such problems may be of a personal, tense, and pressing nature. The problems and pressures of the world's upset condition bear down equally upon instructors and students. Many of the difficulties that the students face on campus and at home have been experienced by their professors. The concept that teachers are uninterested extensions of textbooks, devoid of human qualities and devoted to high knowledge far beyond their students, is quite inaccurate. Most instructors have varied and normal extraclassroom interests. They may be good ball players, expert bridge players, fine folk dancers, Bing Crosby devotees, and "regular fellows" in every sense.

New college students often have difficulty in removing barriers of a psychological nature between themselves and the faculty because the discipline-centered high school demands a different educational approach from that of the college. Stereotypes of former teachers, or a few unhappy personal experiences with them, become imbedded into psychological sets that are hard to change. There is a fashion among some students of polite disrespect for faculty members that resembles unthoughtful G.I. opinion of "brass hats." This accounts for the continuation of student-instructor psychological barriers. Most college faculties are trying to get students and staff together on a person-to-person basis. Group discussions, student-centered and student-planned courses, trips, projects, seminars, workshops, and tutorial systems are all experimental attempts of educators to individualize instruction. This means that attempts are being made to meet the needs of each student as a person. An example of this is a recent report [9] on methods of hiring college professors by professional college administrators. The following statement indicates current thinking on the subject.

[9] A. S. Goodhartz, "Selection and Induction of New Faculty Members," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, January, 1953, p. 191.

But I do urge that his interests and needs *as a student* be consciously considered and protected. It is perhaps unnecessary to point out that these interests may be somewhat vaguely and indirectly attended to in all of the dealings involving the selection of a new teacher. The specific question, however, must still be asked: does this candidate fit the requirements of our student body? The selection of a scholar of reputation, as opposed, perhaps, to an effective teacher of freshman composition, may indeed enhance the prestige of the institution. But when the need is clearly for someone who can raise the level of writing ability of the students and derives satisfaction in doing this, it is questionable whether the selection of the scholar of reputation may, in this instance, be a wise choice.

Faculty influences outside of class add to the knowledge and the growth of the student. This happens in personal evaluation of history, politics, society, economics, or in many other fields through discussions outside of the classroom. Those who are alert will be aware of the educational possibilities of such situations, particularly when they can get to be friendly with able but presumably aloof professors. Their attitude may simply be a psychological protective device.

SUMMARY

The relations which the student has with others while he is in college have much to do with the quality of his education. While living away from home with newly made acquaintances, in a strange environment, he attains the ability to get along well with people or he fails in his relations with them. This success or failure happens through a process of adjustment by which various conflicts are resolved by means of self-analysis, counseling, trial and error, or other techniques. Some of the clashes are due to the conflicting demands placed on the college student by parents, faculty, and fellow students.

The force of the good opinion of an adolescent's age mates is revealed by the importance of peer groups among teen-agers. Their values and judgments are influenced by such organizations to the extent that the student's motivation is affected during and after college. Many ambivalent feelings result when the seemingly realistic values of his age mates are opposed to the presumably outmoded ones of his parents.

Sometimes peer groups cause major changes in social relationships, sex habits, vocational objectives, and political or religious loyalties. However, the significance of some college peer groups, as illustrated by the Greek letter societies, is to support traditional, conservative values of the Ameri-

can culture. Similarly, other peer groups in college tend to establish prestige factors that are in harmony with the same values.

Nevertheless, some changes from parental and faculty demands are expressed in certain student groups. Social expression is a major reason for their existence. This is because they lend a feeling of security to their youthful membership. Such a feeling of safety is inherent in the reciprocal nature of the clublike organization in which the student members of a peer unit find themselves. All those in such a group have a sense of security born of the merging of their individual insecurities.

This "togetherness" is a characteristic of the organizations in which youth insulates itself against the prying or the demands of adults. With age mates or peers, one is accepted as he is—once he becomes a member of the in-group.

Those who do not attain in-group status, who are unaccepted by a peer group, remain in an out-group. Such a position may have distinct psychological implications of rejection, maladjustment, and unhappiness. Professional counselors and faculty members can assist in these and other situations. In fact, the entire college staff forms a part of the student's interpersonal relations. These can be enhanced to improve his personality by wise planning and action.

The relationship between students and faculty, as well as the kind of peer groups that exist on campus, vary with the character of the college. The college absorbs some part of each student through his participation in its life. The student, in turn, gains a part of the college's atmosphere, background, and values. Thus the particular character of a college and its intramural organizations tends to encourage in its students those traits that are characteristic of the school. In other words, some colleges seem to stress certain elements of personality more than others, owing to their background or educational philosophy. It is in the process of interflow between student and college that the personality is molded, by the student himself, his peers, his instructors, and his family.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. What are the reasons for the existence of peer groups of which you have personal knowledge?

2. Could the satisfactions gained from the peer groups with which you are acquainted be gained in any manner that might be better for the persons involved and society?

3. Outline techniques to resolve conflicts caused by cultural and background differences that you know exist in campus interpersonal relations.

4. Analyze the advantages and disadvantages that affect an individual's interpersonal relations through membership in those Greek-letter societies best known to you.

5. Outline a good method for heterosexual adjustment for college students if there are conflicts between age mates' and parents' moral standards.

6. What type of desirable habit patterns can be developed by students in their relations with (*a*) faculty, (*b*) administrators, (*c*) service personnel?

7. List the current stereotyped concepts of college students' behavior with which you are acquainted. Analyze reasons for such stereotypes. Discuss their accuracy.

8. What good to you are the clubs to which you belong?

9. What is the basis of a college student's healthy interpersonal relationships?

10. From your knowledge of the strictest faculty member of your acquaintanceship indicate what, if anything, he could contribute to improving your adjustment now and after graduation.

REFERENCES

Bailard, Virginia, and Ruth Strang, *Ways to Improve Your Personality,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1951.

Bernhardt, K. S., *Practical Psychology,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1953.

Carter, H. L. J., and Dorothy J. McGinnis, *Building a Successful College Career,* William C. Brown Co., Dubuque, Iowa, 1952.

Cole, L. E., *Human Behavior: Psychology as a Bio-Social Science,* World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y., 1953.

Fedder, Ruth, *A Girl Grows Up,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

Kaplan, Louis, and Denis Baron, *Mental Hygiene and Life,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1952.

McKown, H. C., *A Boy Grows Up,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

Stagner, Ross, and T. F. Karwoski, *Psychology,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1952.

CHAPTER 12

PREPARATION FOR WORK

One of the most important activities of man is his permanent work. Permanent occupations are selected by the personal application of principles previously outlined. This procedure involves long-term adjustments and interpersonal relationships in family, college, and community. Consideration of these relationships, as well as techniques and experiences that affect job preparation, can assist a student in his choice of a calling.

FAMILY PARTICIPATION IN JOB PREPARATION

Family participation in job preparation starts early, is long-lasting and important, and often goes unrecognized. Various aspects of it are carried over by the individual from childhood. Obviously, family influences that have helped to shape the personality affect job success or failure. For instance, family dominance, good example, rejection, familial struggles, antagonisms, sibling rivalry, dependence, and family "togetherness" may affect job success or failure.

Some negative influences stem from divergences between parents and children on different levels. Difficulties may be manifested, for instance, when a family puts pressure upon a son to accept a job selected for him, or when parents insist on teaching or business in the case of a daughter who wants to prepare for an artistic career. A dislike for these parentally chosen goals and preparation for them may lead to self-reproach, family tensions, and irritation over parental hopes. These are often followed by personal or familial psychological maladjustments.

"Blue-collar" workers wearing white collars. Cable splicers show that some objections to the unclean part of blue-collar jobs are based on misinformation. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

Wise planning by the student can often help him to prevent such psychological problems. Through suitable psychological tests he can learn the facts about his personality and aptitudes; there are numerous sources of information about the employment market. Once he has this information, he should relay it to his family. Such action can help to decrease familial tension caused by prestige values, wish frustrations, and other factors leading to emotionally charged parental attitudes. These often cause prolonged family arguments and disagreements.

Unrealistic familial aspirations and ignorance of the everyday world are apt to be the root of such misunderstandings. These misconceptions are evident in parents' pressure on offspring to seek white-collar jobs. Many students strive for this type of work because of their families' emotional bias in favor of them. Some of these students would probably receive higher incomes and be emotionally better adjusted in blue-collar jobs, such as supervisory and highly skilled artisan positions in factories. Through such positions young workers can achieve desirable job security, welfare and pension benefits, and such protection as may accrue through seniority rights. In fact, they may have more security and face less competition in

blue-collar than in white-collar jobs. In a study [1] of the emergence of the so-called blue-collar class to a higher economic level it was reported that "earnings in this market will average $4,000 to $6,000 per annum. Earnings of $8,000, $10,000, or even $12,000 for skilled workmen or foremen are not uncommon."

This is one example of how current information can bring about traditional family job prestige values more in line with today's and tomorrow's labor conditions. By eliminating parents' old-fashioned ideas about jobs, the student may avoid low pay, insecurity, potential familial tension, maladjustment, and unhappiness.

Providing the family with reliable information concerning job preparation and placement usually leads to better group understanding. However, the student needs to have an appreciation of his parents' goals for him. These may be psychological vestiges of their own frustrated ambitions for themselves or for an older sibling. Many parents seek the attainment of their own youthful wishes for power and social recognition through planning for their children. They may not realize that their deep-seated motivation to regain lost social standing, although very important to them, means little, if anything, to their offspring. The reverse situation also presents a problem. Children sometimes seek jobs that have social prestige values to them, whereas in the opinion of the parents such assumptions are unwarranted.

The gap between parental desires and youthful plans can be lessened through the information provided by educators or counselors who have assisted the student in his vocational investigations. However, the "within the family" conference is a satisfactory technique for gaining student-parent understanding. If such a step fails, then the student may have to turn to some community agency, such as his church, a family welfare organization, a mental hygiene society, or other group, for aid to convince his family that job preparation is a joint project, involving career and course selection, family and expert advice, plus such other technical information as may be available in the community.

Job Information and Guidance in the Family Circle. Just as the student can assist his family and his own job preparation by bringing the advisers or their knowledge to the family, so can the family help the student. The average student usually knows little, if anything, about the job market, employers' policies, and job requirements. In these areas, some families

[1] C. J. Zimmerman, quoted in the *Hartford Times,* Hartford, Conn., March 27, 1951, p. 53.

can provide valuable, highly specific information to help in job selection.

Further, some parents at least can guide the student in developing realistic and scientific attitudes in job seeking. These are of vital importance. The student's only experiences in job hunting may have been in an expanding labor market, in which the demand for workers exceeded the supply. Consequently, he may overestimate his ability and personality as job assets. In times of economic depression, with which present-day young people have had little, if any, experience, employers tend to be hard to please. Consequently, employment interviewers who have had long experience may be unduly critical of the job possibilities of a given youth. In determining the true job potentialities of a son or daughter, the family can sometimes strike an accurate balance.

Family cooperation can also assist the student to avoid setting too high a rating on his own personality. Those who know him can usually best estimate his characteristics, provided their closeness does not destroy objectivity or make impossible the acceptance of their judgment. There is no better preparation for a job than a thoughtful family conference with an unbiased evaluation of the personality of the student. Research and personnel executives report that about 90 per cent of failures on jobs are due to personality defects.

Out of family tasks and training comes the pattern of work habits. Some proof that home training is a vital factor in job selection is evident in corporation reports to stockholders. Many stress the fact that there are members of second and third generations of families working for these companies.

A word of caution is essential at this point. Perhaps not many parents are fortunate enough to have adequate educational qualifications, fortified by experience, to serve as the most effective guides to their own children. The assistance and cooperation of others outside the family circle may frequently be essential if a student is to be helped in his choice of a career. The college guidance and psychological staffs, employment counselors in various community agencies, qualified and practicing psychologists, are among the resources that can be called upon for advice.

Personality, as it is molded in the day-to-day routine of home, college, and community, is a strong, if not the strongest, factor in adjustment on the job. It is in the repetitive, onerous routine of household chores that one is groomed to be an alert, conscientious worker. Seemingly pointless daily tasks may create irritation, self-hate, and frustration. Surrendering to an attitude of vexation can lead to negative traits and rebellious attitudes, both

Personality, as it is molded in the day-to-day routine of home, college, and community, is a strong, if not the strongest, factor in adjustment on the job. It is in the repetitive onerous tasks of household chores that one is groomed to be an alert, conscientious worker. (Photograph by Philip Bonn. Courtesy of Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency.)

of which are prejudicial to a successful career, to say nothing of their interference with personal relationships.

A leading employer in industry has written that without doubt the most useful single trait one can have is the ability to absorb everything the boss throws at one and ask for more. "Everything the boss throws at you," when one starts to work, differs slightly from the ordinary farm task, from work in the small-town trading center, and from the big city's part-time jobs that are part of many students' routine. But there is one common factor—and that is job attitude—which can be built through family training. It does not suddenly blossom forth when one's formal education ends.

MISINTERPRETATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

Receiving outside advice from several sources may present some difficulties. For example, the interpretation of the findings of psychological tests is apt to be misunderstood by some parents. They ordinarily want specific guidance from these tests as to the capacities of their children, and

mistakenly place too much reliance on test results. Parents of college students need to be informed that psychological tests used in college are intended primarily to help the student in his general adjustment to life. Such tests cannot pick one or two specific jobs for which an individual is best fitted, despite parental desires that they be given definitive guidance.

Psychological tests used in industry are not utilized to measure adjustment capacity. They are selection tests, and are employed to determine if the job candidate measures up to the company standards. This is quite different from test techniques used in colleges in so far as purpose, validity, and reliability are concerned.

Comprehension of the function of psychological tests is often lacking. There is a tendency among parents and students alike either to believe implicitly in personality and interest scales, or to reject them completely. These extreme points of view can be modified with the help of information on psychological tests given in preceding pages. For further assistance, qualified educators and psychologists should be consulted.

PREPARATION FOR THE JOB IN COLLEGE

In college a student has available the services of specialists in psychology, vocational guidance, and other areas to provide help in analyzing himself, his background, and their relation to jobs. With such technical assistance he can be helped to discover which jobs promise most personal satisfaction, chances for development, and financial success.

Both the community and industry offer college-trained men and women maximum opportunities for advancement to leadership and social and financial advantages. But college merely provides the entry to such advantages. Converting them into actuality comes largely through planning, self-analysis, job investigation, utilization of college facilities, and the advice of experts in various fields.

Important among these college specialists are teaching faculty and guidance personnel. These professional men and women can assist a student with technical advice on such matters as courses of study, professional education, and job information, and can prescribe and interpret suitable psychological tests. Because individuals differ, their testing needs likewise differ.

Just as guidance psychologists assist the student in psychological testing, so instructors can provide information about study programs that are prerequisites for certain jobs. In addition, instructors in courses in which the student has special ability and interest can impart little-known facts about

the occupations for which the subjects they teach prepare him. Many faculty members carry on continuing studies of the positions held by their former students.

Effect of Liberal Arts and Vocational Education. Many students are confronted with the problem of choosing between liberal arts and vocational education. Their parents and others may impress upon them the need to take "practical" subjects. These are usually considered to belong in the field of vocational education because they train for specific jobs, such as that of secretary, advertising man, engineer, chemist. Courses with vocational emphasis differ from those in the liberal arts, such as literature, foreign languages, and history, which do not specifically train a student for a job but are primarily designed to provide a basic education.

All higher education is both vocational and nonvocational. This is because most liberal arts subjects further adjustment to life through general rather than specialized training. The liberal arts program aims to develop flexibility, objectivity, a sense of emotional balance, and a matured point of view. These and other competencies gained from what is known as the humanities have vocational values. Such qualities of personality, presumably enhanced by the humanities, are sought as leadership habits. These are most desired by industry. The development in college of personal qualities of leadership amounts to vocational education if the student eventually becomes a foreman, supervisor, or officer in government service or industry.

From the point of view of preparation for work, values inherent in college training include the gaining of experience through field work, learning the requirements of jobs, the opportunities for advancement, and the suitability of certain jobs for certain types of students. In connection with advancement, some employment executives advise vocational courses as a means of gaining entry into highly competitive businesses. For example, they advise college students to take secretarial training in order to gain entry-level jobs that may lead to writing careers in radio, TV, and advertising.

Much research is still needed to establish the facts as to whether any special kind of education is effective in attaining desirable jobs. The experience of placement personnel and the opinions of many top employment executives seem to indicate widespread differences in this area, with no specific pattern other than the general policy followed by particular employers.

Some businesses rely upon their own elaborate training programs to develop the potentialities of college graduates picked for jobs. Frequently the selections of many companies are made on the basis of a good general education, well-balanced personality, and ability to score high on standard psychological tests. These are more effective qualifications for employment than is specialized vocational training at the undergraduate level if a job is sought in a company that employs expert psychologists and educators to hire and train college graduates.

Some employers, such as banks, insurance companies, and many governmental agencies, stress promotion from within. This policy encourages vocationally trained persons to be willing to start at the bottom. In such situations vocational education and in-service training may permit the new entrant to be promoted through examinations or by meeting other objective evaluations.

A recent nation-wide study [2] of the opinions of about five hundred executives of large companies and government officials on the value of a college education in employment opportunities reported as follows:

> That business executives consider liberal arts subjects of great importance has been reiterated throughout the course of this study. By far the most valuable of such subjects, as conducive to success in employment, is English. The ability to read, write, speak and understand English with the greatest possible facility, clarity and effectiveness, has been shown to be, in the opinion of reporting executives, the most essential of all the skills which any study of the humanities can impart.
>
> Modern foreign languages are given a place second only to English among the liberal arts subjects. The cultural value of language study, the large contribution of language study to the development of essential general skills, such as the ability to understand, judge, discern, and think creatively, and the fundamental need of language skills for the successful pursuit of a wide variety of vocations justify a far more important place for foreign language study. . . .
>
> One of the most significant trends of executive opinion is that which favors liberal arts preparation over vocational skills as the best basic preparation for employment in business, industry and government. No distinction was drawn between superior students and average students or between positions at high levels or at low levels of responsibility, except possibly that the superior student would profit more than the average student, and that the liberal arts are more important as qualifications for positions of greater responsibility than for those which involve little or no executive responsibility. Speed in typing, the ability

[2] Q. O. McAllister, *Business Executives and the Humanities*, pp. 52–53, University of North Carolina Press, 1951.

to operate office machines, and a knowledge of the mechanics of office procedure are, of course, valuable, but provide no substitute for a broad general education. Students who may seek employment above the level of manual labor need a kind of education which vocational training alone does not and cannot supply. Therefore, contrary to the belief of many high school and college students, the narrow vocational training for which they ask—and too often receive—is not proper or adequate training for the jobs which they will later seek.

In support of the opposite viewpoint, that vocational education in college is the most effective training and leads to the most desirable jobs, are the reports of various college placement officials, governmental civil service executives, and college graduates without vocational training. They indicate that it is substantially more difficult to get entry-level jobs without vocational training, skills, or experience in work.

For both of these divergent viewpoints support can be found, because employment policies vary in accordance with many environmental factors. As a consequence of the existence of these two divergent methods of employment selection, both types of education are effective; which is the more effective depends upon the particular job, geographic location, or type of industry in which the student plans to be employed after graduation. The ideal situation is to attain as broad a liberal education as possible, in addition to technical training directed toward industry's needs in the place and at the time that the student is an applicant for employment. Sometimes this requires taking specialized vocational courses outside of college. For example, a surprising number of the students who enter the New York Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences for purely technical education have previously been graduated from liberal arts colleges.

Occupational Information Facilities in College. In addition to being able to turn to instructors, psychologists, and guidance counselors, the student can consult the college reference librarian for occupational information. Reference librarians are usually trained in getting answers to specific questions about jobs from industries, trade unions, and governmental agencies. They have access to magazines, newspapers, occupational indices, and vocational guidance manuals describing the latest developments in employment. They can borrow visual aids, such as reports and motion pictures, released by industries, banks, educational institutions, film companies, and others. Materials available in libraries describe current production methods, supervisory problems, working conditions, costs of production, and other items that relate to business operations.

Many young men earn their college expenses by working on farms. (Courtesy of American Social Hygiene Association.)

Student reading about industries, jobs, and the labor market will make the vocational counseling received more effective. Having knowledge puts the student in a better position to understand the function of psychological tests as utilized in college and personnel offices.

Value of Work during College. Learning facts about jobs plus getting actual work experience are major accomplishments of the college student in preparing for his career. Part-time and summer jobs frequently seem routine, uninteresting, or unrelated to the ultimate vocational objective. However, occasional employment affords experience with salaries, supervisors, work requirements, routine, interpersonal relations with fellow workers and the "boss," health, safety, and fatigue factors, unions, and the workings of the profit system through product and personal competition. Such jobs are not direct training for a vocation, but they can enhance the value of a student's services and improve his subsequent competitive position in the placement market. Work experience—just plain knowing what jobs are about—may give a student the margin over equally educated competitors that he needs to get a desired position.

The experience value of employment during college can be appraised by college placement officers, vocational advisers, the family, or personnel

executives. Such evaluation might result, for instance, in the student selecting job X because of its value as experience rather than the higher-salaried job Y.

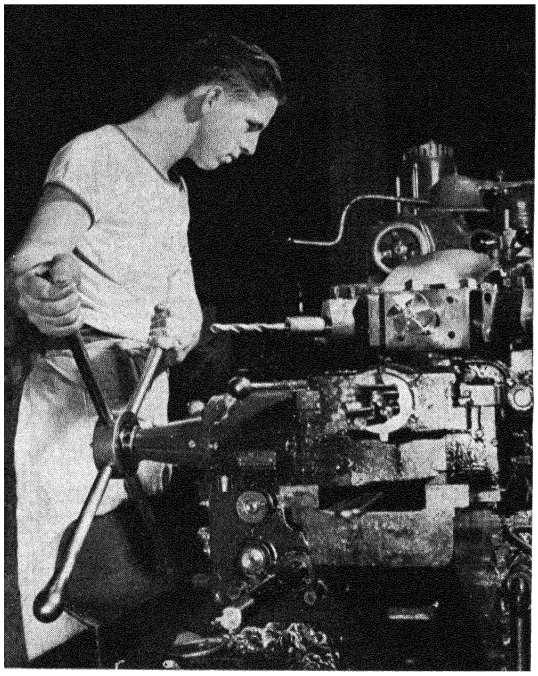
Avoidable Pitfalls. In response to the stimulus of the college environment, and under pressure from parents to "take some tests to find out what you're fitted for," many students seek the results of psychological tests as the last word on their job fitness. This is an understandable human urge, for it pleasantly eliminates the pain of self-evaluation and the sweat of learning on the job. But such uncritical acceptance of psychological tests may have serious consequences. It can involve mere rationalization and interfere with making a really considered choice of a career. Often the student who is tested is being pressed to get specific decisions and results from the psychological tests by popular belief as well as parental urging. An exactness is expected from these tests that is not inherent in them.

Unfortunately, some industrial leaders, personnel executives, and guidance counselors are carried away with the neatness and speed of psychological testing. They do not sufficiently question the purpose, validity, and reliability of such tests as they utilize. Test scores must be considered in terms of entire experience—college and high school records, extracurricular activities, friends, objectives in life, part-time jobs, and vocational objectives. All this is done when an expert interprets the tests.

Need for Basic Skills. Some employers complain about the penmanship, grammar, spelling, and speech of job applicants. Students in college generally do not recognize the need for them to review elementary school skills or to acquire new clerical abilities such as typing and shorthand. But the testimony of placement and employment interviewers definitely points to this need. Many job applicants would improve their chances by reviewing English grammar and spelling. As for typing and shorthand, the entry to advancement and supervisory jobs is often "through the back door." This is one way of referring to the method of obtaining leadership jobs by starting as a typist or secretary—male or female.

Top glamour jobs, such as those of actor or actress, newspaper reporter, TV or radio announcer, and leader in the field of advertising, are comparatively few in number and are highly competitive. It is no wonder that employers of these so-called glamorous persons often advise applicants for such jobs to acquire clerical skills so that as apprentices they can "at least eat" while pursuing elusive recognition.

In college the student finds he can usually secure help and vocational guidance from instructors, librarians, psychologists, and others. He learns



Learning a skilled trade can help in determining a future career. (Photograph by Dan Nichols. Courtesy of National Youth Administration.)

to use their advice and information in scientifically studying himself and possible jobs. If he follows through, he eliminates from his list positions that he does not fit or that do not fit him. Then he settles upon the ones that offer good prospects for satisfaction to him. Part-time work during college enrollment may provide further data to assist him in reaching a decision. When he has organized his facts, he should be prepared to apply to community resources for further help in securing a job in the specific employment field of his choice.

JOB PREPARATION IN THE COMMUNITY

The student in college is marked for his work performance. The worker in industry and the soldier are similarly graded. The qualities that bear watching for promotion in industry and military service do not spring into being on graduation day. They evolved not in any one classroom but in the home, the college, and the community, and over a comparatively long period of time. In all these areas, good work habits are effective.

The community imposes sanctions and requirements concerning work upon each person from childhood. These vary in accordance with the par-

ticular community. For example, farm children live up to a long tradition of learning many different work tasks early in life. On the other hand, poor residents of cities and the children of migrant laborers have little opportunity to learn various skills because they are occupied adding to the family income by working at any available job.

The increasing mechanization of farms brings to the farm youth knowledge of and experience with mechanical devices that are far beyond that of other youngsters. Similarly, small-city, town, and village youth have specialized advantages as well as deficiencies in knowledge of work as compared to farm youth and the youth of large metropolitan or suburban areas.

Despite the increasing efforts of progressive-minded educators and businessmen, the lack of preparation of the city child for work is a regrettable characteristic of urban living. There is but little opportunity in our society, except for rural areas, to learn at the level of ability to comprehend or perform work tasks. Most entry jobs are in connection with machines, merchandising, office sales and service. Our nonrural communities do little to introduce young people to the idea of work, its necessity or its function, before they enter into gainful employment.

In addition, elementary and secondary schools do little to give children practical information about work, the kinds of jobs available, and job descriptions. Guidance counselors, teachers, relatives, reading, and occasional employment are the sources of the urban adolescent's knowledge of work. These vary in effectiveness from community to community.

Because knowledge about work is limited to a relatively few persons, stereotypes, lack of information, and an emotional approach to the subject persist from childhood to adulthood. This lack of knowledge about work is a factor in the persistence of fixed family attitudes that may be transferred to work situations, and sometimes form the basis for vocational and personal maladjustment.

Military Service. Many valuable skills can be acquired in the services, in addition to a general training in orderly, disciplined behavior. The student should investigate the various services to find where he can serve most effectively and where he can receive advanced training toward his life's work. Several agencies have prepared detailed analyses of similarities between civilian and service jobs. The armed forces can be said to consist of modern industry in uniform. The biggest job of the services is education, and the student will further his own advancement if he is aware of the possible uses of skills for which he can be trained while in uniform. Immi-

nent or eventual military service can be fitted into one's vocational training by enlisting in the unit that gives in-service training most suited to individual capabilities.

The student in college, the soldier, and the worker in industry are engaged in tasks that will be evaluated, by marks in college, by promotion in the military, and by advancement in industry. The qualities that bear watching in a new worker were not learned by him in any one classroom, home situation, or position. Usually, such qualities, like Topsy, just "grow'd" over a period of time.

Idea Education by Leaders in the Community. Many young people are cynical about management's seemingly unrealistic and overly optimistic ideas about jobs. International tensions and military interruptions of careers have led to pessimistic attitudes. Both these tendencies can be counterbalanced to some extent by understanding the facts about local industries in a given area. Community leaders can help to educate students. They establish the very climate of management's opinion to which some young persons object. Knowledge of these opinions, of employers' rules and policies, can aid the students' effectiveness as future workers. They can also be helped by contacting executives in church and service clubs, 4H clubs, Scouts, YM's, YW's and others. Among the interested community leaders may be elected public officials, or administrators affiliated with hospitals and schools, county committeemen, manufacturers, government office leaders, Chamber of Commerce leaders, merchandising, trade, association, and labor union officers.

Personnel Policies. Community leaders are the source of information about local standards in job performance and many other management and supervisory policies. Such policies, in normal times, determine the patterns governing hiring, retention, and promotion in a particular community. Policies vary widely among industries and communities, and even among companies. Consequently the need is to learn about the particular industry, community, and company in which the student expects to work. Frequently the problems in large cities differ in many ways from those in smaller communities.

One industry, community, or company may have what appear to be odd viewpoints on needs and desires as to employment and personnel policy. Actually, subtle psychological factors that exist in most companies may be part and parcel of the life of the community in which the company is located. Influential factors may include family prestige; one-man control; objections to outsiders; religious, class, and racial residence prejudices;

ABOVE: Job evaluation is a subjective-objective process in which all objective test data are correlated. BELOW: Using these objective data, executives make joint final subjective decisions on job classifications of supervisors of 4,000 workers. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

strict moral standards; "old-fashioned" personnel policy; foreman or union leader domination; "old school tie" college preferences. Social phenomena like these are deeply embedded in specific communities or companies. Similar factors can influence the mind set, the attitude, of personnel managers, foremen, department heads, company officers, and ordinary employees. Naturally these elements affect the success and happiness of new employees. Previous knowledge of such attitudes and influences will, of course, help a graduate to select a position in a community and plant that will prove congenial. It is better to become aware of these little-known, rarely publicized attitudes before taking a job than to learn of them through unhappy experiences.

Prospective employees may object to the group pressures that can color the entire pattern of living in a community. Large industries in small communities often determine social, political, and leisure-time activities of their workers. Before a new employee thinks of attempting to change these and other social forces, he should learn the peculiarities of the area and of the company where he plans to work. He will also require definite information as to how the pattern of social forces to which there is implicit opposition came to be accepted. Likewise, for a real understanding of local conditions he needs data on the leaders who set the patterns.

After such information is secured, the prospective or new employee can decide if he wants to accept or to struggle to change existing conditions in the area of his employment interest. The usual prospective employee has either been living too close to these community pressures to have questioned them, or too far from them to be aware of their existence.

Social Status in the Community. The social pattern of a community may be determined by the dominant groups. The student will observe that within these groups people who work together tend to live similarly and have a kind of comradeship with one another. Social status or social climbing can become serious matters affecting the choice of employment and happiness both on and off the job.

The urge to achieve social status is the reason why many young people seek white-collar jobs. These job seekers "feel" or sense social advantages or security in fields that may be overcrowded. Such a sense of security, coupled with social status, can be forceful in impelling a person to select a particular position. In considering such factors, students and applicants for jobs, especially in small communities, should be aware of cliques, social climbing, and leisure-time pressures in general and as they affect specific

jobs. Women are usually more affected than men by these social characteristics in a community.

SUMMARY

Job preparation starts in the early days of family life, in day-to-day work tasks, in part-time employment, and in personality patterns established through everyday living that may seem to have nothing to do with ultimate vocations.

In college, however, there are many factors to be studied concerning possible careers. Such factors include information about industries, positions, and job requirements, on one side, and the abilities, aptitudes, and interests of the individual, on the other.

These two sides—job preparation and information—should be dovetailed in college by the student through expert advice from instructors, psychologists, librarians, and others. Psychological tests and technical job information assist these professionals in counseling the student. He can help himself by reading federal, state, city, foundation, agency, and industrial reports, detailing the kinds of requirements for and availability of particular positions.

As a result of matching his personality with job requirements, he eliminates many possibilities. The remaining jobs for which he is a candidate are then held to be compatible with his plan for life and his set of values.

It is in the process of study and in experience, such as that gained in part-time jobs, that the student comes to realize the need for conformity. He must belong to some grouping or part of the community, for the sense of belonging is basic in humans. This is not to say that he must suppress his urge to object to forces that affect work opportunities, to social pressures, cliques, employment prejudices, or any one of the many other negative elements in the world of jobs which arise from group pressures.

The desire for change may conflict with the desire to belong. Some persons express their conflicts by seeking advancement through social climbing, even though they dislike the society that is so organized. But social change is difficult and slow. Indeed, there is some sense in a degree of conformity which is an expression of the urge to belong. Seeing the effect on jobs of forces about which one has ambivalent feelings makes for an ever-present possibility of internal tension caused by conflicting pressures. Sometimes these feelings of being "for" and "against" at the same time may result in the desire to change the whole status in order to be rid of the internal struggle within oneself and the external one in society. In such

situations, one must not confuse change with progress, speed with direction. If change is needed in social policies affecting one's employment, one should try to bring about such change. But established standards had the sanction of experience and the acceptance of many before they got to be social policy. A responsibility is owed to the community and to oneself to weigh the results of change so as to avoid creating a situation in which the remedy is worse than the illness of the system.

The objections of students often stem from inadequate knowledge of and unfounded prejudice against existing conditions. They should consider their training, personality, job requirements, and community patterns in the light of personal, immediate, and ultimate goals. These may change but they must be in conformity with deep convictions.

Good job preparation results in wise job selection. This is a task that is far from simple or easy. Heretofore, little, if any, preparation has been consciously planned. Currently, it is often haphazard, and life jobs are too frequently the results of mere chance. Sound planning in the interest of the student will help to prevent the great waste in human values, unhappiness, and inefficiency. Even if the best plans and preparations come to naught in any one case, it is only in the process of assembling facts and self-analysis that the student really experiences the application of the scientific attitude to his problems.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. In addition to salary, what factors are important in good job adjustment?
2. Name some family influences that affect job success or failure.
3. (*a*) Why do families sometimes try to choose their children's life work for them? (*b*) What can be done about this by a college student whose family is so inclined?
4. Explain the uses of psychological tests in the selection of a vocation.
5. When should students avoid using psychological techniques?
6. What are the chief reasons why people lose their jobs or fail to be promoted? Tell of experiences you have had which might have led you to develop some of the traits that cause people to lose their jobs.
7. What are the major factors that mark a worker as a good prospect for promotion?
8. Name the persons and facilities in college available to help the student select his vocation.
9. What basic skills are insurance for jobs in "good" and "bad" times?
10. How can community leaders assist the student in job preparation?
11. Discuss "belonging" and social change as they affect adjustment to jobs.

REFERENCES

Bernard, H. W., *Toward Better Personal Adjustment,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1951.

Bernhardt, K. S., *Practical Psychology,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1953.

Berrien, J. K., *Practical Psychology,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1949.

Dreikurs, Rudolf, *The Challenge of Parenthood,* Duell, Sloan & Pierce, Inc., New York, 1948.

Hepner, H. W., *Psychology Applied to Life and Work,* 2d ed., Prentice-Hall Inc., New York, 1950.

Laird, D. A., and Eleanor C. Laird, *Practical Business Psychology,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1951.

McKinney, Fred, *Psychology of Personal Adjustment,* John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1941.

Vaughan, W. F., *Social Psychology,* The Odyssey Press, Inc., New York, 1948.

In addition, the following pamphlets are recommended. They are published by Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Avenue, Chicago, Ill.:

Christensen, T. E., *Getting Job Experience.*

Dreese, Mitchell, *How to Get the Job.*

Humphreys, J. A., *Choosing Your Career.*

Kuder, G. F., *Discovering Your Real Interests.*

Menninger, W. C., *Understanding Yourself.*

Schloerb, L. J., *School Subjects and Jobs.*

Worthy, J. C., *What Employers Want.*

Yoder, Dale, *You and Unions.*

CHAPTER 13

CAREER SELECTION

Choice of a career is a progressive development; the actual selection is the culmination of personal adjustments which have taken place over a span of years. For college students the process of career choice is precipitated by the fact that curriculum requirements force them to choose their major subjects early in the college course. This occurs even though lower classmen are not well prepared to make vocational choices.

CULTURAL INFLUENCE ON CHOICE OF EMPLOYMENT

In many cultures family background and political or social position are the factors that determine occupations. Children are often induced to follow their parents' careers. Among businessmen and those in upper income brackets in the United States, there is a tendency to influence young people to enter the remunerative business of parents or relatives. However, many do not attain the skills and abilities essential to the craftsman and to supervisory and executive jobs of their parents, and so cannot replace them. Parents who are employed in low-paying jobs often discourage their children from entering their occupations. They naturally want them to advance in social and economic status.

Adults are sometimes hesitant in advising their offspring as to job selection lest their advice turn out badly. Ambivalent feelings exist, because parental desires for the betterment of children conflict with fears over the possibility of their making a poor vocational selection for them. Occasionally they resolve the dilemma by being overly optimistic or critical of their children. This may induce their progeny to seek jobs above their true capacities.

Parental desires are only one of the cultural influences that may exert pressure on the student. Social, economic, and educational aims of the student, as well as advice from relatives or others, may induce him to seek a job that is prestige-laden or seems secure.

To meet job requirements set by civil service agencies or professional licensing boards of the various states, certain training and technical education are necessary. If a student cannot meet these requirements, he may find it necessary to change his vocational objectives. Thus many who want to be physicians become biologists, chemists, technicians, and nurses, and others who want to be lawyers wind up as claim adjusters, administrators, and businessmen.

Additional elements that bear on occupational selection include experience in a desired job or similar work; job opportunity obtained through relatives or friends; counseling; capricious choice; and opportunity to demonstrate unusual talent.

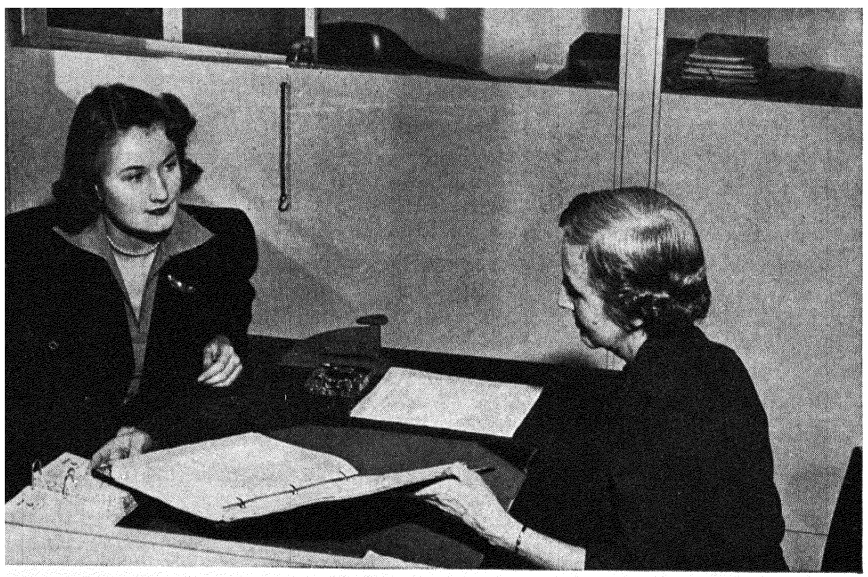
STAGES IN JOB SELECTION

The first idea that is formed of a person's future vocation frequently occurs accidentally. Radio, movies, TV, books, or a childhood idol are some of the means of introduction to the world of work. Sometimes these ideas about positions are images without basis, and they may have a fairy-tale type of glamorized appeal. Such concepts are hazy and inaccurate. When formulated, they are in harmony with the emotional pattern of the child. At this stage he sometimes identifies a favored adult with a desired job. Nowadays, school projects are being created even at the elementary school level to develop more realistic and less fantastic life ambitions. Industrial visits, audio-visual techniques, and vocational education are some of the measures being used.

These methods, besides help from relatives, books, and experience, bring knowledge about careers to the young person. During elementary and high school many new types of job enter into the young person's orbit of knowledge and desire. Further increase in occupational information comes through acquaintanceship with workers and through the peer group. In addition, job knowledge may be gained through part-time or summer work. Economic pressure, the realization of the power of money, prestige factors, and the development of the student's basic values expand the boundaries of vocational interest when he enters college.

Sometimes the student faces inner conflicts and open disagreements with his family. He may have to narrow his vocational aims just when his

Process of promotion of a college graduate in an organization using the best modern psychological test techniques. ABOVE: Applicant for secretary's job reads vacancy and test announcements. BELOW: Personnel department's interviewer finds applicant eligible for further tests.



ABOVE: Intelligence and skill tests taken by applicant. BELOW: Oral interview of applicant by management, personnel expert, and executive for whom she will work. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

horizon is expanding. These conflicts are frequently resolved by a haphazard attempt to match abilities against job requirements. If the student has insufficient or inaccurate information about industry and his own capacities, he may become confused. Emotional factors may color the situation and create a tendency for the student to analyze himself incorrectly. He may decide that his personal traits suit him for a particular kind of work to which he feels attracted, when the fact is that he does not have the necessary characteristics. In the same way, information from the library, psychological tests, as well as the advice of counselors and instructors, may be misinterpreted to confirm wishes rather than to establish facts about jobs. In such cases the use of the best psychological techniques and the latest information about jobs serves to compound rather than to lessen error. This emphasizes the importance of a sound and unemotional approach to the matter of job selection.

No matter what the basis for the choice of vocation made during college, there is usually a change after graduation. Studies show that 60 to 90 per cent of men change their occupation within ten years of their college graduation.

Despite the increased use of psychological techniques and the more intelligent approach to job selection, the final stage may depend on trial-and-error evaluation. This is not always completely haphazard; in industry, for example, training and personnel systems often assist in estimating the job capacity of an individual. This is necessary because even the most scientific examination of abilities throughout school and college can give only an estimate of potentiality. A person's effectiveness and happiness in a job determine his tenure in it. Inevitably, some unpredictable factors, such as chance, affect the last step in career selection—the eventual permanent job.

EMOTION IN VOCATIONAL SELECTION

Emotional factors often affect the student's choice of work. When a student is concerned about the future because he feels that his family or future spouse cannot and should not support him in graduate school, when he is uncertain about the amount of satisfaction he will derive from a family-favored job, when he is in fear of failure, or of the lessening of the opportunity to marry, and when he feels frustrated over family opposition to a desired job—in all such situations emotion is involved. When there is a question of a change from a desired occupation to one suited to individual capability, emotion puts up strong interference.

Unfortunately, the stigma of failure may be attached to a student who changes his vocational objective while he is in college. If this requires a shifting of his subjects, the family, relatives, or members of the peer group may jump to the conclusion that he failed in his plans or studies. Fear of such an evaluation may cause a student to persist in pursuing an unrealistic course, despite his knowledge that his basic interests and capacity warrant a change to a more attainable career objective.

There are many instances in which drives seem to compel students to pursue jobs for which psychological and other evidence indicate they cannot qualify. The part played by emotion in occupational choice is illustrated by the following case.

G. was a beautiful nineteen-year-old girl, a brilliant student through high school and the freshman and sophomore years in college. Because of her vibrant personality she was very popular, many of her admirers being of faiths different from that of her parents. She did not revolt against her parents' attempts at domination of her social life, but, after a chance contact with a stage producer who was impressed with her attractiveness and voice, she gave up her law-school plans, refused to elect the major for law school which her mother and father had planned for years, and shifted to a drama major.

G.'s father was a prominent lawyer. Her mother had been an unsuccessful actress before her marriage and insisted that her daughter should never have anything to do with the stage. Consequently, G. spent the rest of her college career in constant trouble with her family. She received poor grades and had regular secret meetings with show people despite her family's objections. This caused estrangement from her parents and led to her marriage, immediately after graduation, to an irregularly employed actor twice her age. Eventually she became unhappy and depressed because of her poverty-stricken existence. (The family income was derived from her husband's and her own infrequent bit parts.) The depth of her familial split over vocational choice was not lessened by her subsequent divorce and unfortunate personal maladjustment.

G.'s real vocational interest was the law. Her pursuit of this interest was thwarted because of her resentment over her family's domination and their insistence that she should avoid the stage. Her reaction to these parental attitudes became the reason for seeking a dramatic career and thus establishing her independence.

EFFECT OF LABOR MARKET ON JOBS

Certain fundamentals govern the general labor market. These are economic conditions, the trend of population concentration, working condi-

Factors in personnel policies that job applicants should investigate. ABOVE: Enlightened personnel manager cooperates with union officials in joint planning. BELOW: Training program in which supervisor and training expert assist new employee. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

tions, fads and fashions, the rise and decline of industries, national and state laws, national and international politics.

Jobs are naturally more plentiful when the national economy is at a high level. In such times new and growing commercial and industrial concerns tend to make the best offers for workers in terms of salary, fringe benefits, welfare services, vacations, and working conditions. On the other hand, in times when the national economy is at a relatively low level, requirements for any job become abnormally high. Education and training prerequisites for a job are most difficult to secure, and job applicants settle for much less favored welfare benefits and salary than their training merits. A year-around salary with no layoff, regardless of working conditions, becomes the most desired feature of a job. Then the depression-proof employers such as the government and insurance and financial concerns replace war- or inflation-expanded industries as desired employers. They represent long-term security, little tension, and more personal and paternalistic supervision.

These are a few of the many possibilities to be considered by the student, with his long- and short-term goals and his personality in mind. Each individual is different. The prospective worker should attempt to estimate whether a progressive or a conservative industry, changing or static working conditions give the greater promise of meeting his particular needs.[1]

MULTIPLICITY OF APTITUDES AND OPPORTUNITIES

A major indication of growth in an individual is the realization that he can creditably fill many positions. Vocational guidance is not a method to help a person arrive at "the one job" for which he thinks he is uniquely fitted. Many individuals have abilities that can be used in occupations that seem to be very different from each other. For instance, if a student likes mathematics, physics, and chemistry, but dislikes English, it is generally presumed he will want to be an engineer. But the same combination of scholastic preference has been found to hold true for farmer, chemist, dentist, physician, psychologist, and architect. Similarly, a student disliking mathematics, physics, and chemistry, but liking English, may be encouraged

[1] There are many agencies that publish objective, reliable information about jobs and labor-market conditions. Most libraries have such authoritative reference material. A book listing 40,000 job titles and describing 22,000 jobs in simple language is the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles,* published by the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1944.

by his teachers to be a lawyer, but similar constellations of subject preferences fit the salesman, actor, and newspaperman.

These facts lead to the observation that positions differ in the broad, generalized kinds of aptitudes that they require. The differences in job titles tend to encourage students to pursue overly specialized training, rather than to discover the abilities and training which would be helpful in several fields. It is noteworthy that employers usually would rather have applicants for nontechnical administrative posts with general knowledge than specific training. However, some parents press for and students seek technical education in a narrow specialty of industry that seems to them to be salable in the job market. Colleges are not equipped to give and industry does not demand half-technician—half-general-education graduates.

Commerce and industry have jobs about which many students are aware only in stereotypes. The department store, for instance, in addition to sales persons employs accountants, artists, interior and exterior display men, blueprint men, engineers, bookkeepers, credit men, complaint men, supervisors, administrators, personnel and training workers, librarians, cosmeticians, and advertising and fashion experts, whose specialties, training, and aptitudes are not directed toward selling goods over a counter.

EFFECT OF MORES AND VALUE JUDGMENTS

Mores are the customs of a culture that have a strong effect on ethical behavior. Group values are reflected in what people think is proper behavior, or what is accepted. The opinions of others may have much to do with the occupation selected by a student. For instance, adolescence is generally expected to be a time when youth enjoy themselves. It is socially accepted that pleasure seeking is an important part of teen-age life. But, spending time in fun conflicts to a varying degree with study and extra work in college. The pursuit of pleasure can be the cause of a student's preparing carelessly or not at all for a future vocation while in college. Seeking recreation and fun may create values quite different from those that would evolve from heavy work and study programs. Peer groups that are joined because of pleasure seeking differ from those that are work-centered.

However, in popular opinion, some peer groups literally combine these diverse elements. Joining a fraternity, for example, is a social venture which many students think creates "contacts" or "connections." These may have potential value in the quest for desirable jobs after graduation; on the other hand, some studies show that students living in fraternity houses score

lower academic grades than those who live in dormitories, at home, or as roomers with private families. The acceptance of fraternity membership may conflict with the pressure to study and work hard and thus gain an advantage over laggard students in the competition for high grades and good jobs. There is a probability that fraternity membership affects students' job opportunities. The vital point is that popular stereotypes may or may not be accurate. If an individual bases his decisions about his vocation on personal scrutiny of the facts, the decisions may go contrary to custom but the chances are that they will be effective for him.

Just as our mores establish the teens as enjoyment time, so do they set up certain ages at which people normally are expected to enter college, to graduate from college, to marry, to start their business careers. Veterans, prospective draftees, wives in both these groups, students who are several years younger or older than the average college student—all face the pressure of their age when they are in college preparing for a vocation. This is because the mores tend to influence the age at which one is expected to become self-supporting, get married and raise a family. The number of years in training and educational preparation has a definite bearing on whether or not a certain profession or occupation should be selected. The prestige values of some professions compensate for the necessary delay in being admitted to them. Thus one custom—that of becoming self-supporting at the age of graduation from college—is altered by another—that of delaying the stage of self-support in order to pursue a professional goal.

INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTABILITY

The various aspects of career selection place upon the college student conflicting pressures that are usually settled by compromise. Long-term objectives may be unattainable and require the substitution of new short-term goals that can be achieved. For instance, long-term goals such as becoming an author, marrying several years after graduation when able to build a comfortable home, may be delayed or changed by selecting ROTC courses, planning marriage and military service immediately after graduation, and living at a military post.

The foregoing is a typical example of college students' adjustability. They are confronted with rapidly changing situations which sometimes involve the need for simple or radical modifications in their plans for a career. The changes are usually made after investigation of various factors and a realistic appraisal of their own ideas. These may be in agreement or disagreement with the requirements of home, college, and community.

Students face a problem in the pressure of time upon them caused by circumstances beyond their control, such as Selective Service or graduate school requirements. They have claims for gratification of their own desires in play, yet peer groups which further the desire to play are in conflict with the present need to work hard in college to attain a satisfactory future start toward success.

College students are in a better position to compromise and to make new occupational choices than many others. This is because they usually do not have to support themselves or contribute to their families. Also, the pressure of time is not as strong on college students as it is on heads of families or on young persons who are already an important source of family income.

EFFECT OF SOCIAL STATUS ON CAREER CHOICE

Another influence that may cause students to select white-collar, prestige-laden jobs or blue-collar jobs is their social status. For example, college students may accept popular stereotypes that require them to be interested in jobs worthy of their social position. This is because a college student is usually considered to be a real or potential leader in his community, whether it is a small town or a block in a metropolitan area. In some circles college training is a social prerequisite having little to do with the accumulation of knowledge it presumably represents. The social characteristics of higher education have some effect upon what students think are proper jobs for them. The favored position that college training affords college students in the employment market serves to create certain illusions among them. Such irrational concepts are revealed by employers who report that the inflated ideas of students as to their value to industry sometimes causes them to select vocational objectives beyond their capabilities.

Despite the relatively favored position of college students, some of those from families with low incomes seek to obtain from college courses specific job preparation which is not inherent in them. These students are sometimes pressed by their parents to take only "practical" courses. These will presumably help the students to obtain jobs in fields which seem to offer adequate security, such as civil service and teaching. Many of these parents and their offspring favor the fields of engineering, medicine, dentistry, chemistry, and physics. This is because they may offer opportunities for high incomes and many job possibilities.

This desire for vocational training by many college students and their parents reveals the need for a more realistic understanding of employment

policies. This will aid individuals in their vocational adjustment. The Mid-century White House Conference on Children and Youth reports [2]: "Repeatedly, studies have found that from 75 to 95 per cent of all jobs require little or no training of a specific kind, that such specific skills as are required can be gained in short periods of training, and that for the most part this training is now gained on the job."

Because students of low economic status often lack accurate information about professions and other job opportunities, they may be too dependent on college instructors and counselors for direction as to vocational goals. There is a tendency of these college youths to follow the pattern of many high school students from families with low incomes. They drop their studies prematurely. Both groups get their first jobs with relatively little knowledge of facts which vocational counselors can offer to help their counselees. Sometimes they take any kind of job, doing little, if any, vocational planning. When such a change is made, from the dependency and protection of school to the independence and competition of business, it increases the chances of vocational maladjustment. The fears of possibly not fitting into the first job, of failing to be promoted, of being discharged have ominous possibilities for these individuals. Such difficulties may add to the tension caused by the routine nature of most first full-time jobs.

All the factors affecting job selection, such as capacity, value judgments, interests, job information, and capabilities, require integration in terms of each person's adjustability. This may be difficult owing to current confusion in adolescents' thinking about fundamentals such as the values of various jobs, and future opportunities, and the nature of work. Each person is affected differently by the fact that working as a major activity may decrease the importance of the individual, because of the increasing mechanization of industry.

Because of the emphasis placed upon success generally and work success particularly, achievement is vital to a healthy personality. People vary in their capabilities for job attainment and in their capacity to withstand the disappointments, the tensions, the physical and other difficulties of various positions. Nevertheless, the individual's ability to adjust to his employment and have a satisfactory work life is usually a product of his confidence that he can do his job, that he can use his abilities to advance to higher jobs; and that he can be identified with tasks that he has done

[2] Helen Leland Witmer and Ruth Kotinsky, *Personality in the Making,* The Fact Finding Report of the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, p. 298, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1952.

well. Although there are some who have little desire for advancement, most persons object to the frustrations of either unemployment or being in a job that is a "dead end," too easy or too difficult.

Although experience with a depression labor market is more prevalent among present-day parents than among adolescents, the latter have experienced considerable amounts of unemployment in periods of relative prosperity. For example, in 1947 a special study was made of boys and girls sixteen through nineteen years of age who were out of school and working or who wanted to work, in Louisville, Kentucky. Eighteen per cent of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds and 30 per cent of the sixteen-year-olds were unemployed. Many of them had been idle for months. The January, 1950, figures of the Bureau of the Census indicate that young people seeking jobs in which to get started constituted a large and significant proportion of the nation's unemployed.[3]

PERSONAL CAPACITY AND JOB REQUIREMENTS

Vocational selection has been oversimplified by many as a result of the belief that an individual can learn his capacity through psychological tests and then look for a job that uses the abilities presumably disclosed by the tests. The diversity of abilities, job requirements, and personality greatly complicate the process of matching job to ability.

Personality traits seem to turn retiring, shy persons toward an interest in mechanics and ideas rather than in people and social contacts. Conversely, youngsters who have had stimulating experiences with their age mates and others are more favorably inclined toward jobs involving relations with people.

Typology, or typing of personalities by the various testing methods, does not materially aid career selection. This is because most studies on types of traits have been concerned with abnormal personalities.

Association tests are now being used in trying to ascertain the trait patterns of individuals for the purpose of matching them to jobs. In this connection, many variables must be considered. One of them is temperament, or the feeling quality a person has or seems to have in the opinion of others. This is a variable that cannot be made objective. Similarly, character cannot be easily evaluated by tests of the individual based on his attempts to estimate his total capacity. Another factor in trying to estimate capacity is range of interests. It has some bearing on aptitude but little on ability. Interest increases with skill acquisition and is a matter of

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 298.

Vocational counseling. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)

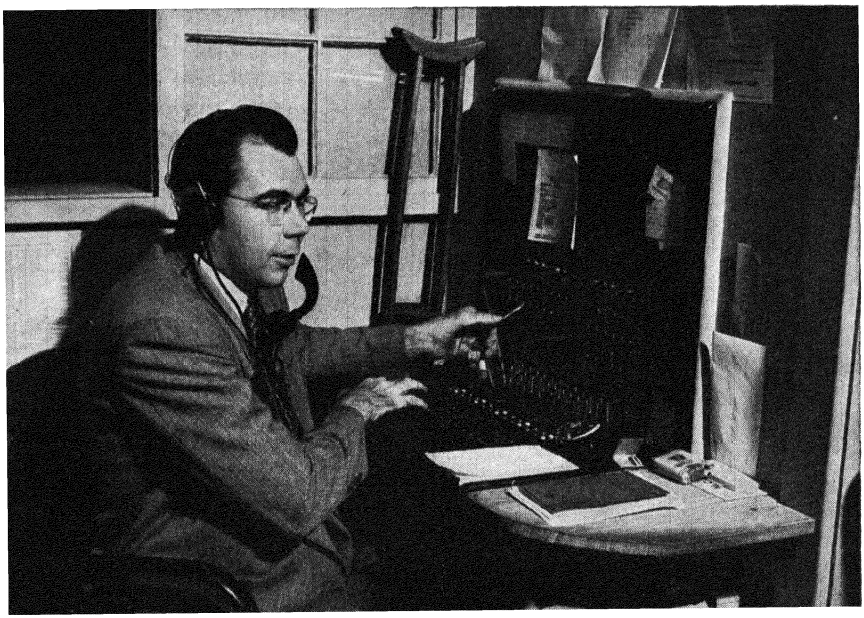
concern when trying to match personal capacity and job requirements. But interest in work does not indicate ability to do it.

Strong motivation and interest usually indicate some potentiality to acquire the training or skills needed on a desired job. The real test of ability is the achievement of success in challenging work. That some relation does exist between intelligence and interest is shown by the fact that brighter students select more difficult subjects than do dull ones. However, there is not enough research information available to justify the conclusion that success in any one job is predictable on the basis of ability, interest, and aptitude.

A five-year study, carried out by Anne Roe, a clinical psychologist, has delved into the backgrounds and attributes of 64 of the leading scientists in the United States. While no cut and dried picture of the "average" eminent scientist emerged, certain qualities did stand out:

The typical scientist was the first-born son of an upper-middle-class family. Only two of the scientists were the sons of skilled workers. Thirty-nine were their parents' first children, and five others were eldest sons.

More than half of the scientists chose their careers during their junior or senior year in college—often as the result of a research experience under a teacher who encouraged pupils to work independently.



Industry employs the disabled according to individual capabilities. Motivation and interest add potentiality for work. Handicapped worker operates telephone switchboard following job analysis and study of physical limitations. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

Although early interests varied, the scientists generally did a great deal of reading. They enjoyed working with mechanical gadgets, and the biologists often showed an early interest in nature study.

All of the group had high I.Q.'s. No standard tests were difficult enough for them.

The greatest contrast was revealed between the natural and the social scientists. The natural scientists tended to be shy and aloof as boys. They had only a mild interest in girls, didn't date until college, and had a relatively stable married life. The social scientists, who showed more concern about personal relationships, were also more gregarious and social. They started dating early and were frequently "big shots" in college. Among this group, 41 per cent had been divorced.[4]

The early use of all the counseling assistance obtainable in matching a person's capacity to occupational requirements is a prudent step in job selection. That desirable outcomes follow from such procedures is indicated by a recent evaluation of college vocational services in one of the

[4] *Guidance Newsletter,* March, 1953, Science Research Associates, Chicago.

largest personnel service departments in the country (Brooklyn College). Clearly estimating faults, prejudices, and abilities by using available techniques gives some picture of potential capacity. By establishing long-term goals that are consonant with value judgments, the matching process is expedited because this eliminates a number of positions. A job's permanence, location, salary, fringe benefits, physical requirements, future associations, social standing, and limitations are additional factors to be considered.

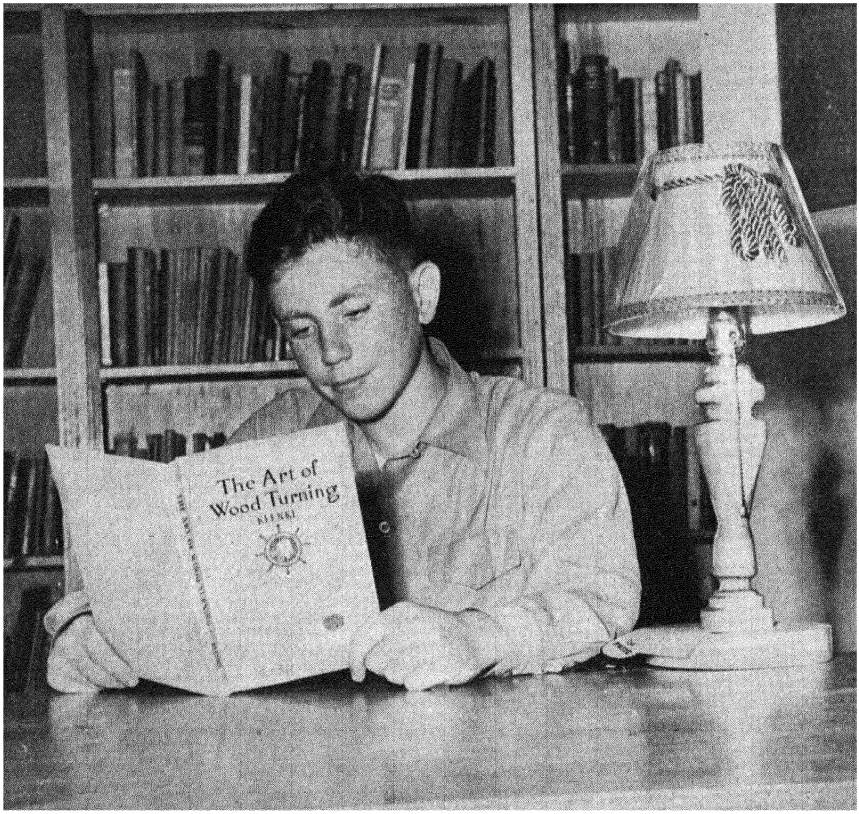
Students should not try to convince themselves that they are looking for the one job for which they are uniquely fitted. It is rarely the case that there is one perfect job. They will act most effectively if they realize that adjustment to most jobs is possible. On the other hand, it is not desirable for them to feel that once a job is selected it is their final vocational objective. Owing to unforeseeable factors, even where the utmost care is exercised in its selection, a job may turn out to be unsuitable.

SUMMARY

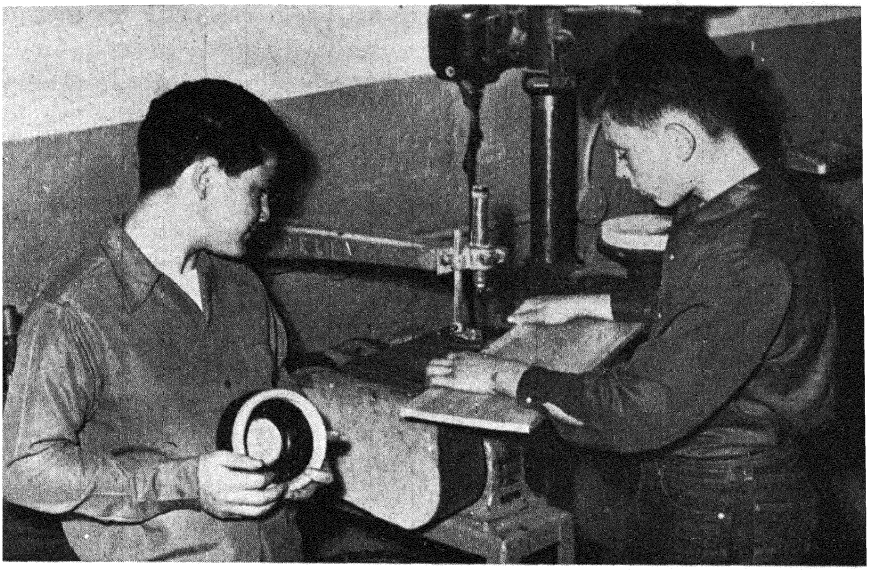
Career selection is a long-term growth process which a college course brings close to conclusion. Many childhood factors affect attitudes toward jobs. Some are like dreams because they are unrealistic hopes brought about by identification with or idealization of childhood heroes. Family hopes, fears of failure, economic pressures, the current labor market, aptitudes, interests, and value judgments all affect a student's choice of work.

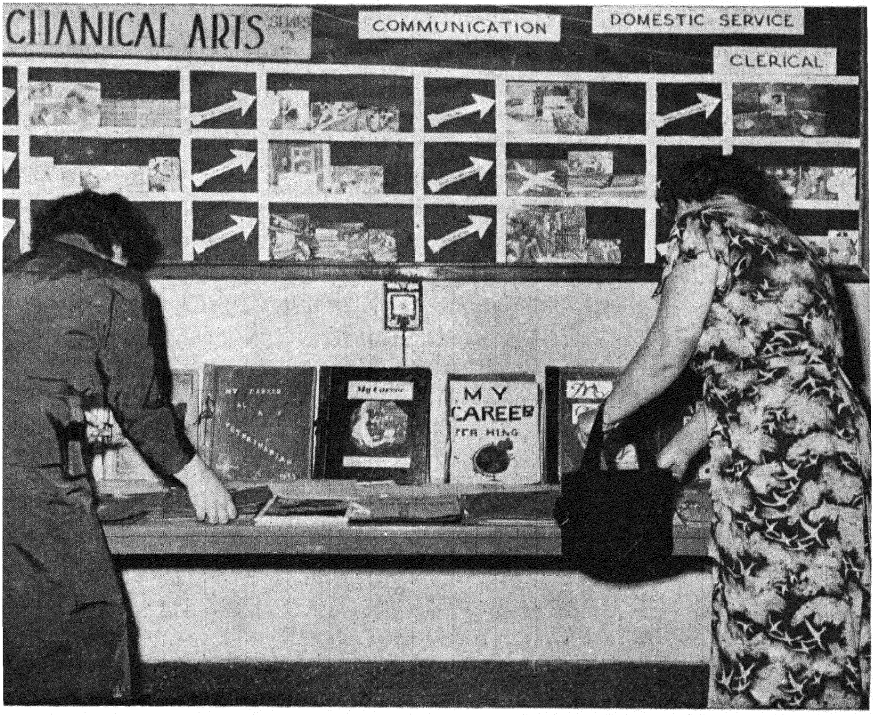
Colleges require certain major areas of specialization, the selection of which hastens and coordinates much of the student's loose thinking about his future career. Similarly, the attitudes of his peer group, his own position in pleasure seeking versus duty, his job experiences, and information about industry color the choices he makes in major courses in college and in the positions he seeks after graduation.

The way the student regards life, his short- and long-term goals, as well as his acceptance or rejection of the current group opinions of our culture, decree to some extent what work he will seek. Counseling and psychological tests are valuable tools in helping the student to understand his own abilities and those needed for jobs in which he is interested. In analyzing his capacities it is difficult to avoid prejudice in favor of glamorized or desired jobs. It is equally hard to prevent the merging of interest with ability, desire with skill. Contrariwise, the final choice cannot be delegated to psychological tests, family, or the difficulty or ease of admission to graduate schools or certain understaffed defense industries.



Vocational guidance starts early in progressive school system. ABOVE, career booklets, prepared after conferences with guidance experts, parents, tours of metropolitan New York businesses, and (RIGHT, ABOVE), work experience, are desirable early vocational aids to junior high school students. RIGHT, BELOW, parental interest is manifest in exhibit of the booklets with PTA cooperation during Open School Week. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)




CHANICAL ARTS
COMMUNICATION
DOMESTIC SERVICE
CLERICAL
MY CAREER

The student must attempt to analyze the basic reason for his selection of a job, at the same time being fully aware that there is no such thing as "the one job" for him. He should know that each person has many abilities available for use in various kinds of jobs. He can set attainable employment goals that can be changed without causing maladjustment through the failure to achieve primary objectives.

The ability to work toward attainable, intelligently selected goals is an indication of satisfactory personal adjustment. Frustration results from pursuing those that are unattainable; on the other hand, goals that present no challenge do not arouse maximum or even normal striving. The lack of specific objectives provokes aimlessness and procrastination, and delays the advent of full adulthood. The measure of a man is often reflected in the wisdom of his career selection.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Recall the jobs you chose as your vocation when you were young and the influences that caused such choices.
2. Outline parental job objectives that you think were unrealistically chosen for their children and determine why they were selected.
3. Why do many American parents tend to discourage their children from following in their footsteps as to occupation?
4. How do colleges affect occupational choice?
5. What have value judgments to do with jobs?
6. Outline the effect interest has on work.
7. Ask your psychology instructor or counselor about some psychological tests that might help you select a field of employment, and describe such tests.
8. Name some customs that affect the choice of a job.
9. What is wrong with the common-sense phrase "a square peg in a round hole" when considered in the light of modern psychological research?
10. Name five long-term and five short-term goals that you could strive for, but that you might have to modify because of changes in the present international situation.

REFERENCES

Baer, M. F., and E. C. Roeber, *Occupational Information,* Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1951.

Bedford, J. H., *Your Future Job,* Society for Occupational Research, Ltd., Los Angeles, 1950.

Brewer, John, and Edward Landy, *Occupations Today,* Ginn & Company, Boston, 1949.

Douglass, W. A., and Paul Bancroft, III, *Career: The Annual Guide to Business Opportunities,* Career Inc., Chicago, 1952.

Kitson, H. D., *How to Find the Right Vocation,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

Kitson, H. D., *I Find My Vocation,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1947.

Myers, G. E., Gladys M. Little, and Sarah A. Robinson, *Planning Your Future,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1953.

Panzer, Martin, *Raise Your Sights,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1947.

PART 4

Community and Social Adjustment

The principles and teachings of social psychology are being applied to improve interpersonal relations between the individual and society. However, much still remains to be done in this area. The need for social adjustments created by the forces growing out of prejudice, discrimination, propaganda, and competition has become increasingly apparent. These are evidences of social weakness in our democracy. The wholesome development of our nation requires that these antisocial phenomena be eliminated, controlled, and corrected in so far as that is possible.

The following chapters on Community and Social Adjustment describe the causes and the negative effects of these phenomena. People who are aware of the antisocial uses to which they are put will be in an effective position to counteract these unwholesome influences in our society.

In order to be socially useful, the educated individual must cooperate in organizing the competing forces of the mechanistic society in which we live. These forces will tend to split his interests, to confound him as to principles, and to deflect him from exercising his best judgment in interpersonal relations. The mastering of such forces in so far as they impinge upon him requires knowledge of them as well as of the positive and negative fac-

tors of our culture. Only through a realistic recognition of these social drives, and the possibilities of individual power to shape and guide them, can an effective plan of personal action be evolved and followed.

Intelligent behavior depends in no small part on comprehension of these particulars of our culture and on the ability to select a pattern of life that recognizes the desirability and the danger of certain goals, motivations, and desires. There is certainly need to comprehend the methods and the motives of those who would prevent the real exercise of individual judgment.

CHAPTER 14

SCAPEGOAT AND STEREOTYPE

The term scapegoat has an interesting history. The use of scapegoats is apparently an ancient custom reaching back into prehistoric times. It is fully described in the Book of Leviticus.[1]

The use of goats as scapegoats by the ancient Hebrews was applied particularly on the Day of Atonement. The high priest, placing both hands on the head of the he-goat, made solemn confession of all the nation's sins. By this ceremony these sins were conceived as being not only symbolically, but actually, transferred to the head of the goat, which was then solemnly conducted to a solitary land. In New Testament times the goat was led to a lofty precipice in the wilderness about twelve miles east of Jerusalem, over which it was thrown backwards, to be dashed to death on the rocks below.

SCAPEGOATS IN PRIMITIVE SOCIETY

It is interesting to note that similar customs have been practiced among primitive peoples in various parts of the world. The attempt is made to transfer sins, pain, evils, and ill luck to an animal or to a human being, in a specific ceremony. Then the scapegoat—animal or human—is sacrificed or driven away, and thus the evils are symbolically dispelled.

Primitive man is often warlike for reasons which have parallels in civilized society. Aside from the factors of fear and suspicion of neighbors, who in turn may be predatory and warlike, he is evidently in need of a

[1] 16:5, 7–10, 21, 22, 26.

scapegoat. The intertribal raids may be based on the objective of obtaining sacrificial victims to be used as ceremonial scapegoats. Among the primitive Melanesians, living on a chain of islands off the east coast of Australia, the failure of crops or of hunting and fishing expeditions is blamed on the evil activities of their neighbors.

Primitive man fears the unknown and the forces of nature. In the process of his daily existence he seeks ways and means of ridding himself of evils—and of doing so periodically. Usually the interval between such ceremonies of scapegoating is a year and the time coincides with some well-marked change in season. The increased mortality which climatic changes often bring about among ill-fed, ill-clothed, and ill-housed peoples is usually attributed by primitive man to demons and evil spirits. He then sets about to get rid of them. Some communities of India hold their general clearance of demons at harvest time, others at sowing time. Before entering on a new year people are anxious to rid themselves of the troubles (evils, ills, demons) that have harassed them in the past.

SCAPEGOAT THEORY

An important step in understanding prejudice was the formulation by psychologists of the frustration-aggression theory. This has been called the scapegoat theory. Studies of human behavior have shown that people prevented from doing the things they want to do are unhappy. This state of mind is frustration. When frustrated, an individual is likely to strike at somebody else or to try to make another person unhappy, that is, to become aggressive.

When frustrated individuals cannot hit back at the specific situations that make them unhappy, they seek out a substitute, or scapegoat. The unhappy choice may fall upon an overburdened mother, father, or other relative, an office secretary, or a fellow student or employee. In any event, the scapegoat is an innocent victim of someone else's state of frustration, aggressiveness, troubles, or anger.

SCAPEGOATER TYPES

Scapegoating tendencies may rise or fall according to circumstances. There are certain chronic types whose nature it is important to understand. Recent studies suggest the existence of five well-defined classes. They are as follows:

Compulsive Scapegoater. For many people prejudice is the mainspring of their mental life; scapegoating is for them a compulsive activity. It is

among such persons that pathologically warped minds are found. Obsessed by delusions of persecution, such individuals may believe, for instance, that the Jews in their community are trying to ruin their business, destroy their church, or otherwise bring calamity upon them. Or, they may charge there is a deep Catholic conspiracy to take over the country. Not all those who are affected by such delusions are recognized as being mentally ill and, in that sense, legally insane. Some of them are in hospitals or sanatoria for mental patients. They are diagnosed by psychiatrists as suffering from paranoia, a chronic mental disease characterized by delusions of persecution.

Paranoiacs quite frequently escape psychiatric attention for a considerable period. This is because they are often so capable in marshaling presumed facts that they succeed in convincing their relatives, friends, and community officials that their delusions are actually true. Such paranoiacs may become aggressive and attempt to attack and take revenge on their presumed persecutors. They proclaim their intent to fight back, prepare and distribute scandalous literature, or organize and incite others to join them in violent acts upon the scapegoats. Unfortunately, psychiatry, psychoanalysis, and psychology have thus far failed in the attempt to rid such individuals of their socially harmful delusions.

Thwarted Scapegoater. It is an accepted axiom, based on careful study, that those who find their jobs and incomes fairly satisfying are much less likely to feel hostility toward minority groups than others who are dissatisfied with their economic status. This phenomenon indicates that for some people of aggressive temperament scapegoating is a phase of displaced hostility stemming from continuous frustration. If a person who is unhappy with his job blames a minority group for his dilemma, he is clearly blaming the designated individuals for a state of affairs for which they are in no way responsible. Those who resort to aggressive scapegoating to work out their fears and frustrations show an inability to cope with personal problems in a realistic and adaptive manner.

Some frustrated individuals seem to feel their own worth only when they succeed in pulling down others. There are those who apparently crave the excitement of hate, accusation, and witch-hunting in order to offset the dullness and deprivations in their own lives. It was noted that some of the people who lost their homes in Maine forest fires a few years ago seemingly took a grim and irrational pleasure in accusing Communists of causing the fires. To blame the dry woods resulting from lack of rain

would not have served the purpose of providing a scapegoat. Some tangible individuals had to be selected.

Unhappy in their family circles, dissatisfied with their jobs and rate of promotion, or uneasy over the lack of customers or clients, many individuals turn against friends and acquaintances, fellow workers, and even strangers, to work off their aggressive feelings. The selection of a scapegoat is an outlet which brings some measure of temporary emotional satisfaction to these individuals.

Conventionalist Scapegoater. There are many people who have a curiously defensive and bigoted philosophy of life. At first contact they seem to be thoroughly conventional and conservative. They are often church members (though not genuinely religious), they are patriotic in a conventional sense, they join clubs and fraternal organizations; thus they build up their sense of security by identifying themselves with safe in-groups. Such individuals are found to be strangely lacking in self-knowledge. They seem to be characterized by inability to use their imaginations and consider another's point of view. Whatever they do tends to fall into a rigid habit pattern.

Further, they may be afraid to face life unless they are following conventional paths of safe conduct. Being fearful, they tend to be suspicious of their neighbors, fellow workers, and others with whom they come in contact, whether frequently or only occasionally or even not at all. When such a pattern of traits is encountered, it is generally associated with projective blaming of others for all the inconveniences and difficulties met in the course of daily existence. Such individuals are usually anti–out-group, whatever the out-group may represent—in race, religion, color, or nationality. This type of scapegoating is a milder form than others. At the same time, it interferes with social development and places difficulties in the way of interpersonal relations even on a restricted basis.

Conforming Scapegoater. The compulsive, thwarted, and conventionalist types of persons manifest some disorder in their personal lives. As a result, they unconsciously tend to select and punish a scapegoat. There are, in addition, those who are merely thoughtless and inclined to join others when exposed to their ways. Many in this category would not select or pick on a scapegoat of their own free will, but do so if the group of which they are a part seems to expect such conduct. A further characteristic of these individuals is that they prefer not to stand out against their own group or to follow an independent line of action.

If the collective decision appears to be not to mingle with Negroes or

Mexicans, Catholics, Jews, or Baptists, the conforming scapegoater follows the determined pattern. If rumors or slanders are current in his group, he is inclined to repeat them thoughtlessly and without compunction. When violence breaks out, he may join the crowd in order to maintain his position with them. As previously indicated, the conforming scapegoater may be a moral and physical weakling. He is not, however, aggressive or mentally disordered.

Calculating Scapegoater. The calculating scapegoater is apt to be a demagogue, an orator or leader who seeks to influence people by arousing and pandering to their prejudices and passions. Within recent years, several such individuals have been brought to court. Some have been sent to prison on various charges. A demagogue is able to recognize the various types of scapegoater amenable to his purposes, and to play on their ignorance, fears, frustrations, and aggressive attitudes, exploiting their weaknesses to his own advantage, financial and other. By assuming leadership he obtains money from them for devious purposes, including membership in so-called patriotic, political, and pseudo-religious organizations; the purchase of uniforms and insignia; and the publication of "hate" sheets. Such demagogues have appeared on the American scene with comparative frequency, especially during times of national emergency and economic stress when the attempts to find scapegoats have been most evident.

SCAPEGOATING ON A NATIONAL BASIS

Frustration, as has been indicated, plays an important part in the causation of scapegoating. Other related factors are feelings of insecurity which may have economic, social, or psychological bases. The emergence of Mussolini and his Fascist followers, of Hitler and his Nazis, was in large measure made possible by the disturbed social, political, and, more especially, economic conditions in Italy and Germany following the First World War. The spread of Fascist and Nazi concepts to other totalitarian countries likewise followed economic and related disruptions. In Italy, various groups were made the scapegoats and maligned, attacked, and often imprisoned. In Germany the Jews were made the chief scapegoats and blamed for defeat during the First World War and the economic distress that followed. Russia and her satellites have used the Jews, the Catholic Church, and large or moderately large landowners as scapegoats, holding they threaten the existence of the regimes in power. Both the Communists and the Nazis projected upon selected groups of scapegoats all the blame for situations for which the victims had little, if any, responsibility, all evi-

dence to the contrary notwithstanding. They were not concerned with the truth; their primary interest was to select scapegoats belonging to minority groups who would become symbols of disruptive influences in the respective countries.

The tendency to seek out scapegoats has been evident even in the United States in times of national emergency. During the Second World War, fears of spies and saboteurs, coupled with anxiety for the national safety and the possibility of subversive activity, created many scapegoat situations. The internment of all Pacific Coast Japanese-Americans for many months is an outstanding example of anxiety-motivated scapegoating. The grossly deceitful and unwarranted attack on Pearl Harbor understandably aroused anti-Japanese feelings in Honolulu to a high pitch. And yet, many loyal Japanese-Americans there were put in the scapegoat category without any evidence of complicity on their part.

It is apparent, however, that a democracy ordinarily is much less inclined to make political, racial, religious, and economic groups into scapegoats than is a totalitarian state. Perhaps a major reason for this is that in a democracy there is always a rival political party—usually the "ins"—who can be blamed by the dissatisfied and frustrated for the troubles that face the country as a whole and disgruntled individuals in particular.

SCAPEGOAT VICTIMS

The selection of a scapegoat is dependent upon several factors. Those selected as scapegoats usually present some characteristic physical trait, such as color of skin, or have some other distinguishing feature, such as a foreign accent, or have religious affiliations and customs which readily classify them as different from the majority with which the frustrated and persecuting individuals are identified.

The victim of scapegoating usually belongs to a minority group and is often unable to fight back effectively. Scapegoating has led to race riots, loss of jobs, inability to get jobs for which training and experience have qualified individuals, boycotting of business establishments, restrictions in union membership, etc.

There would, of course, be no point in trying to work off frustrations through verbal or physical means unless the victims of scapegoating were accessible. Therefore, such individuals are selected as are not only easily identified and members of minority groups but are also readily available for the expression of aggressive attitudes, in whatever form they may take. Sometimes the idea of using a particular group as scapegoats is accepted

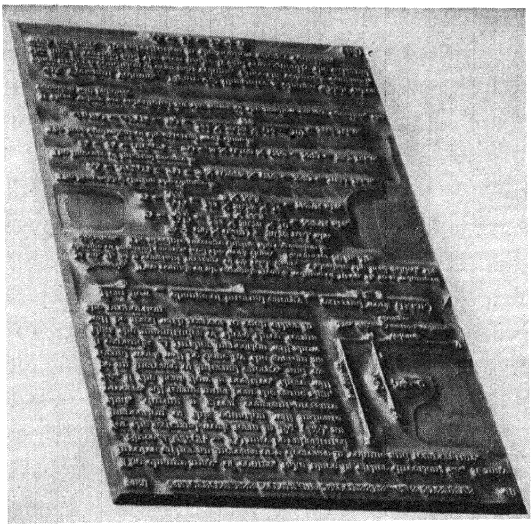
as a reality before the individual victims are even seen. This happens, for instance, in cases of anti-Semitism found in some small and isolated communities in which no Jew has ever lived. Such a phenomenon has certain historic causes; it stems from a long era of misplaced hatred passed on from generation to generation.

Scapegoat-victims necessarily try to find effective ways out of the dilemmas which they face. They cannot accept the blame which has been unjustly placed upon them. One measure open to them is that of actually denying to themselves that scapegoating and aggression really exist; or, they can accept the fact with resignation and try to meet its consequences as best they can. Still another way is to deny their origin, their religious affiliation, and to attempt in every way possible to make themselves over to fit the pattern of the local majority. A most effective way, though it may involve many difficulties and the possibility of retaliation, is to fight back, to insist by all available legal and other measures on their rights as human beings and citizens. The enactment of protective legislation such as fair employment practice laws is tangible evidence that the battle against some forms of scapegoating can be won.

REDUCTION OF SCAPEGOATING

Communal scapegoating can be dealt with, in part at least, through the development of good will and understanding among the different racial, religious, and cultural groups in a community. But such steps in themselves are inadequate remedies unless more effective measures are taken to reduce the extent of frustration and the accompanying aggressive attitudes among individuals.

As has been pointed out, a sense of economic insecurity, with attendant feelings of frustration, anxiety, failure, and futility, is the basic cause of much scapegoating. In proportion as effective steps are taken to reduce irregularity of work, inadequate wages, and the high cost of living, as well as to eliminate certain restrictions on job holding and provide adequate housing and educational opportunities, the feeling of frustration will be diminished. While attitudes cannot be readily changed, it is safe to assume that individuals and groups in whom feelings of frustration and fear are absent will be less prone to become victims of demagogues and will be more apt to deal with their fellow men fairly and in a spirit of justice.



A stereotype. (Courtesy of McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.)

STEREOTYPE

The term stereotype has its origin in the printing industry (from the Greek *stereos,* "solid"). It is a solid metal plate cast from a papier-mâché (molded paper pulp) or other material of a piece of printing composed in movable type. A number of plates can be cast from the original mold. The term was first used by psychiatrists more than fifty years ago to describe the frequent and almost mechanical repetition of patterns of behavior. Thus, Church and Peterson [2] used the term as follows: "Occasionally one encounters . . . a tendency to the repetition of some restricted voluntary movement in a rhythmical stereotyped way for days, weeks, months at a time. Such stereotyped motions may be simple anteroposterior (front and back) oscillations, lateral oscillations, whirling, walking to and fro or in a circle, waving the hands rhythmically." This behavior is especially characteristic of certain types of schizophrenia, a form of chronic mental disease.

The term is also defined as anything repeated or reproduced without variation, or anything conforming to a fixed general pattern and undistinguished by individual marks of identification.

Walter Lippmann [3] was apparently the first to use the term stereotype in

[2] A. Church and Frederick Peterson, *Nervous and Mental Diseases,* 3d ed., p. 696, W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia, 1901.

[3] Walter Lippmann, *Public Opinion,* p. 81, by permission of The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922.

an extended sense to define a set of ideas and attitudes that are a composite of *pictures in our own minds*. "For the most part we do not first see, and then define. We define first, and then see. In the great, blooming, buzzing confusion of the outer world we pick out what our culture has already defined for us, and then we tend to perceive that which we have picked out in the form stereotyped for us by our culture." Lippmann thus emphasized that in a complicated world men cannot have an accurate picture of reality. Consequently, they accept stereotypes which represent ideas and attitudes pleasing to them. Thus their own behavior is influenced in directions which affect interpersonal relations, whether the accepted stereotypes are valid or not. A sterotype may have no firmer basis than a prejudice or a vague feeling about individuals or groups.

Lippmann also wrote: [4] "Americanization, for example, is superficially at least the substitution of American for European stereotypes. Thus the peasant who might see his landlord as if he were the lord of the manor, his employer as he saw the local magistrate, is taught by Americanization to see the landlord and employer according to American standards."

Lippmann held that the complexity of modern life often makes it impossible to know others well enough to judge them fairly. Instead, we notice a specific trait which is characteristic of a well-known type, and we fill in the rest of the picture by means of the stereotypes we carry about in our minds. While stereotypes have their specific function in daily life, there is considerable hazard when they are used indiscriminately. This is particularly true when the welfare and happiness of those to whom stereotyped thinking is applied are not considered. If our actions are governed in considerable measure by such a process of thinking, we are in danger of serious misjudgments and of the development of a philosophy of life which will be unduly colored by half-truths, misconceptions, and prejudices.

For instance, when an individual is observed speaking at a street corner or addressing an audience in a hall, there is a tendency to apply a stereotype to him. The one that comes to mind will depend on our ideas and attitudes. If we have accepted a stereotype such as "agitator," "Red," "Bolshevik," "Communist," "Socialist," "rabble rouser," then whenever such a speaker is observed one or more of these ideas or stereotypes come to mind. This may be totally unfair and inaccurate in specific instances. It is evident that the molding of public opinion by the use of certain kinds of stereotypes can have individually and socially undesirable results.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 85.

STEREOTYPES IN THE PUBLIC PRESS

Few persons have the time, the knowledge, or perhaps the inclination to meet the many obvious and subtle demands society makes upon them. They, therefore, go along the easiest path from an intellectual point of view, without being too critical or analytical of what they hear over the radio or read in their daily newspapers. They agree with their favorite commentator and, in general, approve of all that he says. This noncritical attitude may likewise extend to the daily newspaper, even though an individual may boast publicly that he does not believe what he reads in the daily press or in popular magazines. The coloring of news items and articles may, and usually does, escape him altogether.

An excellent example relating to this facet of stereotypes is supplied by word lists culled from a news item as reported in New York and in Chicago newspapers.[5]

New York	*Chicago*
Progressive	Radical
Senate investigation	Government witch-hunting
Regulation	Regimentation
Maritime leader	Communist CIO leader
Labor organizer	Labor agitator
Home relief	The dole
Crop control	Farm dictatorship
Nonstrikers	Loyal workers
Investigator	Inquisitor
CIO chieftain	CIO dictator
Foreign	Alien
Picketing	Mass picketing

The evident attempt of the New York newspaper to be factual and to use no extreme terms is counterbalanced by the emotional, provocative terms applied by the Chicago publication. It is clear how ideas, attitudes, and prejudices can be influenced by the public press.

An attitude is a mental or emotional state of readiness growing out of experience and exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon an individual's responses to persons and situations. Our attitudes are colored by the cultural, social, economic, and other influences to which we are exposed. Many of our attitudes or tendencies to respond favorably or unfavorably are acquired early in life. For instance, prejudices to which we may give expression often have their roots in childhood observations and influences.

The way in which attitudes are built up out of experience is through ac-

[5] S. S. Sargent, "Emotional Stereotypes in the Chicago Tribune," *Sociometry,* Vol. 2, pp. 69–75, 1939.

cretion, that is, through the integration of numerous specific responses of a similar type. In the beginning, an infant has two nonspecific attitudes, namely, approaching and avoiding. From these he must segregate action-patterns and conceptual systems which will supply him with adequate attitudes for the direction of his adaptive conduct.

A permanent attitude may be formed following a single, intense emotional experience. Many can trace certain fears, dislikes, prejudices, and predilections to dramatic incidents of childhood. Sometimes the sources of these early fixations are suppressed and forgotten. The resulting attitude, though strong, seems to be of unknown origin, though it may be accessible to memory.

Through the imitation of parents, teachers, or playmates, attitudes are occasionally adopted ready-made. Even before a child has an adequate background of appropriate experience, he may form many intense and lasting attitudes, such as those toward races, religions, marriage, morality, foreigners, servants, etc. It frequently happens that subsequent experience is fitted into the attitude adopted uncritically.

ATTITUDE OR STEREOTYPE PERPETUATION

In a study of attitude or stereotype perpetuation, the Bureau of Applied Social Research of Columbia University concluded that short stories in eight representative magazines with national circulation were perpetuating stereotypes of "Anglo-Saxon superiority." This was being done with more consistency than in other mass media. The report stated: "American short story writers have made *nice people* synonymous with Anglo-Saxons." Similarly, advertising copy circulated through mass media exerts a stereotyping effect. An advertising man quoted in this study said: "You want to sell the greatest number of people. Therefore, in your advertisement you present some one whom they will want to emulate." [6]

Readily recognized advertising slogans which bear on this comment are the following: "Keep that schoolgirl complexion" (Palmolive soap), and "Ask the man who owns one" (Packard automobiles).

STEREOTYPES OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

A familiar example of stereotyping is the common classification of college students according to definite distinguishing traits. In a study of stereo-

[6] *How Writers Perpetuate Stereotypes,* Columbia University, Bureau of Applied Social Research, New York, 1945.

types applied to college students,[7] a list of fifty terms used to describe college men was compiled with the cooperation of several Princeton students. The findings were as follows:

1. Stereotypes regarding various college men are similar at different colleges.
2. Such stereotypes are well defined.
3. College students' stereotypes of themselves are more complimentary than their stereotypes of others.
4. The reality of types was questioned by few students.
5. The uniformity of these institutional stereotypes and their comparatively uncritical acceptance by both *in-* and *out*-groups indicated that institutions have some pattern which affects both the attitudes of those who come in direct contact with the institutions and the way outsiders view them.

Students of the "Big Four" were classified by their own and other college groups as follows:

Dartmouth—outdoor men, college-loyal, hard drinkers, athletic, the rah-rah type
Harvard—blasé, indifferent, snobbish, conceited, intellectual, socialites
Princeton—style-setting, gentlemanly, smooth, college-loyal, socialites
Yale—college-loyal, athletic, typical college boys, hard drinkers, socialites

These stereotypes fall far short of the truth, for it is not possible to apply similar labels to all men in any of these colleges nor, for that matter, in any other. Obviously the variation in social, economic, and cultural background, in mental and emotional development, and in a number of other factors makes the application of stereotypes a futile process in defining a body of college students.

POLITICAL STEREOTYPES

A common American stereotype is that of the government employee sitting in a comfortable chair with his feet on a desk, waiting impatiently for the hours to pass by and for his check, which comes with clocklike regularity. As a matter of fact, there have been and still are officeholders who fit this stereotype. But the vast majority of government employees at all levels work faithfully, often at minimum salaries. They match in loyalty, integrity, and effectiveness those who hold parallel positions in private

[7] Kenneth Fink and Hadley Cantril, "The Collegiate Stereotype as a Frame of Reference," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology,* Vol. 32, pp. 352–356, 1937.

industry. But the stereotype of the government employee persists in many quarters.

There have been three presidents of the United States in the past fifty years who were effective phrase coiners. They were Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, and Franklin D. Roosevelt. The first Roosevelt was known for his verbal and political attacks upon "big business," "the yellow peril," "race suicide," and "hyphenated Americans."

Woodrow Wilson attacked "special interests," the "money trust," "dollar diplomacy," "warmongers," and "low-brows." In his book *The New Freedom,*[8] he wrote, "We do not propose that *special interests* shall any longer camp in the rooms of the Committee on Ways and Means"; and again *"The money trust* or, more properly, this *credit trust* . . . is no imaginary thing."

Franklin D. Roosevelt in his long term of office took occasion to attack and condemn "monopolists," "unscrupulous money-changers," "rugged individualists," "manipulators," "prophets of evil," "economic royalists," the "overprivileged."

In our political history, many successful as well as unsuccessful candidates for office have applied stereotypes to their opponents and their opponents' political parties. The terms used by the two Roosevelts and by Wilson are comparatively mild when considered in the light of those credited to other presidential candidates in years gone by. Evidently we have reached some measure of political maturity, though the road ahead is still a long one.

RACIAL STEREOTYPES

Stereotypes are frequently applied to individuals of various racial groups and backgrounds who help to make up the mixed population units of our country. While there are representatives of virtually all racial and nationality groups in the United States, many who use racial stereotypes have not had much, if any, contact with some of those to whom such terms are applied. Most people come to know alien groups chiefly through indirect, casual, and socially distant contacts in which hearsay, newspaper and magazine stories, and other propaganda media play an important part. The stereotypes used to define them are hardly, if ever, accurately descriptive.

[8] Woodrow Wilson, *The New Freedom,* pp. 16, 186, Doubleday & Company, New York, 1913. Italics are the present authors'.

When a member of a majority group meets and comes to like a member of another group to which a distinctive and often noncomplimentary stereotype has been applied, an exception is made: "Oh, but he is different." However, the stereotype is retained, even though the exception, with or without verbal acknowledgment, may be repeated in the instance of other members of the same group.

There are, of course, some behavior patterns which are characteristic of many members of a racial group. It is because of this phenomenon that attitudes relating to them tend to become fixed or stereotyped. An individual generally tends to take on the ways of the family circle in which he is brought up and the larger communal group in which he matures. He thus accommodates and adjusts himself to the group of which he is a part, thus avoiding social and emotional conflicts which would otherwise be his lot. By this pattern of behavior he becomes fixed in certain ways. Consequently, there is a tendency for members of out-groups to apply stereotypes to him. The reverse is also true.

If matters stopped peacefully at this point, problems relating to racial prejudice growing out of stereotyped thinking might not cause any concern. Unfortunately, such attitudes and patterns of thought are often applied to alleged negative qualities of those who are being appraised. Thus, racial stereotypes which are based, in part at least, on sensory impressions hold that some peoples smell of garlic, and that others have a peculiar body odor of an unpleasant nature. Such stereotypes are largely fictional.

These and other racial stereotypes play a large part in human prejudice. In studies made among American college students, many were found to be prejudiced against Negroes and Turks. Explanations, though invalid, might be offered for such attitudes against Negroes. But why the antipathy against Turks? Very few American students have been in contact with the small number of Turks in this country, and fewer still have been in Turkey or adjacent lands. Still, in the rating scale Turks were put first as objectionable. How these attitudes and stereotyped thoughts developed would require, among other procedures, consideration of the newspaper and magazine stories and books such students have read about the "terrible Turk," or the tales they have heard at home. Emotionalized concepts apparently play an important part in the development of such stereotypes.

When vaudeville was in its heyday racial sketches were a common phenomenon on the stage. They dealt largely with tales about Negroes, Scotchmen, Irishmen, Germans, Jews, and Italians, and followed stereotyped lines. Negroes liked to sing and were lazy, Scotchmen were nearly always

stingy and miserly, Irishmen liked to drink and fight, Germans were usually very fat, Jews were crafty and shrewd, and Italians liked to sing and play a hand organ. Various jokes were told about these several groups, usually without any malice. While the stories, sketches, and songs were intended to induce hearty laughter, and evidenced no ill will, yet they were stereotyped and presented false and even harmful interpretations and impressions of groups in the population.

STEREOTYPES AND CHILDREN

There is a distinct possibility that racial stereotypes are the basis of prejudiced attitudes. Since the use of stereotypes can help an individual adjust himself to the many complexities of the modern world, it is essential that, when employed, they shall not lead to prejudiced thinking. This is especially important in so far as parents and teachers are concerned. Applying a derogatory or stereotyped term to the member of a minority group in the hearing of a young child may set up in his mind a fixed attitude toward all members of such a group. A flippant, stereotyped reference to "foreigners in our midst" by a grade school teacher may indoctrinate a whole class with a prejudiced attitude toward all with foreign or primarily non-Anglo-Saxon names. It is in such ways that racial stereotypes may be created and their harmful influences perpetuated.

The stories children are told or read, as well as the information they acquire from parents and others about people, leave a lasting impression on them. Research evidence indicates that stereotypes relating to people of different racial groups become fixed in the minds of youngsters between the ages of ten and twelve years. Tales of lazy and shiftless boys, and of others who are brave and do heroic deeds, leave impressions which may last a lifetime.

Parents and teachers have come to recognize the influence of comic strips and comic books on the immature mind. If the comic-strip hero crusades against members of the yellow race, for instance, it is possible that young readers may accept stereotypes about and develop a fear of members of this race. The same applies to "super-hero" struggles against other specific groups. The social and educational responsibilities of comic-strip artists and their publishers have come to be recognized in many quarters. Because of the protests of parents and educators, there has been some change in the contents of these publications. The threat of restrictive legislation may also have played a part.

Young children are usually described as being mentally plastic and in the formative stage. This concept is derived from the knowledge that their attitudes are not deeply ingrained and are readily subject to influence and change. In other words, their thinking has not yet become stereotyped to any degree. They are avid for information but cannot stop to reason out the validity of stereotypes applied by their elders. They accept their concepts and teachings on faith. Therein rests a major responsibility of parents and teachers; it is theirs to guide the thinking and encourage the formation of acceptable attitudes on the part of children.

STEREOTYPES AND SOCIAL STABILITY

Lippmann [9] pointed out that the pattern of stereotypes at the center of our codes largely determines what group of facts we see, and in what light we see them. That is why, for instance, the news policy of a newspaper tends to support its editorial policy. Similarly, the employer who sees a set of facts interprets them in one way, while the labor leader or individual worker observing the same set of facts draws virtually opposite conclusions.

Some years ago one of the authors addressed a top labor leader in a matter relating to the welfare of several million members of his union. His response was: "We are interested only in higher wages and shorter hours." In similar fashion, contacts with employers brought out directly opposite responses—the necessity for lower wages and longer hours "if this country is to survive." The lines of economic battle were tightly drawn, based, in part at least, on the stereotypes labor held of capital and, in reverse, capital held of labor. While these attitudes still prevail in many quarters on both sides of the economic fence, there is growing evidence that more and more stereotypes of employers as "bloodsuckers," and of all workers as "Commies" is changing for the better. Of course, other factors such as legislation, the growing power of organized labor, greater social-mindedness on the part of employers—all play a significant part.

It is in the very nature of our dependence upon a pattern of stereotyped thinking that our attention is attracted by those persons, facts, and phenomena which support it. On the other hand, we are diverted from those which are contradictory to our fixed attitudes. This may explain why there have always been employers who were honestly and socially concerned about the welfare of their workers, and why many workers could find it

[9] Lippman, *op. cit.*, p. 125.

possible to render faithful and competent service to employers. So, too, those who are kindly disposed can see much good in all, and those who are malicious find much malice in the world. To a considerable measure, the welfare of society may depend upon the stereotypes that are fixed in the minds of employers and employees alike, of leaders as well as followers in our own land and in other lands as well.

SUMMARY

Scapegoats and stereotypes have a close relationship. They both serve to implement the expressions of racial prejudices and discrimination. Scapegoating has almost uniformly followed specific lines in Italy under the Fascists, in Germany under the Nazis, in Russia under the Communists, and in other totalitarian countries as well.

The process is usually begun by verbal aggression, including accusations that the victims of the abuse have engaged in acts harmful to the state. The next stage represents degeneration into actual personal violence, destruction of property, use of gas chambers and forced labor camps. While such extreme actions are not patterns followed in the United States, we have our own discriminatory procedures which intensify the scapegoat type of psychology. Jim Crow laws, real estate restrictive covenants, discrimination in employment, membership restrictions in some labor organizations, and discriminations in club membership, hotels, and summer resorts are evidence of current scapegoating. The international policies and relations of the United States are being harmed by scapegoating applied to nonwhites in our own land. Frequent references appear in the foreign press to emphasize our seeming insincerity in this respect.

Stereotypes are widely held concepts that arise from an illogical association of ideas and attitudes. Evaluations of human personality through stereotyped thinking, particularly when applied on a physical basis, are grossly unscientific, and can be used by the unscrupulous to exploit the uninformed for nefarious purposes. The stereotype can be of some use as an economical mental device for describing and classifying people, but it should always be remembered that its score as to accuracy is low. In dealing with human beings and in passing judgment upon their behavior, a high degree of accuracy is essential if justice is to be done. The stereotype is relatively rigid, whereas the nonprejudiced, scientific approach to personalities is relatively fluid and therefore adjustable. It is the latter type of approach that is essential to fair dealing with others.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Describe the customs among early historical and primitive peoples relating to the use of scapegoats.
2. Name groups being used as scapegoats at the present time.
3. What is a basic psychologic factor in the selection of scapegoats?
4. Name five scapegoater types and indicate why they behave as they do.
5. Why does scapegoating become aggravated during periods of national emergency? Give examples.
6. How can scapegoating be restricted in modern society?
7. Describe the origin of the term stereotype, and give examples of its use.
8. Indicate the sense in which Walter Lippmann used the term stereotype.
9. List stereotypes applied to those of foreign birth in your community.
10. Give examples of stereotypes (*a*) used to describe college students, (*b*) used in politics, (*c*) used by employers and workers.

REFERENCES

Allport, G. W., *ABC's of Scapegoating*, Anti-Defamation League, New York, 1948.

Britt, S. H., *Social Psychology in Modern Life*, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

Coutu, Walter, *Emergent Human Nature*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., New York, 1949.

Doob, L. W., *Propaganda, Its Psychology and Technique*, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1935.

Doob, L. W., *Public Opinion and Propaganda*, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

Dunban, E. F. M., and John Bowlby, *Personal Aggressiveness and War*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1939.

Rose, Arnold, *Roots of Prejudice*, Unesco Publication 865, Paris, 1951.

Roucek, J. S., ed., *Social Control*, D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., New York, 1947.

CHAPTER 15

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

Prejudice on the part of one group of people against another group has existed in most parts of the world in most periods of history. It has been a source of human unhappiness and misunderstanding wherever and whenever it has arisen.

Prejudice and discrimination have been described as together constituting a "social neurosis" which operates as a grave menace to mental health. Tensions caused by prejudice and discrimination are harmful not only to the victim but to the entire community and nation. Such a neurosis inevitably makes satisfying social relations difficult, if not impossible, of achievement. The common-sense assumption that "ignorance is the mother of prejudice" is only in part explanatory. It is true that prejudice and discrimination are evident among the unlettered and unlearned, but unfortunately they also appear among many who have had the advantages of high-level educational opportunities.

A prejudice is a nonrational assumption accepted as true before the full evidence is presented and evaluated. It leads a person to welcome evidence that will confirm his convictions. A sinister aspect of prejudice grows out of the fact that the strongly prejudiced individual is a distinct hazard to his fellow men. His mental processes in the area of prejudice can be compared to the delusions of paranoiacs, with their strong feelings of hate and persecution. The latter are eventually classified as being mentally ill, and so their influence over others tends to have specific limitations. The prejudiced individual, on the other hand, is generally in full possession of his

normal mental capacities, and is capable of giving full expression to his prejudices.

Shrewd and unprincipled propagandists may start out by giving expression to their own prejudices. They then exploit similar attitudes among the masses of the population through the various means available to them in this modern age of radio and television. They have played sinister and troublesome parts within recent years.

A prejudiced person is distinctly *against,* rather than *for,* another individual or group. That leads him to avoid those toward whom his negative attitudes are directed. This type of limited social ostracism has its harmful effects upon the initiator as well as upon the innocent victims. He may not be aware of the damage he is doing to himself, for he feels superior to those against whom he harbors his prejudices.

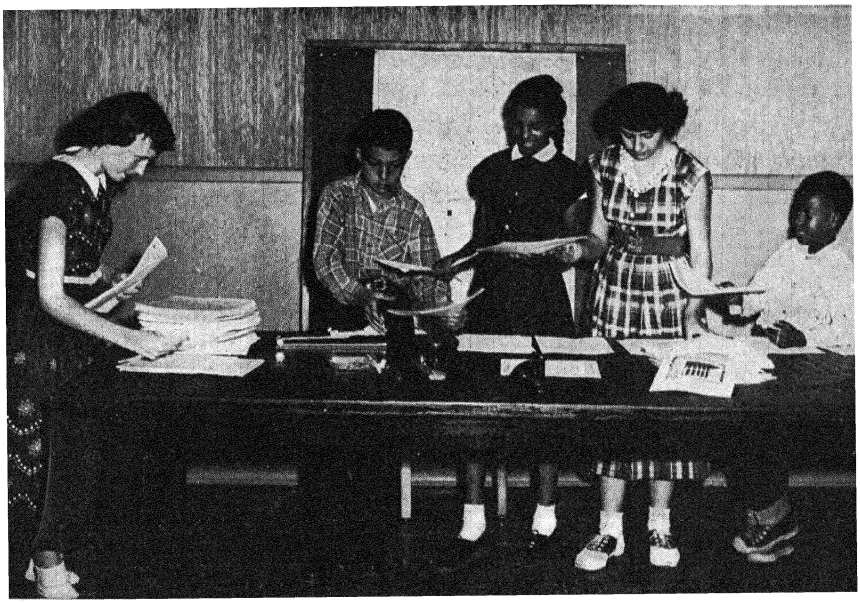
A further antisocial aspect relates to the fact that a high degree of prejudice is usually paralleled by a low amount of information. What are we to think of leaders, and followers too, behind the Iron Curtain in East European lands, who know but very little of our democratic way of life and at the same time give verbal and even forceful evidence of prejudices against the western world? These extremists seem so sure of their own points of view, of the correctness of their own political system, that they presumably refuse to learn, or permit others to learn, the truth relating to the west. The burning of books, the severe censorship, the demand that all writings—whether literary, cultural, or scientific, be aligned with the dictated current political philosophy—these are all part and parcel of an extremely prejudiced state of mind. The effect on the international situation is all too evident. Strong prejudices accompanied by intense feelings may lead to severe repercussions on a personal, group, and even international plane.

CAUSES OF PREJUDICES

The causes of prejudices are many. The writer of the following lines put the matter in quaint terms:

> I do not love thee, Doctor Fell,
> The reason why I cannot tell;
> But this alone I know full well,
> I do not love thee, Doctor Fell.[1]

[1] Thomas Brown (1663–1704). Dr. John Fell was dean of Christ Church College, Oxford, and had threatened to expel the author.



Overcoming prejudice in childhood. ABOVE: Racial understanding is advanced by schools that teach all children to work closely together on common projects. BELOW: School co-curricular music program. (Courtesy of School District 16, Elmont, N.Y.)

Many try to excuse their own prejudices and those of their children. The latter acquire prejudices primarily from their parents and other adults with whom they come in contact. Because they realize that prejudices are often indicative of antisocial feelings and attitudes, some parents try to explain that their children's prejudices are natural and dismiss the matter with that lame excuse. But this explanation is not valid. It assumes the existence of an instinct of prejudice, despite overwhelming evidence against such a belief.

Observation of white and Negro children in the kindergarten, in the lower grades in school, and on the playground clearly indicates that there is no inborn antipathy of white for Negro children, and vice versa. It is not until parents and other adults say, "Don't play with them, they are Negroes," that the young child starts to build up mental reservations and prejudices. Allport [2] has pointed out the absurdity of the theory of inateness of prejudice. As an example, he cites the child born of Spanish parents in the United States, who has a presumed "instinctive" aversion to the Negro, and compares him with his cousin born in South America, who is indifferent to the color problem.

Young children are naturally shy and fearful, especially of situations and persons strange to them. Except for this tendency to avoid the unfamiliar, the child is in no sense born with prejudices. He acquires his ways of reacting toward individuals of different races and religions by imitating the ways in which parents behave. Children who are given the opportunity to play, study, and eat with members of other groups readily develop friendly ways toward them.

Among the natural tendencies of man there are some which serve to develop the capacity for hostility. An individual is capable of both love and hatred. This capacity consciously or unconsciously seeks an outlet in a certain person or persons. It is easier to like some people—to feel close to them and to desire their company—than it is to like others. Social prejudice evolves when the tendency to dislike or to hate is directed concretely against a collective type, such as that differentiated by race, color, religion, or social or economic status.

Conflicts in social life are always present. By their continuance they support attitudes of hatred rather than of friendliness. Through the process of projection and by the association of ideas, experiences, and emotions,

[2] G. W. Allport, *ABC's of Scapegoating*, pp. 24–25, Anti-Defamation League, New York, 1948.

which have been casually formed in the main, prejudices evolve and become fixed.

There is a social tendency known as ethnocentrism. This involves the belief on the part of the individuals in one group that the folkways, customs, culture, ideas, manners, feelings, and behavior prevailing in their group are superior to those prevailing in any other group. This common tendency manifests itself particularly in the case of ethnic or national groups. The members of one such group sincerely feel, with but few exceptions, that their own patterns of behavior are superior to those of other groups, and they may even be shocked by the customs of other people. The degree of prejudice that evolves is often greater when there is a difference in cultural level, but even when there is no such difference the tendency operates.

Other causes of prejudices are irrational, emotional reactions, which evolve in certain conditions or situations; cultural conflict; and conflict of interests. These three motives are intermingled in most cases of prejudice, and cannot always be clearly separated from one another.

Among the factors which create prejudice, special attention needs to be paid to a feeling of resentment. Resentment may arise from a conscious sense of inferiority. Such a feeling usually produces a tendency either to hate a specific strange group or all strange groups, and to blame such group or groups for all the individual's misfortunes. The person affected by such a state of mind usually identifies himself with the elite or superior element of his own group, and hates the strange group because he imagines the latter is responsible for his failures and misfortunes. This happens most frequently when the disliked group enjoys some measure of success or prosperity. The prejudiced individual feels the need of a scapegoat to blame for his frustrations. He refuses to accept his own responsibilities, and tries to hide or deny his inadequacies, even to himself.

Prejudice may arise from the knowledge of advantage or disadvantage, of power or prestige, or from the fear of competition. Hostility is a part of the sense of insecurity; the greater the insecurity, the more intense the hostility. Therefore, intergroup prejudices and conflicts are more likely to occur when there is high tension in a given society as a result of economic depression, unemployment, or social disorganization following disaster or war.

Almost every social or cultural group has its own sense of superiority; frequently this is reinforced by sustaining prejudice. In the past, members of groups residing in various parts of the world had little contact with one another. Modern methods of transportation and communication have

Interracial discussions lead to mutual understanding. (Courtesy of Girl Scouts of the U.S.A.)

broken down these physical and cultural isolation patterns, and brought these groups closer together. Still, group prejudices tend to keep them apart, and to fortify tensions, antagonisms, grievances, and frustrations.

DEVELOPMENT OF PREJUDICE

While many alleged facts advanced as causes of race prejudice are not real but imaginary, for example, intellectual superiority of one race over another, there are causative factors, such as differences originating from the existence of various cultural circles or conceptions of values, which are real. This does not mean that the resulting prejudice is justified. Most prejudices which arise from the contrast between different cultures, or conceptions of the world and of life, are simple manifestations of ethnocentrism. However, sometimes two cultural circles are divided not by slight differences and contrasts but by a diametrical opposition with regard to conceptions of values. Prejudice arising from such a situation can normally be lessened only by education and the teaching of tolerance.

Children and Cultural Prejudice. As has been said, it is generally agreed that race prejudice is not inborn but is a reflection of the beliefs and cultural patterns prevailing in a social group. The child's attitude toward other

persons does not appear to be affected by their skin color, the shape of their noses, the type and color of their hair, etc. If he acquires a bias it is usually the result of contact with his adult environment. It is the elders who teach the child what is "proper." Most prejudices are merely the result of the ways in which persons of a given culture have been taught to conceive of the world and its many groups of inhabitants.

The close and intimate relationship between white children and their dark-skinned nurses—common in the United States from the days of slavery up to the present, as well as in other countries—is strong evidence that there is no instinctive aversion whatsoever. In addition, while in certain regions of the world, as in the United States, white men are prejudiced against colored people, in other regions there is no such prejudice. Apparently, race prejudice is frequently acquired as a result of a cultural pattern in a given group.

Language as a Factor. Language is usually an external manifestation of the existence of a cultural group, and it is often found to be a ground for prejudice. In a recent Congressional debate on amendment of our immigration laws, one Representative urged that only immigrants who could read and write English should be eligible to enter this country in the future.[3] This attitude is part of the fallacious myth of Nordic race superiority on which the quota system of immigration is largely based. Many Americans look with suspicion and, concomitantly, with prejudice upon those who speak a foreign language. Because of the geographic isolation of the United States, the mass of our people need to know only English. There are a few exceptions, as in northern New England, where there have long been colonies of French Canadians; in Louisiana, where French is still spoken by many; in the Southwest, where Spanish-speaking Mexicans are to be found in considerable numbers.

Political Belief as a Factor. The influence of political background on our national life is evidenced by the two-party system and the strong attitudes that have developed from it. The South has been traditionally Democratic, largely perhaps because of continued antipathy to the Republican

[3] Bills in Congress to require literacy on the part of immigrants to the United States were vetoed by Presidents Cleveland and Taft. A similar bill was passed in 1915 and was vetoed by President Wilson. It was passed over his veto in 1917. In his veto message Wilson wrote: "It excludes those to whom the opportunities for elementary education have been denied without regard to their character, their purposes or their natural capacity." President Truman likewise vetoed a restrictive immigration bill in 1952; it was subsequently passed over his veto.

North. New England, or at least Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, have been traditionally Republican. A number of our large northern cities—New York, Boston, Chicago, Kansas City, for example—have been strongholds of Democratic political organization. The cultural and political prejudices that are ingrained in many adults have roots in our history, and often have little to do with our current national and international problems. While the child of Republican or Democratic parents is exposed to a cultural heritage which expects him to follow his parents' pattern of political belief, his contacts outside the home, especially at college, may cause a rift in his previous political concepts.

Religious Beliefs as Cultural Factors. Religious beliefs are usually more strongly ingrained than political beliefs and affiliations. In the realm of religion we are concerned not so much with moral codes—all recognized religions agree on virtually the same moral principles—but with the other aspects of religion which separate our population into cultural entities. From the point of view of putting into practice the teachings of Judaeo-Christian faiths, Americans face a distinct cultural problem. Our children learn the American concept of fair play and equal opportunity for all. They learn the Old Testament precept "Love thy neighbor as thyself" and the Golden Rule, "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you," from the New Testament.

Yet, many children, especially those who are colored or who belong to various minority groups, discover that these fine teachings are frequently not practiced. This phenomenon, which might be called an American dilemma, is now receiving serious attention from churchmen of various denominations in both the North and the South.

The various religions include tolerance and respect for other creeds in their teachings. Still, some religious leaders and believers in the United States and in other lands have fostered or stimulated fanatical or intolerant attitudes. It is very difficult to deal with prejudice such as this, because the rights of freedom of speech, of religious worship, and of freedom of peaceful assembly become involved. Adherence to a particular religion may sometimes create prejudices which are projected into social, political, and other fields. It is most difficult to change them; more is required than the mere teaching of tolerance, for tolerance in itself may be merely a negative approach. Religious leaders of all faiths must accept the responsibility for dealing with a type of cultural prejudice which divides communities into potentially antagonistic groups.

PREJUDICES AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

College students are, in a sense, among the elect in the community. It is fair to assume that if we are to develop an unprejudiced, tolerant, and socially-minded population, the educated citizens must be the leaders and teachers in the attainment of this ideal. Since racial and religious prejudices are not inborn, it is essential to try to learn why a large majority in our country acquire attitudes of animosity and distrust. Allport and Kramer [4] studied 437 college undergraduates—214 at Dartmouth, 166 at Harvard, and 57 at Radcliffe—in order to get at some of the roots of prejudice. They utilized a carefully constructed and detailed questionnaire in this study and obtained their information on an anonymous basis. It was recognized that many possible sources of prejudice were not revealed, such as the role of economic and family security, personal frustrations, shocks in early life, the projection of personal guilt upon selected scapegoats.

The following tentative conclusions about prejudice were deduced from this study:

1. Racial, religious, or other group prejudices play an appreciable role in the mental life of four-fifths of the American population.
2. Prejudiced people have unpleasant childhood memories (real or invented) of members of groups against which they are prejudiced.
3. Clinging to parental patterns is conducive to prejudice. A critical attitude toward parental patterns is conducive to freedom from prejudice.
4. Bigots report few school experiences or teachings favorable to minority groups.
5. Only 8 per cent of the students recalled having learned scientific facts about race.
6. Most prejudices first develop during the school years, between the ages of six and sixteen, and especially in the age range twelve to sixteen.
7. Casual contact with minority groups does not diminish prejudice as markedly as does intimate (equal status) contact.
8. Religious training in itself does *not* lessen prejudice unless tolerance and brotherhood are stressed.
9. Women (at least college women) tend to be less prejudiced than men.
10. The children of college-trained parents tend to be freer from prejudice than do the children of non-college-trained parents.
11. Students concentrating on the natural sciences tend to be less prejudiced than those concentrating on other fields.

[4] G. W. Allport and B. M. Kramer, "Some Roots of Prejudice," *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 22, pp. 9–38, 1946.

12. Colleges in the same region of the country may show widely different levels of prejudice in their student populations.

13. A person's prejudice is deeply rooted in his personal philosophy, and plays a significant part in his life-economy.

14. Those who have a jungle philosophy of life (viewing the world as basically evil and dangerous) are generally prejudiced.

15. Those who have an authoritarian or disciplinarian outlook on life tend to be prejudiced.

16. Fear of fraud and trickery is related to prejudice.

17. Prejudiced persons feel little shame or conscious guilt because of their prejudices. Relatively unprejudiced persons tend to feel ashamed of what prejudices they do have.

18. Prejudiced persons are not prone to sympathize with the underdog.

19. Disapproval of legislation designed to improve the status of minority groups is likely to be an index of high prejudice.

20. Prejudiced people ordinarily underestimate the extent of their own prejudices.

21. In general, the prejudiced person is unaware of the influences affecting him, is not accurate in his self-knowledge, and is not given to feelings of shame.

RACE PREJUDICE

Any discussion of race is handicapped by several major points of obscurity. These are as follows: there exists no very clear idea in the minds of many as to what constitutes a race; the marks of differentiation which serve to set off one race from another are often vaguely presented; there seems to be little, if any, reliable knowledge concerning the number and origin of races; and the geographical location of races is not always clearly defined.

The oldest grouping of mankind still in general use is that of skin color. The word Caucasian was coined in 1775, when a five-fold classification of the races of man was established, including Caucasian, or white; Mongolian, or yellow; Ethiopian, or black; American Indian, or red; and Malayan, or brown.

Race prejudice is a phenomenon that has specific manifestations in the United States. It is distinctly directed toward Negroes and other dark-skinned people; it also includes American Indians, Mexicans, and Japanese, in the Southwest and the West particularly. People who harbor race prejudice usually do so on the assumption that individuals of dark skin color are inferior merely because they are different.

Race prejudice may be an indication of a struggle for economic security

and social status between oppressors and oppressed. Like any prejudice, it stems from biased opinions and prejudgments. It is especially evident in interracial relations because pronounced or even slight physical differences serve to point out the target. These physical marks—chiefly color of skin—give the prejudiced groups a means of readily identifying those against whom their negative attitudes are directed, irrespective of individual merit.

The world is very much on the move in so far as races once labeled "inferior" are concerned. The insulation from foreign lands that the geographic position of the United States has provided is being broken down rapidly, as is the mental state of isolationism so long cherished by many Americans. As a result of the anthropological research of the last few decades we now realize that the cultural capacities of the Japanese and Chinese, the Hindus and the Africans are the same as our own. In appraising other peoples and races we have come to recognize that the differences between them are probably due to differences in opportunity for development rather than in innate ability.

The United States Armed Forces and Race Prejudice. That some of our political and military leaders have recognized the need for reappraisal of our attitudes toward other peoples became evident during the Second World War, when a number of leading psychologists were asked to help in formulating the national program on psychological warfare. One phase of training men in the armed forces of the United States was the preparation of a 456-page book entitled *Psychology for the Fighting Man,* by a committee of the National Research Council.

The soldier was advised in the following terms how to win friends for the United States in foreign lands:

1. *Try to understand* strange customs, habits and ways of thinking.
2. *Respect* these customs and habits of thought when you can't understand them.
3. When you cannot respect foreign countries, then *suppress your disapproval.*
4. When you can respect foreign customs, *show it.*
5. When you associate with foreign people, *try to adopt their manners.* Do not ask them to adopt yours.
6. *Suppress your own peculiarities* when they are contrary to the custom of the land.
7. When the foreign customs are none of your business, then *mind your own business.*
8. *Be friendly.*
9. *Take the people as they come.*

A section of this publication is devoted to a discussion of race prejudice. Part of the text reads as follows:

It is also extremely important for the American soldier to understand clearly some of his own peculiar habits of thinking and acting.

It will help him, for example, to understand the basis of the race prejudice that is all too common among many Americans, as well as among Germans and many other peoples.

The reason for race prejudice can be traced back to a natural need for security. Everyone wants to feel secure. And he feels most secure in familiar surroundings with people he knows. . . .

Color of skin is often the basis for prejudice because it so clearly is a badge of difference between peoples—a mark that sets one people apart as different, as not "one of us." American whites have been prejudiced, not only against black skins, but also against yellow and against the copper skins of the American Indian. The United States excluded both Japs and Chinese from immigration when our western states became afraid of their cheap labor. And the old German Kaiser invented the slogan "The yellow peril," when he wished to unite Europe against the Asiatics.

Sometimes the prejudice against the Negroes flares up in the Army. It is not a problem, however, in a camp where it is well understood that a soldier in United States uniform is a *soldier,* not a white or Negro, Christian or Jew, rich man or poor, but a soldier, and as such worthy of respect. . . .

Race Prejudice and the American Negro. Our outstanding race prejudice problem relates to the Negro. During the period of slavery, when Negroes in the South were held as chattel property, there seemed to be a general understanding between whites and Negroes as to the social position of each group. The system of slavery was, of course, inhuman. But stable relations prevailed, as a rule, between whites and Negroes. While slavery had disappeared in the North, it had continued in the South till 1864, largely because of the need of cheap labor for the expanding cotton and tobacco plantations. With the coming of peace and the attempt of the South to reconstruct a destroyed economy, wrecked homes and communities, pressure problems arose not only between whites and Negroes but between the Southern whites and the carpetbaggers who came down from the North.

It should be recalled that there is a much older situation—that of continuing racial prejudice against the American Indian. Various restrictions have beset the Indian, and these have been primarily the result of action of the whites.

The rationalization of prejudice is a common phenomenon. Thus, Negroes have been called lazy, ignorant, and incompetent, when the fact is that opportunities for employment and decent education have been denied to them. The same is true, in large measure, with regard to the American Indian. As for the Japanese: on the Pacific Coast, where their labor competition is decried, if they agreed to work for less than the standard wage, they have been called scabs; they have also been charged with threatening the American standard of living. If by dint of hard work and competence they were successful as farmers, they were accused of driving out native whites. Various accusations are being leveled at Mexican "wetbacks," or those who manage to evade immigration controls and illegally cross into the United States by way of the shallow Rio Grande River.

RACE SUPERIORITY

We are not inclined to consider the mental organization of different races of man as differing in fundamental points. Although, therefore, the distribution of faculty among races of man is far from being known, we can say this much: the average faculty of the white race is found to the same degree in a large proportion of individuals of all other races, and although it is probable that some of these races may not produce as large a proportion of great men as our own race, there is no reason to suppose that they are unable to reach the level of civilization represented by the bulk of our own people.[5]

Many psychologists have reached conclusions similar to those of Professor Boas. The belief in the inferiority of the Negro is an article of faith to many white Southerners, irrespective of evidence. Whatever the degree of inferiority ascribed to Negroes, the belief persists that the inferiority is a fact. This concept is an important element in race prejudice, and yet no proof has been adduced to warrant such a conclusion. It is essential to remember that studies of the relative intelligence of Negroes and whites have conclusively shown that there are no significant native intelligence differences when both groups have approximately the same opportunities to learn the kind of material found in specific tests.

The myth of race superiority, on which the Nazis laid so much emphasis, is a primary factor in race prejudice. Judging such presumed superiority on the basis of claimed differences in intelligence is an intellectually fallacious procedure. Such inferiority as has been found can readily be explained. Those who are presumed to be below par mentally—as the Negroes

[5] Franz Boas, *The Mind of Primitive Man*, p. 123, by permission of The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.

and American Indians—have not had adequate opportunities provided for them in some parts of the country. The migration of Southern Negroes to the North has been particularly pronounced since the First World War. Many who served in the armed forces did not return to their Southern homes but crowded into slums in New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, and other industrial centers. That was a generation ago. Now we are seeing some of the results in the large increase of Negro young men and women in our Northern high schools, colleges, and professional schools.

DISCRIMINATION

There are approximately as many forms of discrimination as there are forms of prejudice. In the instances in which prejudice is not expressed in acts of discrimination, there are probably legal reasons why it is inadvisable to attempt to do so. Discriminatory acts do not necessarily derive from prejudice; sometimes they arise from the contrast between groups with different cultural levels and standards. Some discriminatory acts are inspired by economic interests rather than by prejudice. However, such forms of discrimination can lead to prejudice in the long run. The hotel operator who has no objection to accommodating Negroes or other members of minority groups because he is fundamentally not prejudiced against them may still refuse to serve them because he fears that many of his regular customers will object. Eventually he becomes so conditioned against outgroups that he falls into a pattern of prejudice himself.

Discrimination has been defined as a detrimental distinction based on grounds which may not be attributed to the individual and which have no justified consequences in social, political, or legal relations (color, race, sex, etc.), or on grounds of membership in social categories (cultural, language, religious, political or other opinion, national circle, social origin, social class, property, birth or other status).[6]

Acts of discrimination are of three main kinds: inequality of treatment which takes the form of imposing disabilities; inequality of treatment which takes the form of granting privileges; and inequality of treatment which takes the form of imposing odious obligations.

Conduct by private persons which distinctly constitutes discrimination falls into two categories: acts or omissions to act, the effect of which is to deny or limit the legal rights of individuals belonging to particular social

[6] United Nations Commission on Human Rights, *The Main Types and Causes of Discrimination,* p. 26, Lake Success, New York, 1949.

groups; acts which do not involve any legal infractions but actually result in discriminatory treatment in social relations.

One form of discrimination is the denial to individuals belonging to a particular social group of equal access to opportunities such as those of employment. Well-paying jobs are often denied to competent Negroes, for example. Often the best they can get is a menial job at low wages, such as dishwashing. If better jobs are offered to them, these are apt to be restricted to a small number. Discrimination may be shown in other ways: by making such applicants for jobs provide better than average qualifications; by paying them less than others in the same job; by making it difficult to obtain promotion; and by diminishing length of vacations and other benefits. Of course, in the few states where antidiscrimination laws are in effect, and where there is strong and effective labor organization backing, some of these discriminatory practices are eliminated.

Private persons may also practice discrimination by refusing to admit members of particular groups into housing developments. This results in segregation, in overcrowding, and in developing slum districts. Those discriminated against are in practice reduced to living in areas for members of their own groups only. This is undesirable from many points of view, not only because of the physical factors of congestion, scant recreational facilities, crowded schools, and inadequacy of other communal facilities, but because of the failure to integrate such units of our population into full and free enjoyment of the privileges of American citizenship.

Denying individuals of certain groups entry into, or use of, hotels, cafes, restaurants, theaters, or other places of entertainment or recreation, or the use of certain means of transportation or other services or facilities, when these are operated by private individuals or companies, is another form of discrimination. Still another form of interpersonal discrimination is the refusal of an individual to enter into social relations with others who belong to a particular racial or social group.

Individual Discrimination. There may not be much that can be done to eradicate the prejudices of a person who refuses to accept certain individuals into his home. However, he may be prevented from practicing discrimination in areas in which legal control is possible.

Following are a few examples of discriminatory acts by private people which have been declared illegal:

1. Intentional libeling of a particular social group.
2. Arousing public opinion to restrict individuals in the free exercise of their legal rights.

3. Inciting others to acts of violence.
4. Denying or restricting the right to legally acquire property of any kind.
5. Refusing to sell goods offered for public sale.
6. Prohibiting individuals to enter restaurants, theaters, and other places of entertainment.
7. Imposing employment restrictions.
8. Teaching discrimination of any kind in schools.

Official Discrimination. The Constitution of the United States provides a set of principles for the protection of the citizen against discrimination by government officials. Various decisions of the United States Supreme Court have strengthened the rights of individuals against official invasion of such rights.

Official discrimination may take many forms. Some of its forms, happily unknown in our own country, are:

1. Imposition of odious duties.
2. Forced or compulsory labor, or slavery.
3. Discriminatory taxes.
4. Requirement of special travel permits.
5. Compulsory wearing of identification badges or clothing.
6. Unequal recognition of an individual before the law.
7. Inequality of personal security.
8. Inequality of opportunity for education.
9. Inequality in the right to participate in government.

These and other official discriminatory practices have been utilized in many countries and are now in effect in those countries against minority groups.

FAVORABLE CHANGES IN COMMUNITY ACTIONS

It should not be assumed that prejudice and discrimination have been permitted to go unchallenged in our country. In May, 1908, the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church announced that it stood for "equal rights and complete justice for all men in all stations of life," and for "the recognition of the Golden Rule." Many similar pronouncements have been made by other religious groups and organizations.

More recent manifestations have been evident on many fronts. It was announced in April, 1952, that the Alpha Theta chapter of Theta Chi Fraternity at Dartmouth College had moved to eliminate the color line from its membership requirements, even at the risk of losing its national charter.

Elimination of discrimination aids personality development. (Courtesy of American Jewish Committee.)

It was voted to cease recognizing the so-called Caucasian clause in the constitution of the national fraternity. Similar action had previously been taken in other colleges.

A straw in the wind was the announcement in June, 1952, that Groton School, one of the country's most exclusive boys' preparatory schools, had completed arrangements for the admission of a Negro student for the first time in its history. In the field of medicine, the largest county medical society in the country, that of New York County, adopted a Resolution on Discrimination in January, 1952, which reads, in part, as follows: "That the Medical Society of the County of New York condemn the practice of discrimination or segregation in appointments to hospital staffs and internships; and that it condemn any attitude of discrimination because of race, color, sex or religious affiliation."

In the field of legislation, the United States Supreme Court has done much in recent years to void prejudiced and discriminatory acts and laws. On April 28, 1952, the Court upheld the right of Illinois to pass a "group libel" law prohibiting the publication, dissemination, or display of any lithograph, moving picture, play, drama, or sketch that would expose citizens of any race, creed, or color to contempt, derision, or obloquy.

As has been said, prejudices are fostered primarily by being transmitted to children. If prejudices passed on by biased parents can be counteracted in schools, churches, and other communal agencies while the children are still young, there is a chance for some progress. Likewise, if educators and religious and communal leaders will emphasize the fact that prejudices leave their impress on individual character and are harmful to the country as a whole, it may be possible to influence the adult mind.

Discrimination may require a parallel educational effort, as well as further legislation similar to that already in effect in a number of states. Both prejudice and discrimination are hard to overcome. Ingrained personal hatreds, local social patterns, political and economic competition, and other factors must be dealt with.

SUMMARY

Satisfactory social relations form the basis of effective communal living and the attainment of national strength. Factors which militate against these desirable objectives are especially evidenced in prejudice and discrimination. There are many causes for both of these phenomena. Some are deeply rooted in national and family attitudes; in conflicts that are an outgrowth of differences in language, political and religious beliefs, racial origin, mistaken concepts of racial superiority, and cultural conflicts. The individual who belongs to a minority or out-group in a community and achieves a measure of economic and/or other success helps to focus attention upon himself, and thereby often produces a tendency toward prejudice among the majority.

While it is fair to assume that college-trained men and women should be basically free of prejudices, studies made among college students do not bear out this expectation. Unquestionably, contacts in college with fellow students from various sections of the country and from foreign lands as well, of varying political beliefs and religious affiliations, tend to broaden the mental horizon and reduce prejudice. But students come to college with already acquired prejudices, and a major objective of their education is to help them to become clear-thinking individuals.

Race prejudice in the United States has been buttressed by the myth of race superiority and has been directed primarily against the Negro. Economic and social factors have also played their part, though there is accumulating evidence that the extent of this socially harmful phenomenon is slowly being reduced.

The abolition of discrimination on account of race, sex, creed, or color

Sixty nations representing all races now members of the United Nations. (Courtesy of the United Nations.)

has been made a part of our national policy by ratification of international treaties to which the United States is a party. This policy must eventually override any contrary state law. Article 55*c* of the Charter of the United Nations, which we have accepted and duly signed, reads in part as follows: "The United Nations shall promote . . . uniform respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language and religion."

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Cite cases in which sobriety, thrift, and hard work by a minority group have aided their economic and professional advancement. Show how these desirable behavior patterns may give rise to prejudice instead of praise.

2. What organizations function in the area of reducing racial and religious prejudice and promoting interfaith cooperation? How are their programs promoted in your community?

3. Since most prejudices develop especially during the school years—that is, twelve to sixteen—what programs of education would you propose to overcome this situation?

4. The evidences of prejudice among college students indicate the need for

some measures to deal with this situation. What are your suggestions, and how would you proceed to put your ideas into effect?

5. Cite examples of actions taken by college students to reduce prejudice and discrimination.

6. During the Middle Ages many Europeans preferred to die without medical treatment rather than to permit non-Christian physicians "in league with the devil" to treat them. During the Second World War many Japanese sailors preferred to die by drowning rather than permit their enemies—American Navy men—to save them. How do you interpret these phenomena?

7. List five personal discriminatory practices and indicate what measures can be taken to overcome them.

8. List ten official discriminatory practices and indicate what legal and other measures are necessary to deal with them.

9. Cite decisions of the United States Supreme Court which have affected discriminatory practices.

10. List your own prejudices. What can you do to overcome them?

11. Give examples of the kind of laws that should be enacted and the types of community action that should be initiated in order to reduce discrimination.

REFERENCES

Dollard, John, *et al., Frustration and Aggression,* Yale University Press, New Haven, 1939.

Doob, L. W., *Public Opinion and Propaganda,* Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

Klineberg, Otto, *Race Differences,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1935.

La Piere, R. T., and P. R. Farnsworth, *Social Psychology,* 3d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

Myrdall, Gunnar, *An American Dilemma,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1944.

Rose, Arnold, *The Roots of Prejudice,* Unesco, Paris, 1951.

United Nations, *Main Types and Causes of Discrimination,* New York, 1949.

Vaughan, W. F., *Personal and Social Adjustment,* The Odyssey Press, Inc., New York, 1952.

CHAPTER 16

PROPAGANDA AND MASS PSYCHOLOGY

In 1786, when Thomas Jefferson was President of the United States, he wrote as follows in a letter to George Washington: "It is an axiom in my mind that our liberty can never be safe but in the hands of the people themselves, and that, too, of the people with a certain degree of instruction. This is the business of the State to effect and on a general plan."

A general reinforcement of this concept of the responsibility of a democracy in the field of education was expressed by Washington in 1796 in his *Farewell Address to the American People:* "Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion be enlightened."

The importance of education and of the development of public opinion as joint essentials for an effective democracy were clearly stated by these early American statesmen. They were clear-sighted men whose objective it was to plan and build a democracy so that it would thrive under the control of a literate and informed citizenry. Other American leaders who followed Washington and Jefferson were likewise concerned with the task of providing educational opportunities for children and adults. However, with the increase in literacy and the expansion of means of communication, new problems arose. They relate to the use of propaganda.

DEFINITION AND NATURE OF PROPAGANDA

Propaganda is an ancient phenomenon in society. A well-known example is found in the third act of Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar,* in which Mark

Antony addresses a crowd of Romans, beginning with the words:

> Friends, Romans, Countrymen, lend me your ears;
> I come to bury Caesar, not to praise him.

The long propaganda speech ends:

> . . . there were an Antony
> Would ruffle up your spirits, and put a tongue
> In every wound of Caesar, that should move
> The stones of Rome to rise and mutiny.

Propaganda has been defined in the following terms: "As generally understood, propaganda is an expression of opinion or action by individuals or groups deliberately designed to influence opinions or actions of other individuals or groups with reference to predetermined ends." Used for the purpose of stimulating action, as through the public press, over the radio, and on television, it can serve a useful purpose in our daily lives. It may, however, be put to selfish uses, to serve special interests, arouse prejudice, and create dissension and discrimination. An extreme example of the negative phase was cited in a newspaper editorial entitled "Lies and Loyalty": "The Soviet Government, like the Hitler Government before it, has exalted the lie not merely into an instrument of propaganda, but into a pillar of policy." [1]

The Institute for Propaganda Analysis [2] has classified propaganda devices into seven categories.

1. *Name calling,* which consists in giving a person, group, or idea a bad label, so that we reject it without examining the evidence; examples are "foreigner," "Red," "sissy."

2. *Glittering generality,* which implies the association of a person, group, or idea with a virtue word, so that we accept it without probing deeper. Examples are "civilization," "patriotism," "motherhood."

3. *Transfer,* which carries the authority and prestige of someone or something who is respected over to something else, in order to make the latter acceptable or unacceptable.

4. *The testimonial* device is similar in that someone who is loved or hated says that a given idea is good or bad, as "Our minister said . . . ," "Communists favor . . ."

[1] *New York Times,* May 17, 1952.

[2] Institute for Propaganda Analysis, *Propaganda Analysis,* Vol. 1, Nos. 2 and 3, November–December, 1937.

5. *The plain folks* device makes a thing acceptable because it is "homey," or the person presenting it is of the people. Photographs of a presidential candidate fishing, pitching hay, running a tractor are examples.

6. *Card stacking* involves the selection and use of ideas, true or false, logical or illogical, on one side of the situation only.

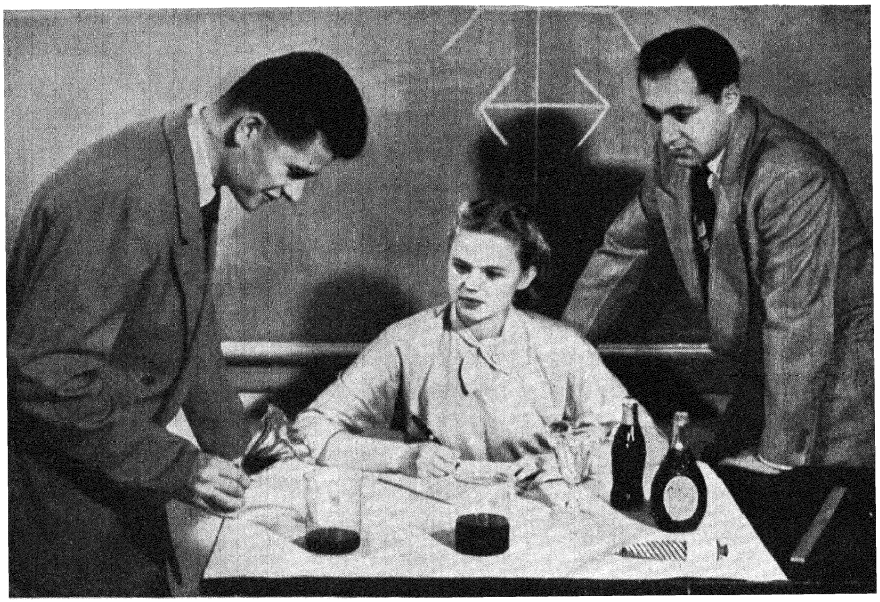
7. *The band-wagon* technique suggests that "everybody's doing it," and so moves a group to follow suit.

Despite distinct psychological limitations, there are areas in which propagandists and propaganda devices can achieve considerable success. Sometimes the ultimate effects have a measure of value in them. There are many instances of propaganda which can be socially useful. Propaganda directed at curbing child labor and the control of hazardous occupations, improving the preparation and salaries of school teachers as well as building adequate schools, modifying inequities in taxation and increasing old-age benefits—these and many other propaganda efforts can be listed on the positive side. In other instances, as in arousing mob psychology with attendant crowd action, lynchings, and conflicts, the results are socially harmful. An analysis of these and related situations follows.

SUGGESTION

Propaganda attempts to change and control attitudes, beliefs, emotions, and conduct. Chief among the methods used is suggestion. The action sought may range from voting for a designated political candidate to buying a particular brand of cigarettes, or it may even be attacking a presumed antagonist. A stimulus is used to induce the ready acceptance of an idea which will result in an action previously determined by the propagandist or advertiser. An important aspect of suggestion is the avoidance of rational persuasion.

Two methods of suggestion are generally used. One is direct suggestion, the aim of which is to stimulate individuals to take some specific and immediate step, such as buying a certain brand of merchandise. If successful, the suggester's recommendation will be followed by a certain percentage of those who are reached through magazine and newspaper advertisements, word of mouth, radio, television, or otherwise. In any event, no suggestion will bring universal response to the specific stimulus. The attitudes and conduct of some will be favorably influenced, while others less susceptible to such propaganda will remain unmoved. Indirect suggestion is a mental process involving the setting up of an association which aims to avoid direct connection or affiliation. The effort of the propagandist or sug-



Analyzing packaging. College psychological laboratory studies application of psychology by industry in the field of suggestion. (Courtesy of Hillyer College, Hartford, Conn.)

gester is not readily obvious to those reached. The appeal is more subtle than in the instance of the direct method of suggestion. The result is that attitudes may be only partially affected on a short-term basis.

The success of propaganda measures, in so far as suggestion is concerned, depends upon two major aspects: the nature of the appeal, and the receptivity to the appeal. During times of national emergency, for instance, a direct appeal to patriotism has a high rate of response. The successful propagandist must be a good psychologist and understand the application of psychological principles. As a general rule, the propagandist seeks to suggest ways and means of satisfying personal wants and meeting emotional drives. He may also direct attention to strongly held political, religious, and other beliefs and attitudes.

Studies have indicated that the success of suggestion as a propaganda device depends upon a number of factors.[3] Evidently, some people, for various personal reasons, are more apt to react favorably to suggestion than others. For instance, the uninformed are more apt to believe what they read in newspapers, what they hear over the radio, and what they are told

[3] W. F. Vaughan, *Social Psychology,* pp. 232–233, 1948.

by skilled propagandists, politicians, and salesmen. Age likewise plays an important part, the young and inexperienced being more susceptible than the more mature and experienced. There are many men and women who are readily influenced by those in authority and by individuals whose social, financial, and other prestige factors are comparatively high. This may be because of a will to believe on their part, to feel that they are on the side of the legally constituted powers and the socially accredited in the community.

Suggestion is the major bulwark of most advertising. People engaged in developing advertising campaigns carefully study the composition of the audience they plan to reach, the media through which they can be approached, the best method of presenting a particular product so that it will be favorably accepted, and inducements leading to the purchase of the advertised product. In addition, accepted psychological principles are followed, including the need for repetition, day after day, in publications and on the radio and television, of the same slogan, the same picture, the same personality. What is attempted, in short, is through suggestion to focus the attention of the public on an idea or product. The degree of success will in large measure be determined by the intensity of such attention created by the advertiser or other propagandist.

MASS PSYCHOLOGY

The Greek philosopher Plato was a keen observer and teacher. In his most celebrated dialogue, *The Republic,* we find the following statement on mass psychology:

> Whenever they [the public] crowd to the popular assembly, the law courts, the theatres, the camp, or any public gathering of large bodies, and there sit in a dense and uproarious mass to censure some of the things said or done, and applaud others, always in excess; shouting and clapping until, in addition to their own noise, the rocks and the places wherein they are echo back redoubled the uproar of their censure and applause. At such a moment how is a young man, think you, to retain his self-possession? Can any private education that he has received hold out against such a torrent of censure and applause, and avoid being swept away down the stream, wherever it may lead, until he is brought to adopt the language of these men as to what is honorable and dishonorable, and to imitate all their practices and to become their very counterpart?

These comments by a wise observer of crowd behavior are as applicable today as they were when first written nearly twenty-four centuries ago.

Society is still concerned with mass psychology. With the growth of urban populations and the crowding of many thousands and even millions of people in comparatively small areas, mass reactions are an increasingly important factor. Whether crowd behavior will be harmful depends in large measure on the composition of the crowd, the purpose for which it is gathered, and the influence of self-appointed or selected leaders.

In 1895 Gustave Le Bon published in France his popular work which has been translated as *The Crowd: a Study of the Popular Mind.* From the psychological point of view, Le Bon held that the word crowd assumes a very different meaning from its ordinary definition of a gathering of individuals. Under certain circumstances a gathering of people presents characteristics very different from those of the individuals who compose the group. The sentiments and ideas of all the persons in the gathering take one and the same direction, and their individual conscious personalities vanish. A collective mind is formed, though it may be transitory, and presents clearly defined characteristics. The gathering has become an organized crowd, with its own distinctive psychological reactions.

Le Bon went somewhat beyond the limits of actual crowd behavior in assuming that most or all crowds behaved as a unit. Modern social psychologists recognize his contribution to the study of crowds, but do not agree that all crowds develop a group mind. There are various gradations in their behavior, and they may act differently at various times.

In considering the psychology of crowds, it is essential to classify them for the purpose of achieving a better understanding of their actions. Obviously, a crowd of people in a railroad station or a department store, or peacefully walking along an avenue, are just so many individuals, not concerned with one another particularly, and certainly with no unified psychological approach to any given problem. Such a group is just a casual gathering with no specific objective.

A common phenomenon on the American scene is a crowd at a baseball or football game, at a tennis match or swimming meet. Such groups of spectators have come together for a definite purpose, namely, that of observing and cheering the competitors in good sportsmanship. Such gatherings present no psychological problems.

A third type of crowd is that which has come together for dancing, picnics, or similar activities in which they behave not as observers, but as active participants in pleasant physical and social activities. Again, such groups show none of the negative manifestations of crowd psychology.

Mass psychology can be an effective tool for positive, as well as negative, purposes. (Courtesy of American Social Hygiene Association.)

Crowd Behavior. There is, however, another type of crowd with which society must be concerned, and that is the gathering which of itself, or through the stimulus provided by a leader, becomes an aggressive mob. It is in such groups that the crowd or mass mind may develop with a transient objective and an increased state of suggestibility.

Crowds may be composed of individuals drawn from various economic, cultural, and social groups. However, in a crowd of coal miners, automobile workers, or truck drivers, for example, involved in some such action as a labor dispute, there is a fairly common base. Whether a crowd is homogeneous or is diversified, a major change relates to the moral standards according to which its members behave as individuals. In the crowd an individual often loses his inhibitions. While he shows no aggressive tendencies toward neighbors, fellow workers, or even strangers in the course of his daily activities, once he joins a crowd and becomes an anonymous member of it, his moral standards seem to desert him. The inward emotional balance is upset, and the habits which his social life has cultivated may be reversed. Many persons who are normally mild seem to lose their timidity once they become enmeshed in a crowd situation, and take on the behavior pattern set by the group of which they are tem-

porarily an integral part. The fear of possible punishment deserts them, and they participate in physical violence and property destruction.

It is recognized that a sense of elation and emotional release is generated through crowd action. The naturally aggressive individual must ordinarily curb such tendencies in day-to-day existence. The timid person may have long nurtured the desire to break out of bounds but may not have dared to do so alone. Those whose lives are full of the sameness of daily repetitive work, with few if any opportunities for satisfying and exciting experiences—such individuals may utilize the crowd or mob situation to give expression to latent urges.

Those who are emotionally well-balanced and have high moral and intellectual standards do not as a rule participate in aggressive crowd or mob activities. Individuals who do take part in destructive and antisocial crowd behavior subsequently attempt to justify their actions to themselves. They may have a feeling of guilt and a sense of shame, but at the same time they rationalize what they have done on various grounds. A pose of self-righteousness becomes part of the idea of a "job well done," no matter who was hurt and what damage was perpetrated.

The Crowd and the Leader. The leader principle is an old phenomenon. It has been used from time immemorial by men who have sought to climb to power and fame through the manipulation of crowds and even of whole nations. The totalitarian leaders of the last three decades are adequate examples of their methods and of the price society has had to pay for their machinations. Le Bon noted that leaders of crowds wield a despotic authority, and this despotism is one of the conditions of obtaining a following. Evidently, such leaders must be egocentric and ruthless and demand the blind fulfillment of their commands by those who want to be followers or disciples.

A crowd is but an unorganized mob unless a leader appears and is accepted as such by the majority of individuals composing the mass. They need to be told what to do, even though they may already have made up their minds as to the pattern of conduct they would like to follow.

The leader centralizes the thoughts and helps to focus the activities of members of the crowd in a direction in which they are already bent. If it means breaking through jail doors, the crowd is already intent on that purpose, has collected through rumor or otherwise for the job they have assigned themselves, that of seizing a prisoner, and the leader merely falls in line and directs the march to the town jail.

Effective leaders of crowds or mobs, determined to take the law into

their own hands, are more properly designated as demagogues. They utilize every oratorical trick they are capable of and whatever theatrical devices they are acquainted with. The recognized way of carrying out their purpose is to play on the fears, hatreds, prejudices, and aggressive drives of their listeners or readers. The more skilled and unscrupulous such rabble-rousers are, the greater is the following and the more marked its readiness to accuse, whip, beat, burn, kidnap, or lynch.

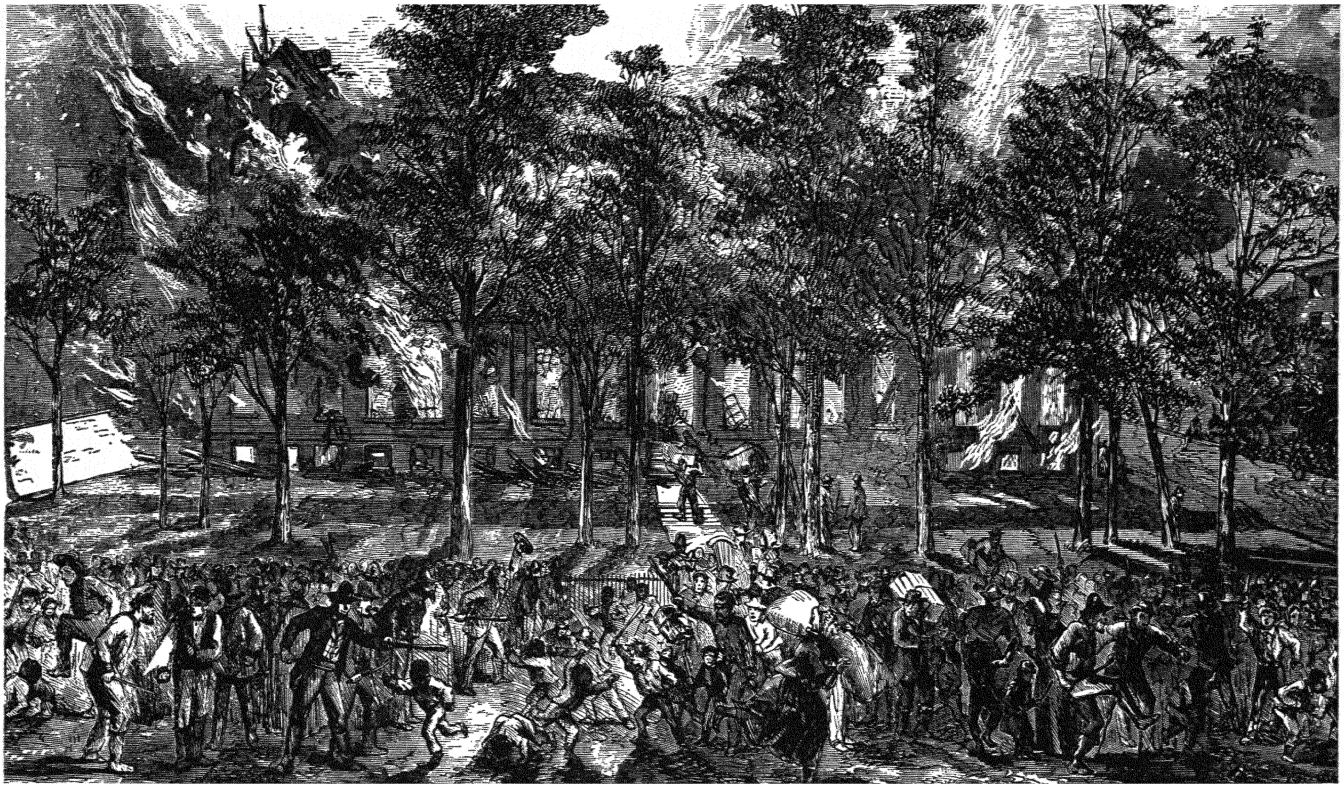
The leader arouses in his followers a feeling of resentment against others, thus helping them to project their own shortcomings upon readily accessible minority groups. By playing on the emotions of the crowd he creates in the minds of his followers the idea that he has but one purpose in mind, to right the wrongs that have been perpetrated upon them, and to serve them selflessly. He becomes the father-substitute for many individuals who do not see a way out of their own troubles. They are prepared to follow him, for he promises redress and fulfillment. At the same time he provides all the necessary excuses and justifications for whatever violent action may be taken.

Crowd Violence. Antisocial conduct by crowds has been a blot upon the history of our country for many years. The Draft Riots in New York of Civil War days; the Haymarket riots in Chicago in 1886; the riots and violence between whites and Negroes in Chicago during July, 1919, which lasted for thirteen days and caused the death of twenty-three Negroes and fifteen whites, with hundreds injured and a thousand rendered homeless; the riots during the depression in 1935 in New York's Harlem area; the severe disturbances in Detroit in 1941 and 1943; and Cicero in 1951—these are but some of the incidents of crowd violence. There have been many more, from the earliest days of our history as a nation down to the present time. In each of these instances passions were aroused that led to aggressive acts against persons and destruction of property.

The Draft Riots in New York City began on July 13, 1863, and lasted for about a week before they were completely under control. An official account [4] of the riots reads in part as follows:

> The riot which commenced on the first day of the Draft was ostensibly in opposition to the Draft, but early took the character of an outbreak for the purpose of pillage, and also of outrage upon the colored population. For the first three days business was almost entirely suspended, the railroads and omnibuses ceased running. Prowling gangs of ruffians rendered it unsafe to walk the streets. From 400 to 500 rioters were killed by the police.

[4] D. M. Barnes, *Draft Riots in New York,* Baker and Godwin, New York, 1863.



Draft riot in New York City, and sacking and burning of Colored Orphan Asylum. (Harper's Weekly, Aug. 1, 1863.)

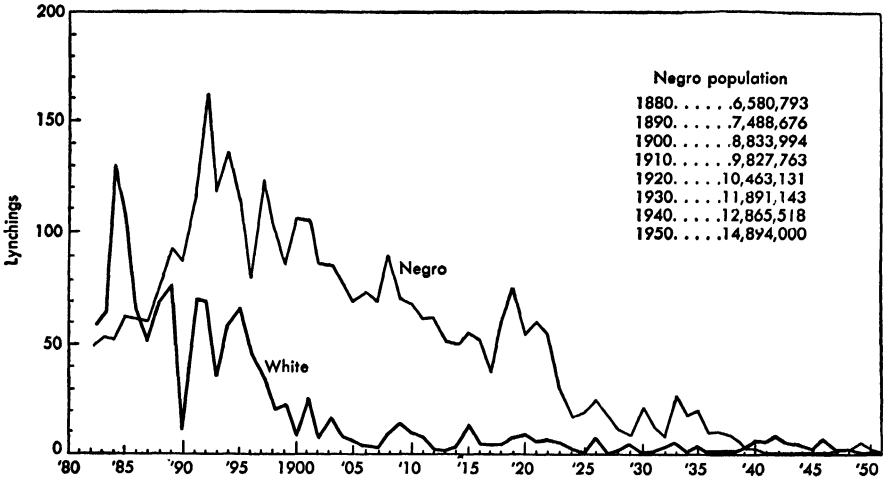
One element requiring consideration in so far as crowd violence is concerned is the presence in every community of a segment of population which might be termed riot-prone. Usually this group includes those who have no basic family or other ties in the community; among them are the maladjusted and jobless and the mentally abnormal, whether feeble-minded, psychotic, psychoneurotic, constitutionally psychopathic, or belonging in a combination of these categories. They are often troublesome individuals at best, and can readily be stirred to participate in violent acts against persons and property if the leadership becomes available. Once the violence and rioting are under way, the leader loses control, usually, and it takes the superior force of the police, or even the military, to bring a stop to the antisocial conduct.

This type of behavior may be precipitated by local conditions, such as inefficiency of officials and discrimination in the matter of housing, occupations, public recreational facilities, etc. But these factors are generally not sufficient in themselves to cause severe social disruptions. A contributing cause is the failure of human inhibitions to function in preventing such conduct. Children must be brought up with the concept of restraining and inhibiting acts which are grossly antisocial. Otherwise they may reach late adolescence and adulthood inadequately prepared from a psychological point of view to function as emotionally and socially mature citizens of their communities. Standards should be set early in life and followed through the years of individual responsibility if communal violence is to be curbed.

Crowd violence is often an outward sign of repressed prejudice and hatred nurtured over a period of time. By finding someone to hate, or creating the fiction that a group in the community should be hated and therefore punished, the crowd and its egoistic leaders try to create an outlet for their own aggressive and even sadistic tendencies. This has been most evident in the United States in so far as the Negroes are concerned. Crowd violence, directed at the Negroes by the Ku Klux Klan, has perpetrated a long series of illegal acts which have had a detrimental influence on the opinion of our country held by peoples in various parts of the world. Reference is made, of course, to the shameful phenomenon of lynching, or the taking of human life without due process of law.

LYNCHING

A lynching mob may be defined as a congregate group of individuals who feel strongly that certain of their values are threatened and whose



Lynchings in the United States, 1882–1951.

attitudes direct them to injure or kill a human being. In seeking for an answer to the question "How did lynching start in the first place?", we realize that unruly mobs in all parts of the world have practiced lynching, although it has not been designated by this specific term.

In the United States, in the time of slavery, the slave owner had jurisdiction over the punishment of his slaves. White slave owners thus became accustomed to the idea of regulating the conduct of Negro slaves; they could use physical force upon them with the consent and approval of the law.

Mob action against the Negro, however, occurred infrequently until the close of the slavery period. In the decade from 1850 to 1860, of forty-six Negroes accused of murder of their masters or overseers, twenty-six were summarily executed; and of seventeen Negroes put to death for rape or attempted rape, twelve were killed by mobs. It was not until after the Civil War, during the Reconstruction period and later, that the lynching of Negroes became almost a pattern of conduct in some parts of this country.

The term lynching is presumed to have been coined from the name of Colonel Charles Lynch of Virginia (1736–1796) who was a Revolutionary patriot and employed extralegal methods of trial and punishment against Tories harassing the Continental Army. The *Freedom's Journal* for Aug. 3, 1827, published in New York, carried a news item dated Tuscaloosa, Alabama, June 20, 1827, telling of the lynching of a Negro. This may have been the first newspaper report on such an incident. It was headed

Horrid Occurrence and told in detail of the burning to death of a Negro accused of theft and murder.

FREEDOM'S JOURNAL

NEW-YORK, AUGUST 3.

HORRIBLE! MOST HORRIBLE!

In the last number of this paper, notice was taken of a *"shooting excursion,* which was recently published in Alabama. Three men were then killed without a shadow of authority, other than lawless power. Below is detailed an account of the BURNING OF A HUMAN BEING!!! with merely a *semblance* of legal process. When will the measure of those heaven-daring monsters' iniquity be filled! Truly, the arm of an avenging God will soon be extended over their demoniac heads! Is it *possible* that these things can be practiced under the government of the *United States?* and *dare* the pretended friends of liberty longer hold their peace? A man that is lukewarm in such a case has become as callous-hearted as the prince of evil himself. His soul must be seared, and dead to every human feeling. But read the article.—*Genius of Uni. Eman.*

TUSCALOOSA, Alab. June 20.

Horrid Occurrence. — Some time during the last week one of those outrageous transactions—and we really think, disgraceful to the character of civilized man, took place near the north east boundary line of Perry, adjoining Bibb and Autauga counties. The circumstances, we are informed by a gentleman from that county, are—"That a Mr. McNeily having lost some clothing or some other property, of no great value, the slave of a neighbouring planter was charged with the theft. McNeily, in company with his brother, found the negro driving his master's wagon, they seized him, and either did or were about to chastise him, when the negro stabbed McNeily, so that he died in an hour afterwards; the negro was taken before a Justice of the Peace who, after serious deliberation, waved his authority—perhaps through fear, as the crowd of persons from the above counties had collected to the number of seventy or eighty, near Mr. People's (the justice) house. He acted as president of the mob, and put the vote, when it was decided he should be immediately executed by being *burnt to death*—the sable culprit was led to a tree and tied to it, and a large quantity of pine knots collected and placed around him, and the fatal torch was applied to the pile, even against the remonstrances of several gentlemen who were present; and the miserable being was in a short time burnt to ashes. An inquest was held over the remains and the Sheriff of Perry county, with a company of about twenty men, repaired to the neighbourhood where this barbarous act took place, to secure those concerned, but with what success we have not heard, but we hope he will succeed in bringing the perpetrators of so high-handed a measure to account to their country for their conduct in this affair. This is the second negro who has been thus put to death, without Judge or Jury in that county.

From *Freedom's Journal,* New York, Aug. 3, 1827.

The development of the United States underwent rapid changes in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Settlements were in many cases established before law and order could catch up with them, with the result that serious crimes were often dealt with on a vigilante basis. Since no local courts, police, or jails were available, people tended to be impatient with the long delays entailed in legal procedures and hence became bold about taking matters into their own hands. That is why summary hanging of white men in the West and Southwest for serious crimes was a fairly common phenomenon. With the establishment of civil government, the number of such incidents rapidly declined.

Causes of Lynching. An attempt to determine the causes of lynching, especially in the South, where the Negro is the victim, involves consideration of the historical, psychological, social, economic, educational, geographic, religious, and moral history and standards of the people.

In many small southern communities the Negroes equal or outnumber the whites. A type of hysteria may seize white men at the slightest hint, rumor, or suspicion of sexual contact between a Negro and a white female. Of course, they give little thought to the reverse pattern. Some observers have suggested that the sense of guilt among white men for past actions and current behavior in relation to Negro females is the basis of much of the emotional tension that has led to lynchings and beatings of Negro men, and women too.

This phenomenon may be compared to the witch-hunting which was a fairly common occurrence in early Colonial days in New England. The Southern communities in which lynchings have taken place are, in many ways, comparable to the drab, dull, insecure settlements in which the witch hunters lived two hundred and more years ago. Likewise, the harsh, puritanical, religious modes and practices imposed by the clergy of those days are comparable to the type of primitive religious teachings which have been common in the areas of the South in which lynching has occurred.

The white, in order to keep up his own morale in the face of the low economic, social, and educational scale in which he exists, attempts to project his own troubles to another. The victim is readily available. He is the Negro, who "must be kept in his place," and the poor white man proceeds to do so when he can. Sometimes his psychological reactions lead him and others like him to participate in a "lynching party." Fortunately, however, such instances have begun to approach the vanishing point. The Southern well-to-do landowner often wants to keep the Negro under control for personal economic reasons.

Some Psychological Factors. Many attempts have been made to provide an explanation of the causes of lynching. A leading American psychiatrist, the late Dr. A. A. Brill,[5] called lynching a perversion and explained it in the following statement:

> The torture which is an accompaniment of modern lynching shows that it is an act of perversion only found in those suffering from extreme forms of sexual perversion. Of course, not all lynchings are conducted in this fashion, but it is not uncommon to read accounts telling that the victim was tortured with hot irons, that his eyes were burned out, and that other monstrous cruelties were inflicted upon him. Such bestiality can be recognized only as a form of perversion.

Another psychological angle is that both frustration and aggression play an important part in lynching, as they do in various forms of conflict. The aggressive tendencies and attitudes of lynchers, as has already been indicated, most probably have their basis in emotional, economic, and social frustrations to which they are subject. The aggressive lynchers are frustrated individuals who are looking for a scapegoat, and find it in the Negro.

Various students of the South, especially of white-Negro relationships, have been critical of the predominating religious groups in that part of the country. They point out that the prohibitions which are given religious sanction include such social diversions as card playing, dancing, and attending the theater. As a result, other emotional outlets have been sought; among these lynching has played its part. In due justice to the great majority of Southerners, it should be emphasized that it is generally agreed that those who engage in such bestial activities include primarily the emotionally disturbed and maladjusted, the perverted (as Dr. Brill has pointed out), the immature and uneducated, and that segment of the population which suffers from other psychopathological conditions which largely go unrecognized in isolated rural communities. The evidence of emotionalism and frenzy in mob actions accompanying lynchings can be explained primarily on these grounds.

CONFLICT

The term conflict is applied both to an inner emotional struggle and to an interpersonal fight or clash. In conflicts of the latter kind, one or more persons may be involved on either side, or even on each of several sides.

[5] National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, *Tenth Annual Report,* 1919, p. 16.

Such factors as aggression, frustration, and competition may play a part in a specific conflict. Group conflicts are often stirred into activity and continued through propaganda measures that arouse hatred and prejudice.

It has been pointed out that individuals whose upbringing, experiences, and status in life have exposed them to inner conflicts which they cannot resolve satisfactorily develop emotional tensions. The more difficult the situation, the less likely is it that they will be able to face their problems and frustrations without some form of aggression. A question that naturally arises is why many individuals are able to find satisfactory solutions for their troubles while others become involved in personal conflicts. One explanation is that the latter have not been adequately prepared during their early years to deal with conditions that inevitably arise in later life.

The individual brought up as a child in poverty generally adjusts without difficulty to economic adversity in adulthood. On the other hand, individuals to whom nothing was denied that money could buy often find that the necessity to work, to do without things to which they have been accustomed, makes life "not worth living." The conflicts that are set up within them had their origins in earlier years of plenty. A similar conflict arises in the lives of those who set their social, economic, and artistic goals so high that they must inevitably be disappointed. Families find individuals subject to such conflicts hard to live with, and a break often follows. Whether the difficulty arises from a change in fortune or from striving for goals that are impossibly high, all must resolve their conflicts on a realistic basis or pay the price in maladjustment.

Religions and systems of philosophy emphasize the eternal personal struggle between good and evil, light and darkness. All individuals have certain inner drives which demand satisfaction. When society or our environment stands in the way and prohibits the fulfillment of our wishes and urges, conflicts inevitably develop. As has been pointed out, a major function of psychoanalytic therapy, for instance, is concerned with the attempt to resolve such difficulties. Many recognize the fact that their lives are impaired by emotional tensions and frustrations, and try to find solutions for them. They may do so through some such psychological mechanism as rationalization or substitution or they may seek the assistance of a competent psychoanalyst, psychiatrist, or psychologist.

Race Conflicts. The emphasis in this area of conflict again relates to the psychological components of the individuals concerned. This is one of the oldest forms of human conflict. It grows, in part, out of the set of values one group endows itself with, exaggerating such values while at the

same time underrating those of others with whom contact is maintained. Aristotle, for instance, taught that the differences between free men and slaves were set by nature; that some races are destined to be masters and others slaves. Unfortunately, remnants of this concept are still evident. The continuing racial conflict in South Africa is a case in point.

Class Conflicts. Conflicts between the "haves" and the "have-nots" go back to earliest times. The bitterness growing out of economic adjustments relating to wages and working conditions is slowly yet surely finding some basis of reduction in this country. A better understanding of the points of view and needs of labor; an increased knowledge of economic factors by labor; legislation and arbitration—all are reducing class conflicts growing out of previously held prejudices on both sides.

Religious Conflicts. There is, fortunately, a wide margin between the religious conflicts that were common in Europe and elsewhere a few centuries ago and the situation today. Much blood was shed in inquisitions, massacres, and attempts at enforced conversions. While some signs of conflict are still evident, they have taken on forms which give promise of adjustment to an appreciation of each man's freedom to believe as his conscience directs him. That is a basic tenet of the Constitution of the United States.

Urban versus Rural Conflicts. Such conflicts have largely disappeared in this country. The special needs and interests of the rural population no longer conflict to any degree with those of urban areas. Such difficulties in the past—and any that exist at present—relate to water rights for irrigation purposes, to the use of grazing lands, and to intrusions such as the wiping out of rural areas to build dams for a needed water supply for an urban community. Another facet of the urban-rural struggle has been the problem of keeping the young people born into rural, farming families, on the farm. With the increase in conveniences, including good roads, telephones, automobiles, district schools, and high schools, this conflict has been largely resolved.

Political Conflicts. Nowadays, political conflicts are ordinarily peaceful affairs. But in parts of the world which have not matured in the democratic processes, political struggles still assume violent forms, including assassination and revolution. These phenomena have been quite frequent in the Near East, Central and South America, Cuba, and neighboring West Indian countries. The bitterness, aggression, and conflict shown in such political upheavals are evidence of underlying psychological problems and social and economic difficulties.

International Conflicts. Many have tried to determine why international conflict or war takes place. Many have sought ways of avoiding and stopping wars—from the Old Testament prophet Isaiah ("They shall beat their swords into plowshares, and their spears into pruninghooks") to the United Nations of the present. Wars are caused primarily by hatred and fear, but plunder, pillage, economic and territorial aggrandizement, dynasty struggles for control, prestige, and religious and ideological factors have played their part. Hatred finds its outlet in aggression and fear in preparation for war or defense.

A pretext for attacks upon another country is easily invented if an issue is not readily available. Tensions inevitably exist between peoples, especially if their lands adjoin one another. Such tensions and frustrations create a fertile field in which to initiate conflict. The objective of war, in its barest form, is the conquest of persons and the property of those against whom war is planned and conducted. The psychological factors are many, and depend not only on propaganda by those who want to lead their nation into the conflict, but on many more phenomena. A great task civilization faces is to study psychological, social, economic, political, ethical, and other measures that may lead to a stable peace and the outlawry of war.

SUMMARY

Propaganda takes many forms. It may serve society or be harmful in various and lasting ways. Through the utilization of propaganda techniques people may be swayed in favor of a specific issue—for peace and other worthwhile causes—or for war and conquest. When for the latter, frustration, anxiety, tension, and conflict are apt to arise. It is the aim of the antisocial propagandist to bring about such a state of affairs in order to promote the objective he has in mind. In carrying out this purpose, the attempt is made to work upon the feelings of crowds; to create scapegoats; to make unsupported accusations; to dwell upon actual or presumed injustices, inequities, and selfish interests. Out of such verbal assaults, especially upon minority groups, conflict may be initiated leading to serious personal and social consequences.

The individual facing an ordinary conflict situation can deal with it most effectively by facing up to it rather than by trying to avoid it by various subterfuges. This involves a recognition and admission of one's own shortcomings, instead of attempting to provide various excuses for them. Self-respect is involved, and it is often difficult to admit personal

lapses. When groups and nations are involved, the situation becomes more complex, rising to a pinnacle in the case of the latter.

Avoidance of conflict on an interpersonal basis is a comparatively simple procedure when compared to conflict on an interracial or international scope. In such instances factors of history, economics, population pressure, prestige, and many others are involved. There are distinct psychological concepts which can be used in reaching an understanding of large-scale conflicts. Their utilization through propaganda and mass psychological methods might do much to reduce the various manifestations of conflict readily evident in family and social circles, in groups of college students, workers, employers, in religious organizations, in small and large nations. The elimination or at least the allaying of varying degrees of conflict might go far toward bringing about better understanding, cooperation, and peace in a troubled world.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Cite examples of how propaganda has been used to influence local, national, and international groups.
2. Summarize the observations of Plato on mass psychology, and show what application they have in modern times
3. What is the core of Le Bon's concept of crowd psychology?
4. What part does the leader principle play in crowd manipulation? How does the leader achieve his purposes?
5. Give three examples of crowd violence and indicate what, in your opinion, were the basic causes of the conflicts.
6. Summarize the facts as to lynchings in the United States. Give the major causes of this phenomenon.
7. List five types of conflict and the major causes of them.
8. What types of conflict occur on the college campus? What are their major causes?
9. In view of the fact that the League of Nations was disbanded and that the United Nations is facing difficulties, what measures would you suggest as means of avoiding international conflicts ending in war?

REFERENCES

Cantril, Hadley, *The Psychology of Social Movements,* John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1941.

Davie, M. R., *Negroes in American Society,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

Doob, L. W., *Propaganda: Its Psychology and Technique,* Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1935.

Kisker, G. W., ed., *World Tension,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1951.
Le Bon, Gustave, *The Crowd,* T. F. Unwin, London, 1922.
Lewin, Kurt, *Resolving Social Conflicts,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1948.
May, M. A., *A Social Psychology of War and Peace,* Yale University Press, New Haven, 1943.
Sargent, S. S., *Social Psychology,* The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1950.

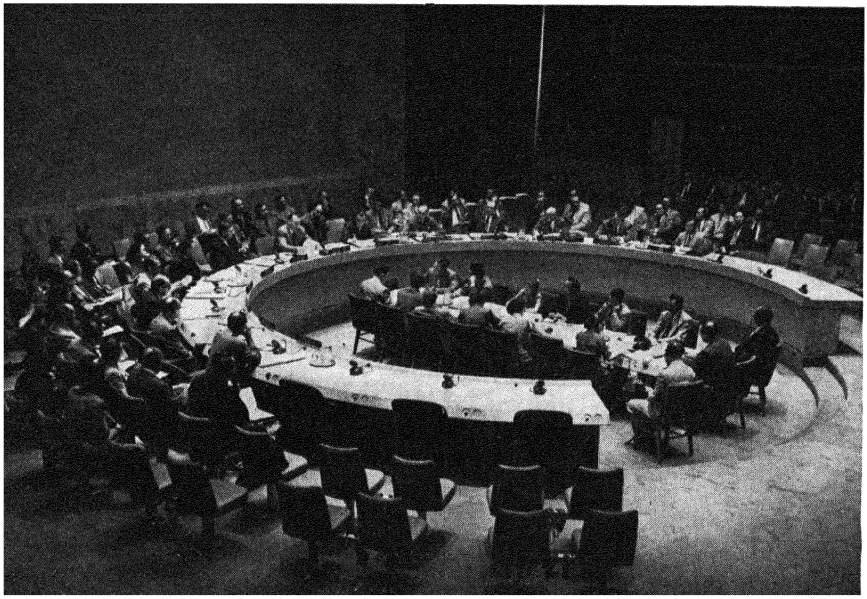
CHAPTER 17

COOPERATION AND COMPETITION

Interpersonal conflicts and conflicts between nations have loomed large in human history. That explains the necessity for an extensive system of courts and jails, judges and police, armies and navies. International conflicts or fear of them still trouble the world. They are responsible for many social ills, including the tremendous financial burdens which weigh down the peoples of the earth. The progress of humanity is seriously hindered by this constant threat. Unless the United Nations and other efforts of men of good will to reduce or eliminate wars are successful, the destruction of civilization may be the price that will have to be paid for international instability in this age of atomic warfare.

In the natural course of events, most conflicts are resolved. Either or both contenders are exhausted or defeat is admitted by one of them. Negotiations for a settlement of the conflict usually follow, and the conflicting individuals, groups, or nations, assume a new status. They then attempt to reach a working agreement, which may involve one or more of the following procedures: compromise, arbitration, conciliation, mediation, integration, assimilation, toleration, or coercion. Subsequently, an accepted set of relationships evolves and a state of equilibrium or accommodation follows between the contenders.

This state is a conscious and deliberate result of the effort to settle a conflict, whatever the motivating factors may have been. There are situations, however, in which accommodation does not necessarily follow. This is particularly true in the struggle between special interests representing



United Nations Security Council in session on chemical warfare depicts the process of accommodation. This is defined as a permanent or temporary cessation of combative interchange which, although not settling the issue involved, permits the struggling parties to function cooperatively in some respects. (Courtesy of United Nations.)

autocracy and the mass represented by democracy; between the system of Western capitalism and the avowed antagonists represented by Communism. The last paragraph of the Communist Manifesto prepared by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels reads as follows: "The Communists disdain to conceal their views and aims. They openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communist revolution. The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains."

Whether or not democratic countries will be able to avoid conflict by resolving or compromising difficulties with Fascist and Communist powers remains to be seen. Reaching a state of accommodation requires a two-fold approach—by both antagonists, potential or actual.

Accommodation is a permanent or temporary termination of rivalrous interaction, which, while not necessarily settling the issue involved, permits the contending parties to function cooperatively at least in some respects. It is a stage in the cooperative process. Forms of accommodation are commonly found in employer-employee and husband-wife relation-

ships. In the former, such measures as are taken to achieve accommodation through arbitration, conciliation, or compromise may in some instances lead to a degree of cooperation. The same holds true in the marital partnership. Newly married young couples quickly learn that they are different, have different interests, beliefs, prejudices, etc. Arguments and even conflicts may develop. But the experience of living together and loving each other leads to compromise, understanding, accommodation, and cooperation. Without such processes, married life would be extremely difficult for many couples.

As a forerunner of cooperation, accommodation is particularly evident in the democratic processes. The political system of democracies—as differentiated from the one-party system in Fascist and Communist countries—requires that the party in power should always be balanced by a minority group. This makes it necessary to establish a plan of political accommodation, whereby the majority party is given due recognition and accepts specific responsibilities. The minority group, for its part, often finds it desirable to reach a state of accommodation which includes compromise and conciliation. In times of urgent need or national emergency, both the majority, or office-holding, group and the minority usually cooperate effectively for the public good.

An example of the political aspects of mediation, compromise, accommodation, and cooperation is a statement made by the late United States Senator Vandenberg.[1]

> I cannot be effective as a mediator if I forget the realities of politics. My party has a fundamental problem. It is still divided between those who do not want to assume world responsibilities and those who do. The Republican Party has this dilemma: if it does not cooperate in the world, it will be blamed for destroying the peace, as in 1920. If it cooperates too much with the Democratic Administration, it will be charged with having no policy of its own. Therefore, as I see it, we must cooperate in the theater where we could lose everything, which is Europe, and oppose the Administration in the Far East, where there is no solution that I can think of anyway.

COOPERATION

The emigrants who came to Plymouth on the *Mayflower* in 1620 did so under a cooperative plan. They arranged with certain merchants in London to underwrite their expedition. As a guarantee to the merchants,

[1] James Reston, *New York Times,* Apr. 20, 1952.

the whole body of emigrants bound themselves under the terms of an agreement to work for a period of seven years, to put their produce into a common warehouse, and to receive their subsistence out of the common store. This was on the understanding that at the end of the period there would be a settlement and a discharge of the obligations. The terms imposed by the investors were severe, but the cooperative nature of the plan ensured its initial success. Although these settlers adopted the idea of individual property ownership of land, they maintained a high degree of collective control in the name of the common good.

On Nov. 21, 1620, two days after arriving at Cape Cod, the Pilgrims prepared and signed the Mayflower Compact on board their vessel. The cooperative nature of the undertaking is evident in the text of this agreement.

> In the name of God Amen! . . . We whose names are underwritten . . . do by these presents, solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil body politic for our better ordering and preservation, and furthermore of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue thereof to enact, constitute and frame just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, constitutions, and offices from time to time, as shall be thought most meet, and convenient for the general good of the colony, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. . . .

Cooperative effort takes many forms, and is used in numerous fields of human endeavor. In the international area, for instance, the World Health Organization of the United Nations is rendering service of outstanding value in many parts of the world. In 1951, in the Middle East, locusts were on the verge of destroying the ripening crops of Iran, India, and Pakistan. When their resources were found inadequate to cope with the danger, they appealed to the United States for help under the terms of the Point Four agreement. Small aircraft and insecticides were provided, and they turned back the impending locust invasion.

The question might be asked whether cooperation comes into the picture, as such help seems to be a one-sided affair. Society long ago learned that it is for the mutual benefit of all to help those peoples who are facing an impending catastrophe. Out of such help, various social, political, and even economic advantages accrue to all the parties concerned.

Interracial Cooperation. A major disturbing influence and concern of society is prejudice and the resulting interracial conflicts. In the United States there are approximately 14,894,000 Negroes in a total population

of about 150,697,000, or about 10 per cent. The expressions of race prejudice and conflict, therefore, involve a rather large segment of our population. It must be remembered that in any antisocial behavior pattern there are two sufferers—the primary victim and the individual guilty of the prejudiced conduct. In the case of the latter, the price paid may not be so obvious, for it is largely psychological in nature. That means, therefore, that any and all efforts to reduce race prejudice and improve interracial cooperation will serve a double purpose.

Within recent years the improvement in the economic status of Negroes, the increase in educational opportunities, and the protection afforded by various types of legislation have brought about a marked change in the position of the American Negro. He no longer has to look to the same extent as previously to charitably inclined and religiously motivated men and women to provide him with decent employment and educational openings. Rather, he is receiving these and other opportunities on an increasing scale because they are his rightful due. These social and economic changes have been helped in some measure by various national and local organizations, such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the National Urban League, various interdenominational organizations, labor unions, and such agencies as the YMCA, the YWCA, and Boys' Clubs.

Other forms of interracial cooperation have also tended to reduce racial frictions, misunderstandings, prejudice, and discrimination. The agricultural system of the South has been dependent upon cooperation between the whites and the Negroes. Without the labor of the latter, the basic crop system of the Southern states could not have been maintained. Of course, there have been much trouble and injustice in the past, and there is some currently. But the two groups have found ways of working together amicably in various areas, to their mutual benefit and for the welfare of the country as a whole.

Interracial cooperation is expanding and in all likelihood will continue to do so. It is not to be assumed that all or most problems of race prejudice, whether against Negroes, American Indians, Chinese, Japanese, or Mexicans, are at or near the end. Rather, it should be realized that a new generation of children and young people must be taught by their parents, and teachers as well, that peoples of races and religions other than their own have equal rights under the moral law, and that our form of government guarantees such equality to all, regardless of race, color, or creed.

It is essential to recognize that when two or more racial groups live close to each other, opportunities for clashes and conflicts are increased. Good intentions alone cannot cope with situations which have their beginnings in childhood indoctrination and examples set by prejudiced parents and other adults. Interracial cooperation must be taken seriously and worked at earnestly if some measure of accomplishment is to be achieved.

Economic Cooperation. There have been many cooperative endeavors on the American scene. A number of these, particularly in the North Central states, have been quite successful from an economic point of view over a period of years. Cooperative enterprises in European countries, especially in England and Scandinavia, have flourished for several decades. A Federal study [2] describes them as follows:

A cooperative enterprise is one which belongs to the people who use its services, the control of which rests equally with all the members, and the gains of which are distributed to the members in proportion to the use they make of the services.

This investigating commission found many evidences of effective accomplishments on a cooperative basis in the countries visited. The following statements cover individual situations reported upon:

We sat around the table with a group of former workingmen who direct the English cooperative wholesale society, listened to them talk calmly in terms of hundreds of millions of pounds, of great tea plantations in India, of fleets of boats and acres of factories which whittle down the cost of the English cooperators' food and clothing.

We heard the tale of another cooperative wholesale in Scotland which is so well financed that it underwrote a bond issue for the city of Glasgow when the terms of the Bank of England seemed too onerous.

We visited a spot in Ireland where a Catholic priest and a Protestant preacher had worked side by side to lay the brick that became a cooperative creamery. Irish farmers who not long before had been shooting at one another sat at the directors' table guiding the destinies of a business that runs over half a million dollars a year.

Aside from its economic results, cooperative enterprise has a number of social implications. In its development of fellowship among its members its effects are similar to those of many religious institutions. The social and

[2] Report of the Inquiry on Cooperative Enterprises in Europe, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1937.

psychological values of cooperatives are sometimes of even greater importance than the immediate economic results.

Cooperative business organizations start out with certain objectives relating to joint action for the benefit of the group involved. They inevitably run into competition from private enterprises as well as from competing cooperatives in the same area. Independent dealers sell on credit and use advertising and other methods to make inroads on the cooperatives. From the point of view of financial success, such competition virtually forces the cooperatives to carry on their business affairs on a high level of efficiency.

The organization of cooperative enterprises, whether in farm machinery and farm products, gasoline stations, furniture stores, or housing, starts out with a mixture of motives. There is a reservoir of good will and the desire of friends, neighbors, fellow workers, and immigrant groups of particular national stocks to get together for economic, social, and cultural purposes. The cooperative is organized to meet their immediate needs and incidentally to give expression to a psychological urge for mutual benefit. The cooperative also aims to achieve certain satisfactions that grow out of a successful joint undertaking. While the business is small and the group can take an active part in its affairs, these goals can often be reached. But once it grows into the class of big business, the personal touch tends to be lost and the degree of satisfaction in achievement may be materially affected.

Cooperation in Science. Scientists in various branches, including physics, chemistry, mathematics, biology, and medicine, have long been practicing cooperation among themselves for the ultimate benefit of mankind. It is this unselfish willingness to submit the findings of research to the scrutiny of other scientists in similar fields that has been responsible in large measure for the advance of human knowledge. This cooperation, carried on in part through the publication of research data in books and scientific journals, results from sympathetic understanding and good will, plus the identification of the scientist with his fellow workers in related fields. Selfish interests are wiped away in the endeavor to be mutually helpful. The growth of such willingness to share scientific knowledge and experience is a major factor in the continuing struggle to achieve peace and friendly understanding between nations.

Cooperation and Aggression. Aggression is usually the result of frustration, as has been noted. Aggressive behavior in an individual means running counter to the general will and welfare of members of his own

family, of his immediate circle of friends and acquaintances, and of all others with whom he comes in personal contact. In the social process of living with others we have learned the necessity for diverting or suppressing our aggressive attitudes and cooperating for the good of the group as a whole. Of course such action involves some personal sacrifices and enforced limitations on freedom. But we must either be prepared to cooperate or pay certain penalties. These grow out of the refusal to "play ball" with our group and the attempt to lead a "lone wolf" type of existence.

The person who is emotionally well adjusted has usually learned in childhood the essentials of individual rights, especially in so far as they apply to others. He finds it comparatively easy to restrain his egocentric drives, to consider the rights, well-being and welfare of others, and to be either a leader or a follower in whatever activities he finds it desirable and necessary to participate. It is the maladjusted, aggressive individual to whom such ordinary self-imposed conduct patterns are most obnoxious. He, on the contrary, insists on forcing his opinions and ways on others, on demanding recognition, on giving vent to his emotional drives. The non-cooperator is not welcomed. He is often the victim of his own frustrations, aggressiveness, and emotional immaturity.

International Cooperation. From the time of the earliest teachers of morals and ethics, there has been an urge in men to find ways of avoiding wars and building peace. This desire for amicable relations with one's neighbors is part of the large lesson that mankind has learned through the centuries. Experience teaches that in war both victors and victims are the losers, that war rarely settles anything.

The attempts to find substitutes for war have been many; the most noteworthy steps were the organization of the League of Nations and of the current United Nations. There are many skeptics who hold that the latter organization—the outstanding example in the history of efforts to build a peaceful world—is doomed to failure like its predecessors. Many opinions and facts can be cited in support of the contrary opinion. It was unrealistic to expect that international, interracial, and other rivalries would be eliminated by the organization of the United Nations. Cooperation has already achieved much on the international scene, even though much more remains to be done.

During the Second World War a psychological service was set up by the United States to combat foreign propaganda intended to harm our war effort. The service was also organized to utilize psychological and educational methods to bring the truth about the war to the Germans and Japa-

nese. Through the *Voice of America* efforts are being continued to transmit news of the West and to influence the peoples of Soviet Russia and her satellite states. The effectiveness of psychological techniques has been demonstrated by the cooperation of the Japanese with the United States since the end of the Second World War. Whether the West ultimately wins the cold war may, in large measure, depend on the results achieved by the application of psychological measures.

Is the world on the verge of achieving the long-dreamt-of era of peace? This is a matter of immediate concern to all. Will it be an armed peace? Will it depend on which side has a larger stockpile of A-bombs and H-bombs; of aircraft, submarines, and battleships powered by atomic energy? Will prejudice and suspicion, egocentrism and hatred, rivalry and will for power, give way to the attempt to understand others, to cooperation in allaying fear of war, and to a genuine wish for peace in the world? These are major questions, the answers to which may rest with a few men. How they behave, what their answers will be, may be largely dictated by their own psychological make-up and their reactions to pressures of various kinds. The educated citizens of tomorrow who are the college students of today have a most important part to play in the world drama. Their psychological constitution, coupled with their knowledge of and attitudes toward others, may ultimately be decisive in determining the plans to be followed by our country.

COMPETITION

Competition is a form of social struggle between two or more individuals to obtain those things which may be in insufficient supply. There is competition not only for the ordinary necessities of life but also for various luxuries, for power, for social position, for mates and other things that are not easily available. On the scholastic level, students often compete for high grades and the rewards that may grow out of such efforts. There are also competitions for prizes and scholarships in music and art.

Americans are frequently criticized for the emotional intensity of their lives and the emphasis which they place on the achievement of economic success. There may be considerable justification for this criticism, but there are also seemingly adequate explanations for it. We are currently living in a dynamic society which is constantly subject to various pressures. Our economic system has undergone marked changes within a comparatively short time. Huge new industries have developed. As a result, skilled craftsmen have often been supplanted by mechanization. Automatic ma-

chines, automobiles, tractors, washing machines, dial telephones, radios, television sets, airplanes, air conditioners, electric shavers, and a long list of other tools, labor-saving equipment, and consumer goods have become available.

These have brought about radical changes in our daily lives. Many are now able to provide themselves with the desired goods and devices, while others still have to do without them. As a result, a competitive effort follows on the part of the have-nots for the satisfaction of certain wants and needs.

In a former period, when life was simpler in our country and immediate necessities were much more limited, the competition for things as such was on a markedly smaller scale. The major effort of the early settlers was to obtain fertile land on which to grow their crops. When the over-worked virgin land failed to produce adequately, settlers moved westward to find other and better soil. There was competition for such good lands as were held by others, whether the original owners, the American Indians, or those who had previously moved westward. This was the major aspect of competition at that time. It was often accompanied by the usual psychological components of frustration, envy, hate, and fear.

Competition among Primitive Peoples. There are primitive tribes in various parts of the world among whom competition, as we understand it, is generally unknown. A form of cooperative society exists in which a mutual sharing of most things takes place. Among Eskimos in Greenland there is often a type of complete cooperation or communism. The killing of a large whale, for instance, is an event which provides food for many, not only for those who harpooned it. The same holds true among Eskimos in areas of Alaska. Since their tools and equipment are strictly limited, lending and sharing are a part of their daily lives. The same was true among early settlers in this country, and the custom still prevails in varying degrees in our rural areas.

From a series of studies made of cooperation and competition among primitive tribes in widely scattered areas, including New Guinea, Greenland, East Africa, Samoa, New Zealand, and the United States (among the American Indians), a number of conclusions were drawn. No society is exclusively competitive or exclusively cooperative. The very existence of highly competitive groups implies cooperation within the groups. Competitive and cooperative habits must coexist within society. There may be furious competition among the ranking chiefs of one tribe, but within the

household of each chief cooperation is mandatory for the amassing of wealth that is distributed or destroyed.

Nor does competition necessarily mean conflict and cooperation solidarity. In the cooperative societies competition is often introduced as an additional mechanism. One tribe studied (the Maori) strove to outdo others in bird snaring and was honored publicly for the success achieved. But the cooperative distribution of the catch was not affected: the rivalry only served to create higher productivity.

Among the societies selected for study, three cultures were strongly cooperative and strongly competitive; and others were not so clear-cut. There were cooperative systems which tended toward individualism and cooperative systems which tended toward emphasis on competition.

The specific conclusions of these studies [3] of cooperation and competition among primitive peoples are summarized as follows:

1. Strong ego development can occur in individualistic, competitive, and cooperative societies.
2. Whether a group has a plentiful or a minimum supply of necessities is not directly related to the question of how cooperative or competitive the social organization will be.
3. The group idea of success, and the position into which the successful individual fits, is more decisive than the state of advancement of the food supply.
4. Competition depends upon the initiative of the individual and a valuation of property for individual ends. There is agreement between a major emphasis upon competition and a strong development of ego.
5. There is agreement, among some primitive peoples, between a major emphasis upon rising in status and a high degree of security for the individual.

Primitive peoples the world over have worked out solutions to the problems of cooperation and competition which suit their own needs. An attempt to transplant their forms of social organization to a highly developed civilization would hardly be possible or desirable. Our own system of competition in the economic and other fields evidently leaves much to be desired. However, the very closeness in which our urban population lives necessarily leads to many patterns of conduct with which primitive man need not contend. Social life, despite various advantages and rewards which tend to strengthen it, also involves certain frustrations. These, in turn, result in aggressive tendencies which are carried over into the area of com-

[3] Margaret Mead, ed., *Cooperation and Competition among Primitive Peoples,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1937.

petition with those who belong to other groups. Such competitive tendencies may lead to struggles in the economic, political, social, and other spheres. A task society faces is the directing of these aggressions to socially productive and rewarding fields.

Competition Not Instinctive. The process of competition begins early in our society. Parents are inclined to push their children to get high marks in school, to make the school teams, the school newspaper, the honor society, to win prizes for scholastic achievement and physical prowess—to get ahead of their friends and classmates. Competition has become fixed in the American way of life. Brought up in a highly competitive environment, the adult tries to achieve first place by the size of his bank account, the expensiveness of his house, the cost of his automobile. Naturally, all in business and the professions cannot come to the top, for most of us are just average individuals, with superior abilities in some directions and ordinary ones in others.

Consequences of social competition were shown up by a school physician reporting on the health of young children in an upper-middle-class suburban area. He found many of these youngsters undernourished. They lived in fairly expensive homes and were driven to school in costly cars. Discreet investigation by the school nurse showed that many of the families were living beyond their means. Food was the only item they could cut down on without apparently letting their neighbors know the true state of affairs. The result was that milk and other essentials in the children's diets were severely limited.

For some years psychologists have debated the question as to whether or not competition is an instinct. This question is complicated by a difference of opinion as to the definition of the term instinct when applied to humans. A basic problem is the fact that we cannot determine, as Newcomb [4] puts it, what the *original nature* of man would be like if it were not modified by culture and learning. The conclusion has been reached that most apparently instinctive reactions, viewed as behavior patterns, are either reflexes or habits modified by learning, and hence are not instincts at all.

The competitive attitude or behavior seems to be learned in childhood. It is modified by exposure to various stimuli, examples, and teachings. Reaching adulthood, the average American readily adopts the pattern of competition which he observes in many phases of human activity. How-

[4] T. M. Newcomb, *Social Psychology,* p. 87, The Dryden Press, Inc., New York, 1950.

ever, there is much cooperation in social, political, and religious groups whose members share a common goal, and even in the competitive field of business.

Influence of Competition on Individuals. The competitive environment in this country is the cause of much stress and a feeling of emotional insecurity. While experiments carried out with children indicate that competition in academic tasks results in higher scores, there are many negative effects. The same holds true in competition on the adult plane.

Individuals compete with others for various reasons. For some, the process is primarily an expression of native physical energy and competence. They are so constituted that work at a rapid pace is their natural method of expression. In industry such workers may be used as pacemakers for a production line. For them, bonus systems of payment for extra work above the norm have been developed. These are, in part, responsible for union restrictions on individual initiative and capacity current in some industries and occupations. Several reasons are assigned for this ruling. One is that the few fast workers may bring about undue pressure from employers for increased production on the part of all workers at a given task. Another is that the fast workers draw attention by contrast to the workers who, because of age, physical disability, or constitutional make-up, are unable to maintain as rapid a pace and who may therefore appear to the employer to be "soldiering" on the job.

Other individuals have a superabundance of mental energy, plus aquisitiveness and an urge to achieve more than the average rewards for work accomplished. They stay at their tasks longer hours than others, do additional work at home, undertake added responsibilities which may bring them favorable recognition and standing with superiors. The exercise of their full capacities necessarily conflicts with the production records of coworkers. In this form of competition, though it is not necessarily intended to be such, discontent, jealousy, envy, and even hatred result among fellow workers. These other workers may not be endowed with superior mental or nervous energy and may not be so much concerned with a high record of achievement. They are apparently satisfied with their current status, in which they enjoy the good will of their superiors.

The initiators of competition may be driven to work at an intensive pace for several social-psychological reasons. Sometimes they belong to minority groups and are faced with prejudice and antipathy or are kept at a distance socially. Persons who are, or believe they are, being discriminated against in their places of employment commonly attempt to achieve a

superior status. They find themselves and their families excluded from social events, and their own attempts at social intercourse are not well received. Often the only recourse they have is hard work—producing more research and more publications than associates and showing greater readiness to undertake added burdens.

Competition may also be an aggressive reaction to environmental conditions. A person who cannot satisfy his hopes and desires through the normal processes of individual and cooperative effort finds himself frustrated. Such frustration virtually forces a certain type of energetic and competent person into a form of aggression.

The sequence of frustration-aggression-competition is often quite close. The frustrated individual who becomes aggressive may engage in competition as an expression of his domineering tendencies. It is a fairly common observation that successful competitive individuals and leaders in industry, business, and other fields are apt to be of the domineering type. This may be due primarily to their mental acumen and superabundant physical energy and not to any factor of frustration. Unfortunately, they are sometimes inclined to carry over their forceful patterns of conduct into all their interpersonal relations—including those with their families.

Like everybody else, the competitive individual is a part of society, and more immediately of the group with which he has most of his business or professional and social contacts. He cannot live in a void, nor can he have the field to himself. If, from a competitive point of view, his behavior is most obvious and conflicts with others at many points, he tends to arouse hatred, jealousy, and envy. This may follow even though our society generally approves, and may even praise, his achievements and the methods he pursues in reaching his goals. If he realizes that this is so, he may attempt to rationalize and to find justification for his pattern of behavior.

A fundamental question concerned with the effect of competition on the individual relates to its ultimate validity and worthwhileness. The aggressive competitor tends to shove others aside, to ignore the human rights of some, to become intolerant of those who contradict him and stand in his way. Is it all worthwhile? Such individuals have to pay the price in various ways —social and psychological above all—for the exercise of their competitive drives. While they may retain a sense of financial and other success, society as a whole is the loser. Many try to get ahead in the competitive whirl; few succeed. Those who lose out in the struggle become frustrated, disappointed persons with psychological and other burdens for which there often is no ready remedy.

Competition and Rivalry. These two terms are so close in meaning that they are generally assumed to be synonymous. In sociology the distinction is sometimes made that "rivalry" implies opposition to a known competitor whereas "competition" is a broader term. Rivalry may be most prominently associated with competition for the love and affection of a parent. Slavson [5] points out that the source of rivalry as a motive is the family, where the child has to compete for parental affection with other siblings or with a parent. The struggle for such affection is rooted in the desire to be the only one receiving recognition. If such rivalry should become intense, it could seriously affect the character of the group.

The term rivalry is often used in connection with interclass or intercollegiate athletic events, debates, and other undertakings. They provide certain positive values so long as they are kept on the level of friendly rivalry and do not degenerate into aggressive acts. The acceptable implications of rivalry are negated if these activities get out of the bounds of decent social relationships.

Economic Competition. To a large degree the availability of adequate food, clothing, housing, and medical, educational, and recreational facilities determine the health, happiness, and welfare of a nation. In our democracy the individual is presumably in a position to compete with his fellow men for the goods and opportunities that he wants for himself and his family. He may do so ruthlessly, engaging in sharp business practices and showing no evidence of the moral concepts he applies in his social life. The pressures which are exerted in business relationships in the attempt to outsell competitors are often expressions of more than the desire to gain economic advantage. They may stem from a whole series of frustrations initially built up in childhood. Others may be an outgrowth of adult experiences which have found an outlet in resentment and aggression.

Economic competition has undoubtedly played an important role in the technological advances that have been achieved within recent decades. It is obvious that producers and consumers have profited from this progress. Generally speaking, when two merchants are competing for business they find it necessary to attract customers by reducing prices, making credit arrangements, providing free deliveries, following a liberal policy as to exchange of merchandise, and offering other inducements. So long as competition remains free, the customers are the gainers. Difficulties arise for consumers, however, when competitors decide to discontinue a policy

[5] S. B. Slavson, *Character in a Democracy,* Chap. 4, Association Press, New York, 1939.

which is proving ruinous. They may then combine, stop competing, and fix prices at a comparatively high level.

Various modifications are needed in our present economic competitive system to serve the public good. Some have proposed an expansion of the cooperative movement. Others are concerned with the elimination of competition, at least in basic industries, through the setting up of combinations and monopolies. To some degree these are already in effect, and there are many complaints because of restrictive trade measures that have been followed.

From the point of view of this text, the major question is not an economic one. It is concerned, rather, with measures that will reduce frustrations, aggressiveness, and any other phenomena which stand in the way of healthful living and emotional stability. Economists and business leaders of the country, working with legislators and others, are aware of the need for modifications in our economic system. Whatever is done in so highly complicated an area must necessarily be on an experimental basis. That is how our society has made such advances as have already been achieved.

Racial Competition. The phenomenon of racial competition is of particular significance in land ownership and job priority. Where there is competition for arable land, pressures develop to keep off the land those against whom racial prejudice exists. In the United States, these have been applied particularly to Negroes, Japanese, and Mexicans. Land ownership and land occupancy have given rise to many forms of aggression and conflict.

In times of economic depression, racial and other groups against whom prejudice exists find themselves more severely discriminated against than when normal economic conditions prevail. This is especially evident in the matter of getting jobs. It was, in part at least, because of this experience that fair employment practice commissions have been set up in several states within recent years. While the proposal for the enactment of legislation to provide for such commissions has generally been accepted as valid, many refuse to back federal legislation along these lines, arguing that the state legislatures are the proper bodies to enact such laws, not the Federal Congress.

The Price of Competition. As has been indicated, competition has certain basic values which serve society. There are numerous negative aspects, however, which exact a toll from individuals and groups. It is well known that many who start a business fail within a comparatively short time. Sale or liquidation of the business may be due to one or more unfavorable factors such as severe competition, incompetence and lack of business

training, insufficient funds or credit, economic depression, wrong location, etc. Competition involves taking a chance on success or failure. The more chances one takes, the greater is the possible number of successes and failures. With business failure comes not only waste of savings, but also loss of prestige. Social position, happiness, and physical health often suffer, and emotional disturbances may occur. Some individuals are affected more seriously than others following failure in business or other undertakings and activities.

Dr. Karen Horney has pointed out [6] some of the effects of competition in our culture. She indicates that neurotic competitiveness differs from the normal in three respects: the neurotic constantly measures himself against others; the neurotic's ambition is not only to accomplish more than others, or to have greater success than they, but to be unique and exceptional; and implicit in the neurotic's ambitions is hostility, as expressed in his attitude that "no one but I shall be beautiful, capable, successful."

Our competitive society engulfs both the individuals showing no distinct neurotic tendencies and the much smaller number whose neurotic compulsions, drives, and urges are a source of difficulty to themselves and others as well. An adequate balancing of emotional exactions and satisfactions growing out of competitive activities is evidently a goal to be sought.

Some proponents of free competition fail to mention or to take into consideration the many ways in which unchecked competition has failed society. On the individual level many are the losers through no fault of their own. Loss of jobs, homes, security, health, and general well-being are some of the consequences. Sudden work stoppage, removal of plants, shutting down for inventory, lay-offs because of changes in models, severe and unfair competitive practices by other concerns—these are a few of the effects of competition for which many have to pay. But the wider and more serious phases—economic depressions and wars—these are the ultimate in social disorganization growing out of the extremes of national and international policies. Until society finds solutions to these and related problems, a severe price will be exacted through unhindered and uncontrolled competition.

SUMMARY

While modern culture functions to a large degree on the basis of competition, society and the individual prosper most through accommodation and

[6] Karen Horney, *The Neurotic Personality,* by permission of W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.. New York, 1937.

cooperation. When individuals attempt to live in peace and harmony with each other, they deliberately try to be accommodative and to cooperate for their own good and for the welfare of the groups of which they are a part. In the competitive process there is always the aim and purpose of outdoing others—of getting ahead of them, of pushing them aside in order to win out. While one gains, another must apparently lose. It is the hostility, jealousy, envy, and ill-will that grow out of the competitive process that create tension and aggression in interpersonal and international relations.

Lawrence K. Frank [7] has indicated that from the beginning of social life man has faced certain persistent tasks, namely:

1. To come to terms with nature in order to gain sustenance, to find security and to achieve survival in a world both precarious and problematic.
2. To organize a group life so that individuals can live together and participate in the division of labor, which group living both necessitates and makes possible.
3. To transform organic functioning and impulsive behavior into the patterned conduct of group life and of human living as distinct from biological functioning.

In our current culture altogether too much emphasis is placed on the successful individual, often irrespective of the ways and means used to achieve success. The factors and behavior patterns that lead to the ultimate goal are often ignored by the general public. These have frequently included compulsive drives, ruthlessness, aggression, and a general attitude of disdain for the welfare of individuals or of society as a whole. Not until we fully realize and accept the concept that more socially useful and serviceable patterns of conduct are essential—whether brought about by teaching on different levels, or by community pressures of various kinds—will a wholesome change follow. The bridling of competition may be one way of achieving socially desirable goals.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. How could international problems be resolved through accommodation? Apply your ideas to the First World War, the Second World War, and the war in Korea.
2. Outline the cooperative steps early settlers in virgin territory must take to enable them to set up their homes and gain a living from the soil.

[7] L. K. Frank, *Society as the Patient,* by permission of Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, N.J. Copyright 1948 by The Trustees of Rutgers College in New Jersey.

3. What measures do primitive peoples take to meet their social and economic needs? Have their contacts with civilization helped or hindered them in this process? Give details.

4. Describe some of the various attempts that have been made to achieve international peace and outlaw war. Name five leaders in this movement.

5. What are your opinions about the cooperative movement? Note positive and negative values inherent in the plan.

6. What are the motivating forces in competition?

7. What efforts have been made in the United States to curb competitive practices in business?

8. What is the effect of competition on an individual? A family? A group? A nation?

9. Define racial competition. What measures are necessary to resist this form of competition?

10. Outline what steps you think should be taken to overcome some of the major evils of our competitive society.

REFERENCES

Dewey, Richard, and W. J. Humber, *Development of Human Behavior,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1951.

Dollard, John, *Frustration and Aggression,* Yale University Press, New Haven, 1939.

Kardiner, Abram, *The Psychological Frontiers of Society,* Columbia University Press, New York, 1945.

Lowy, Samuel, *Co-operation, Tolerance and Prejudice,* Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., London, 1948.

May, M. A., and L. W. Doob, *Competition and Cooperation,* Social Science Research Council, Washington, D.C., 1937.

Slotkin, J. S., *Personality Development,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1952.

Stocking, G. W., and M. W. Watkins, *Cartels or Competition,* The Twentieth Century Fund, Inc., New York, 1948.

Thompson, E. T., ed., *Race Relations and the Race Problem,* Duke University Press, Durham, N.C., 1939.

CHAPTER 18

INTEGRATION OF PERSONALITY

One of the most important objectives in life should be the attainment of an integrated personality. The effort to achieve such a desirable status can be furthered materially by the knowledge and application of fundamental psychological principles. Such integration is characterized by a well-balanced personality, largely free from neurosis or inner conflict.

There is an ancient Chinese way of wishing someone well: "May you live in times of great events." The present is indeed such a time in human history. Those who reside in the Western world especially are exposed to many and varid stimuli from numerous sources. These impinge upon and affect the personality in diverse ways and throw a burden on the individual in so far as his social adjustment and personal integration are concerned. Whether or not he matures into an effective, well-poised, and reasonably happy person will depend, in considerable measure, upon the success he achieves in these processes.

An important element in determining the end result is the goals which an individual sets for himself as objectives in life. If his personal drives center upon high ideals and usefulness to society in the broadest sense, he may gain various satisfactions which otherwise would elude him. If, on the other hand, his efforts are primarily rooted in spurious goals focused upon the accumulation of wealth, power, social prestige, fame, and glamour, he may miss the true values in life. Failure to achieve an integration of personality is one of the more serious consequences of such a pattern of existence.

As has been said, we are living in a time of great events. They are great in the sense, at least, that decisions reached and actions taken by present governments, including our own, may influence the history of mankind for many generations to come. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance that people in positions of responsibility in government, education, business, law, communal service, and other areas of human activity shall, as far as possible, be integrated personalities. It rests upon the young men and women of the present, who are to be the leaders of the coming generation, to become so well integrated and psychologically adjusted that they will be able to handle their future responsibilities in a socially effective and useful way.

There are four important spheres of activity in which the basis of future security, effectiveness, and happiness can be achieved: work and study programs, leisure-time activities, activities and contacts in the home, and activities and contacts in the community. It is in these areas that the personality of an individual has prime opportunities to become integrated.

EFFECT OF WORK AND STUDY PROGRAMS

The individual personality is distinctly influenced by competition and cooperation, whether in the home, in school, in the community, or in the place of employment. The major problem of adjustment in work situations relates to various interpersonal relations. Skills, new jobs, and new machines can be mastered with a fair measure of success. During the Second World War, when many untrained men and women were drawn into defense industries, it was found that they could be taught to accomplish unusual mechanical tasks in a comparatively short time. In addition, these tasks could be performed at unexpected and irregular times, in varied places, and many developed new and hitherto unknown abilities.

However, it is in other areas than aptitude that adjustment on the job must take place. Each wage earner brings his home and personal problems to work with him. These and the unique characteristics that mark an individual are the core of his good or poor adjustment to any job. Just as the work achievement is influenced by personal make-up, so does the job with its specifications and demands affect an individual, in terms of how he gets along with fellow workers, employer or supervisor, family and friends. Industry uses job analyses, psychological tests, educational measures, and enlightened supervision to assist the worker in maintaining satisfactory interpersonal relations. Still, despite all that the interested employer

can do in this direction, there is always the factor of individual differences in personality that affects human relations.

THE PLACE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Competent vocational guidance can be of considerable help in adjustment to a career in industry, commerce, or a profession. It is usually desirable to obtain counseling advice and psychological-test assistance before selecting a job or preparing for a professional career. In addition to judging the opportunities that a particular position may offer, it is essential to take a long view of it, to consider what promise there is in it of attaining personal growth, economic security, and full competence in the field of work that one selects for one's vocation.

The selection of a vocation presupposes that personal stocktaking or self-analysis has been attempted and that the decisions reached are absolutely honest. It is all very well to put on a bold front and to impress a personnel officer or employer in order to get a particular job. However, self-deception takes its own toll and if there is no real ability for or interest in a given work opportunity, failure to become adjusted, inability to receive what is deemed to be merited advancement, and unhappiness in personal relations will ensue.

Job and self-analysis are useful and effective when based on the concept that working every day is a means to an end—namely, a career and economic security—and not a complete end in itself. If a job becomes a threat to happiness and well-being, or if it creates various pressures that lead to personal tensions, it has lost its basic value to an individual. A change in employment is then essential, as otherwise the continued exposure to these deleterious influences may seriously affect the personality. In our American culture there has perhaps been overemphasis on success in work and careers. This has created some concern among psychologists, psychiatrists, and others who attempt to help harassed men and women. Many suffer from illnesses brought on by nervous tension. The "go-getter" attitude in business is apparently a basic cause of these psychosomatic disorders.

While a measure of success in one's vocation is essential to emotional well-being and economic security, there are additional factors which merit serious consideration. Among these may be included personal enjoyment, family accomplishment, satisfying community service, cultural pursuits, or other goals which give a wide base to life and provide an emotional bul-

wark against the trials, troubles, failures, and disappointments which are the lot of all.

Men and women need to train themselves to face possible failure to achieve success in careers with fortitude and stability. Those who will not achieve their set goals, or who may consider themselves to have failed in their economic pursuit, are reasonably certain to outnumber those who are popularly recognized to have attained success as measured in financial terms. While failure of achievement in one area does not necessarily preclude success in family life, community service, and personal growth and development, still an originally poor choice of a job may heavily weigh the balance in the direction of maladjustment.

Achievement of an integrated personality implies that the effort is made to succeed in a selected occupational goal. While this may be a basic procedure, many must be prepared to face ultimate disappointment. Even with the help of effective vocational guidance it is not always possible to find the job one seeks at the scale of pay deemed adequate and with the hoped-for promotion opportunities. Ways of preparing to meet such eventualities cannot be outlined in advance. What is fundamentally at stake is not economic success but rather the fully integrated personality. When the latter is a reality, the job status can be fitted into its proper niche and a wholesome and effective career carved out in the area of human relations on various planes.

ON-THE-JOB PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT

Assistance in personal adjustment is becoming increasingly available because of efforts to improve interpersonal relations of employees. Psychologists, psychiatrists, physicians, housing and recreation directors are being called in to help business to treat its most neglected asset—the workers—as they should be treated, namely, as individuals.

On-the-job adjustment involves many technical matters. It depends for its success on the attitude of both employers and workers, and on the coordination between the formers' policies and the latters' desires as well. There are many popular misconceptions relative to these matters. Some workers, contrary to general opinion, do not desire promotion. On this point Robert Gay,[1] personnel-minded president of a leading mill, recently reported:

[1] R. E. Gay, "The President Looks at His Personnel Department," an address to the Worcester County Personnel Directors' Meeting, Worcester, Mass., Sept. 25, 1952.

Recently, a large American corporation conducted an attitude survey. The question was asked: "Do you want to be a supervisor?" . . . Forty per cent said "Yes," and 60 per cent said "No." Analysis of the "No" answers showed that most of these men and women either felt unqualified for supervisory jobs or did not want the responsibility. People know their abilities and limitations, for the most part, and are content if they can work to the maximum of their skills and achieve recognition for their contributions.

Many personality factors are considered in industry's attempts to ascertain what aspects of temperament are desirable in work situations. These qualities are influenced by type of industry, company policy, and job specifications.

By and large the qualities sought for in employees by industrial personnel specialists are listed under three main attributes:

1. *Ability to get along with people.* This is a catch-all description. It means being well groomed, relatively conventional, accepted as an equal by fellow workers, fair-minded, sympathetic, understanding of others' feelings, and reasonably attractive.

2. *Competence.* This implies willingness and ability to do the job, despite its seeming unimportance; respect for management's viewpoint; desire for promotion; cheerfulness; sense of humor; intelligence and cooperation.

3. *Leadership potential.* This includes self-confidence, up to the point of aggressiveness; ability to make quick, sound decisions, which may not be popular, but which indicate individualism; originality or ability to depart from routine or precedent; and ability to get others to go along with one's ideas, based either on high verbal or technical abilities.

Many of these traits are difficult, if not impossible, to measure objectively. That is why many promotions in industry are subjective judgments by the supervisory staff. It is very difficult to discern the existence in a potential candidate of needed or desired qualities of leadership. Consequently, many judgments of management about workers' personal qualifications or adjustment may be superficial. They are sometimes based upon limited personal contact rather than on scientifically valid evidence.

Harmony and cooperation with fellow workers are essential, whether or not advancement is sought. In this connection, pleasantness is vital, particularly in handling any tense, interpersonal situation. Strong feelings or evidence of one's emotional arousal begets emotional upsurge in the day-to-day work situation. Similarly, aggression encourages aggressive retaliation. Passivity and quiet listening to his verbal outbursts may relieve a tense, aroused fellow employee.

Other traits that are desirable in any job are curiosity about the products and processes of the company. Interest in the total procedure in product creation, even though the worker may perform a tiny part in it, is helpful to the worker and apt to be welcomed by the company.

In some measure this kind of interest in the total item which one's company produces is a substitute for the craftsmanship of the handicraftsmen of bygone days. Theirs was a truly creative activity, with the personal satisfactions that come from such work. They made the entire product and were identified with its quality, good or bad. This type of identification with the product of one's working hours makes for a more satisfying, less boring work experience than is the rule in modern assembly line production.

COLLEGE STUDY'S EFFECT

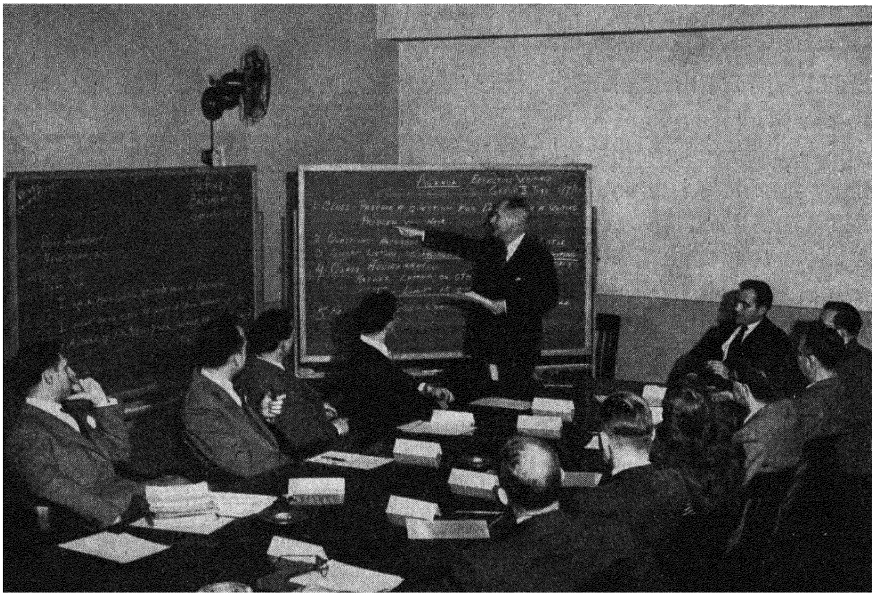
A college education is a mutual investment made by society on the one hand and the student on the other. The former pays a substantial amount of the cost to ensure the improvement of the next generation because society expects that college study will develop the potential leaders of the country. The student invests his time and money to enhance his knowledge, his understanding of himself and society, his judgment, and his ability to adjust.

College study is the method by which the student pauses to review the successes and failures of other persons and cultures before he begins to be a leader in his own community. While studying in college the student has the time and opportunity to express his individualism, to plan to remake the world, or to be a nonconformist. This is the period in life when society permits a kind indulgence of the mind and spirit that rarely reoccurs.

The height of attainment of self-expression differs with each student. The degree of personal integration varies directly with the energy and ability invested by the student. Out of the many-sided college life some gain much in personal growth in one area, a bit in another, and perhaps none in a third. Others have different experiences in the same phases of campus life. The following are the areas in which personal integration can be furthered in college study.

Knowledge. Subject matter comprises the largest and most obvious sphere of knowledge gained by college study. However, the amount of subject matter that has been learned by past generations of college students, and that is now being learned, is apt to be overestimated.

Research confirms industrialists' complaints that college students are weak in communication and number skills, namely, in spelling, penmanship,



Industry supplements education in teaching communication skills by giving college-level courses with credit, paid for by enlightened management and on company time. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

grammar, and arithmetic. Owing to the present emphasis on analytical and conceptual learning, group discussions and student-centered education are replacing drill, lecture, and recitation. Unfortunately, the information that has been taught by drill and rote in elementary and high schools is sometimes lacking among college students. When group discussion, personal experience, and student-centered techniques are used in such cases, learning may become lessened because the interchanging of uninformed opinions may amount to sharing ignorance rather than knowledge. There is real need for skill in subject matter, for much of the work in college is based upon languages, history, the sciences, and mathematics. Most advanced courses in college are better taught by using group discussion or other informal methods of teaching, but the requirements for some students are that they review their skill subjects in order to have the tools to permit them to do advanced study of analyses and concepts.

Interchange of research through books, experiments, and field experiences enhances knowledge of required subject matter. Integration of knowledge comes through grasping the substance of the college curriculum. Curricula represent thousands of years of factual accumulation and compromises

among the world's best minds. This storing up of knowledge represents agreement among scholars as to what is essential for students to learn in order to fulfill their role as the leaders of the future.

Understanding is greatly enhanced when it has a foundation of knowledge, particularly when knowledge is practical and is used by the individual to assist in total life adjustment. It is through understanding that the student appreciates the purpose of college life. Understanding implies appreciation of the curriculum, campus life, friendships, one's peer group, the faculty, and oneself. It does not relate to rote learning or trying to improve neural connections through the drill type of study.

To accomplish understanding, the functional use of learning is necessary. This means gaining a general education that gives the depth, breadth, and vision essential to appreciation of various races, peoples, cultures, and faiths. It also implies acquiring vocational patterns, developing the ability to get along with people, organizing one's time, carrying out plans, and making wise decisions. These are qualities industrial leaders seek in those they select for key jobs. Some specialized courses, particularly in skill subjects, are helpful to secure entry to certain jobs. However, no one course prepares the student for leadership; this is a function of the whole curriculum.

The Job of Student. Study is the work life of the student. In many respects there is little difference in the kinds of problems that a student faces before and after graduation. Interpersonal relations, learning, and conforming to society's requirements are similar within and outside of the walls of any college. One of the advantages of part-time employment is that students can use their jobs to acquire social skills through experience. They may be learning the theory of social situations in textbooks on campus, while utilizing the knowledge so gained in the laboratory of life.

When students' experiences in college are considered as real living rather than as preparation for adulthood, classes become laboratories for the development of total personality. Lectures, research, study techniques, library work, experiments, class discipline, student-instructor, student-student, and student–peer-group relationships, and a host of other dynamic factors help to form the personality in many subtle, little-noticed, day-to-day experiences.

It is in such situations that knowledge and experience are acquired as tools for useful living. The kind and quality of these tools may determine the character of life one will lead after college. Studies have indicated that

college graduates are solidified in personality molds by the time they get their degrees.

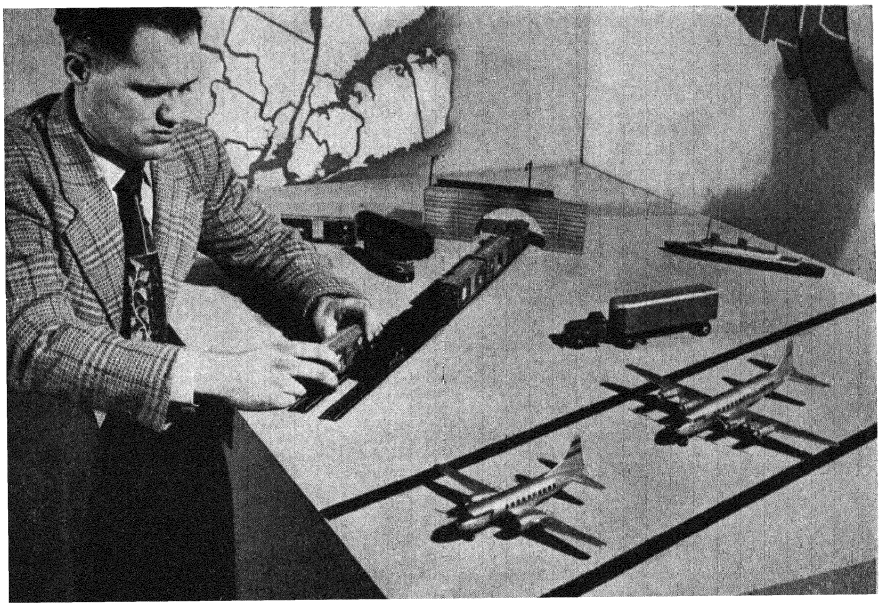
This is particularly significant in cultural and discriminatory choices, the use of leisure, and value judgments. If rich and many-sided personalities are to be attained, the foundations and the tools to secure them must be cultivated in college. The pressures of time, job, family, and community usually prevent the acquisition of new cultural appreciations and social skills after graduation, unless some groundwork is laid throughout college life.

FUNCTION OF LEISURE IN INTEGRATION OF PERSONALITY

Individual factors involving physical, mental, emotional, and social well-being, as well as moral standards and conduct, play important parts in successful personal achievement. In addition, the proper choice of leisure-time activities contributes to the experiences which help to mold a personality. With the progressive shortening of the work day, many adult wage earners have been faced with both a challenge and an opportunity. What to do with this increased leisure, how to utilize it to the best advantage, may be a perplexing problem for many. The adult education movement has been set up, in part at least, to meet this situation.

One thing is evident, and that is the desirability of learning early in life how to plan and use leisure for maximum personal development. Youthful patterns of wasting or "killing" time have a tendency to persist into adulthood unless definite measures are taken to alter the trend through useful learning habits. Marked success has been achieved in directing adult recreational and learning activities into helpful channels, irrespective of the previous use of leisure time.

It is never too late to learn. Many grown men and women have learned academic subjects, arts, crafts, mechanical skills, dancing, and games suitable to their physical status. The age factor has played but a small part. Learning can be accomplished about as effectively at sixty as at eighteen. When strongly motivated, some adults learn more readily during years of maturity than they did during their early school careers. Even after the age of sixty, there is evidently only a slight diminution in the capacity to learn. As a general rule, the older person is handicapped in acquiring new interests and abilities only in robust sports or skills requiring keen sensory perception, plus physical agility, strength, and stamina. In fact, an older person's total life experiences give him distinct advantages in some areas of learning and the exercise of judgment.



Integration of leisure and work through a hobby. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

Recreation for the individual is integrally tied in with the wise use of leisure. In the modern world of machinery, routine tasks, and large units of operation, there is a tendency to lose sight of the worker as a person. He must learn to meet his own needs through activities in arts, crafts, and cultural endeavors so that his basic striving for individual worth and status will meet with success.

Respect for Individual Worth. It is through adequate, varied, and self-satisfying leisure-time activities that one can develop feelings of accomplishment and personal usefulness, regardless of economic or employment status. Essential to the development of sustaining values is the need for self-respect. Each individual has status drives which can be integrated into society's needs if a sense of personal worth is evident. Efforts that further a good feeling about oneself must be initiated early in life and can either be helped or hindered by the family and school environments.

Satisfying accomplishments in various areas are possible for most persons. It is, therefore, essential to ascertain as early as possible in a child's life the fields in which quality performance is possible. There is, however, one hazard to be guarded against. That is the overindulgence of youngsters because the parents fear to frustrate them. The child-centered home is not

adequately oriented; for the welfare of the entire family, care must be taken to avoid permitting immature children to exercise the prerogative of making choices that require the maturity of adulthood.

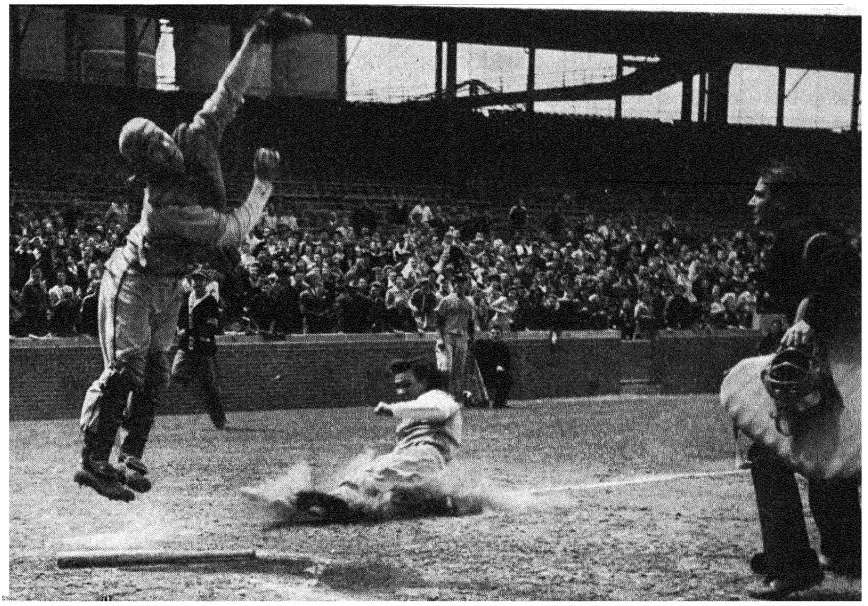
Because of the multiplicity of pressures to which all are exposed in the utilization of available leisure time, money, ability, and other assets, the choices that are made require good judgment. Unfortunately, many persons are neither prepared for nor aware of the importance of discriminating with care in the steps that are taken. In such cases, the influence upon status may be such as to interfere seriously with the integration of personality.

Individual worth or status is frequently thought to be something which is bestowed by the recognition of peers or of those who supervise workers. This is an element in the attainment of status, but it is in the day-to-day judgments that individuals make concerning seemingly routine and inconsequential events that create the frame of reference in which peers or authorities may evaluate another's efforts. In fact, peer groups, colleges, jobs, and consequently one's supervisors, are partly chosen by virtue of the standards that have taken a comparatively long time in coming to be recognized by a young person.

Results of Good Use of Leisure. Theories of play hold that leisure-time activities have a fourfold usefulness: creativeness is developed, surplus energy is expanded, the animal urges to conquer are sublimated, and tension is released through socially accepted patterns. Each of these contribute to a desirable psychological outcome for the self. But attainments through the use of spare time vary as much as do the needs of individuals.

However, proper use of leisure affords certain general advantages: the improvement of physical and mental health; the prevention of membership in delinquent-type peer groups; redirection through play sublimation of aggressive tendencies; expansion of horizons, skills, and creative potentialities which are hemmed in by work disciplines, routine, and home responsibilities; development of new appreciations, understandings, and performance capabilities, particularly in the arts and cultural fields; self-discipline and mutual cooperation through group-centered activities; experience in democratic living incidental to participation in games, that is, "playing the game according to the rules"; and achieving zest, joy, and enthusiasm through the effective state of happiness that is basic when one is engaged in pleasurable activities.

Contribution of Recreation to the Integrated Personality. The activity that most effectively develops creativeness is the best recreation. Recreation implies doing things which require the exercise of the body and brain for



Aggressive tendencies may be sublimated by sports. Spectators may identify themselves with top scorers and college heroes. (Courtesy of *Scholastic Magazine.*)

some purpose that creates pleasure. Only the individual knows the special activity that does this for him, and he discovers it by participating in various recreations. The important point is that the way in which each person spends his leisure time, that is, how he recreates, in some degree determines not only the pattern of his own life but that of his community and nation. The sum total of the recreation of a people has a great deal to do with their morale, their viewpoints, and their conceptions of what we call spiritual matters or value judgments.

In large college classes and at work men do similar jobs, and so there is little opportunity for their individual differences to be demonstrated. An effective aid to be mentally and morally "tops" is for a person to express his opinions freely and to give expression to his individuality in a constructive manner. Various forms of recreation provide the necessary outlets. However, some may choose to do nothing at all in so far as recreation is concerned in their spare time. This type of nonparticipation may be evidence of withdrawing tendencies, and counseling, in order to attain better integration between the personality and the environment, may be indicated.

THE HOME AND INTEGRATION OF PERSONALITY

The home can provide a wide range of satisfactory experiences serving to promote the development of an integrated personality. Love, protection, cooperation, and a consciousness of security are some of the more important emotional concomitants of normal home life. In the family, many of the influences which affect the emerging personality of the child may be unplanned, casual, and incidental to the day-by-day activities. Likewise, the learning process goes on without obvious stress or formality. Out of such experiences during the early years of childhood, attitudes and judgments are evolved.

While the family is the basic social institution in which the integration of personality can be aided and advanced, there are specific factors which inevitably influence such integration. Among these are the following: individual differences in personality, individual status, autistic behavior, and self-discipline.

Personal Differences. Indications of uniqueness start early in life and have a marked tendency to persist. For instance, in a study of infants under two years of age and a subsequent study of the same children fifteen years later by another group of experts, it was found that individual characteristics persisted from infancy well into adolescence.

The striking consistency of individualization of personality has been confirmed in other studies, although some deviations have been reported. It is interesting to note that changes in personality usually occur under emotional stress. They are a temporary variation rather than a complete departure from the unique personality pattern established in early childhood.

Research has confirmed a general observation that learning in a new environment has an influence upon personality, with a tendency to bring about some changes. However, these are usually not basic. There is apparently a permanent core of personality, so that traits, and also manifestations such as childhood fears, sense of rejection, and sibling problems persist through life. These are called persistent affect fixations, and tend to have a substantial influence on the degree of success or failure of an individual in his business career and in adulthood.

Individual Status. Both children and adults seek outlets for self-expression and attainment of status. These are essentials in the integration of personality, and the home provides opportunities for both. The beginnings of such satisfactions are laid in the home, but as adolescence is

reached, recognition by peer groups and by those in positions of authority becomes equally important.

The social status of the individual, that is, his acceptability or nonacceptability to his peers, influences the development and integration of personality. As a child, he is dependent upon his family for many physical and emotional satisfactions, and there is a carry-over into adolescence and adulthood in this respect. The individual seeks to retain status in his family and at the same time to achieve it within his peer group. He is thereby enabled to loosen parental bonds and also prepare himself for his career as an adult.

The values and experiences the young person seeks through his contacts with peer groups of various kinds in some measure depend upon his status in the family group. If this is satisfactory and meets fundamental emotional and social needs, dependence upon peer groups is not apt to be intense. If, on the other hand, the family of which an individual is a part does not provide these essentials to normal existence, the opposite may turn out to be the case. It is in this connection particularly that personal status revolves about and is dependent upon the family. The mutual feelings and reactions of all members of a family group influence status drives.

Self-discipline. This is essential if one is to achieve satisfactory maturity and personal integration. The foundation must be laid in the family circle. The world in which we live precludes the effective functioning of the individual unless he is prepared to cooperate with others. He can no longer be self-sufficient, as he might have been to a considerable extent in the early years of our history. Living in a society with a culture which increasingly imposes social contacts and responsibilities, whether in home, school, college, workshop, mill, mine, or office, the individual can no longer survive by himself. He must play the game as society has set it, whether or not it fits his moods, desires, or interests. The lone-wolf type of personality is not suited to our modern world. Those who are still inclined to follow such a pattern of life often find it necessary to bend to the social will or to leave civilization behind and go elsewhere.

The modern pressures also affect personalities in negative ways. In authoritarian lands the individual tends to become merely a unit in a disciplined mass, fitting into a pattern set for him by those who control the social, economic, political, and military machinery of his country. This results in self-discipline carried to an extreme, with individual personality submerged or even largely destroyed.

There are also certain hazards with which individualism and personality integration are faced in our own culture. These are latent to some degree in mass education and propaganda of special groups and interests. Increases in the size of many units of operation in industry, commerce, politics, education, and other areas may influence the exercise of self-discipline. Unless the average citizen learns to utilize such personal control in his family circle, he may have to submit to extraneous influences stemming from huge governmental, business, labor, or other interests. The basic unit in our society for the development of self-control is the family. The trial-and-error method of learning to achieve self-discipline can best be exercised under the protection and with the guidance of the family group.

Psychology has developed fundamental and effective means of self-discipline. These include specifically the control of the emotions and appetites, so that the higher values of traditionally accepted patterns of effective living may prevail.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND HIS COMMUNITY

The interaction between an individual and his community affects his personality and adjustment to life in many ways. The degree to which such influence is exerted depends upon the range and extent of participation in communal activities. Local clubs, religious and fraternal organizations, civic bodies, political parties, and other peer groups are among those which are generally open to all. Each group in which an individual participates affects his personality to some degree.

Insularity. Whether college students live in the "isolationist" Midwest or the "internationally minded" metropolitan centers in the East, they are relatively insular and provincial when compared with educated persons of West European countries. This is, in large part, due to our comparative geographical isolation and the sense of self-sufficiency that has been a part of our national heritage.

We tend to like our own local customs, manners, and mores, and even try to recreate them in so-called American colonies and American schools abroad. Separation from familiar living patterns requires changes in attitudes and personal adjustments that are sometimes difficult to achieve. This may happen in the case of a Northerner who goes to teach in the South or of a Far Westerner who settles in the East. Modern means of transportation have made it necessary to readjust our mental and emotional patterns to much larger unit concepts. State lines, regional customs, and for-

Industrial personnel men study new methods of meeting problems of congestion in metropolitan communities. Possible use of helicopters, as well as socio-psychological results of such new techniques, have community implications of interest to social psychologists. (Courtesy of The Port of New York Authority.)

eign ways no longer represent barriers to us as they did only a generation ago.

A striking example of our insularity was reported by Dr. Earl J. McGrath, at the time the United States Commissioner of Education. Speaking at a meeting of modern-language teachers he said: [2]

In a recent international meeting on education, the delegate from Egypt rose and addressed the audience in faultless English. The next day with equal fluency and precision he used French, the other official conference language. In private conversation with the representative from Western Germany he spoke the latter's language. And, of course, he was master of Arabic, his own tongue. Though the educators from some forty other nations were linguistically less versatile than he, most of them could use at least one tongue in addition to their own with ease and exactness.

At this conference the United States was represented by five persons all of whom had no less than nineteen years of formal schooling, and all of whom held the Ph.D. degree. Yet no one of them could use another language well

[2] Address at the Thirty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association at the General Session, May 3, 1952, St. Louis, Missouri.

enough to carry on even a private conversation fluently, to say nothing of addressing the conference formally from the floor. This is not an unusual situation. Americans who travel in other lands are quickly impressed with the ability of other nationals to understand and to speak several languages. They are also keenly aware of and often embarrassed by their own inadequacies in this respect.

This inadequacy in respect to foreign languages on the part of many educated Americans is but a reflection of our long-standing insularity. Under earlier political and international conditions, this was less important than it is in the modern world. For the sake of our own personality development, it is necessary to be acquainted with the way of life of citizens of foreign lands and their cultures. Whether we will it or not, our country holds a position of international leadership which is bound to continue for many years. As effective citizens prepared to meet social and political responsibilities, it is essential that our learning and abilities be equal to the demands of our times.

Antidote for Insularity. An effective way to avoid insularity is to develop a state of broad-mindedness. Many college students are inclined to overspecialize in their studies and to become vocationally oriented. While selection is essential in many instances, there is the attendent risk of gaining knowledge without acquiring a measure of wisdom. In such circumscribed courses of study, personal aims are stressed while social goals are slighted. There is a definite need for students to integrate their learning into a unity of purpose which will make some contribution to the social welfare.

To attain some measure of agreement between personal goals and those of the community requires broad rather than specialized knowledge. Learning which is concerned with man's purpose in life, his ideals and reasons for being, should be to the fore in one's thinking. Analysis of communal and national needs, appraisal of the opportunities to participate in meeting them, and the assumption of an active role, can be of help both in breaking down insularity and in integrating personality.

The Scientific Attitude in Community Participation. The educated citizen's participation in community functions may vary widely, but it should have the advantage of applying the scientific attitude to current problems. Education, recreation, housing, hospitals, delinquency—these are some of the problems that require intelligent planning and action by educated and socially-minded citizens. Unfortunately, some are inclined to expend their energies in useless criticism of the regularly constituted authorities.

Psychologist, professional librarian, and lay board president confer about possible psychological outcomes of educational comics if added to children's library. (Courtesy of Elmont, N.Y., library.)

There is a current danger that some phases of psychology may become the expression of well-meaning citizens' wishful thinking to solve communal problems. All too frequently substitutes are sought to relieve others of responsibilities and to avoid the necessity of dealing with difficult situations. Sometimes this type of evasion of fundamentals leads to the selection of educated leaders to cure local ills that have been troublesome for a long time. The application of quick cure-alls or the utilization of the services of educated citizens, no matter how good their intentions may be, are inadequate to meet specific needs. A more scientific approach is essential.

The use of intelligence in planning, experimentation, and trial-and-error methods, will reduce the application of emotional wish-idealism and unrealistic solutions to community problems. Such objectivity may help to reduce prejudice and wishful thinking, while favorably influencing the tone of community attitudes towards local problems. The participation of the educated citizen in the affairs of his town or city and state will help to widen his own social horizon and to infuse his own pattern of life into the political environment. At the same time, his own personality will be favorably affected and give evidence of fuller development and integration.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INTEGRATED PERSONALITY

There is no absolute set of characteristics which is accepted as being descriptive of the integrated personality. However, there are some which distinguish such a personality from others less fortunately endowed. Any attempt to define a well-integrated personality is like trying to describe the "average man." Neither actually exists, but the terms serve as norms by which to base judgments and are usable points of reference.

Mental, emotional, and educational factors are among the major causes of differences in traits between individuals. Each person has a varying degree or sum total of some of the characteristics that are generally associated with integrated personalities. Certain patterns are recognized as being commonly found among such well-balanced men and women. Incidentally, these distinctive traits form the basis of psychological testing procedures used to reveal personality balance or imbalance. The major factors are considered, though it should not be assumed that they are subject or amenable to statistical analysis. They are too subtle and varied to be dealt with in such fashion.

VALUES

Persons who are well balanced usually display allegiance to extrapersonal qualities. Some of these are honesty, loyalty, fair-mindedness, and brotherly love. This allegiance is frequently connected with belief in one of the religions of our culture, but this is not necessarily so, for the beliefs under discussion are ethical rather than religious ones. They are called extrapersonal because of their concern with matters beyond the individual's selfish or individual wants. He does not derive a direct, measurable benefit from them. These qualities are connected with man's spiritual urges, expressing his longing to be better, to do well by his fellows—for the sake of doing good and not for profit for the self. The inclination to render this kind of selfless service is somewhat akin to the ability to distinguish good from evil, or light from darkness. The foregoing holds for the definition of value in art, and so also in this context the term "values" is admirably suited. In this interpretation they imply that one is counted as being on the side of those who stand for light and good, hope and striving for the betterment of the human race. Thus values differ from the urge for security for the self, rather than the group.

Psychologists have attempted to evaluate this kind of trait under various aspects and titles. For instance, there are tests of moral judgment, fair-

mindedness, social responsibility, personal attitude, moral knowledge, and of integration of most of these traits.

The findings of such tests show the wide divergence among individuals and the difficulty of statistical evaluation of some elements of personality traits, such as values. However, research indicates that values and conduct have specific and clear interrelations. An individual does not act on the spur of the moment or in accordance with the personal values involved in each particular situation. Action takes place in harmony with one's general evaluative attitudes, and these are formed over a long period of time through the process of everyday activities. These attitudes are relative to the total environment and tend to resemble the values of one's parents and associates.

Psychological studies indicate the existence, the seeming persistence, and the desirability of values, and the fact that they cannot be isolated or predicted as likely to occur in one person and not in another. They are recognized as being important facets of the integrated personality, even though they are not subject to detailed analysis.

GOALS

Attainable goals are part and parcel of the integrated personality. Whether they are personal, educational, or vocational, they change with an individual's age. The relative acceptance of his goals by close associates increases the desirable effect of the goals on the person establishing them for himself. Goal-motivated behavior is usually intelligent, frequently enthusiastic, but sometimes upsetting. Disturbance occurs when the goal motivation is so strong that it overwhelms the individual and redirects normal behavior to the exclusive purpose of goal attainment. Another undesirable aspect is the pursuit of unattainable goals. These negative phases need to be understood in order to avoid confusion, as everyone has some goals. Realistic appraisal and regular reexamination of one's goals are important to the personality's well-being.

Goals change with the passage of time. New ideas and discoveries, environmental and cultural changes, as well as the individual's growth, cause merging in varying degrees of the integrated person's goals and those of his community, state, and nation.

The community aspect of changing goals is important because the motivations of each member of a peer group have positive or negative effects on all members of the group. In this connection, there is a sharing of goals among peer-group members. For example, a well-integrated person may

delay or sacrifice part of his own desired goals because of this merging with those of the peer group to which he belongs. The acquisition of leadership in such a group may mean postponing one's own goals because of the consuming character of the responsibility of leadership status.

CAPACITY FOR GROWTH

As have been indicated, goals change with the process of growth. However, the integrated personality grows not only physically but also emotionally and conceptually. This means it adjusts to new ideas, new plans, and new cultures. It may be noted that the training during the depression years, beginning in the fall of 1929, of many of the parents of today was not a good experience to help in coping with subsequent war, inflation, prosperity, and cold-war problems about which modern youth need guidance. The parent who can meet pressing situations without losing perspective has the qualities of personality now under discussion.

Intelligence and judgment are basic parts of the capacity of the integrated personality. Understanding of others, particularly those younger and older than oneself, and developing techniques to bridge the gap of years are essential to the capacity for growth. Enthusiasm and interest are among the traits that become an outward expression of understanding and appreciation of those of a different generation.

SENSE OF RELATIVITY

Owing to the fact that change is probably one of the few certain forces in life, absolute rigidity, structural staticism and sameness do not suit the ever changing aspects of the human being. When considered under the aspect of the scientific attitude, he is primarily a wishful, self-determined, stubborn creature, motivated by intelligence and emotionally inspired needs. The combination of logical and illogical actions, dispelling any illusion of completely intelligent behavior, is one reason why the well-adjusted personality acquires a sense of relativity. This affords a logical understanding that since man varies in most things, an absolute standard as to good or efficient behavior is not attainable. One functions within a certain sphere of possibilities. Seeking accomplishment beyond them must be avoided in order to prevent frustration.

What can be secured within the realm of one's potentialities is to further, according to one's ability, the desirable aspects of our culture. This implies understanding that accomplishment varies with the effects of stress, work, recreation, individual differences, and emotional power—to mention a few

of the factors influencing behavior. Proper comprehension of the way people act requires a sense of the interacting, constantly changing forces of environment. Such factors may cause different results from seemingly identical causes, and appreciation of this phenomenon is the essence of a sense of relativity.

FAITH FOR LIVING

Finally, the tie which binds the personality into its integrated state is faith. This is beyond the realm of science. It may result in a person using his maximum potential to improve his own life and that of his fellow men. Faith is an emotion that establishes the belief that life is worthwhile.

Faith encourages mental resilience and the rebound from repeated failure. Faith in ourselves permits of the saving sense of humor which adds to happiness. It is excellent therapy because it allows us to laugh at our weaknesses and failures while we try to redeem them.

The well-integrated person understands that difficulty and failure are part of day-to-day living, along with its pleasures and successes.

SUMMARY

Integration of the personality is desirable in view of the many conflicting environmental forces that tend to pull a person in opposing directions, causing emotional upset and personal inefficiency. A person's adjustment, harmony with his environment, and seeking of goals in life can be enhanced by participation in well-chosen experiences.

Goal-directed behavior can be helped by study in college and experience as a worker. To accomplish this type of behavior as a student and as a worker, the individual uses subject matter, counseling services, and the tasks of his job to broaden his ideas and develop his perspective, judgment, and practicality. This experience includes improving his capacity for leadership, his interest in learning skills, and his ability to get along with his fellows. In this respect, college sets the patterns of acquiring knowledge and understanding, of making intelligent decisions, and of gaining skill in interpersonal relations. These ways of behaving are carried over into one's working life.

Similarly, whether one learns to "kill time" or to use leisure constructively during college has much to do with achieving an integrated personality. The availability of free time affords the opportunity for attaining long-lasting satisfactions through reading, hobbies, crafts, cultural pursuits, and sports. The kind and character of the choices which a person

makes and the quality of his discrimination have a bearing upon the values he develops. Leisure time and recreation are areas in which he has full opportunity to expand as an individual, to give vent to the self-expression that industrial mechanization represses.

Participation in community activities is usual during free time. It is vital to the individual, his community, and our nation that educated persons behave intelligently in managing affairs in their local communities. Clubs, schools, social welfare groups, political subdivisions are some of the units that use educated and wise leaders in solving their problems. By participating in these community endeavors an individual gains satisfaction and reduces frustration and personal maladjustment. The intelligently acting person can improve the general tone of his group by helping to formulate its policies. These changes are important in attracting other educated persons who are mildly interested in their community's welfare. The tendency to be unrealistically optimistic about impractical cure-alls, on the one hand, or completely pessimistic about "fighting city hall," on the other, are group attitudes that educated young people can help to correct. In this way they can gain personal feelings of well-being and status in their home town or community.

The various areas of his activities affect each person differently. Consequently, no one set of factors can be described as constituting the average integrated personality. However, there is much value in observing the qualities that appear frequently in the make-up of a person who has a well-integrated personality. Although these factors differ in accordance with individual and environmental differences it can be said that the integrated person usually has a set of values that inspire acts which are in harmony with those of his group and society in general. He has goals that are attainable and variable. These include the satisfactions which seem to imply that his life is sensibly planned and worth living. He gains a capacity for growth which indicates willingness to mature intellectually and emotionally as well as physically into better understanding of himself, others, and his environment. He develops a sense of relativity which establishes realistic boundaries for personal operations and avoids absolute values or demands upon the self or others for accomplishment of the impossible. He attains a faith for living, which embodies a belief in the fundamental soundness of intelligent behavior, the ability to rebound from failure, and the meeting of the day-to-day problems with enthusiasm and a sense of humor.

THOUGHT PROBLEMS

1. Review your participation in peer groups and outline the forces you encountered in these experiences that, in your opinion, work against integration of the personality.
2. How can a college student participate in community activities?
3. How can you act in your vocation so as to promote your own personal integration?
4. How can you improve the interrelationships within your own family? What techniques can you use in effecting these improvements?
5. List twenty of your major goals. Check the four that have the greatest promise of total achievement.
6. Describe the persons of your class acquaintanceship who have made satisfactory family adjustments. What are the basic reasons for their success?
7. Give the details of ten activities which are the basis for your college life. How will they assist your present and future total adjustment?

REFERENCES

Asch, S. E., *Social Psychology*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1952.

Brown, Warner, and H. C. Gilhousen, *College Psychology*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1950.

Hartley, E. L., H. G. Birch, and Ruth E. Hartley, *Outside Readings in Psychology*, The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1950.

Hurlock, Elizabeth B., *Adolescent Development*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

Johnson, D. M., *Essentials of Psychology*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1948.

Miller, J. G., *Experiments in Social Process*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1950.

Prothro, E. T., and P. T. Teska, *Psychology: A Bio-social Study of Behavior*, Ginn & Co., Boston, 1951.

Schneiders, A. A., *Introductory Psychology*, Rinehart & Company, Inc., New York, 1951.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

The following pages list selected 16-mm motion picture films recommended for use with this text:

Emotional Health (McGraw-Hill, 20 min). This film has three primary objectives: to convince young people of college age that emotional upsets are common; to show that if a disturbance of this kind is prolonged, the need for professional counsel and care is just as important as in the case of physical illness; and to explain in simplified language some of the basic techniques of psychiatric treatment, making it clear that there should be no stigma attached to the necessity for this treatment.

Feeling of Hostility (McGraw-Hill, 27 min). The case history of Clare, an outwardly successful but inwardly incomplete personality. The causes of her feeling of resentment toward others and the resulting failure in personal relationships are traced in detail from early childhood through an unhappy school life and an intellectually satisfactory but emotionally frustrating college career. At the end of the film we see her in a responsible editorial job in a publishing firm, her hostility redirected into constructive effort.

Feelings of Depression (McGraw-Hill, 30 min). The case history of a conscientious, hard-working businessman in his early thirties who suddenly suffers periods of great despondency. The film uncovers the factors in his life which underlie this behavior, and it is suggested that the resources of psychiatry may help him to understand himself and lead the way to a full, rich life.

Feeling of Rejection (McGraw-Hill, 23 min). A visual case history of a neurotic twenty-three-year-old girl. She suffers from physical symptoms such as headaches, extreme fatigue, dizzy spells. No physical causes can be found for these symptoms, which nonetheless are very real and distressing to the patient. She is referred by her doctor to a psychiatrist, who is able to uncover the emotional basis for these physical reactions.

Overcoming Worry (Coronet, 10 min). The devastating effects of needless worry are shown, and we see how this prevalent condition can be overcome.

Overdependency (McGraw-Hill, 32 min). The case history of Jimmy, an attractive young man whose life is crippled by behavior patterns carried over from a too dependent childhood. When we first see Jimmy he is sick; we later learn that his illness has no physical cause. He finds it difficult to face and deal with the ordinary problems of life and takes frequent refuge in the comforting of his mother, sister, and wife. Through patient retracing of childhood experiences in talks with a doctor, Jimmy comes to understand the emotional causes of his illness and fear and takes hold of life with new confidence.

Preface to Life (UW-Govt., 29 min). Portrays the influence parents have on a child's developing personality. This is illustrated by a series of episodes in the life of a boy from his birth until he becomes an adult.

Children's Emotions (McGraw-Hill, 22 min). Deals with the major emotions of childhood—fear, anger, jealousy, curiosity, and joy. Points out what the parent can do to lessen fears and promote the child's happiness and natural development.

Social Development (McGraw-Hill, 16 min). An analysis of social behavior at different age levels and of the reasons underlying the changes in behavior patterns as the child develops. Traces development from the stage where the sexes and ages mix indiscriminately to the point where children begin to pick members of their own sex as playmates, to seek out the natural leader for their groups.

Shy Guy (Coronet, 13 min). Helps the shy adolescent to gain confidence: he witnesses the screen "shy guy's" start toward improved social relations through those principles of friendly association demonstrated by his better-adjusted fellow students.

Individual Differences (McGraw-Hill, 23 min). The case study of a shy, slow child who is different from his classmates and from his older, socially adept brother. Points out that individual differences must be met in terms of individual interests and capabilities, that it is the job of the school to shape education to individual needs.

Unity of Personality: Expressive Behavior (Penn St. Col.-PCR, 18 min). Consistency of expressive movements is demonstrated in the case of each of five individuals with very different personalities. Subjects are filmed in part without their knowledge, and their behavior is spontaneous and characteristic. The expressive behavior patterns shown include gestures, facial movements (also split portraits), handwriting, responses to stimulus words and questions, handling objects, athletic activities, and walking gaits. The demonstrations reveal uniformity in characteristics of expressive behavior, which relates to the "unity of personality."

Unconscious Motivation (Assn. Films, 40 min). Demonstrates how unconscious motives can influence and direct our everyday thoughts, feelings, and actions. Shows standard psychological techniques that are used to detect the

presence of troublesome, repressed ideas lying beyond conscious reach. Illustrates the benefits to mental health that come from the discovery and release of such unconscious material.

Ways to Good Habits (Coronet, 10 min). Shows children in the lower grades the importance of habits and demonstrates how to substitute good habits for bad ones.

Control Your Emotions (Coronet, 13½ min). Presents the essential principles of psychology which apply to the control and direction of emotion.

Understand Your Emotions (Coronet, 13½ min). A general understanding of emotions—what they are, what they do, where they come from, and how they are changed—is developed. This is done by showing that emotions have many effects on the body, both its voluntary and its involuntary behavior, and that people have different emotional responses to the same stimulus pattern.

Search for Happiness (March of Time, 17 min). Traffic jams, the blaring of radios, gadgets, machines—but life instead of getting easier seems to be getting more frustrating and complicated. This film examines modern living and its effect upon mankind. It airs some of the problems of man and his attempts to solve or escape them. It shows man turning for advice and counseling wherever it is proffered: with unflagging optimism, buying potions and pills, following the advice of astrologists and numerologists, adhering faithfully to mail-order courses in such subjects as muscle building—always certain that a miraculous solution of all his problems is just around the corner.

Developing Friendships (Coronet, 10 min). It is vitally important that young people understand and appreciate friends and that they learn how real friendships are developed and maintained. This film accomplishes those objectives, and shows that real friends make a person better than he or she already is.

The Fun of Making Friends (Coronet, 10 min). What are the values of friendships? How do you make friends? How do you keep friends? These are a few points covered. Designed especially to help teachers guide classes on the primary grades level to a realization of what friends are and how easy it is to be friendly.

Understanding Your Ideals (Coronet, 13½ min). What are ideals? Why are they so important to well-being and happiness, and what do they have to do with character? These and other questions are answered in this film. . . . A high school boy who has false ideals finds the right objectives and goals for which to aim.

Role Playing in Human Relations Training (Nat. Ed. Assn.-Adult Ed., 25 min). A training film on uses and techniques of role playing. Some uses shown in the film are: gaining insight into problems in human relations by demonstrating and analyzing effects of different behavior, uncovering interpersonal relationships which are hindering group progress, practicing new behavior be-

fore trying it out in a real life situation, and teaching human-relations skills by acting out situations instead of by verbal explanation.

Ways to Settle Disputes (Coronet, 10 min). There are simple ways to prevent and settle disagreements. Compromise is one method that this film suggests. Other ways are presented as a guide for students to follow, together with suggestions for maintaining a cooperative attitude on the part of the disagreeing parties.

Glen Wakes Up (Young America, 11 min). Designed to stimulate a desire to share responsibilities and privileges, and to build desirable attitudes toward human relationships. A dramatic presentation of the importance of being a "good citizen" in the home, the school, and the community.

Propaganda Techniques (Coronet, 10 min). Chuck would like to know whether the election was really "a victory for good government," as the victorious party claimed, or just a victory for propaganda. In the course of his research, methods of recognizing and evaluating both good and bad propaganda are developed.

Public Opinion (EBF, 11 min). An analysis of public opinion—what it is, how it is formed, and what it can accomplish.

Whispers (TFC, 10 min). Concerns organized whispering campaigns and the spreading of rumors for commercial purposes.

Public Opinion in Our Democracy (Coronet, 10 min). Explains clearly the importance of public opinion, shows how it is formed and determined in connection with a significant community issue. From the film, students will learn the importance of their opinions and the obligation they have to express their opinions in terms of responsible action.

Appreciating Our Parents (Coronet, 10 min). Intended as a guide to promote the appreciation of parents, to establish attitudes of respect and affection for mothers and fathers. Sheds light on the sacrifices made by parents and so affords an insight into their role in the parent-child relationship.

Are You Ready for Marriage? (Coronet, 15 min). A couple who want very much to get married discover what it takes to be ready for marriage. A practical "check list" of criteria for engagement and marriage is offered by a marriage counselor.

Choosing for Happiness (McGraw-Hill, 14 min). "Is he right for me?" That is the first question the heroine of this film asks herself when she meets a new boy—and in the passing weeks each one fails in some way to measure up to her specifications.

Courtship to Courthouse (McGraw-Hill, 15 min). One of the most vital problems affecting America today is the fact that one out of every five marriages ends in divorce and that the ratio is climbing speedily; today the United States finds itself with the highest divorce rate in the world. This film takes up the problem of the road from courtship to courthouse. It shows how easily im-

pulsiveness, lack of clear thinking, and present-day environmental and living conditions can lead to divorce. It further shows that our divorce problem is really a marriage problem and that to solve the one there must be an understanding of the other.

Families First (NY St. Dpt. Comm., 17 min). By a sequence of everyday episodes in the lives of two contrasting families, this film demonstrates the causes of tensions, frustrations, and antisocial attitudes, and shows the opposite results of affection, achievement, and harmonious personality adjustment.

Family Circles (McGraw-Hill, 31 min). Shows how the interplay of home and school influences affects the development of today's youngsters. The experiences of three children illustrate how parental indifference, lack of imagination, and emotional conflict at home can destroy the confidence and enthusiasm necessary for a child's success at school.

Family Life (Coronet, 10 min). Shows how a family begins to enjoy life through proper home management of schedules, responsibilities, privileges, and finances.

Family Teamwork (Frith, 16 min). This story of an American family shows how children and parents can help each other—how they can work together in the home and in their outside activities. The children develop habits of good judgment, self-expression, and work.

How Do You Know It's Love? (Coronet, 12½ min). The purpose of this picture is to give young people a basis for thinking clearly about "being in love."

It Takes All Kinds (McGraw-Hill, 20 min). Shows a series of young people reacting to a tense situation. They are seen with members of the opposite sex so that the audience can get an insight into their possibilities for success or failure in marriage. The successful marriages, the film points out, are those where the partners choose each other with care, with a sure knowledge of each other, and then accept each other for what they are—not for what each might wish the other to be.

Marriage and Divorce. (March of Time, 15 min). Surveys the problems of broken homes and the increasing divorce rate by examining the effects of mechanization on present-day family relations. The opinions of several experts as to what should be done are included.

Marriage is a Partnership (Coronet, 15 min). Sets out to answer some of the major questions that arise during the first married years. Arguments, responsibilities, decisions, loyalties, and other marital problems are raised and discussed.

Marriage Today (McGraw-Hill, 22 min). Two couples are the protagonists—two couples who have made their marriages work through clear analysis of their mutual aims and through cooperation in striving to achieve them. Neither marriage is perfect, for there are bound to be conflicts where different person-

alities are involved. These people have their ideals and goals in true perspective and they are willing to work together to reach them.

Obligations (EBF, 17 min). Two families illustrate the correct and incorrect manner of taking care of their obligations to one another.

Sharing Work at Home (Coronet, 10 min). Intended to show the importance of cooperation to happy family life.

This Charming Couple (McGraw-Hill, 19 min). Focuses on a frequent cause of broken marriages—the false ideals of "romantic" love on which too many marriages are built. Follows the courtship of two young people who refuse to evaluate each other's good qualities and shortcomings in a realistic, adult fashion. A series of dramatic episodes reveals the true nature of each one.

Who's Boss? (McGraw-Hill, 16 min). Competition in marriage is the theme. Ginny and Mike are successful in their individual business careers, but not nearly so successful in making a marriage together. After two years of conflict and a serious quarrel they decide to make a serious cooperative effort to salvage their marriage—for they are in love. Adjustment is slow and difficult, since neither is used to the partnership idea, but a good balance can be achieved through love and patient understanding.

Your Family (Coronet, 10 min). The film story of a happy family—the Brents. They have difficulties, of course, but through mutual understanding, acceptance of responsibility, and cooperation, they have achieved that vital sense of unity so necessary to a happy, harmonious home life. Intended to develop an appreciation and understanding of the family as a social unit and the role of the individual in that unit.

Picture in Your Mind (Int. Flm. Fd., 16 min). Through the use of symbols the film presents the earliest roots of prejudice and the reasons why any group, tribe, or nation thinks its way of life is superior to the other man's mode of living. In the second half a forceful plea is made to the individual viewer to reexamine his own mind to see whether his mental picture of the other man is distorted.

Prejudice (Assn. Films, 1 hr). A Swedish man has his assistant transferred when he finds out that he is a Jew. Later, when prejudice is directed against his own family, he learns that an attack on one racial or religious group can spread to others, including his own, and that to condone an attack on any group is to succumb to the slow poison of bigotry.

Make Way for Youth (Assn. Films, 22 min). Startled into action by tragedy, the folks of a typical American town, young and old, get together on a youth program and the fences between neighborhoods, races, and religions begin to break down.

Americans All (March of Time, 16 min). A survey of racial and religious tensions throughout the United States and of programs for combating prejudices, particularly the Springfield (Massachusetts) plan for intercultural education.

Boundary Lines (Int. Flm. Fd., 10 min). A plea to eliminate the arbitrary "boundary lines" which divide people from each other as individuals and as nations, invisible boundary lines of color, origin, economic status, and religion. Points out that these lines result in an accumulation of fear and suspicion and finally in war.

An Equal Chance (NY St. Comm. Against Discrim., 10 min). Explains how the New York State Commission against Discrimination deals with a complaint of job bias, from cause to cure.

How We Cooperate (Coronet, 10 min). What cooperation is, the values to be derived from it, and some of the most important "settings" in which we should cooperate. The functions of purpose, effort, and planning in cooperation are stressed.

Pattern for Peace—Charter of the United Nations (BIS, 15 min). Designed to bring about an understanding of the structure and purposes of the United Nations Organization. Careful analysis is made of the work of the General Assembly, the Security Council, and the various commissions designed to assist in the task of forging world peace.

Fury (TFC, 17 min). Circumstantial evidence involves an innocent man in a kidnaping charge. Before proper investigation can be made, the temper of the townspeople becomes inflamed. A mob forms. The sheriff and deputies are unable to hold the mob at bay. The jail is stormed and burned with the victim trapped inside.

Testing Intelligence with the Stanford-Binet (Ind. U. and Ed. Film Lib. Assn., 18 min). Produced primarily to give an over-all view of the types of items and the methods of administration employed. Not designed to teach students how to administer the test.

Testing the I.Q. (Int. Flm. Bur., 15 min). Demonstrates the administration of the revised Stanford-Binet intelligence test and calculations of the IQ.

How to Get Cooperation (Coronet, 10 min). Indicates how cooperation from others can be enlisted if certain considerations are made. The need for a variety of methods of securing cooperation is demonstrated; it is also shown how desired ends can be reached more easily with cooperation of others.

How to Observe (Coronet, 10 min). Demonstrates the importance of observation as basic to learning the sciences and the arts. Students are shown that observation can be developed as a skill and can be improved through applied and guided practice.

How to Read a Book (Coronet, 10 min). The selection of a book involves several considerations: What information do we need? What questions do we want answered? What does the book offer that will contribute to our knowledge and understanding? This film attempts to answer these questions. Many other details are brought out: the author's attitude; key ideas—where to look for them

and how to use them in rapid reading; the index, footnotes, and references; when to read quickly and when to read with greater care.

How to Remember (Coronet, 10 min). Presents six important rules to help the memory.

How to Study (Coronet, 19 min). Designed to motivate better study habits and give practical hints on study technique. Shows how study is made more pleasant and profitable through cultivation of proper techniques.

Keep Up with Your Studies (Coronet, 10 min). Treats the problem of daily assignments and how to handle them efficiently. Motivates interest in doing well on these assignments and doing them regularly. Specific and helpful suggestions on organizing study time, study materials, and study conditions are presented.

Learning Democracy (Ed. Film Serv., 20 min). How young people can gain experience in the democratic processes through participation in school-community projects. Filmed in sixteen Michigan communities. The cast consists of the actual participants in the projects.

Aptitudes and Occupations (Coronet, 16 min). Discusses six of the fundamental human abilities—mechanical, clerical, social, musical, artistic and scholastic—and indicates how a student can, with the aid of school counselor, determine how much of each of these abilities he has. Also indicates broad fields in which certain combinations of abilities are required.

Choosing Your Occupation (Coronet, 10 min). Self-appraisal, occupational possibilities, preparation requirements, and guidance facilities are presented.

Finding the Right Job (Coronet, 11 min). Includes a presentation of job-lead sources; emphasizes some of the crucial stages in obtaining a job; shows how to establish a process of weighing offers in terms of future goals and what is offered.

How to Keep a Job (Coronet, 10 min). Admitting the importance of selecting the right vocation and specific position, job success also involves getting along with fellow workers, conduct of work, attitude toward company, and several other factors.

You and Your Work (Coronet, 10 min). The story of Judd Taylor, his failure in a good job and his ultimate rehabilitation and success.

Developing Your Character (Coronet, 10 min). Illustrates what good character is and how it can be achieved in order to live more happily and more successfully. Influences stemming from home, church, school, and friends, which mold an individual's character, are described, and a guide to developing character is presented.

Build Your Vocabulary (Coronet, 10 min). A dramatic story which portrays a vocabulary failure and shows how it is turned into a success. Mr. Thompson, who finds himself at a loss for words at a civic association meeting, takes a cue

from his son Roger and embarks upon a systematic campaign of vocabulary improvement.

Speeding Your Reading (Tch. Aids Exch., 10 min). Illustrates fundamental principles involved in correct reading habits and shows how to develop reading speed. Explains the meaning of span of recognition and shows how development of span may be achieved. Illustrates correct eye movements and shows how to develop them.

Conditioned Reflexes and Behavior (Brandon, 1 hr). Demonstrates the theories for which Pavlov is most famous, including reactions based on instincts of hunger, sex, and protection.

DIRECTORY OF SOURCES

Assn. Films—Association Films, Inc., 347 Madison Ave., New York 17.

BIS—British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Brandon—Brandon Films, Inc., 200 W. 57th St., New York 19; Film Center, Inc., 64 W. Randolph St., Chicago 1.

Coronet—Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.

EBF—Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill.

Ed. Film Serv.—Educational Film Service, 180 N. Union St., Battle Creek, Mich.

Frith—Frith Films, 1816 N. Highland, Hollywood 28, Calif.

Ind. U. and Ed. Film Lib. Assn.—Indiana University, Educational Film Library Association, Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, Ind.

Int. Flm. Bur.—International Film Bureau, Suite 308–316, 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4.

Int. Flm. Fd.—International Film Foundation. (Films distributed by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.)

McGraw-Hill—McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., Text-Film Department, 330 W. 42d Street, New York 36.

March of Time—March of Time Forum Films, 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17. (Films distributed by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.)

Nat. Ed. Assn.-Adult Ed.—National Education Association, Adult Education Department, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

NY St. Comm. Against Discrim.—New York State Commission against Discrimination, 270 Broadway, New York 7.

NY St. Dpt. Comm.—New York State Department of Commerce, Film Library, 112 State St., Albany 7, N.Y.

Penn St. Col.-PCR—Pennsylvania State College, Psychological Cinema Register, State College, Penn.

Tch. Aids Exch.—Teaching Aids Exchange, Inc., Post Office Box 1127, Modesto, Calif.

TFC—Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 W. 43d St., New York 18.

UW-Govt.—United World Films, Inc., Government Films Dept., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29.

Young America—Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41st St., New York 17.

INDEX

A-bombs, 343
Abdomen, 30
Ability, mental, 45
  reading, 43
  specialized, 47
  technical, 358
  writing, 43
Abortion, illegal, 178
  on unmarried, 178
Abstraction, 55
Abulia, 85
Academic adjustment, 201, 204
  effect of, 206, 207
  effect on, of effort, 207
    of internal unrest, 204
  measurement of, 201, 202
Academic difficulty, causes of, 203, 204
Academic maladjustments, 210
Accommodation, 335–337, 352
Accomplishment, grade, 47
Accountants, 57
Acculturation, 84
Achievement, classroom, 158
Acquaintance period, 172
Act, criminal, 165
Action, reflex, 36
Activity, 364
Actors, suppression of emotion by, 133
Acuity, sensory, 55
  test of, 55
  visual, 55, 56
Adams, C. R., 189
Adaptation, mental, 48
Adjustment, in college, 211
  emotional, 152, 157, 167
  individual, 16
  marital, 177
  personal, 13, 69, 357
  psychological, 120, 151, 155
Adjustment, social, 16, 354
  study of, 111
Adler, Alfred, 11, 112, 121
  superiority concept, 112
Adolescence, 35, 150, 151
  adjustment in, 138
    emotional, 151
  beginning of, 139
  late, 144, 167
  prestige factors in, 223
  prolongation of, 170
Adolescent development, 377
Adolescent problems, age mates, 195, 196
  effect on, of parents, 195
    of students, 196
    of teachers, 195
Adrenalin, 30
Adrenals, 30, 31
Adult identification in native culture, 211
Adult responsibilities, 191
Adulthood, 35
  adjustment in, 138
  arrival at, 191
  ceremonies in Western and other cultures, 192, 193
  delay of, 191
  early, 144
  maturity of, 364
  success in, 366
Advertisements, magazine and newspaper, 317
Advertisers, 319
Advice, counseling, 356
Affection, parental, 150
Affiliation, religious, 282, 283, 312
Africa, 34
Africans, cultural capacities of, 305
Age, chronological, 49
  mental, 49

Age mates, description of, 214, 215
Aggression, 121, 135, 188, 283, 332, 346, 350
  cause of, 341
  definition of, 121
  as factor in conflict, 330
  in lynching, 329
  as primitive reaction, 121
  as psychological mechanism, 121
  sublimation of, 364, 365
  verbal, 293
Aggressiveness, extremes of, 181
  of male, 180
  reduction of, 350
  unconscious basis of, 129
Agility, physical, 362
Agitators, 285
  labor, 286
Aid, visual, 60
Alcohol, influence of, 40
  psychological effect of, 200
  use of, 160, 200
    chronic alcoholism, 165, 168
    in college, 200, 210
    excessive, 160, 185
Alcoholic father, 129
Alcoholism, chronic, 165, 168
Aliens, 286
Allowance, spending, 150
Allport, G. W., 119, 294, 298, 303
Alpha Test of U.S. Army, 49
Alpha Theta chapter of Theta Chi Fraternity, 310
Ambition, 120
  parental, 145, 151
Ambivalence, 232
American Council on Education Psychological Tests, 56
American culture, 171
  arranged marriage in, 172
American Indians, 306–308, 339, 343
  prejudice against, 304, 306
American Institute of Public Opinion, 5
American Journal of Sociology, 173
American Negro (*see* Negroes)
American Psychological Association, 17
Americanization, 285
Americans, 33, 301, 343
  citizenship privileges of, 309
Amnesia, 123
Anastasi, Ann, 223
Anatomy, female, 183
Analysis, job, 355, 356
Analysts, lay, 13
Anderson, J. E., 135
Angell, James R., 8
Anger, 170
Anglo-Saxons, 77, 287
  superiority of, 287
Animals, 20, 21, 33, 35
  experiments with, 16
Antibiotics, 3
Anti-Defamation League, 298
Antipathy, feeling of, 161
  between white and Negro children, 298
Anti-Semitism, 283
Anxiety, excessive, 107
  state of, 122
Apprehension, 32
  (*See also* Anxiety)
Aptitude, 17, 47, 68, 355
  mechanical, 64
  nonverbal, 69
  study of, 16
Aptitude tests, 55
Arbitration, 331, 335
Arithmetic, 53, 61
Arlitt, Ada H., 152
Art, 11
  accomplishment in, 161
Arteriosclerosis as cause of personality disturbance, 147
Artery lining, 28
Asch, S. E., 377
Asiatics, 306
Assassination in political conflict, 331
Assembly, freedom of, 302
Assets, financial, 186
Association, free, 13, 62, 63
Astrology, 17
Atom, 29
Atomic energy, 3, 343
Attention, definition of, 48
  seeking, 111
Attitudes, 33, 184, 287
  American, 33
  Catholic, 33
  coloring of, 286
  definition of, 286
  egocentric, 182
  evolution of, 366
  fanatical, 302
  "go-getter," 356
  intolerant, 302
  Japanese, 33
  Jewish, 33
  negativistic, 140
  parental, 141
  Protestant, 33
  psychological, 180
  social, 45

Attitudes, uncritical, 73
Attraction, physical, in mate selection, 170, 171
Audiometer, 55
Autobiography, 59, 60
Autonomic nervous system, 27, 28
Averages, 44
Avocation of prospective mate, 171

Baby, birth of, 188
  illegitimate, 178
Bacteria, 20
Baer, M. F., 272
Bailard, Virginia, 234
Bancroft, Paul, III, 273
Band-wagon technique in propaganda, 317
Bankers, advice of, 186
Baptists, 281
Barker, R. G., 152
Barnes, D. M., 323
Baron, Denis, 234
Baruch, Dorothy W., 119, 168, 212
Becker, Howard, 152, 168, 189
Bedford, J. H., 272
Behavior, 40, 41
  aggressive, 121, 341
  autistic, 366
  conscious, 16
  crowd, 320, 321
  early levels of, 130
  emotional, 37, 40, 121
  fundamentals of, 20
  human, 4, 20, 28, 37
  individual, 16
  intelligent, 2, 43, 64–69, 72–76
  mechanism of, 26
  motivated, 32
  normal, 1
  unconscious, 16
  unintelligent, 76
Behaviorism, 9
Belief, ethical, 372
  religious, 302, 312, 372
Bell-shaped curve, statistical, 85
Bentley, J. E., 19
Bernard, H. W., 253
Bernhardt, K. S., 234, 253
Berrien, J. K., 253
Betrothal, 175
Bias, 73
"Big business," 289
"Big shot," 182
Bigot, 303
Binet, Alfred, 48, 65
Biology, 9, 11, 13
  career in teaching, 133
  cooperation in, 341
Birch, H. G., 377
Birth order, 138, 151
"Birthright" (film), 188
Blackburn, Julian, 19
Bleeser, W. W., 208
Blindness, color, 21
Blood, changes in, 30
  chemical contents of, 29
"Bloodsucker," 292
Blue-collar jobs, description of, 236
Boas, Franz, 307
Boastfulness, 182
Body structure, 21
Boll, Eleanor S., 135
Bolshevik, 285
"Bongo, Bongo, Bongo," 34
Bonn, Philip, 139, 143, 149
Book of Leviticus, 277
Book burning, 296
Bookkeeper, 57
Boring, Edwin, 41
Bossard, J. H. S., 135, 168
Boston Democrats, 302
Bowlby, John, 294
Bowles, J. W., Jr., 19
Bowman, Henry, 173, 179
Boys' Clubs, 339
Brain, 27, 28
  base of, 30
  little, 28
Brewer, John, 272
Brides, 175
  premarital instruction of, 181
Bride-to-be, 178, 186
Brill, Dr. A. A., 329
Bridge maintenance, 70
British Army, 67
  personality measurement tests used in, 113
Britt, S. H., 294
Broken home, 153, 154
  boys in, 155
  psychological effects of, 155
Brown, Thomas, 296
Brown, Warner, 377
Bruce, W. F., 76
Bubley, Esther, 126, 145
Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, 287
Bureau of Business Practice pamphlet, 105
Burgess, E. W., 152, 172, 177, 179

Burtt, H. E., 76, 135
Business success, 366
Buyers, 57

Caesar, 316
Calcium in blood, 30
California Test of Mental Maturity, 61
Campus, 361
  conflict on, 333
Cancer, 11
Cannon-Bard theory, 37
Cantril, Hadley, 288, 333
Cape Cod, 338
Capitalism, Western, 336
Card stacking in propaganda, 317
Career, artistic, 158
  industrial, 356
  professional, 158
  selection of, 254, 273
    steps in, 258
Carpetbaggers, 306
Carrol, H. A., 119
Cartels or competition, 353
Carter, H. L. J., 234
Catholic conspiracy, delusion of, 279
Catholics, 33, 281
Cattell, R. B., 23, 119
Caucasians, 304
Cavity, abdominal, 28
  eye, 28
  pelvic, 28
  thoracic, 28
Cells, blood, white and red, 30
  effector, 28
  nerve, 8
Censorship, 296
Center, intellectual, 39
Central America, 331
Central nervous system, 27
Central tendency, 44
Cerebellum, 28
Cerebrum, 28
Ceremony, marriage, 185
Chance, distribution of, 45
Characteristics, physical, 21
Charms, love, 17
Chart, profile, 44, 51, 52
  Snellen, 55
Chemistry, 4, 11, 13
  cooperation in, 341
Chicago, Democrats in, 302
  Negro slums in, 308
  newspapers, 286
  riots in, 323
Child labor, propaganda in curbing, 317
Childbearing, 184
  effect on health, 171
Childhood, 35
  emotional development in, 137
  dependency during, 140
  experiences of, 366
  memories of, 303
Children, development of, 152
  handicapped, 60
  hyperactive, 132
  Negro, 298
  psychological growth of, 134
  resentment of, toward older persons, 107
Chimpanzee experiments, 10
Chinese, 306, 339, 354
  cultural capacities of, 305
Choices, reciprocated and unreciprocated, 116
Chores, household, 187
Christensen, T. E., 253
Chronological age (CA), 49
Chromosomes, 21
Church, A., 284
Church members, 280
Churchmen, 302
Cicero riots, 323
Circulation and autonomic nervous system, 28
Citizenship privileges, 309
Civil War draft riots, 323
Clash, emotional, between parents, 139
Class conflict, 331
Classmates, 166
Cleveland, Grover, 215, 301
Climate, 20
Clinics, educational, 59
  mental-hygiene, 17
  psychological, 12
  reading, college, 89
Clothes, home-made, 157
Club restriction of membership, 293
Coca-Cola experiment, 318
Co-curricular (extracurricular) activities, study of purposes of, 226
Coefficient, correlation, 44
Coercion, 335
Coitus, 173
Cole, L. E., 76, 234
College of the City of New York, 207, 221
  alumni attitudes, 221
College, 43, 44, 53, 68, 74
  adjustment in, 201
    interpersonal, 194

College, attendance, reasons for, 193, 194
campus conflicts, 333
careers and vocational guidance, 190, 273
contacts in, 312
courses, excessive, 197, 198
planning of, 197
faculty, student needs considered in hiring, 232
graduation effects, 211
personal development in, 194
policies, 228
premarital instruction in, 186
psychological laboratory, 317
radical groups, 221, 222
relation of intelligence to, 201
scholastic record, 137
College curriculum, 360
College education, 167
effect of, 359
employment value of, 242
factors in effectiveness of, 213, 214
College hero, identification with, 126
College industry, cooperative work experience in, 199
College students, 121, 128, 169, 294, 360, 368
abilities of, 88
economy of, 196, 198
overspecialization of, 370
prejudice among, 303, 373
relationships of, with administrators, 229
with counselors, 230
with service personnel, 230
sexual promiscuity among, 141
stereotypes of, 287, 288
substitution by, 132
(*See also* specific colleges and universities)
Colonies, American, in foreign countries, 368
Color differences, 298
Colored orphan asylum, sacking of, 324
Columbia University, Bureau of Applied Social Research, 287
Center for Mass Communication, 188
Column, vertebral, 27
"Commies," 292
Committee on Ways and Means, 289
Common sense, 6, 7, 118
in theories of personality, 101, 102
Communication, methods of, 299
skill in, 359
Communism, 336
Communist Manifesto, 336
Communists, 279, 285, 316, 336, 337
in Russia, 293
use of scapegoats by, 281
Community, 13, 43
rural, 329
scientific attitude in, 370
Community participation, 370
Community responsibility in family life, 154
Companion, male, 183
Compensation, definition of, 121
desirability of, 122
by over-indulgence, 122
for physical shortness, 122
purpose of, 122
Competition, 335, 345, 348, 349, 355
beginning of, 346
business, 347
definition of, 343
economic, 312, 345, 349
as factor in conflict, 330
fear of, 299
forces in, 353
free, 351
initiator of, 347
land, 343
between men and women, 184
parental, 151, 162
pattern of, 346
political, 312
price of, 350
among primitive people, 344
racial, 350, 353
social, 346
Competitors, aggressive, 348
Complications, legal, 179
Comprehension of language and words, 55
Compromise, 335
Computation subtest, 53
Conception, 21
Concepts, 55
abstract, 65
emotionalized, 290
Conciliation, 335
Conditioned-reflex experiment, 36, 41
Conditioned-reflex theory, 11
Conduct, asocial, 121
regressive, by young children, 130
standards of, 171
Configuration, configurationalism, 9
Conflict, 41, 298, 329, 333, 337, 345, 350
class, 331
cultural, 164, 165, 299

Conflict, emotional, 122, 129, 162, 290
home, 145
international, 332, 333
interracial, 338
parental, 146
personality, 120
political, 331
race, 330
religious, 331
resolving of, 106
urban vs. rural, 331
Congestion, physical factors of, 309
Congressional debate, 301
Connector, 28
Consciousness, 4, 13, 37, 38, 129
Conspiracy, Catholic, false charge of, 279
Constitution of the United States, 331
Contract, marriage, 185
Control of immigration, 307
Conway experiment in role playing, 116
Conway sociogram, 116
Cooke, Jerry, 187
Coombs, C. H., 206
Cooperation, 335, 337, 345, 355
economic, 340
among Eskimos, 344
group, political, religious, social, 347
in home life, 366
international, 342
interracial, 338, 339
tolerance and prejudice, 353
white and Negro, 339
Cooperative enterprises, definition of, 340
psychological value of, 341
Cooperative movement, 350, 353
Coordination, motor, 69
test of, 63, 64
Cord, spinal, 27, 28
Cornell University, study of fraternities in, 216
Correlation, 44, 66
coefficient of, 44
Cortisone, 30
Cottrell, L. S., Jr., 177
Counseling, as aid to academic adjustment, 204
survey of, 204
Counselors, college, 176
marriage, 176, 186
Courtship, 169, 178, 182, 184
customs, changes in, 174
definition of, 172
duration of, 172, 173, 189
hazards in, 173
initiative in, 174
Courtship, interpersonal relations in, 188
major functions of, 189
and marriage, 190
and personality, 173
prolongation of, 175
sex experience during, 178
Coutu, Walter, 294
Covenant, real estate restrictive, 293
Crafts, activity in, 363
Craftsmen, skilled, 343
Credit trust, 289
Creeds, 302
Crow, Alice, 42
Crow, L. D., 42
Crowd, at baseball and football games, 320
behavior of, 320, 321
composition of, 320, 321
dancing, 320
manipulation of, 322, 333
picnic, 320
psychology of, 320
violence of, 323, 325
"Crushes," 169
Cuba, 331
Culture, 1, 33, 67, 73, 76, 299, 346
American, 171
conflict in, 165
differences in, 167
foreign, 165, 370
Curriculum, 361
college, 360
Curve, bell-shaped, 45
of distribution, "skewed," 88
Customs, 20, 299
courtship, 174
in foreign lands, 305
local, 368
social, 164
Cycle, menstrual, 30, 183

Dartmouth College, 303, 310
stereotype of students at, 288
Davie, M. R., 333
Day of Atonement, 277
Daydreaming, among college students, 124
excessive, 135
in learning, 90, 94
Daydreams, 134
adolescent, 169
of aged, 130
fulfillment of, 169
solace in, 130
(*See also* Fantasy)

Death, home broken by, 149
Debate, Congressional, 301
Declaration of Independence, signers of, 25
Deese, J. E., 95
Delinquency, plans for dealing with, 370
Delinquents, 25
  conduct of, 107
Delusion, of paranoiacs, 295
  persecution, 279
Demagogue, 281, 283, 323
Democracy, responsibility of, 315
Democrats, in Boston, Chicago, Kansas City, New York, 302
  in South, 301
Dennis, Wayne, 19
Dentistry, 56
Depression, economic, 299, 350, 351
  riots during, 323
Desertion, 162
  family, 160
  periodic, 160
Detector, lie, 12
Detroit, Negro slums in, 308
  riots in, 323
Development of personality, 99
Deviation, 44
Devices, mechanical, 64
  psychological, 65, 66
Dewey, Richard, 353
Dexterity, manual, 69
Dictatorship, farm, 286
Dictionary study, 90
Die maker, 57
Digestion, 28–30
Director, personnel, 67
Disability, imposition of, 308
  during menstruation, 183
Discrimination, 293, 295
  abolition of, 312
  condemnation of, 311
  definition of, 308
  educational effort to limit, 312
  elimination of, 311
  in employment, 309
  forms of, 308
  individual, 309
  interpersonal, 309
  interracial, 309
  official, 310
  reduction of, 314
  teaching of, 310
Disease, heart, 11
Disorders, mental, 147
Displacement, definition of, 122
  process of, 122, 123
Dissociation, definition of, 123
  as escape from unpleasant situation, 123
  relation of, to mental disintegration, 123
    to psychiatric and psychologic treatment, 123
Distribution curve of abilities of college and high school students, 88
District schools, 331
DiVesta, F. J., 216
Divorce, 149, 162, 167, 171
  as cause of broken home, 153
  laws on, 167
  statistics of, 154
  validity of, 185
Dogs, experiments with, 16
  feeding of, 36
Dole, 286
"Dollar diplomacy," 289
Dollard, John, 314, 353
Domination, family, 41
  urge for, 142
Donahue, Wilma T., 206
Doob, L. W., 294, 314, 333, 353
Douglas, W. A., 273
Draft riots in New York, 323
Drama, 62
Dreese, Mitchell, 253
Dreikurs, Rudolf, 253
Drinkers (*see* Alcohol)
Drugs, 13
  influence of, 40
  narcotic, 185
  psychological effect of, 200
  use of, 200
Dunban, E. F. M., 294
"Dutch treating," 174
Duvall, Evelyn M., 190
Dynamic psychology, 135

Earnings of college graduates, in New York City, 207
  vs. nongraduates, 207
East (United States), metropolitan centers in, 368
East African tribes, 344
East Europe, leaders in, 296
Economic independence, 138
Economic planning, 186
"Economic royalists," 289
Economic security, 356
Economic status, differences in, 298

Education, 11, 13
college (*see* College education)
faculty-parents effect of, 233
interpersonal relations, 232
leisure-time, 16
opportunities for, 315
discrimination in, 310
peer-group effect, 232
planning for, 370
psychological tests in, 51
Educators, 58, 69, 312
Edwards, A. L., 42
Effector cell, 28
Ego, 37, 110
Egocentricity, male, 182
Egocentrism, 343
Egotism, 129
Egyptian delegate at meeting on education, 369
Elmont, N.Y., library, 371
Embryo, 21, 35, 36
Emotional drive, identification of, as escape, 126
unsatisfied, 130
Emotional emancipation, 141
Emotional growth, 126
Emotional hazard, 144
Emotional immaturity, 129, 160, 182, 342
Emotional mechanism, 120
Emotional overflow, 106
adjustment of, 32, 106
threshold of, 106
Emotions, 8, 29, 32, 38, 39
classification of, 16
definition of, 37
difficulties in, 106
nature of, 38–41
retention of, 13
transfer of, 13
(*See also* specific emotions)
Employees, personality problems of, 18
selection of, 6
Employers, 31
social-mindedness of, 292
Employment, choice of, 256
during college, 244
cultural influence of, on family, 254, 255
of disabled, 268
experience value of, 198
kinds of, 197, 199
married women in, 185
part-time, 361
psychological value of, 199, 244
restriction of, 310
Employment, student, 197–199
Endurance test, 63
Energy, atomic, 343
Engagement, 172, 176, 182, 184
adjustment during, 176
announcement of, 175
behavior during, 178
broken, 178, 179
definition of, 175
duration of, 177, 189
early, 174
formal, 175
interpersonal relations in, 188
purposes of, 175, 189
sex experience during, 178
Engels, Friedrich, 336
Engineers, 63
England, 8, 23
cooperatives in, 340
English as language of United States, 301
Entertainment, commercialized, 174
Environment, 1, 8, 13, 20–27, 35, 40, 41, 43, 58, 59, 65, 66, 77
biological, 20
changes in, 118
community, 137
competitive, 346, 347
family, 363
home, 151
troubled, 147
inorganic, 20
integration of personality and, 365
learning in new, 366
physical, 20
psychosocial, 20
school, 363
slum, 156
social, 20
Environmental factors influencing behavior, 108
Envy, 348
Equipment, peephole, 46
Eskimos, cooperation among, 344
Ethiopians, 304
Ethnic group, 299
Ethnocentrism, 299
Europe, 306
economic cooperation in, 340
mate selection in, 170
religious conflict in, 331
research in, 37
Evolution, subjective, 58
Examinations, nature of, 66
scoring of, 66
technique in taking, 92, 94

Examiner, personnel, 68
Excess, alcoholic, 160
Experiments, conditioned-reflex, 36, 41
  laboratory, 4
Expert, personnel, 70
Extrovert, definition of, 112
Eye, cavities of, 28
  color of, 21
  pupil dilation, 30
  regression of, in reading, 90

Faculties, theory of, 8
Faculty and student relations, 231, 233
Failure, feeling of, 122
Fair-mindedness, 372
Faith, 38
  Judaeo-Christian, 302
  religious, 361
Family, authoritarian, 96
  child-centered, 96, 363
  disgraced, 165
  family-centered, 96
  integration of personality in, 366
  low-income, 148, 155
  middle-class, 148
  prospective, 169
  with rejection patterns, 164
Family life, intimacies of, 136
  psychology applied to, 96, 97
Family relations, 120
Fantasy, 62, 125, 135
  definition of, 124
  overindulgence in, 124
  as wishful thinking, 124
  (*See also* Daydreams)
Far East, 337
Farm dictatorship, 286
Farnsworth, P. R., 314
Fascists, 336, 337
  in Italy, 281, 293
Father, aggressive, 134
Father-son relationship, 137
Father-substitute, 323
Fedder, Ruth, 234
Federal Congress, 350
Feeble-minded, 47, 325
Female adjustment to marriage, 183
Fiber, nerve, 27
Field (total environment), 27
Fink, Kenneth, 288
Fire, forest, in Maine, 279
First-born, favoring of, 138
First World War, 49, 67, 281, 352
  divorces following, 154
Fixation, daughter-father, 126
  definition of, 125
  parental, 126
  persistent effect of, 366
"Flash"-card use, 90
Fodor, N., 19
Folklore, 62
Folkways, 299
"Foreigners," 291
Foreman, promotion to, 128
France, 320
Frank, Lawrence K., 352
Fraternities, 215, 216
  as conservative groups, 232, 233
  effect of, on employment, 216
    on members, 216, 217
    on nonmembers, 216, 217
  social attitudes in, 220, 221
Fraternity membership, values of, 222
Fraud, fear of, 304
Free association, 13, 63
  technique of, 62
Freedom, fundamental, 313
  limitation on, 342
  religious, 34
Freedom's Journal, article on lynching in, 326, 327
Freeman, F. N., 76
French Canadians, 301
Freud, Sigmund, 11, 19, 83, 84, 121
  concepts of, 110, 147
  example of displacement process, 123
Friendship, 175
Frustration, 135, 150, 158, 279, 281, 299, 341, 342, 345, 348
  in broken home, 153
  as cause of scapegoating, 281
  components of, 344
  extent of, 283
  as factor in conflict, 330
  of father, 134
  in lynching, 329
  in marriage, 189
  of parents as job influence on offspring, 235, 238
  personal, 303
  reduction of, 350
  sense of, 47, 182
Frustration-aggression theory, 278
Functionalism, functionalist, 8, 9

Gaede, W. R., 200
Gallup poll, 5

Galton, F., 23
"Gang" standards, 107
Gas chamber, 293
Gay, Robert, 357
Gaynor, F., 19
Gebhard, P. H., 181
General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 310
General culture subtest, 53
Genius, 47
Geography, 53
Geology, 4
German Kaiser, 306
German Navy, 67
  tests, 113
Germans, 342
  stereotype of, 290, 291
Germany, 8
  disturbed conditions in, 281
  Nazis in, 392
Gestalt, 9, 10, 27
Gestaltist, 9, 10
Gestures, 50
Giants, 45
Gilhousen, H. C., 377
"Glamour" jobs, competition for, 245
Glands, 11, 16, 27–29, 41
  compound, 28
  ductless, 28, 29, 31
  endocrine, 29, 31, 41
  function of, 41
  of internal secretion, 28
  pineal, 31
  salivary, 29
  secretion of, 39
  simple, 28
Glass, one-way-vision, 59
Goals, attainment of, 373
  conflicting, 117
  long-term, 117
  personal, 370
  short-term, 117
"Golden Rule," 302
  recognition of, 310
Gonads, 30
Goodenough, Florence L., 76
Goodhartz, A. S., 231
Government employee, American stereotype of, 288, 289
Grade accomplishment and success, 206, 207
Grammar, 55
Grandparents, 161
Graphology, scientific research in, 115
Gray, J. S., 135
Greek-letter societies (*see* Fraternities)
Greeks, 18, 284
Greene, E. B., 76
Greenland tribes, 344
Gregariousness, male, 182
Groton School, admission of Negro student to, 311
Group, leisure-time, 225
  minority, 303, 347
  norm, 44
  peer, 367
  psychological aspects of, 224, 226
  social, 224
Group testing, 53
Grouping, homogeneous, 47
Groves, E. R., 152, 168, 190
Growth, emotional, 126
Guidance, group, 16
  sources of, in college, 245, 246
  vocational, 356, 357
Guilt, personal, 303
Guthrie, E. R., 42

H-bombs, 343
Habit, 118
  fixed, 165
  formation of, in college, 196
  sexual, of males, 152
Habit pattern, negativistic, 129
Hadfield, J. A., 42
Haefner, Ralph, 76
Hair color, 21
Harlem riots, 323
Harsh, C. M., 119
Hartford Times, 237
Hartley, E. L., 377
Hartley, Ruth E., 377
Harvard University, 48, 303
  stereotype of students at, 288
Hate, 38, 39
  feeling of, 295
Hatred, 174, 343, 348
  attitudes of, 298
  following jealousy, 150
  personal, 312
  psychological effects of, 152
Havighurst, R. J., 76
Haymarket riots in Chicago, 323
Hazard, emotional, 144
Hazardous occupations, propaganda in controlling, 317
Health, improvement of mental and physical, 364
  in marriage, emotional, mental, and physical, 170
  mental, 18

Heart, 28
Heart disease as cause of personality disturbance, 147
Heat, 66
Hebrews, ancient use of goats as scapegoats by, 277
Height, average, 45
Helicopters, use of, 369
Hepner, H. W., 135, 253
Heredity, 1, 20–26, 40, 41, 43
in mate selection, 171
Heritage, national, 368
High blood pressure as cause of personality disturbance, 147
High priest and scapegoat, 277
High school, 331, 360
premarital instruction in, 186
scholastic record in, 137
sexual promiscuity among graduates of, 141
Hill, Reuben, 152, 168, 189, 190
Hindus, cultural capacities of, 305
Hippocrates' theory of personality, 101
History, 53
study of, 360
Hitler, 281
Hitler government, 316
Hobbies, 363
common interest in, 171
Holingren, 55
Home, 13
antagonistic-to-college, 159
broken, 149, 153, 154
child-centered, 363
chronic-desertion, 160
climate of, 120
clinging and interfering, 159
culture-conflict, 163
disrupted, 162
family-centered, 96
favored-child, 161
of foreign social background, 155, 156
high-pressure, 158
inadequately financed, 157
influence of, on integration of personality, 366
narrowly moral, 161
noncollege, 157
one-child, 161
overly religious, 161
problem, 153, 167
Home economics teacher, advice of, 186
Home relief, 286
Honesty, 372
Honeymoon, plans for, 186
relief of tension on, 186
Honolulu, anti-Japanese feelings in, 282
Hopkins, E. H., 208
Hormones, female, 30
influence of, 180
parathyroid, 30
Horney, Dr. Karen, 351
Horrocks, J. E., 95
Hospitalization, 170
Hospitals, 17, 58
administrative work in, 133
planning for, 370
Hostility, 299
state of, 122
Housekeeping effect on health, 171
Housing, planning for, 370
Humber, W. J., 353
Humidity, 66
Humiliation, avoidance of, 126
Humor, sense of, 53
"Humors" in personality theory, 101, 102
Humphreys, J. A., 253
Hunger, 32
Hunter College, 207
Hurlock, Elizabeth B., 152, 377
Hygiene, mental, 53
"Hyphenated Americans," 289
Hysteria, 13, 328
mass, 33

Identification, definition of, 126
as emotional escape, 126
uses of, 126
Illinois, "group libel" law in, 311
Illness, mental, 17, 154, 179
physical, 179
psychosomatic, 12
Immaturity, emotional, 129, 160, 182, 342
Immigration, control of, 307
restricted, 306
restrictive bill on, 301
Immorality, accusation of, 130
parental, 162
Impressions, sensory, 290
Impulse, 120
Inadequacy, feeling of, 122
India, clearance of demons or scapegoats in, 278
Indians, American (*see* American Indians)
Industrialists, 58
Industry, 43
career in, 356
defense, 355
promotion policy of, 242

Infancy, 35
regression into early stages of, 150
Infants, care of, father's participation in, 139
nursing of, 187
Infatuation, 172
Inferiority, feeling of, 121, 159
sense of, 159, 299
Infraction, legal, 309
In-groups, 221, 222
Inhabitants, metropolitan, 73
rural, 73
Inhibition loss, 321
Ink-blot (Rorschach) test, 62, 63
Insects, 21
Instinct, 346
maternal, 131
Institute of Family Relations, 175
Institute for Propaganda Analysis, 316
Institution, educational, 47
Instruction, premarital, 186
Instructors, resentment of, 129
Instruments, measurement, 44
Insularity, 368
American, antidote for, 370
Insulin, 30
Intellect, 39
Intelligence, 2, 21, 40, 41, 43, 47, 65, 68, 69, 374
changes in, 23
definition of, 48, 65
examination of, 44
measurement of, 22, 50
relation of, to behavior, 108
to grades, 86
study of, 16
test of, 72
IQ, 24, 25, 45–47, 49, 51, 61, 64–66, 68, 69, 73, 74, 76
Intermarriage, 163
Interpersonal difficulties, 213, 214
Interpersonal relations, 105, 213, 234
foremen and employees, 105
Interracial conflict, 338
Interracial cooperation, 338, 339
Interview, oral, 58
Intoxication, 185
(*See also* Alcohol)
Introjection, definition of, 126
Introvert, definition of, 112
Inventors, 25
Investigation, Senate, 286
Ireland, economic cooperation in, 340
Irion, A. L., 95
Irishman, stereotype of, 290, 291
Iron curtain, leaders behind, 296
Irritability, emotional outburst of, 121
Isaiah, prophet, 332
Ishihara plates, 55
Isolationism, state of, 305
Italians, stereotype of, 290, 291
Italy, 293
disturbed conditions in, 281

James, William, 37
James-Lange theory, 37
Japanese, 33, 306, 307, 339, 342
cultural capacities of, 305
cooperation of, 343
prejudice against, 304
racial competition against, 350
Japanese-Americans, internment of, 282
Japanese sailors, 314
Jargon, psychological, 1
Jealousy, 38, 147, 348
during courtship, 174, 189
definition of, 148
parental, 168
treatment of, 148
psychological effects of, 152
sibling, 138, 149, 157
Jefferson, Thomas, 315
Jensen, M. B., 55
Jerusalem, 277
Jews, 33, 281, 306
delusions about, 279
as scapegoats in Germany, 281
stereotype of, 290, 291
Jim Crow laws, 293
Job analysis, 355, 356
Job aptitudes, multiplicity of, 261, 262
Job aspirations of family, 236, 237
Job skills, five-year study of, 267
Job training in family, 238
Jobs, attitudes toward, of community leaders, 248
of youth, 248
dead-end, 74
entering level, 56
evaluation of, 249
high-paying, 44
information on, 236, 238
college facilities for, 243–245
loss of, 282
opportunities for, multiplicity of, 261, 262
participation in, of family, 235, 237
preparation for, in college, counseling, 241
part of instructor in, 240
in community, 246

Jobs, preparation for, early training in junior high school, 270, 271
effect on, of liberal arts, 241, 242
of vocational education, 241
part in, of instructors, 243, 244, 251
of librarians, 243, 244, 251
of psychologists, 243, 244, 251
research on, 242, 243
promotion process, 256, 257
selection of, effect on, of mores, 262
of social status, 264
of value judgments, 263
emotion in, 258
factors in, 255, 261, 265, 269
failure in, 258, 259
free-association tests in, 266
goals in, 261
matching capacity and job, 268, 269
motivation in, 267
requisites for, 241–243
skills, needed, 264, 265
stages in, 255
stereotypes of, 262
use of tests, 258
Johnson, D. M., 377
Journal of the American Medical Association, 154
Judaeo-Christian faiths, 302
Judaeo-Christian teachings, 141
Judgment, evolution of, 366
Judgment value, 59, 362, 365
Jung, Carl, 11, 112
concept of personality, 112
Justices, Supreme Court, 25

Kansas City Democrats, 302
Kaplan, Louis, 234
Kardiner, Abram, 353
Karwoski, T. F., 45, 234
Keliher, Alice V., 212
Kidneys, 30
Kinsey, A. C., 181
findings of, 152
studies of, 141
Kisker, G. W., 334
Kitson, H. D., 95, 273
Klein, D. B., 212
Klineberg, Otto, 314
Klingelhofer, Edwin L., 204
Knowledge as measure of maturation, 92, 94
Koffka, K., 10
Kohler, W., 10
Korea, 25
war in, 352
Kotinsky, Ruth, 265
Kounin, J. S., 152
Kramer, B. M., 303
Ku Klux Klan, 325
Kuder, G. F., 235
Kuder Preference Record, 61
Kuhlmann, F., 48, 49

Labor agitators, 286
Labor camp, forced, 293
Labor organizations, restrictions on, 293
Labor organizers, 286
Laboratory, experimental, 21
psychological, 16
Laird, D. A., 253
Laird, Eleanor C., 253
Land, grazing, 331
Landis, J. F., 154
Landis, J. T., 190
Landis, Mary G., 190
Landowners, Southern, 328
Landy, Edward, 272
Lange, 37
Language, 20, 28
English, 60
foreign, 53
study of, 90, 360
subtest for, 53
test of, 55
La Piere, R. T., 314
Lashley, K. S., 29
Latin, 8
Lawrence, Ray L., 220, 226, 230
Laws, 20, 56
antidiscrimination, 309
Jim Crow, 293
marriage, 185
moral, 339
Layout of airport, 70
Leaders, communist CIO, 286
community, 25, 312
crowd, 322
maritime, 286
mob, 322
religious, 302, 312
League of Nations, 333, 342
Learning, 36, 37, 346
analytical, 360
conceptual, 360
criteria in, 84
definitions of, 78, 79
"effect," 83
effect on, of repetition and disuse, 82, 91

Learning, effect on, of rewards and punishments, 82
elements in, 84
emotions in, 82, 94
experiments in, 79, 82
factors in, 82
to fight fire, 80
human, 41
impermanence of, 84
individual differences in, 82
material in, 84
methods in knowledge of, 94
motivation in, 84
permanence of, 4, 84
plateaus of, 85, 93
pleasure principle in, 83, 84
power of, 65
pressure for accomplishment of, 86
principle in, of continuing action, 84
of least action, 84
of reality, 83, 84
process of, 79
secondary reinforcing of, 82
"set" in, 82, 84
situations in, 80, 81
stimulus in, 82, 93, 94
and study techniques, 77, 95
techniques for improvement of, 88, 90, 92
trial-and-error in, 77, 83, 367
TV in, 91
as unique occupation of man, 93
visual aids in, 82, 83
whole-part method, 91
will power in, 85
Le Bon, Gustave, 320, 322, 333, 334
Legal complications to marriage, 179
Legal rights, denial of, 308
limitation of, 308
Legislation, 331
disapproval of, 304
Federal, 350
protective, 283
Leisure, use of, 362
Leisure-time activity in marriage, 171
Letters, "poison-pen," 130
Lewin, Kurt, 334
Libido, 37, 110
Librarians, professional, 371
Library, Elmont, N.Y., 371
License, marriage, 176
Lie detector, 12
"Lies and Loyalty," newspaper editorial, 316
Link, R. E., 201
Lip reading, 60
Lippmann, Walter, 284, 285, 292, 294
Liquor, influence of, 40
Literature, 53
Little, Gladys M., 273
Liver, 29, 30
Lock, door, in test, 64
Locke, H. J., 152, 172, 179
Locust invasion, 338
London, 337
Los Angeles School District Curriculum Division Survey, 202
Louisiana, French language in, 301
Love, 38, 39
brotherly, 372
definition of, 171
at first sight, 169
romantic, 171, 172
"Low-brows," 289
Lowy, Samuel, 353
Loyalty, 372
Lungs, 30
Lynch, Colonel Charles, 326
Lynching, 317, 325, 326, 333
causes of, 328
origin of term, 326
"Lynching party," 328

McAllister, Q. O., 242
McGeoch, J. A., 95
McGinnis, Dorothy J., 234
McGrath, Earl J., 369
Machinery, 63, 65
McKinney, Fred, 135, 168, 253
McKown, H. C., 234
McWilliams, Carey, 216
Magazines, 171
Magoun, F. A., 171
Maine, forest fire in, 279
Republicans in, 302
Maladjustment, 134, 357
emotional, 29, 148
family, 155
personal, 376
personality, 16, 29
psychological, 166
sex, 146
types of, 120
youthful, 141
Malayans, 304
Management, 16
viewpoint of, 358
"Manipulators," 289
Manual dexterity, 69
Marital adjustment, poor, 177

Mark Antony, 316
Marking systems, 202
Marquis, D. G., 19
Marriage, 162, 169, 174
  adjustment in, 177
  arranged, 172
  biologic function outside of, 141
  consummation of, 179
  as contract between man and woman, 185
  course or preparation for, 187
  defined as "antagonistic cooperation," 145
  and the family, 152
  final step of, 175
  financial ability for, 171
  health in, 170
  interpersonal relations in, 188
  laws on, 185
  legal complications, 179
  leisure-time activity in, 171
  male adjustment to, 180
  mixed, 189
  promise of, 175
  psychological problems in, 188
  responsibilities of, 172, 176
  study of, 164
  successful, 175
  unrealistic approach to, 125
Marriage ceremony, 185
Marriage counselor, 176
  advice of, 186
  consultation with, 179
Marriage license, medical examination preceding, 176
Marshall, Thomas, 215
Martin, C. E., 141
Marx, Karl, 336
Mass hysteria, 33, 328
Mass picketing, 286
Mass psychology, 315, 321, 333
  description of, by Plato, 319, 320
Mate, choice of, 156, 169–171, 189
    physical attraction in, 170, 171
  prospective, 169
Maternal instinct, sublimation of, 131
Maternity, 184
Mathematics, 6, 8, 9, 53
  cooperation in, 341
  study of, 360
Maturation, 125
Maturity, concept of, in college study, 87
  differences in age of, 191, 193
  emotional, 170, 173
    testing of, 176
Maturity, mental, 49, 140, 170
  physical, 140
  sexual, 21
    in adolescence, 140
  social, 140
    testing of, 176
May, M. A., 334, 353
Mayflower, 337
Mayflower Compact, 338
Mead, Margaret, 345
Mean, 44
Measles, German, 21
Measurement, psychological, 43
Measures, psychotherapeutic, 13
Mechanisms, defense, 130
  emotional, 120
  mental, 120, 167
  psychological, 121
  unconscious, 133
Median, 44
Mediation, 335
Medical Society, New York County, 311
Medicine, 11, 12, 13, 56
  cooperation in, 341
Medulla, 28
Melanesians, 278
Memorization techniques, 90
Memory, 61, 65
Menninger, W. C., 253
Menopause as cause of personality disturbance, 147
Menstrual cycle, 30, 183
Menstruation, onset of, 183
Mental activity, ongoing, 91
Mental age (MA), 49
Mental health, clubs as help in, 225
  improvement of, 364
  menace to, 295
Mental hygiene, 53
Mental illness, 17, 179
  as cause of broken homes, 154
Mental mechanism, 120
Mental patients, hospitalized, 279
Merrill, Frances E., 190
Metabolism, 21
Mexicans, 281, 301, 339
  prejudice against, 304
  racial competition against, 350
  "wetbacks," accusations against, 307
Mice, experiments with, 16
Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, 265
Middle Ages, 314
Midgets, 45
Midwest, 368

Migraine headache as cause of personality disturbance, 147
Migration of Southern Negroes, 308
Military in riots, 325
Military service, education in, 247
  preparation for, 247
  qualities needed in, 248
Milk secretion, 30
Miller, J. G., 377
Miller, Shirley, 223
Mind development, 16
Minnesota Paper Form Board Test, 64
Minority groups, 291, 347
Mob, aggressive, 321
Mob psychology, use of propaganda in, 317
Mode, 44
"Money-changers," unscrupulous, 289
"Money trust," 289
Mongolians, 304
Monkey experiments, 16
"Monopolists," 289
Monopoly, 350
Moral constitution, 108
Moral standards, loss of, 321
Mores, 141
  effect of, on jobs, 262
    on leisure activities, 263
  local, 368
Morgan, C. T., 42
Motivation, animal, 33
  at college, 194
  concept of, 77
  irrational, 41
Mouth, 29
Movement, cooperative, 350, 353
Movies, 171
Munn, W. L., 19
Murphy, Gardner, 42, 119, 152, 212
Murray, H. A., 48, 62, 212
Mursell, J. L., 95
Muscles, 16, 27, 28
Music, accomplishment in, 161
Musicians, 22
Mussolini, 281
Myers, G. E., 273
Myrdall, Gunnar, 314
Myth, of Nordic race superiority, 30
  of race superiority, 307

Nail biting, 148
Narcotics, addiction to, 165
  use of, 160
National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 329, 339
National Board of YMCA, 137, 187
National Cyclopaedia of American Biography, 25
National Office of Vital Statistics, 154
National Urban League, 339
Navy, American, 314
Nazis, 281
  concepts of, 281
  German, 293
  use of scapegoats by, 281
Near East, 331
Negativism, 129
  definition of, 128
Negro children, observation of, 298
Negroes in United States, 21, 73, 280, 307, 325, 333, 338
  admission to Groton School, 311
  economic condition of, 339
  inferiority of, 307
  intelligence of, 307
  lynching of, 327, 328
  migration of, 308
  prejudice against, 290, 304, 306, 312
  racial competition against, 350
  riot deaths of, 323
  stereotype of, 290
Neuroses, prejudice as cause of, 295
Neurotic personality, immature, 130
Neurotics, 126
Newborn, arrival of, 149
Newcomb, T. M., 152, 346
Nerve fiber, 27
Nerves, 28
Nervous systems (*see* Systems)
New England, 301, 328
  Republicans in, 302
New Guinea tribes, 344
New Hampshire Republicans, 302
New Testament, 277, 302
New York, 326
  draft riots in, 323
  Negro slums in, 308
  newspapers, 286
New York County Medical Society, 311
New York Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, 243
New York State, marriages in, 164
New York Times, 207, 316
New Zealand tribes, 344
Newspapers, Chicago and New York, 286
Nimkoff, M. F., 173
Non-Anglo-Saxon names, 291
Nonstrikers, 286
Nordic-race-superiority myth, 301
Norm, group, 44

North, carpetbaggers from, 306
Numerology, 17

Obesity, 29
Objectivity, 4
Obligation, imposition of, 308
Obstinacy, phases of, 128
Offenders, sex, 130
Office of Strategic Services tests, 113
Officeholder stereotype, 288
Ohio State University Psychological Test, 56
Old age, 35
Old Testament, 302, 332
Opinion, consumer, 57
  public, 285
Organizers, labor, 286
Organs, intestinal, 37
  sense, 16
Oscillation stereotype, 284
Ostracism, avoidance of, 126
Outburst, emotional, 121
Out-groups, 221, 222, 280, 290
Ova, 21, 30, 180
  fertilized, 21
Overflow, emotional, 32
"Overprivileged," 289
Oversolicitude by parents, 141
Overstreet, H. A., 119

Pacific Coast Japanese, 307
Packard, V. O., 189
Packard automobile, 287
Pain, freedom from, 33
Painting, 62
Palmistry, 17
Palmolive soap, 287
Pancreas, 29–31
Panzer, Martin, 273
Paper, graph, 45, 51
Paranoiacs, 279
  delusions of, 295
Parathyroid, 30, 31
Parent-child relations, American concepts of, 155
Parental affection, sibling struggle for, 150
Parental approval, desirability of, in marriage, 189
Parental authority, 191
Parenthood, 171
  joy of, 184
  preparation for, 186
  responsibilities of, 176
Parents, 38
  advice of, 186
  college-trained, 303
  conduct pattern of, 167
  divorced, 162
  emotional incapacity of, 165
  foreign, 155
  health of, 171
  high-pressure, 158
  immature, 126
  mental incapacity of, 165
  Negro, 21
  overambitious, 144
  in relation to siblings, 136
Passion, in mate selection, 172
  pandering to, 281
Patriotism appeal, 318
Pattern, behavior, 20, 43, 176, 290
  personality-trait, 51
Pavlov, Ivan P., 11, 29, 36, 41, 79, 82
  concept of learning, 79, 82–84
Peace, international, 353
Pearl Harbor attack, 282
Peer culture, 214–217
  spectator activities in, 214
Peer group, 215, 367
  adolescent traits in, 223
  causes of, 214, 215
  delinquent-type, 364
  effect of, 223
    negative, 218
    positive, 217, 218
  fraternity in, 215
  membership in, evaluation of, 219, 220
  prestige factors of, 223, 224
  stereotypes, 220, 221
  teams as, 214
  as way of escape from society, 217
Percentile, 51, 69
Percentile rank, 44
Percentile-rank scale, 52
Perception, 39, 53, 60, 65, 130
Perfectionist factors in personality, 107
Perry county, Alabama, 327
Persecution, delusions of, 279
  feeling of, 295
Personal adjustment, 193, 212
  in college, 210
  conflicting demands of, 210
Personal planning, 196
  in college, 196, 197
  in defense, 208
  as habit, 196
Personal security, inequality of, 310
Personality, 21, 41, 58–60, 63, 152
  aberrant, 16

Personality, abnormal, 12, 16, 100
abnormal psychotic, 100
abnormal syndrome, 100
adjustment of, concept of, 102
Adler theory of, 112
aggressive, 181
changes in, 366
in childhood, 106
classical types of, 101, 102
compulsive, 101
concepts of, 101, 102
conflict in, 120
definition of, 101
development of, 95, 118
research in 118
disturbed, 160
effect on, of competition, 102
of environment, 102
of face, 102
exceptional, 16
and family relationships, 96, 190
Freud theory of, 110
individualization of, 366
influence of emotional reactions on, 120
integrated, 357, 373–375, 377
characteristics of, 372
integration of, 354, 355, 364, 367, 368
with environment, 365
Jung theory of, 112
lone-wolf type, 367
manic-depressive, 101
measurement of, 112
mechanisms of, 106
neurotic, 130
objective testing in, 112
obsessive, 101
problem, 18
problems of, among parents, 134
ruminative, 101
schizophrenic, 101
in teens, 107
theory of foundations, 112
types of, in jobs, 266
typing of, 107
Personality tests, 48, 113
free-association, 113
graphology, 115
pencil-and-paper, 113
projective, 113
psychodrama, 114
stress, 113
Personnel, 68
military, 58
Personnel policy of industry, 248
Personology, 107
Perspiration, 30
Persuasion, avoidance of rational, 317
Perversion, lynching as, 329
Peterson, Frederick, 284
Petting, definition of, 173
hazards in, 173
Philadelphia Negro slums, 308
Philosophers, American, 37
Philosophy, 13
Phosphorus in blood, 30
Phrenology, 17
Physical health, improvement of, 364
Physicians, 12, 13, 29, 133
medical examination by, 176
non-Christian, 314
school, 346
Physics, 4, 12, 13
cooperation in, 341
Physiologists, Russian, 11
Physiology, 11
female, 183
Physique, 43
Pilgrims, 338
Pineal gland, 31
Pintner, R., 49
Pituitary, 30, 31
Placement, in industry, 47
in military forces, 47
in school, 47
Placement offices, college, survey of employment, 207
Plain-folks device in propaganda, 317
Planning, budget, 197
in college, 196, 197
habit of, 196
personal, 196
of study time, 197, 198
Plants, 20
Plates, Ishihara, 55
Plato, 319
Plays, 171
Pleasure, 38
sexual, 173
Plymouth emigrants, 337
Point Four Agreement, 338
"Poison-pen" letters, 130
Police in riots, 325
Politicians, 318
Politics, 35
Polls, Gallup, 5
preference, 6
public-opinion, 57
voters, 6
Pomeroy, C. E., 181
Pomeroy, W. B., 141
Popenoe, Paul, 175

Population, American, prejudices of, 303
Port of New York Authority, on-the-job experience with, 199
test pioneering of, 113
Preadolescents, 144
Pregnancy, 21
before marriage, 165
possibility of, 178
unwanted, 178
Prejudice, 38, 73, 278, 286, 296, 298, 331, 337, 338, 343, 347
arousal of, 373
causes of, 296
in children, 298
among college students, 303, 313
cultural, 300, 302
creation of, 299
definition of, 295
development of, 300
evolution of, 299
extent of, 295
forms of, 308
freedom from, 303
human, 290
overcoming, 297
pandering to, 281
personal, 314
racial, 293, 300, 303, 304, 306, 307, 339, 350
against American Negro, 306
among armed forces, 305
rationalization of, 307
reduction of, 313, 314, 371
religious, 303
repressed, 325
roots of, 303
tendency to, 312
transmission of, 312
between white and colored people, 301
Preparation for work, 235, 253
Prerogative, parental, 142, 144
Prescott, D. A., 42, 212
President, United States, 25, 301
Press, drill, 35
Pressey, Louella, 155
Prevocational training, 199
Priest, high, 277
Primitive man, fears of, 278, 353
Primitive reaction, aggression as, 121
Princeton University, 221
stereotype of students at, 288
study of alumni attitudes, 221
study of students at, 288
Printing industry, 284
Problem home, classification of, 155
Problem personality, 18
Process, mental, 16
Procrastination, 107
Profile chart, 44
Progressives, 286
Projection, definition of, 129
of guilt, 303
use of, 135
Promiscuity, sexual, 141
Pronko, N. H., 19
Propaganda, 315, 332
band-wagon technique in, 317
definition of, 315, 316
foreign, 342
media of, 289
seven categories of, 316
socially useful, 317
use in, of lie, 316
of suggestion, direct, 317
Propagandists, 317, 319
antisocial, 332
unprincipled, 296
"Prophets of evil," 289
Prostitution, 165
Protestants, 33
Prothro, E. T., 377
Pseudo-religious organization, 281
Psychiatrists, 12, 106, 108, 117, 134, 284, 330
American, 48, 329
Swiss, 48
Psychiatry, 12, 13
psychological tests in, 51
in treatment of delusions, 279
Psychoanalysis, 10, 11, 13, 18
Adler theory of, 4, 112
Jung theory of, 112
in treatment of delusions, 279
Psychoanalysts, 10, 11, 13, 37, 330
pioneer, 112
Psychoanalytic therapy, 330
Psychodrama, success in, 114
Psychological adjustment, 120
of parents and siblings, 136
Psychological implications of national defense, 207
Psychological laboratory, college, 317
Psychological service, 342
Psychological substitute, 122
Psychological technique, 343
Psychological test to determine personality balance, 372
Psychologists, 4, 13, 134, 307, 318, 330, 346, 371
American, 37, 63
behaviorist, 36
clinical, 17, 62

Psychologists, Danish, 37
industrial, 80, 81, 108
personnel, 71
school, 48, 54, 60
social, 369
U.S. Army, 50
Psychology, 19, 234
abnormal, 16
analytic, 16
animal, 16
applied, 9, 16
clinical, 16
comparative, 16
crowd, 33
definition of, 4
differential, 16
educational, 16
existential, 16
experimental, 16
genetic, 16
gestalt, 10
individual, 16
mass, 315, 319, 321, 333
mob, 317
nature and scope of, 1–19
personnel in, 16
physiological, 16
pseudo, 17, 18
relation of, to medicine, physics, and psychiatry, 12
scapegoat type of, 293
schools of, 7, 18
social, 16
theories of, 7
in treatment of delusions, 279
Psychometrists, 50, 58
Psychoneurotics, 325
Psychopathics, constitutional, 325
Psychotic manifestations, 141
Psychotics, 17, 325
in United States, 154
Puberty, 30, 36
Public health careers, 133
Punishment of children, 107
Pulp, molded-paper, 284
Pupil of eye, dilation of, 30

Queens College, 207

Rabble-rouser, 285, 323
Race conflict, 330
Race differences, 298, 314
Race prejudice (*see* Prejudice, racial)
Race riots, 282
"Race suicide," 289
Race superiority, 307, 312
myth of, 307
Races, location and origin of, 304
scientific facts about, 303
Racial competition, 350, 353
Radcliffe College, 303
Radio, 317, 318
Raids, intertribal, 278
Rainey, 23
Rank, percentile, 44
Rat experiments, 16
Rationalization, 135, 330
Raw score, 44
Reaction, emotional, 38, 120
Reading, 53
acceleration of, 88–91
eye regression in, 90
improvement methods, 88–92
by phrases and words, 90
remedial clinic, 92
Receptor, 28
Recollection, 91
Recreation, 363, 365, 374
contribution of, 364
planning for, 370
"Reds," 285
Regimentation, 286
Regression, 135
definition of, 130
Rejection, avoidance of, 126
families patterned on, 164
parental, 165
sense of, 366
Relations, family, 120
heterosexual, 140
international, 11
interpersonal, 16, 65, 69, 120, 361
parent-child, 138
sex, 33
spatial, 61
Relationships, harmonious, 1
Relatives, interfering, 162
Reliability, 45
Relief, home, 286
Religions, 339
differences in, 146, 298
teachings of, 330
traditional, 164
Religious backgrounds, diverse, 163
Religious beliefs, 312
as cultural factor, 302
Religious conflict, 331
Religious tolerance, 302

Religious training, effect on prejudice, 303
Representative (member of United States Congress), 301
Repression, 135
  as defense mechanism, 131
  definition of, 130
Republican party, 337
Republicans in New England, 302
Research, anthropological, 305
  career in, 133
  interchange of, 360
Respiration, 28
Restaurants, discrimination in, 309
Restlessness, 130
Reston, James, 337
Review methods, 92
Revolution, Communist, 336
  political, 331
Rewards in childhood, 107
Rights, legal, 309
Rio Grande River, 307
Riot-prone element, 325
Riots, 323
Rivalry, 343, 349
  for parents' affection, 147
  sibling, 150
Roback, A. A., 19
Robinson, Sarah A., 273
Roe, Ann, 267
Roeber, E. C., 272
Role playing, 59
  change in playmate choices after, 116
  in family situations, 114
  sociogram of, 116
Romans, 316
Romantic love, 172
Rome, 316
Roosevelt, Franklin D., 289
Roosevelt, Theodore, 289
Rorschach, Hermann, 48
Rorschach projective test, 62, 63
Rose, Arnold, 294, 314
Ross, C. C., 76
Roucek, J. S., 294
Ruch, F. L., 119
"Rugged individualists," 289
Russia, 293
  Soviet, 343
  use of scapegoats in, 281

Saboteurs, fear of, 282
Sailors, Japanese, 314
Sales, retail, 44
Salesmen, 57, 318
Salivation, 36
Samoan tribes, 344
Sargent, S. S., 286, 334
Scale, 44
  percentile rank, 52
  standard score, 52
Scandinavian cooperatives, 340
Scapegoat, 278, 293, 299, 303
  animal, 277
  ceremonial, 278
  history of, 277
  human, 277
  in lynching, 329
  of minority groups, 282
  in primitive society, 277
  provision of, 280
  selection of, 280, 294
  theory of, 278
  transfer of sins to, 277
  use of, 278, 294
Scapegoat victims, 282
Scapegoater, calculating, 281
  compulsive, 278
  conforming, 280, 281
  conventionalist, 280
  thwarted, 279
Scapegoater types, 278
Scapegoating, 280, 293
  as compulsive activity, 278
  reduction of, 283
  restriction of, 294
  results of, 282
Scheinfeld, Amram, 42
Schizophrenia, 284
Schloerb, L. J., 253
Schneiders, A. A., 377
Schools, 13
  American, in foreign countries, 368
  behaviorist, 9
  district, 331
  elementary and high, 360
Schrickel, H. G., 119
Science, cooperation in, 341
  natural, 303
  physical, 53
  social, 53
  study of, 360
Scientists, 24
Score, 44
  intelligence, 45–47, 66, 68, 75, 76
  raw, 44
  test, 51, 57
Scotchmen, stereotype of, 290
Scottish cooperatives, 340
Scoville Classification Test, 61
Scroll and Keys Fraternity, 216

Scrotum, 30
Second World War, 67, 113, 281, 305, 314, 342, 343, 352, 355
  divorces following, 154
Security, economic, 356
Security Council, United Nations, 336
Segregation, condemnation of, 311
  discriminatory, 309
Seguin Form Board Test, 48
Self-analysis, 59, 60, 109
Self-control, 170
Self-discipline, 366–368
Self-understanding, 106
Selfishness, 129
Sensation, analysis of, 16
  classification of, 16
  visceral, 37
Senses, 27, 28
Separation, 171
  as cause of broken home, 153
  parental, 162, 167
Service, psychological, 342
Set, 27
  of behavior, 108
  emotional, 29
  organic, 40
Sex adjustment, peer-group effect on, 218
Sex education, 228
  need for, 228
Sex excitability, male, 181
Sex experience, premarital, 189
Sex instinct, 110
Sex offenders, police action against, 130
Sex relations, 33
  outside marriage, 178
Sexual behavior, of college students, 227, 228
    ideas of parents on, 228
  psychological aspects of conflict with, 227
Sexual habits of males, 152
Sexual urge, satisfaction of, 184
Shakespeare, 315
Short-term plans in defense, 208, 209
Siblings, 38
  competition of, 148
  conduct pattern of, 167
  hatred of, 138
  health of, 171
  jealousy of, 138, 157
  problems of, 366
  relations of, 147
Sigma Chi Fraternity, 215
Skill, communication, need for, 245
  language, 65
  mechanical, 362
Skill, motor, 63
  nonverbal, 50
  number, 359
  sales, 53
Skimming, areas useful in, 90, 94
  definition of, 90
  key words in, 90
  method of, 90, 91
Skin color, 21, 282, 305, 306
  grouping by, 304
Skull, 27
  conformation of, 17
Skull and Bones Fraternity, 216
Slave, Negro, 326
Slave owner, white, 326
Slavery in United States, 301
  period of Negro, 306
Slavson, S. B., 349
Sleeplessness, 131
Slotkin, J. S., 353
Slum environment, 156
Snakes, 36
Snellen Chart, 55
Social change, 251, 252
Social groups, psychological aspects of, 224, 225
"Social neurosis," 295
Social science, 53
Social status, 35
  as basic urge of youth, 250
  differences in, 298
  woman's part in, 251
Social work, 11
Social worker, psychiatric, 17
Socialists, 285
Societies, scholastic honor, 161
Sociogram, 116
Sociologist, definition of marriage by, 145
Sociology, 11, 13
Soil, 20
Soldiers, advice to, 305
  American, 306
Solicitude, parental, 142
Sororities, 215, 216
Souerwine experiment in role playing, 116
Souerwine peephole laboratory, 46
Souerwine sociogram, 116
South (United States), 329
  agricultural system in, 339
  chattel slaves in, 306
  lynching in, 328
  politics of, 301
South Africa, race conflict in, 331
South America, 331
  color prejudice in, 298

Southerners, 307
Southwest (United States), 328
  prejudice in, 304
  Spanish language in, 301
Soviet government, 316
Soviet Russia, 343
Space-distribution method of learning, 90
"Special interests," 289
Specifications, job, 355
Speech, 28
Speed test, 63
Sperm, 180
Spermatozoa, 21, 30
Spies, fear of, 282
Spinal cord, 27, 28
Spiritualism, 17
Stability, emotional, 12
Stagner, Ross, 45, 234
Standard score scale, 52
Standards, American, 285
  moral, 321
  scholastic, 129
State, totalitarian, 282
Statesmen, American, 315
Staton, T. F., 95
Status, attainment of, 366
  economic, 173
  in-group, 233
  out-group, 233
  social (*see* Social status)
Steadiness test, 63
Stellar, E., 42
Stephens, J. M., 95
Stereotypes, 277, 284–286, 290–294
  of capital, 292
  definition of, 284
  influence of, on children, 291
  of labor, 292
  perpetuation of, 287
  political, 288
  in politics, 294
  in public press, 286
  racial, 289, 291
  validity of, 292
Stimuli, 26–29
  distracting, in learning, 82
  human, 36
Stimulus-response theory, 26, 27, 41
Stockholders, 16
Stocking, G. W., 353
Stomach, 29
Strang, Ruth, 234
Straus, Robert, 200
Strength test, 63
Stress, 32
  emotional, 66
Strong Vocational Interest Blank, 61
Structuralism theory, 8
Structure, body, 21
Stuart, Irving, 220, 226, 230
Student adjustment, 202
Student-counselor relationship, study of, 230
Student employment, help in courses, 200
  reasons for seeking, 200
Student-faculty relations, 231, 233
Student groups as social expression outlets, 233
Students, college (*see* College students)
  high- and low-ranking, in high school, 203
  major responsibilities of, 361
Study, amount of, in college, 86
  background for good, 87, 92
  background for poor, 87
  counseling in, 87
  distributed periods, 91
  environment of, 86
  equipment for, 86, 90
  essentials of, 86
  method of, 85
  objective attitude in, 92
  plan for, 88, 92
  procrastination in, 87
Study techniques, 85, 91, 93, 94
Sturm, Joseph, 93
Subconscious, 11
Subjectivity, 4
Sublimation, of aggressive tendencies, 364
  definition of, 131
  through group activities, 132
Substitution, 330
  adjustment by, 133
  by college students, 132
  definition of, 132
  plan of, 132
  utilization of, 135
Subtests, 44, 51–53, 68
  computation, 53
  general culture, 53
  language, 53
Success, effect of grades in college on, 206, 207
  emphasis on, as factor in jobs, 265
  vocational, 61
Sugar oxidation, 30
Suggestion, propaganda in, 317
  use in advertising, 318
Superiority, race, 307
Supervisor, promotion to, 128
Suppression, 135
  definition of, 133

Suppression, as desirable process, 133
process of, 121
Symbols, 65
Symonds, P. M., 135
Syphilis, 21
Systems, nervous, 16, 22, 36
autonomic, 27, 28
central, 27
cerebrospinal, 28

Taft, William H., 301
Talent, 22
artistic, 69
musical, 22, 69
Tantrum, temper, 150, 170
Tax, discriminatory, 310
Teachers, 31
influence of, on children, 291
modern language, 369
"Teacher's pet," 128
Teaching methods, 360
Techniques, test, 57
interview, 68
learning, 77*ff*.
measurement, 48
psychological, 12, 343
sample, 53
study, 77
Television, 317, 319
as learning device, 91
Temperament, aggressive, 279
Tendency, aggressive, 321
central, 44
sadistic, 325
Tension, 33, 40
emotional, 177
in family groups, 133
internal, 32
sexual, 173
Terman, L. M., 23, 48, 49, 168, 190
Terror, night, 150
Teska, P. T., 377
Testee, 57, 58, 61, 66
Tester, 58, 59, 61, 62, 66
Testes, 30, 31
Testimonial device in propaganda, 316
Testing, for ability, to operate gyrocompass, 81
to work at high levels, 81
for atomic radiation, 81
Tests, ability, 57
achievement, 53
acuity, 55
American Council on Education, 56
aptitude, 55, 57
Tests, aptitude, occupational, 56
scholastic, 56
talent, 57
Army Alpha, 61
Army Beta, 50, 61
Army General Classification, 45
attitude, 51, 61
behavior, 57, 59
diagnostic, 60
educational, 56
finger dexterity, 58
free-association, 48, 62, 63
IQ, 72–76
intelligence, 49, 50, 53, 61, 63, 65
group and individual, 61
interest, 57, 61
occupational, 61
manual dexterity, 66
mechanical, 63
Minnesota Paper Form Board, 64
motor, 63
nonverbal psychological, 50
Ohio State University, 56
paper-and-pencil, 50, 66
performance, 59
personality, 12, 68, 69
power, 50, 64
projective, 50, 62, 63
Rorschach, 62
psychological, 6, 22, 43, 44, 46, 48, 49, 51, 56, 66–68, 73, 75, 355, 356
misinterpretation of, by families, 239, 240
occupations, 261
overemphasis on, 245
standard, 52
reading, 54
scientific, 45
Scovill Classification, 61
Seguin Form Board, 48
speed, 64
of reaction, 63
techniques (*see* Techniques, test)
Thematic Apperception, 62
Theater, discrimination in, 309
Thematic Apperception Test, 62
Theory, Cannon-Bard, 37
conditioned-reflex, 11
stimulus-response, 26, 27
Therapy, medical, for menstrual disorders, 183
physical, 13
psychoanalytic, 330
Theta Chi Fraternity, Alpha Theta Chapter, 310
Thompson, E. T., 353

Throat, 30
Thumb sucking, 148
Thymus, 31
Thyroid, 30, 31
Tilton, J. W., 95
Time (magazine), 200
Timidity, feeling of, 122
Titchener, Edward B., 8
"Togetherness" of youth, 233
Tolerance in relation to religious training, 303
Toleration, 335
Tools, 63
Tories, punishment of, 326
Totalitarian state, 282
Trades, mechanical, 56
Tradition, Judaeo-Christian, 141
Traffic operation, 70
Training, Army and Navy, 40
  religious, 303
Traits, 57, 359, 372
  breakdown into, 110
  consistency of, 110
  feminine, 21
  interpretation of, 110
  masculine, 21
  miscellaneous, 109
  personality, 47, 373
  as prestige factors to adolescents, 223, 224
  psychological, 184
    in happy marriage, 189
    in marital maladjustment, 189
  for self-rating, 109
Trance of medium, 17
Transfer in propaganda, 316
Transportation, discrimination in, 309
  methods of, 299
    modern, 368
Travers, R. M. W., 206
Travis, L. E., 119, 212
Treatment, medical and surgical, 13
  professional, 121
Trial-and-error method, 132
Tribes, American Indian, 35
  primitive, 344
Trickery, fear of, 304
Tropism, 35
Truman, Harry S., 301
Tug-of-war between parents, 146
Turkey, 290
Turks, prejudice against, 290
Tuscaloosa, Ala., 326, 327
Twins, identical, 22
Typology, 266

Ulcers, 11
  gastric, as cause of personality disturbance, 147
Unconscious, 110
  undesirable tendencies in, 121
Undergraduates, college (*see* College students)
Understanding in learning, 94
Unemployment, 299
  study of, among youth, 266
Union membership restriction, 282
United Nations, 313, 314, 332, 335, 338, 342
  Charter, 313
  Commission on Human Rights, 308
  Security Council, 336
  World Health Organization, 338
United States, 8, 11, 184, 293, 301, 305, 307, 313, 315, 325, 328, 343, 344, 369
  armed forces of, 305
  Army, 49
  Army Alpha Test, 61
  Army Beta Test, 50, 61
  Army General Classification Test, 45
  Bureau of the Census, 154
  Commissioner of Education, 369
  competition in, 353
  Constitution of, 331
  education in, 76
  lynching in, 333
  mate selection in, 170
  nationality groups in, 289
  Navy, 32, 34, 39, 67
  Negroes in (*see* Negroes in United States)
  Office of Strategic Services, 67
  presidents of, 289
  psychological service in, 342
  race prejudice in, 304, 312, 350
  scapegoating in, 282
  slavery in, 301, 306, 326
  Supreme Court, 311, 314
  Veterans Administration, 12
Unmarried, sublimation by, 132

Vacation, 158
Validity, 44
Values, bad, 116, 117
  challenge of youth in, 117
  definition of, 116
  good, 116, 117
  money, 117, 118
  pattern of, 116

Vandenberg, Senator, 337
Vanity, 38
Variation, biological, 180
Vaudeville stereotypes, 290
Vaughan, W. F., 253, 314, 318
Verbalism, 66
Vermont Republicans, 302
Vertebral column, 27
Veterans, 12
Vice-president, United States, 25
Victim, scapegoat, 282
Violence, acts of, 310
  crowd, 323, 325, 333
  personal, 293
Virginia, 326
Viscera, 37
Vocabulary, 60
  methods of increasing, 90
Vocation of prospective mate, 171
Vocational counseling, 267
Vocational guidance, 191, 356
  by families, 237, 238
Vocational selection, 259
  emotion in, 258, 259
  job market effect on, 260
  personnel policies in, 260
Voice of America, 343

Wallin, J. E. W., 135
War, disorganization following, 299
  outlawry of, 332
  substitutes for, 342
War service, home broken by, 149
"Warmongers," 289
Washington, George, 315
Watkins, M. W., 353
Watson, Gladys, 220, 226, 230
Watson, John B., 9
Wealth, 41
Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale, 61
Wedding, 186
Wedding ceremony, 185
  church, 185
  civil, 185
Weight, average, 45
Werrenrath, 23
Wertheimer, 10
West (United States), 328
  prejudice in, 304
West Indies, 331
"Wetbacks," Mexican, 307
Who's Who in America, 25
Wilson, Woodrow, 216, 289, 301
Witch-hunting, 279, 328
  by government, 286
Witmer, Helen Leland, 265
Wolf's Head Fraternity, 216
Women, college, 303
  independence of, 174
Women students, problems of, in defense period, 208–211
  research on, 208, 209
Wood, A. L., 173
Wood, B. D., 76
Woodall, 23
Woodruff, A. D., 216
Woodworth, R. S., 19
Work, experience value of, 199, 244
  part-time, in college, 197, 198
  summer, 199, 244
Workers, unskilled, 73
World Health Organization, 338
Worry, major, of youth and young adults, report of, 219
Worship, religious, 302
Worthy, J. C., 253
Wright, H. F., 152

Yale University, 8
  secret societies in, 216
  stereotype of students at, 288
  survey of drinking, 200
Yearbook of American Churches, 163
"Yellow peril," 289, 306
Yellow race, crusade against, 291
Yoder, Dale, 253
YMCA, 339
YWCA, 339
Youth, 35
  communication with adults, 96
  in-between status of, 225

Zimmerman, C. J., 237