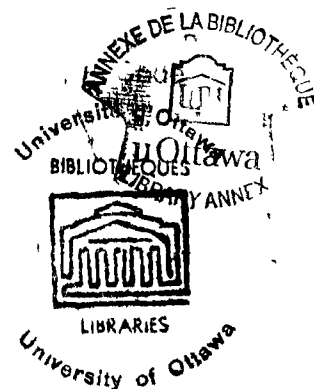


THE FEELING OF SUPERIORITY  
AND  
ANXIETY-SUPERIOR HC 5576

by Ernest L. Remits

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## CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

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## INTRODUCTION

Only during the last decade or so have the milder varieties of maladjustment come under scientific investigation. If people were irritable, if they did not get along well in their environment, if they wasted their time, or took to drink or other dissipation, their behaviour was censored. Their deviations from standardized behaviour were felt to lie within the realm of volition. It was up to them to correct their ways without any assistance. This attitude still prevails so widely that there is practically nothing to learn from searching the earlier history. More recently, however, the outlook toward these milder forms of disorder has somewhat changed.

It is the opposite with severe forms of mental affliction. Here will be observed a distinct evolution of attitudes in western society from earliest to modern times. The early history of abnormal psychology is the attempt to understand insanity. From the works of Hippocrates, Galen, Weyer, and the great observers of human nature such as Vives and Montaigne, one finds many shrewd observations on the nature of insanity. These voices of the past cried in the wilderness of an unconcerned public opinion.

Before the establishment of hospitals, the mentally disordered were treated as outcasts and were hardly distinguished from criminals. Even those rare physicians who interested themselves in lunatics recommended severe and violent treatment.

In 1785, a French physician<sup>1</sup> described the situation as follows:

Thousands of deranged are locked up in prison without anyone's thinking of administering the slightest remedy; the half-deranged are mixed with the completely insane, the furious with the quiet; some are in chains, others are free in the prison; finally, unless nature comes to their rescue and cures them, the term of their misery is that of their mortal days, and unfortunately in the meantime the illness but increases instead of diminishing.

Toward the end of the eighteenth century and even during the nineteenth century, many physicians advocated harsh discipline for excited patients. Even the great American pioneer in psychiatry, Benjamin Rush<sup>2</sup>, who advanced the cause of humane treatment, in 1812 described terrifying modes of punishment for refractory patients, recommending "pouring cold water under the sleeve, so that it may descend

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<sup>1</sup>Colombier, J., 1785, quoted by Zilbourg, G., and G.W.A. Henry, A History of Medical Psychology, New York, Norton, 1941, p. 316, cited by Robert W. White, The Abnormal Personality, New York, Ronald, 1948, p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Rush, B., Medical Inquiries and Observation Upon the Diseases of the Mind, Philadelphia, Kimber and Richardson, 1812, p. 180, cited by Robert W. White, The Abnormal Personality, New York, Ronald, 1948, p. 7.

into the armpits and down to the trunk of the body" or, if this failed, deprivation of food and threats of death.

At last, toward the close of the eighteenth century, the situation began to stir the public conscience, and the crusade to provide hospitals for the mentally disordered was implemented.

With the establishment of hospitals and the taking of systematic records, a wealth of facts began to accumulate. About the middle of the nineteenth century, the theory of somatogenic hypothesis was developed. Griesinger, Magnan, Morel, and their followers had made a great stride in the understanding of mental disorders.

One of the most significant chapters in the modern history of medicine was the discovery of general paresis. The names of Haslam, Esquirol, Krafft-Ebing, Noguchi, and Moore are outstanding in this research.

The attainment of the highest point of the idea that mental disorders are physical diseases analogous in every respect to ailments that have no mental symptoms occurred in the work of Emile Kraepelin (1855-1926), the German psychiatrist.

In contrast to the somatogenic hypothesis, the psychogenic hypothesis attributes causative significance to psychological processes. This hypothesis won its way into modern medicine through the study of hysteria. Mesmer,

Charcot, and Janet were outstanding in this research. Breuer, Freud, Adler, Jung, and others followed the development of psychopathology.

In *Abnormal Psychology* by Landis and Bollles, the main varieties of disorders are classified as psychoses, neuroses, character neuroses, psychosomatic disorders, psychopathic and mentally deficient.

The notion of disordered personal reactions can no longer be restricted to psychoses and neuroses. The trained observer has become accustomed to look for analogous facts in an increasingly wide range of human problems.

There are other maladjustments which do not fall in the above categories and which may be introduced as "Anxiety-superior". This term, as the name implies, refers to individuals with a disorder who are anxious and unhappy because of their feeling of superiority.

Such an individual may feel that he has no solid ground on which to meet specific difficulties or may be concerned because of the need of some psychological orientation. He may feel that he is alone and threatened by isolation.

Anxiety-superior interferes to a certain extent with intellectual performance. Planning and judgment oftentimes become slightly impaired. An individual who suffers from anxiety-superior seeks a way in which he can further his personal development and not reduce his anxiety in such

manner that it will produce deception.

Anxiety-superior is a state of maladjustment experienced when one's basic feeling of superiority is frustrated too greatly.

Anxiety-superior increased tremendously with the advance of civilization. The isolation of the individual has been increasingly affected by the competitive system and the overpowering character of the economic fate to which he is subjected. No doubt these factors contribute to the amount of the anxiety-superior in our culture.

The feeling of superiority is defined in this report as that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

The following two cases may serve as examples:

Mr. B. a university graduate, married, a high ranking civil servant, with superannuation, sick leave and annual holiday leave, had a staff of about twenty, had authority, jurisdiction and influence in the service. The position he occupied carried social prestige and he was well-liked and popular among his associates. After twelve years' service he resigned to accept a position as a newspaper reporter in spite of efforts to retain his services by the offer of an even higher position.

The new position did not carry any security, permanency, authority, financial independence, or the same social

prestige. When asked why he left the Service, he said, "I always had a desire to travel, meet people and write about them".

To achieve prestige socially, sexually or economically are sometimes factors through which the individual hopes to achieve his feeling of superiority. "I always had a desire"...said Mr. B. He was not afraid of freedom because he felt that by changing his position he would move ahead and thereby achieve that feeling which would give him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

Mr. Ryan, married with two children, was foreman with a hydro-electric company. He had a home with modern conveniences, enjoyed good wages, security, holidays and sick leave. As a rule he supervised the work of a great number of men, which included hiring and firing. He was well-liked by the company. Mr. Ryan resigned to return to farming. He bought a little farm in the back country which he paid for in a few years.

Here are some of Ryan's remarks during a conversation. "Do you know that I earned twice as much money with the hydro-electric as a foreman than I do now and I work much harder and longer hours on the farm." When asked why he left the hydro he said, "I felt I was not getting anywhere. I am my own boss now, we own our place and I'm improving and building it up from year to year. I feel that I'm accomplishing something."

Individuals derive their feeling of superiority from that feeling which gives them the desired sense of uplift in their sphere.

This feeling has not been fully recognized in psychiatric and child psychology literature. While the feeling of superiority has received recognition in the writings of Terman, Louttit, Hollingworth, Garrison, and others, it was not looked upon as a dynamic phenomena as defined in this report. However, it is intrinsic and characteristic of human beings to have such a feeling. The diversity of stimuli which gives the individual this feeling is unlimited. The normal child or individual, by receiving, giving or accomplishing something, even when there is no particular weight or expectation attached thereto, may have a feeling of superiority.

Its manifestations vary from one individual to another according to capacity, environment, and physical abilities. The intensity and quality of the response to many stimuli will depend a great deal on the degree of feeling of superiority present at the time. The manifestation of the feeling of superiority in the individual may be influenced by how long negative experiences continue and what impressions they make.

It is not postulated that the feeling of superiority alone would solve all problems of personality or behaviour. This feeling lies mostly in thought and is a dynamic factor in psychology.

The feeling of superiority is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits. Failure in many areas may mean little if it is offset by success in just one area. Feeling inadequate in one or more areas does not exclude the fact that the individual has the feeling of superiority in some other area or areas. The dynamic factor in the individual is not to overcome or compensate for his inadequacies but to maintain his feeling of superiority.

It is a distinct characteristic of man to be aware of his own capacity. Achieving a particular goal, having power, dominating, or (feeling) superior will not necessarily give the individual the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

2. Social-cultural forces provide the individual with new drives and with new goals. The thinking and the acting of the normal individual becomes adapted to the reality of the physical and social environment - those of the mentally ill do not. The chief motivating force in the individual is to maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. To achieve prestige, socially, sexually or economically are sometimes ~~factors~~ through which the individual hopes to achieve his feeling of superiority.

It will be seen from the definition that the feeling of superiority described in this thesis is not related as such to the feeling of inferiority, inferiority complex, or Adler's basic theory.

Adler belonged originally to Freud's group and used Freud's methods in the treatment of neurotic patients. However, instead of sexual phantasies and their derivatives of the sexual life of childhood, he noticed everywhere the subtle workings of a striving to dominate, degrade, and triumph over others.

The difference between Freud and Adler is not so much in what was observed: it was rather in the immediate inferences drawn from the observation. According to Freud, neurotic behaviour becomes intelligible when one worked out the full history, from earliest childhood, of the patient's sexual strivings and assumed the persistent action of unconscious sexual motives. Adler now showed that a similar intelligibility could be reached by seizing the element of inferiority and compensation in each act of the individual and assuming the persistent working of an unconscious striving for superiority to dominate, degrade, and triumph.

Referring to Adler, Brown<sup>4</sup> makes the following remarks:

According to Adler, the child very early perceives he is weaker both physically and mentally than the adult. Adler first pointed out that one of the ways in which the child realizes his organic inferiority is in the smallness of his penis. The girl child is particularly concerned with this because she has no penis at all. This gives rise to the rather well-known

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<sup>4</sup>Brown, J.F., The Psychodynamics of Abnormal Behaviour, New York, McGraw, 1940, p. 252.

Adlerian theory of penis envy which has been accepted in psychoanalysis. The realization of organic inferiority of the child causes the child to develop an inferiority complex. According to Freud, all children develop an Oedipus complex. According to Adler, all children develop these definite feelings of inferiority.

Adler said the chief motivating force was the desire to stand out among one's fellowmen. This desire he calls the prestige motive and says that the three chief forms of prestige for which individuals strive are social, sexual, and economic. By the drive of sexual prestige, Adler means more or less what Freud means by libido.

This writer accepts some of Adler's ideas. However, agrees with the views of Allport, Young, Murphy, Gardiner, Jensen, White, Kretschmer and others who disagree to most of its phases.

Referring to Adler's theory, Kretschmer<sup>5</sup> writes:

Adler has given a general demonstration of "the unconditional primacy of the Will to Power, a leading fiction, which sets in more violently, more prematurely, and becomes more hastily completed, the more acutely the child's actual organic inferiority is allowed to bring his inferiority feeling into the foreground". He has brought some clear formulae and convincing observations, largely out of neurotic psychology, to demonstrate that point. We are taught that the gestures of a "strong man" are but tricks of self-assurance, the protective mimicry of one essentially weak, the striving for power is but an over-compensation for a feeling of inferiority. (...) and yet one must object that the neglect of inherited factors in this, as in all systems of predominantly environmental psychology, must lead to false conclusions, (...) Somewhere behind the scenes must be a point from which the stage properties are thrust forth and moved.

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<sup>5</sup>Kretschmer, Ernst, The Psychology of Men of Genius, London, Keegan Paul, Trench, Trubner, 1931, p. 156-57.

There alone shall we find the primary self, i.e. the sum of inherited dispositions and capacities of reaction. And these must be regarded as varying extensively from one individual to another however much the school of Adler may wish to overlook the fact.

This brings the writer back to the subject of the thesis, that of the feeling of superiority and slight maladjustments of the normal individual.

This report begins by outlining "The Feeling of Superiority and Anxiety-superior" and the timeliness and need for more basic knowledge and recognition of the subject.

The first chapter furnishes observations and clinical evidence of the child's feeling of superiority.

Chapter II is an important part of the thesis. The stream of adolescent behaviour is set by the feeling of superiority. The investigations presented show that, among adolescents, this feeling is a dynamic factor.

The third chapter deals with vocational choice and satisfaction. Here again, the feeling of superiority is a determining factor and plays an important role in practically every phase. Even confidence, ability, mastery, or success will not satisfy the individual if he does not get the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

Chapter four briefly considers the problems of anxiety-superior and their implications.

Finally, the thesis concludes with a summary of the report.

From a study of the data of many scientists who used various techniques, this work was assembled. Some of the methods used by these investigators were technique of observations, the written questionnaire, personal interviews, intelligence tests, rating devices, psychometrics, statistics, projective techniques, genetic and clinical case studies.

It is realized that an attempt at this stage to conduct an experiment on a facet of the subject would not be warranted. For the sake of conciseness, the writer has been obliged briefly to summarize masses of data from experiments conducted by various scientists. Thus, descriptions of facts may appear as assertions. However, to appreciate how this feeling is manifested in physical, social, personal, and vocational adjustments and in order to depict the phenomena hidden but underlying the harmony of the individual's acts and thoughts, this work was indispensable.

The present investigation was designed to more fully recognize the feeling of superiority and further the research on the phenomena and processes of "feelings" as interrelated aspects of total behaviour.

## CHAPTER I

### CHILDHOOD

As the child develops, it is apparent that he wishes to maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. The manifestation of this phenomena is presented in this chapter.

Most of the experts in child psychology agree that the acquisition of motor skill by the infant is not merely the result of "accidental" conditioning through experience gained in "random" activity. They are the direct results of an organic craving for sensory stimulation, a craving that is secondary only to primary organic drives of hunger and thirst. This craving alone, in the normal child, is sufficiently pronounced to insure that in any ordinary type of environment the child is free to exploit, enough self-initiated practice will he have to give reasonable proficiency in such basic skills as sitting, standing, walking, mimicry, and handling objects.

In this connection, as the child further develops, Goodenough<sup>1</sup> states:

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<sup>1</sup>Goodenough, Florence L., Developmental Psychology, An Introduction to the Study of Human Behaviour, New York, Appleton-Century, 1945, p. 250-51.

Objects lose their impersonal character, if indeed, they existed as objects for the child before experience had brought them into some kind of personal relationship to him, which seems rather doubtful. The cup from which he drinks his morning milk is no longer merely a visual pattern of lights and shades or something that stimulates his organs of touch but is also a desired object, a giver of pleasure, a satisfier of his bodily needs. (...) He is becoming more discriminating in his reactions both to persons and objects. (...) Thus his behaviour becomes better suited to the gratification of his needs and desires.

From the above observation, it is reasonable to infer that, if some of the child's needs are satisfied, he will have feelings which will give him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

As for the adaptive response of the infant to other people, Buhler<sup>2</sup> describes three general types of social behaviour that can be observed in children between the ages of six and eighteen months, as follows:

(a) The socially blind infant behaves in the presence of another child as if nobody were present; he looks at the other without any emotion, he takes toys, plays and moves without any regard for the other child; he does not pay any attention to the other's movements; he is neither impressed nor interested in the other's presence or activities.

(b) The socially dependent, on the contrary, is deeply impressed by the other's presence and activities; he can either be inhibited or else be stimulated by the other's presence. In the first case he will not move,

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<sup>2</sup>Buhler, Charlotte, The Social Behaviour of the Child, in Handbook of Child Psychology, Murchison, Worcester, Clark University Press, 1931, cited by Florence L. Goodenough, Developmental Psychology, New York, Appleton-Century, 1945, p. 258.

will watch the other or copy him, will obey him, and sometimes even give signs of fear in front of him; in the second case, he will display in front of the other, will demonstrate objects and gestures, will try to rouse the other, and sometimes will even get enthusiastic and excited. In both cases all his movements are dependent on the presence of the other child; he observes the effect of the behaviour on the other and carefully watches the other's reactions.

(c) The third type is still different. The socially independent child is one who — though aware of the other's presence and responsive to his behaviour — yet does not seem dependent on him, is neither intimidated nor inspired. He reacts to the other, wards him off when necessary, yet never becomes aggressive himself. He may or may not join the other in play, is not inconsiderate, but sometimes even consoles the other, encourages him, takes part in his activities; yet, with all that, he remains independent in his movements; for instance, he may suddenly turn away and do something for himself.

Just how persistent these characteristics of the child may be, is difficult to know. All these types, however, are observable in adolescence or in adulthood. The socially blind displays his superiority without making certain whether it is justified. The socially dependent is diplomatic. He tries to measure his superiority to the environment. The socially independent, while willing to compromise here and there, will ascertain that his superiority remains intact.

Even more obvious is the average child's desire to do things for himself as he makes further gains in motor control. He demands continually to do things on his own. "I want to do it myself!" "Let me finish it alone!"

"I can do it!" "I can dress myself!" It is almost unbelievable what children can accomplish on their own. Over and over again they demand to do something for the pleasure of producing a result through which they can see and feel their superiority.

As the child develops, new skills are acquired and additional information and experiences will influence his behaviour. The expression, "I want to go and play with the other children" shows that the child no longer sees himself purely as an individual but begins to identify himself with his age group. By this attitude and all his actions, the child gives evidence of a dawning of group consciousness, seeking companionship not only because of amusement but as a means of extending the sphere of his own personality. At this stage, children begin to make comparisons such as "I beat him," "My doll is the prettiest," etc. It is significant that, with the emergence of this comparative spirit, the child turns towards his playmates. He senses clearly the distinction between his kind. As he grows older, the influence of his companions steadily increases because with them he must compete and adjust his feeling of superiority. "I don't care if you won the race, I won the last one." In this remark a principle is expressed. In regard to level of

aspiration, Goodenough<sup>3</sup> remarks:

The goals that each person sets for himself are often said to indicate his level of aspiration. These goals vary both qualitatively and quantitatively according to the units of measurement by which the individual judges his own achievement. One person merely aspires to beat some particular competitor; he is satisfied with having accomplished this and no matter how many others may outdistance him. Another sets out to reach a certain point at a given time. He measures his progress in terms of what he does himself; his aspiration has no special reference to other persons. (...) For another, the goal is marked neither by direct comparison with the accomplishments of other people nor by his own progress as such. It is a matter of reputation. For him the thing that chiefly matters is the opinion of other people, their praise or their blame, their admiration or scorn. (...) Both children and adults differ greatly in respect to the units by which they gauge their own achievement and with the degree of accomplishment to which they aspire.

One great effort with its resultant success brought enough satisfaction to this child. He no longer felt the need to strive to reach a goal that from his point of view was already won. The feeling of superiority is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits. Failure in many areas may mean little if it is offset by success in just one area.

About three years of age day-dreams come in as a form of substitution. There is evidence that the nature of the content in the day-dreams changes with age.

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<sup>3</sup>Goodenough, Florence L., Developmental Psychology, An Introduction to the Study of Human Behaviour, New York, Appleton-Century, 1945, p. 416-8.

Green<sup>4</sup> has ably analyzed children's day dreams, and has come to the conclusion that they mirror the child's development. Between three and ten years of age the dream contents have a major reference to self — the child gets the wanted toy, or mountainous cakes and seas of lemonade are his. In the pre-pubertal period, from ten to fourteen or so, the reference is mainly to a group attitude. Our basketball team wins the championship; our gang is victorious over the gang on the next block in a heroic struggle; our school, club, even family is dreamed about as accomplishing greatly desired ends.

It would be difficult to deal with day-dreaming per se; it must always be considered in relation to the child. Regarding the etiological factors of day-dreaming, Louttit<sup>5</sup> states:

Day-dreaming may be a direct result of boredom or of loneliness. (...) The monotony of the classroom technique of some teachers, or of a too rigid routine at home, makes the child's life dull. Ennui resulting from such situations is overcome by dreams, the satisfaction of activity that is absent in real life being found in the day-dream. (...) Excessive repression of the child as a means of punishment, or when a minimum of activity is looked upon as a desirable standard of behaviour, is another frequent basis for

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<sup>4</sup>Green, G.H., The Day-Dream: A Study of Development, London, University London Press, 1923, p. 340, cited by C.M. Louttit, Clinical Psychology, A Handbook of Children's Behaviour Problems, New York, Harper, 1936, p. 510-512.

<sup>5</sup>Louttit, C.M., Clinical Psychology, A Handbook of Children's Behaviour Problems, New York, Harper, 1936, p. 511-3.

day-dreaming. (...) While day dreaming arising from all of the foregoing is a serious interference to the child's possibility of development, there is one further cause that is probably more serious. This is frustration. In its simplest form, frustration of the child's activity is essentially the same as excessive repression. Doubts, maternal fears, paternal commands, and unwise parental interference all take their toll of childish spontaneity. And spontaneity is the very essence of healthy childhood. When the dream has become an end in itself, rather than a means to an end, the person has started to lose his grasp upon reality. It is here that the particular form of behaviour becomes a problem requiring attempts at correction.

The above and many other studies of day-dreaming prove that the feeling of superiority is a dynamic factor in psychology. These studies also show that when that feeling which gives the child his desired sense of uplift in his sphere is blocked or frustrated he will spend an undue amount of time dreaming.

Hollingworth<sup>6</sup> writes about an eleven-year-old boy who was a candidate for the office of class president in the senior high school. His classmates were around sixteen years of age. During the electioneering, a proponent of a rival candidate arose to speak against the eleven-year-old; and he said among other things, "Fellows, we don't want a president in knee pants."

In the midst of the applause following this remark, the eleven-year-old arose, and waving his hand casually in

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<sup>6</sup>Hollingworth, Leta S., What We Know About the Early Selection and Training of Leaders, Teach. Coll. Rec., 1939, p. 40,580, cited by Carl C. Garrison, The Psychology of Exceptional Children, New York, Ronald Press, 1950, p. 261.

the direction of the full-length portrait of George Washington on the wall, he said "Fellows, try to remember that when George got to be father of our Country he was wearing knee pants."

Our eleven-year-old was elected by a large majority. He gave evidence of qualities of political leadership of a high degree: audacity, presence of mind, good humour, grace, and, above all, the genuine desire to be a popular leader. He knew how to bridge, by a debonair gesture, the great gap between him and those to be led.

The "disparaging" remarks and the applause which followed had no effect on the candidate. Early experiences developed this courage. This incident threw some light upon the fact that the intensity and quality of the responds to many stimuli will depend a great deal on the degree of feeling of superiority present at the time.

The actual accomplishments of children are very great. Hollingworth<sup>7</sup> has summarized the history of thirteen children having a high I.Q. Samples of the activities of these children include reading a Fourth Grade book at the age of 4½; having read 700 books by the eighth birthday, the reading of elementary English, French, and Esperanto, by turns at the

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<sup>7</sup>Hollingworth, Leta S., Children Above 180 I.Q. Stanford-Binet, New York, World Book, 1942, p. 332.

age of 4; passing Harvard College Entrance Board examination before twelfth birthday; M.A. degree at 16 years; writing, editing, and typing a playground newspaper at 7 years; devising a four-handed and three-handed checker game at 10 years. These are merely samples of activities. There are literally thousands of examples of children displaying their ability.

Whatever the child retains in his adult life from the training to which he was exposed, it is certain that the most remembered will be those experiences which wounded his feelings of superiority. Most people can recall some experience of childhood in which they were ignored or unjustly treated. Frequently individuals make remarks like the following: "When I was a child I was not invited to parties by some classmates in an English school because I had a French name." "My mother ignored me and favoured only the boys." "I will never forget how my father strapped me for something of which I was innocent." "When I was a child many people in the village looked down on me because my parents were separated."

The implications of these occurrences are oftentimes more far reaching than is realized. Parents sometimes do not understand certain reactions of the child. For instance, under these conditions, the child with disturbed feelings will not accomplish near his record of performance. If the basic feeling of superiority of a child is frustrated, he will

become anxious and unhappy and may develop an anxiety-superior.

No matter for what reason children may be referred to psychological clinics and what the diagnosis establishes — lack of adjustment to school or society, etc., — in the majority of cases the condition will have to be remedied by the very one who caused it. Here lies the difficulty. Naturally, up until now, the child was mostly under the influence of the parents and oftentimes, to change the attitude of the parents towards the child, involves a far greater re-education of the parents than of the child, than would appear on the surface. On the other hand, if it is established that the teacher misunderstood the child, the remedy will depend on the teacher.

In the study reported by Martens and Russ,<sup>8</sup> 109 problem children brought before the behaviour clinic of Berkeley, Cal., were matched with 109 normal children exhibiting no problem behaviour that warranted clinical attention. These children were equated by age, sex, general level of intelligence and grade in school. Furthermore, the equated problem and non-problem children were chosen from the same school and teachers,

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<sup>8</sup> Martens, Elsie H., and Helen Russ, Adjustment of Behaviour Problems of School Children, A Description and Evaluation of the Clinical Program in Berkeley, Cal., U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 18, 1932, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, Prentice-Hall, New York, 1951, p. 315.

thus, sex, age, intelligence, and school environment were quite similar for the two groups.

The problem and non-problem children were rated for a large number of traits that had been developed out of earlier studies. The major difference between the two groups appears in the behaviour activities frequently reported. Thus, it is the recurrent nature of the misde-meanour that should be regarded as serious. This data offers clear evidence that it is not the occasional occurrence of certain behaviour activities that place the child, in the eyes of the teacher, in the problem group, but rather the persistent display of such activities.

From observation and clinical study, it has been found by Louttit,<sup>9</sup> Garrison, Terman and others that the following are some of the sources of difficulty:-

- (1) Lack of parental recognition of superiority.
- (2) Lack of teacher's recognition of superiority.
- (3) Superiority over available association.
- (4) Superiority over stimuli of classroom.
- (5) Superiority over stimuli in toys.
- (6) Interplay of feelings of superiority in a home between parents and/or sometimes relatives.

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<sup>9</sup>Louttit, C.M., Clinical Psychology, A Handbook of Children's Behaviour Problems, New York, Harper, 1936, p.308.

Children are referred to clinics on account of temper tantrums. The problem is not an unusual one. In many cases the interplay of the feelings of superiority of parents in the home, or the jockeying for authority and the attention of the child where a young married couple live with the family oftentimes upsets the child. Naturally, the child, sensing the artificial situation, feels bewildered and unhappy and, in an effort to assert himself, resorts to temper tantrums, negativism, etc. Such a child grows up, as a rule, with no playmates of his own age, surrounded by an unfortunate series of parent-child and adult relationships. Anxiety-superior usually develops under such conditions.

On the basis of these studies, the following conclusions are made:

(1) With growth and development, the emotional life of the child becomes more differentiated. This holds both for the objects which elicit feelings and the manner in which these feelings are expressed. Thus, if some of the child's needs are satisfied, he will have feelings which will give him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

(2) It was noted that group membership is a basic source for security and insecurity of the growing child, and a primary determinant of his feeling of superiority.

(3) Studies of day-dreaming prove that that feeling

which gives the child the desired sense of uplift in his sphere is a dynamic factor.

(4) Furthermore, clinical investigations recognize that the feeling of superiority is not a casual, detached, or transient phenomenon, but is a dominant motivating force within the child.

At about the age of twelve in girls, and from one to two years later in boys, a number of physical changes begin to appear which show that the time of puberty is approaching. This transitional period from childhood to adolescence is known as the period of pubescence. The period extending from the time of puberty to the attainment of complete maturity is known as the period of adolescence.

## CHAPTER II

### ADOLESCENCE

This chapter is concerned with problems of adolescence. It presents a study of physical development, interests and activities, phantasy thinking, importance of peer relations, desires, conflicts, academic aspirations, characteristics of gifted children, personality, instability, social climates, delinquency, and social adjustment.

The adolescent is reaching out into an enlarged world and is expanding his mental and social outlook. This transitional period is, therefore, characterized as one during which the individual is faced with many problems which concern his feeling of superiority. This concept will be emphasized here.

This stage of development is aptly described by G. Stanley Hall<sup>1</sup> with all its characteristics, gradations and peculiarities. His excellent portrayal of this period as the "storm and stress" time of life caught the attention of students of psychology on the American Continent. No doubt some important changes occur during adolescence. However, this period is not entirely unrelated to other periods of life. The importance of this stage of life was recognized in ancient times. Hall has given a vivid description of public ceremonies

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<sup>1</sup>Hall, G. Stanley, Adolescence, Its Psychology and Its Relation, Physiology, Anthropology, Sociology, Sex, Crime, Religion and Education, Vol. 2, New York, Appleton, 1905, p. 233-249.

among the primitive tribes. Some of these ceremonies involved tortures, humiliation, and ordeals with a view to initiating individuals into adulthood.

Some informal observances are practiced at the present time such as the introduction of the young debutante into society, or the presentation of gifts on graduation from high school. Naturally these occasions will give the individual a sense of uplift in his sphere.

There are quite a few problems related to physical development because of the unevenness of growth and the varying of the time of onset of puberty among individuals. The differences in rate of physiological maturity may be the source of some anxiety to adolescents. However, most of these differences are met in a manner to safeguard their feelings of superiority. When Charlie's pal, Bob, suddenly surpasses him in height, begins to shave and speak in a bass voice, Charlie questions whether he himself is developing normally. Sometimes he even seeks other friends in an effort to assert himself. Some girls will diet in order to have a good figure. On the other hand, boys take up sports and undergo strenuous exercise in order to develop a masculine physique.

The physiological aspects of adolescence include a sharp intensification of erotic sensitivity and a fairly sudden development of capacity for true sexual experience.

The socio-physiological significance of these physiological changes arise out of the fact that their appearance may force the adolescent into new patterns of behaviour. Sex is not an instinctive drive, that is, it is not like hunger and thirst. If it is not gratified, it will not necessarily result in mental instability. Sexual desires may to a certain extent be ignored, or they may be utilized in a gratifying way. It is society rather than sex itself that will determine the use of the individual's sexual capacities. Sex life is over-emphasized in popular literature and is not looked upon as a normal function of humans for procreation. Sex is not a physiological "must", the denial of which would inevitably result in disturbing complexities.

Since abstinence until marriage is respected conduct in society, the adolescent is expected to adjust and, by doing so, his feeling of superiority is enhanced.

The heightened feelings during this period of development have been recognized as a part of adolescence. The viscera plays an important role in feelings. However, we do think, and thinking does not on first inspection appear to be found in the world of physics and chemistry.

Increasing the amount of sugar in the blood is not helpful to the adolescent boy in enhancing his feelings of superiority nor to the jealous adolescent girl trying to be superior to her rival through a feminine appeal. Furthermore

forced laughter does not give real joy, nor forced crying real sadness as they should do if the peculiar quail of the feeling were derived from the innervated muscles themselves.

In adolescence the psychic phenomena is even more characteristic than the stage along the route to intellectual grasp or motor control. The stream of adolescent behaviour is set by the feeling of superiority. Its effect is more authentic, plays a larger and more directive role. It is because this feeling in the adolescent is so strong, so sweeping, so devastating if unwisely impeded, that adolescence is a problem as well as a clue to the intricacies of later adjustment.

The stages of levels of growth, so rapidly shifting in the earlier periods are distinctively effective -- native reflexes or organic insistence, longings, desires, primitive cravings, and avoidance, expanding to tastes and their antipathies.

Adolescents have both intrinsic and extrinsic interests. Psychologists refer to this age as the period of varied and peculiar interests.

Data of play activities gathered by Lehman and Witty<sup>2</sup> reveal the following:- Some have the tendency towards

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<sup>2</sup>Lehman, H.C., and P.A. Witty, The Play Behaviour of Fifty Gifted Children, Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 18, 1927, p. 259-565.

solitary types of play, they prefer games involving rules and systems, and engage less frequently in activities demanding muscular strength and endurance. Some have a higher index of social participation and activities of a motor type, although there is a great deal of overlapping. The bright pupil gains satisfaction in reading and is able to compete most successfully in activities requiring problem solving and thinking. The formula for both the bright child and the dull child is the same.

It seems reasonable to assume that the type of activity that satisfies the felt need of the adolescent is the one which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

Movies, radio, and reading have a marked influence on adolescents. A study by Fleege<sup>3</sup> of the movie interests of 2,000 Catholic boys enrolled in parochial schools showed that the mystery type movie ranked first among high school freshmen but was surpassed by the musical comedy in the case of high school seniors. The rank in order of interest for the four high school classes combined was found to be as follows: mystery, musical comedy, comedy of manners, historical, gangster-G-men, Western news, love story, educational and travel.

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<sup>3</sup>Fleege, V.H., Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy, Milwaukee, Bruce, 1943, p.251, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, p.144.

Responses to a comprehensive questionnaire dealing with their reactions to different types of radio programs were secured by Clark<sup>4</sup> from 505 children of the ages nine to eighteen. These children were representative of the white public-school population in Washington, D.C., the rural children in Fairfax County, Virginia, and the boys of the Vocational Training School for Boys. A close agreement was found between the program listened to and the broadcast from the Washington Radio stations. However, some interesting differences were noted for the three age groups studied. The decreased attention given by the older groups to drama and to children's programs and the increased attention given by them to the dance, comedy and variety programs are significant and in harmony with the change in interest found during the adolescent period.

From the recent studies by Witty, Coomer, and McBean<sup>5</sup> the books ranking highest in the interest of upper grade boys and girls were determined. Their findings show that boys prefer action, fights, races, moving around, and adventure, whereas girls prefer mystery far more than boys, accidents,

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<sup>4</sup>Clark, W.R., Radio Listening Habits of Children, Journal Social Psychology, Vol. 12, 1940, p. 131-149

<sup>5</sup>Witty, Paul, Anne Coomer and Dilla McBean, Children's Choices of Favorite Books, Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 37, p. 266-278.

kind acts, and events involving social and romantic elements.

Case studies show that the bright as well as the dull and the child from the privileged as well as the unprivileged home read the funny books.

The above studies reveal that adolescents prefer adventure, history, romance, fiction, comedy, comics, etc., in movies, radio, and reading. The adolescent's interests lead in many directions and may change at any time. When they are not expressed in reality they usually appear in phantasy.

Symonds<sup>6</sup> in "Adolescent Phantasy", an investigation of the picture-story method of personality study, reveals some characteristic studies of adolescent phantasy, aggression and love, success and achievement, conflict of good with bad, ambition, etc.

The feeling of superiority lies mostly in thought and is a dynamic factor in psychology. Telling these stories is a real growth experience from which the adolescent gains courage to express those factors which interfere with his feeling of superiority. This feeling carries with it capacity for expression and projection of the inner phantasy life through which the physical world and society are reconstructed and mastered.

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<sup>6</sup>Symonds, Percival M., Adolescent Fantasy, An Investigation of the Picture-Story Method of Personality Study, New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, p. 218-266.

The following statement by Young<sup>7</sup> bears this out:

We maintain, therefore, that fantasy thinking is as "natural" and "normal" as objective thinking. When fantasy becomes non communicative — that is when it fails to carry directionality toward another — its possible function in interaction is thereby reduced. Thought and language thus lose their social and public character and exist only in the private world of inner conversation with oneself. In the extreme instance this way in time leads to rather complete isolation of the individual from his fellows. In contrast, when fantasies are turned outward toward the fields of mechanical or other invention, toward art, religion, or philosophy, by that very fact they become a part of the stream of interaction and culturized meanings that may be shared by others.

As age increases beyond the pre-school period, there is a tendency to select friends near one's own age and at the same level of development. Newgarten's<sup>8</sup> studies show that, within these age groupings, selections are made on the basis of mental ability, physical make-up, and certain temperamental factors. Bright children tend to associate with bright children, and the dull with the dull. The physically large child more often chooses a child above average in physical development for his associate; the smaller child chooses someone his own size. The bright and large child tends to cross the age lines upward, whereas duller and smaller children tend to cross them downward. The effects of social

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<sup>7</sup>Young, Kimball, Personality and Problems of Adjustment, New York, Crofts, 1941, p. 207.

<sup>8</sup>Newgarten, B.L., Social Class and Friendship Among Children, American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 51, 1946, p.305-13.

class, however, are important in this connection at all age levels. It is further observed that chums are usually from the same neighbourhood; but here again class status may be operating to a marked degree, since people of a somewhat similar class group usually reside in the same or similar types of neighbourhoods.

It will be noted from the above studies, that the manifestation of the feeling of superiority varies from one individual to another according to capacity, environment, and physical abilities.

Cooley<sup>9</sup> was one of the first of the modern sociological writers to emphasize that man is dependent upon his fellows in a large measure for his thoughts, feelings, and modes of behaviour. This emphasis was formulated under the term of social consciousness. According to Cooley and other social psychologists, the consciousness of any single individual is nothing more than the consciousness of the many social groups with which he has come in contact. If the average adolescent girl in the junior year in high school is considered, it will be found that she is an individual bound by certain group standards, ideals, and general attitudes. The home and playmates have given her lessons in loyalty,

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<sup>9</sup>Cooley, C.H., Human Nature and the Social Order, New York Scribner's Sons, 1902, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, p. 170.

service, co-operation, and interest in others. School studies have brought her, through her imagination, into contact with peoples of other countries and with deeds of men of the past. She thus has a wider and deeper appreciation of direct experience. Her religion, her politics, her pride of family and state, and her respect for the opinion of others have been moulded by her social group. However, the adolescent is constantly meeting new social groups, many of which have ideas and attitudes somewhat different from those previously met; and here, Cooley points out, conflicts are likely to develop, since the individual's standards, built up through contact with different social groups, may not be harmonious. Thus the adolescent upon meeting such a situation is often referred to as "green" or "nutty", or by some other name which would indicate his failure to understand and thus enter into the behaviour of the new social group.

Although his close association with the people of another nation may have broken down some of his nationalistic prejudices, he still regards his own country, its institutions and people as in some indefinable way superior to that of his neighbours.

This observation shows that the feeling of superiority is intrinsic and is derived by the individual from that feeling which gives him his desired sense of uplift in his sphere. The diversity of stimuli which gives the individual

this feeling is unlimited, even when there is no particular weight or expectation attached thereto.

The importance of peer relations during adolescence when many personal and social problems appear has been emphasized by Tryon<sup>10</sup> when she stated:

If we were to examine the major developmental tasks which confront boys and girls in late childhood, during pubescence, and in later adolescence it would become apparent that many of these can only reach a satisfactory solution by boys and girls through the medium of their peer groups. It is in this group that "by doing" they learn about the social processes of our culture. They clarify their sex roles by acting and being responded to, they learn competition, cooperation, social skills, values, and purposes by sharing the common life.

The culture operating in these adolescent groups is similar to that found in adult societies. Adults are frequently excluded from their gatherings by different methods, such as "This is just for us boys" or "The other kids' parents don't interfere." The attainment of a satisfactory role among peers, the desire to become popular is very keen during adolescence.

A nationwide contest in the U.S.A., open to high school seniors gives some data on the aspiration of youth. About 2,000 papers were written in response to the following question: "If you could suddenly acquire superiority in one

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<sup>10</sup>Tryon, Caroline M., The Adolescent Peer Culture Forty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1, 1944, Chapter XII, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, p. 201-202.

characteristic or ability, which one would you choose, describe the characteristic or ability, and give reasons for your choice?"<sup>11</sup>

The replies were tabulated and revealed that the largest group aspired most of all to have friends, to be popular, and to succeed in human relations. Closely related to this was the group desiring musical ability, especially playing and singing. The reasons implied for desiring musical ability are as follows: (1) personal popularity; (2) success among contemporaries; and (3) general public recognition. The dominant desire for popularity was revealed in the great variety of aspirations. Some craved special skills as a sort of "show off"; some longed for wit and humour; while others desired a good speaking voice, with the ability to speak in public.

Achieving a particular goal, prestige or to feel superior are sometimes factors through which the individual hopes to secure his desired sense of uplift in his sphere. The above study indicates that the craving in adolescents to satisfy their feelings of superiority is an important factor.

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<sup>11</sup>Tate, Elizabeth, What Youth Wants Most, Ladies Home Journal, August, 1948, p. 31, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, p. 204.

Extensive studies dealing with adolescent conflicts were conducted by Block.<sup>12</sup> She found that the conflicts adolescents have with their parents (in her study, mothers) were in many cases the basis for most of the disturbances in their lives.

Over a period of five years, 528 junior and senior high school boys and girls were interviewed. By means of a questionnaire, an index of the conflicts that high school students are facing was obtained. A list of fifty problems indicated by the students was then studied. Some of these problems and the percentage of high school students reporting them are as follows:

Insists that I eat foods which I dislike, but which are good for me. (B-82.4; G-83.8.)

Won't let me take subjects I want in school. (B-32.9; G-56.1.)

Won't let me follow a vocation in which I am interested. (B-64.5; G-34.3.)

Insists that I tell her for exactly what I spend my money. (B-80.0; G-81.2.)

Embarrasses me by telling my friends what a good son or daughter I am. (B-49.8; G-26.4.)

Pesters me about my personal manners and habits. (B-66.9; G-75.8.)

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B- Boys  
G- Girls

<sup>12</sup>Block, Virginia Lee, Conflicts of Adolescents With Their Mothers, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 32, 1937, p. 192-206.

Insists upon interfering in settling any difficulties I may have with friends or teachers. (B-20.3; G-23.1.)

Won't let me use the car. (B-85.7; G-70.8.)

The results from the study by Block pointed to the fact that more conflicts were due to differences in thinking regarding personal appearances, habits, and opinion over vocational, social, and educational choices.

Adolescents have difficulty in seeing any reason for many of the protective attitudes. They are likely to resent anything which they think restricts their efforts to maintain or achieve that feeling which gives them their desired sense of uplift in their sphere.

Considering the academic aspirations of the college students, Goodenough<sup>13</sup> says:

Some measure their achievement by that of other students, either particular individuals or groups. They are satisfied if their grade is as high or higher than Bill Smith's or if it exceeds the class average. Others use a different system of measurement. They aspire to "pass the course" or, at a higher level, to get an "A", or perhaps a "B". Others - unfortunately too few - are activated chiefly by a desire for knowledge. They measure their achievement in terms of the particularized skills and knowledge required for their chosen profession.

Probably no one's aspirations are measured in the same terms or maintain the same level in all areas of activity. Peter works hard to keep at the head of his class in arithmetic but is little disturbed by the fact that his handwriting is poor.

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<sup>13</sup>Goodenough, Florence L., Developmental Psychology, An Introduction to the Study of Human Behaviour, New York, Appleton-Century, 1945, p. 416-19.

Mr. Brown has held the same position in the office for twenty years, and his salary is sufficient to maintain his family and himself. What he wants is to improve his golf score.

The above study proves that the feeling of superiority is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits. Failure in many areas may mean little if it is offset by success in just one area. Feeling inadequate in one or more areas does not exclude the fact that the individual has the feeling of superiority in some other area or areas. The dynamic factor in the individual is not to overcome or compensate for his inadequacies but to maintain his feeling of superiority.

Investigations were conducted by Terman and Oden, Hollingworth, Louttit, Boynton and others on the characteristics of the gifted child. In connection with these studies, Garrison<sup>14</sup> states:

In this discussion of the characteristics of the gifted child the writer conceives of the superior child as one not different in type from the inferior or average. Gifted is defined here in terms of superior intelligence or mental ability as measured by those instruments that have been found, from scientific studies, to have a high degree of validity and reliability. Among the findings presented are the following:

(1) The gifted child is often neglected, and this may considerably affect his mental, social, and normal life.

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<sup>14</sup>Garrison, Karl C., The Psychology of Exceptional Children, New York, Ronald Press, 1950, p. 219.

(2) The gifted child shows no extraordinary unevenness of abilities, but, on the other hand, positive correlations are present even among those abilities often referred to as special abilities.

(3) In a comparison of the personality traits of the gifted with the average, the gifted were superior.

(4) In behaviour adjustments and moral traits, the gifted, as a group, compare favourably with the average.

(5) The studies indicate a superiority of the gifted girls in language activities, while the gifted boys show superiority in science and general information.

Educational and social provisions for the mentally superior children are recommended as a result of various studies. Some are as follows: homogenous grouping, enriched program, special classes, acceleration, stimulation for action, etc.

Garrison,<sup>15</sup> in summarizing material on superior children, states:

The needs of mentally gifted children are similar to those of average ones. They need affection, a feeling of belongingness, a sense of security, and a sense of personal worth to the same degree as do the average.

The above studies point to the fact that there is a growing recognition of the feeling of superiority. The increased tendency to appreciate this feeling as essential in an educational program is in itself promising.

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<sup>15</sup>Garrison, Karl C., The Psychology of Exceptional Children, New York, Ronald Press, 1950, p. 274.

The adolescent is now held responsible for acts committed by the self. In the various definitions of personality there appears the notion of totality of elements; in the second place a recognition of the interrelation of these various elements, into a unified pattern, and emphasis upon the interaction of these elements in the relationship between the individual subject and other persons.

The individual is conscious of existing, of possessing an activity of his own, a personality. He realizes that he is different from all other individuals. He feels happy or unhappy. His intelligence gives him freedom.

During the period of adolescence, some specific feelings are outstanding. Bronner<sup>16</sup> makes the following observations. Today's enthusiasm may become matters of boredom before long. The desire, one day may be to become a missionary, and e'er long this has been completely forgotten and the goal of life is to be a dancer. Many an adolescent has said, "I don't know what I want to be. One day I think I want to be one thing and the next day something else, only I want to be someone great."

The instability of adolescence is especially marked by contrasting personalities, heightened feelings, religious

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<sup>16</sup>Bronner, A.F., Emotional Problems of Adolescence, The Child's Emotions, Chicago University Press, 1930, p. 220, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, p. 301.

enthusiasm, and juvenile behaviour problems. This question may be raised: To what extent are adolescents' doubts and fears associated with moodiness? This problem was investigated by Fleege<sup>17</sup> when he asked 2,000 high school boys the question: "Do you ever get into moods when you can't seem to cheer up to save yourself?" In answer to this query, 75.1 per cent of the boys replied "Yes". This furnishes a barometer concerning the amount of moodiness experienced among these boys. In addition to the self-conscious feeling so characteristic of adolescents, we note that disappointment, deprivations, and feelings of guilt stand out as factors closely related to the onset of sadness and depressed states.

There has been much theorizing relative to the basic needs, however, authorities are not in complete agreement.

The material of this chapter indicates quite conclusively that the adolescent needs understanding and appreciation of that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

When one or both of the parents are extremely authoritative, the children may obey but their feeling of superiority becomes frustrated.

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<sup>17</sup>Fleege, W.H., Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy, Milwaukee, Bruce, 1945, p. 321, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, p. 304.

There is evidence, from the study of early social climates of adults, that aggressive behaviour and instability are related to an early life dominated by authoritarian control. Lewin, Lippitt, and White<sup>18</sup> have conducted a number of investigations on this general problem. Their studies have furnished considerable evidence for the conclusion that the nature of the experimentally created social climates (autocratically or democratically controlled) affects the behaviour of children. In their first experiment, two clubs of ten-year-old boys, engaged in theatrical mask-making for a three months' period were studied. The group leader treated one group in an authoritarian manner, while the other group was handled democratically. The behaviour of the boys was carefully studied by four observers. In the club meetings, the authoritarian club members developed an increasingly aggressive, domineering attitude toward each other but an attitude of submission toward the leader. The behaviour of the democratic club members toward each other was characterized by friendliness and fact-finding. This group was more spontaneous in its responses and assumed a free and friendly relation with its leaders. On the one item, overt hostility, the authoritarian group was much more aggressive than the other, the ratio being 40 to 1. The authoritarian group displayed

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<sup>18</sup>Lewin, K., R. Lippitt and R.K. White, Patterns of Aggressive Behaviour in Experimentally Created Social Climates, Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 10, 1939, p. 271-99.

greater hostility toward each other, used more attention getting devices, showed hostile criticism, and indicated a lack of a sense of fair play.

In the second experiment by Lewin, Lippitt, and White, five democratic, five autocratic, and two "laissez-faire" atmospheres were established. In the "laissez-faire" groups the leader sat around and left things to the club members. There was less than half as much participation by him as there was by the leaders of the other types of groups. The influence of the leader's personality was controlled by having each of four leaders play the role of autocratic and of democratic leader at least once. The following is a summary of investigators' observations relative to tension created in the autocratic group.

An instance where tension was created by annoying experiences occurred when the group work was criticised by a stranger (janitor). There were two cases where fighting broke out immediately afterwards.

In the autocratic atmosphere the behaviour of the leader probably annoyed the children considerably (to judge from the interviews).

In addition there were six times as many directing approaches to an individual by a leader in autocracy than in democracy. It is probably fair to assume that the bombardment with such frequency ascendant approaches is equivalent

to high pressure and that this pressure created a higher tension.

Negativism toward authority may develop when the adolescent realizes that authority is often irrational or erroneous in its operation. The adolescent may also develop habits of inefficient work and laziness because the group work offers no challenge to his feelings of superiority.

The adolescent is in a state of transition from childhood to adulthood. His behaviour at any particular time arises from a multiplicity of causes and conditions.

### Delinquency

Delinquent behaviour is regarded as symptomatic of a great variety of conditions. The following summarized case taken from Louttit<sup>19</sup> shows the conditions and motives that contributed to delinquency in one boy's life.

Case No. 30 (Allen 8). Harry was a boy of fourteen who embezzled a considerable sum of money from his employer, and was using the money for making a big splurge at a local amusement park. The main sources of the difficulty in this case were:

(1) An oversolicitous mother who insisted upon treating the boy as an infant. Before company he was always

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<sup>19</sup>Louttit, C.M., Clinical Psychology, A Handbook of Children's Behaviour Problems, New York, Harper, 1936, p. 389.

introduced as "my baby". She supervised all his activities and prevented him from growing up.

(2) The father, a masculine type, was stern and repressive in his handling of the boy.

The discrepancy in the attitudes of his parents was having a very destructive effect upon the self-respect of the boy. His decision to leave school at fourteen to go to work was a significant gesture of the boy to test himself. The desire to establish himself was a very keen one. The quickest way to gain his goal was to get money, which he proceeded to do. It was also an opportunity to prove to himself that he could do something unsupervised.

Harry's feeling of superiority was frustrated and the desire to maintain it became a demand. His aggression was in effect a defiance of the behaviour requirements of society and the result was delinquency.

Hightower<sup>20</sup> has suggested three types of motivation underlying stealing. These are: "first, to have what others have; second, to gain attention; and third, an emotional outlet for conflicts."

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<sup>20</sup>Hightower, Howard W., School Problems of Pupils Who Steal, Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 33, 1947, p. 230, cited by Karl C. Garrison, Psychology of Adolescence, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, p. 334.

Reckless<sup>21</sup> has shown that the number of crimes committed by individuals in the various age groups increases sharply through adolescence, reaches a maximum between the ages of nineteen and twenty-four and declines thereafter. In terms of the frustration aggression hypothesis, the decline in the number of crimes with increasing maturity may mean that the level of frustration of individuals also declines, that is their demands tend to decrease in number and strength, or are satisfied more and more by socially approved outlets. At the same time, responsiveness to the threat of punishment increases, which is to say that internal restraints tend to become stronger and more numerous.

It is not attempted to explain delinquency on the basis of a single cause. However, it will be noted that

(1) an important cause of juvenile delinquency is that the individual is frustrated or blocked in his efforts in finding some area of success somewhere, and

(2) through delinquency he hopes to attain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

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<sup>21</sup>Reckless, W.C., Criminal Behaviour, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1940, cited by Milton Metfessel, Crime, Handbook of Applied Psychology, Vol. 2, edited by D.A. Fryer and E.R. Henry, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. 551.

Studies indicate that delinquent boys are more like non-delinquents who come from similar social backgrounds than delinquents are like unselected boys in general.<sup>22</sup>

#### Social Development

In the process of growth and differentiation, the basic sensational drives and the wishes which result from them become modified and tempered by social reality. Thus the thinking and the acting of the average individual become adapted somewhat to the reality of the physical and social environment. Those of the maladjusted individual do not.

The study by Bonney<sup>23</sup> was designed to determine the type of individual who is generally well accepted socially as compared with the one who is socially unsuccessful. Two methods of gathering data were used in this study. These were (1) trait ratings, on the part of both teachers and pupils, and (2) the pupil's choices of friends — a method referred to as a sociometric test. One fact emerging from this study was that the most popular children are more aggressive and overt in their responses. It was found that

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<sup>22</sup>Odoroff, M.E., and D.A. Harris, A Study of the Interest-Attitude Scores of Delinquent and Non-Delinquent Boys, Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol.33, 1942, p.13-23.

<sup>23</sup>Bonney, M.E., Personality Traits of Socially Successful and Unsuccessful Children, Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 34, 1943, p. 449-72.

the highest social recognition does not go to children who are submissive and docile. It appears that to be well accepted as a child or adolescent, one needs to possess positive attributes that will make him count in the group. Popularity among children and adolescents is closely related to strong personalities, enthusiasm, friendliness, and marked abilities. Although there are changes with age, there is good evidence that the individual at all age levels is popular because of desirable positive actions rather than because of inhibitions and restraints.

The anxieties built up in some community activity become a source of frustration when such anxieties are beyond the scope of likely possible fulfillment. Any difficulty that interferes with the achievement of one's aspirations in the attainment of which his basic feelings of superiority are paramount, is a potential source of anxiety-superior.

Some of the proposed reactions to frustration claimed to be healthy are: compensation, sublimation, and substitution.

The problems of frustration cannot be solved by these simple formulae. In reference to compensation

Kretschmer<sup>24</sup> states:

One cannot reduce the individual and all his character properties to a series of camouflages adapted according to his position in the battle of life. (...) It is impossible to solve all problems of personality on this one theme of overcompensation inferiority feeling. The problem (...) is not to be exhausted by this simple psychiatric formula, because it is never possible to ignore the factor of special intellectual talents in the inherited disposition. Thousands of nervous people needing assurance in life overcompensate their weaknesses, yet with all their striving they arrive at nothing but neuroses, empty theatricality, or a hard gained display of average talent.

Beside, overcompensation does not appear in all people of weak vitality. In clinical practice one meets many more people of weak nervous dispositions who have settled into a persistent, asthenic, weary, depressed and despondent attitude to life without making any serious attempt to derive therefrom a positive position of power.

The greatest feats of spiritual power therefore do not arise out of simple power, still less out of the neurotic's mimicry of power.

Social-cultural forces provide the individual with new drives and with new goals. The chief motivating force in the individual is to maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

As Allport<sup>25</sup> observes, "Only in terms of ego-psychology can we account for such fluid compensation.

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<sup>24</sup>Kretschmer, Ernst, The Psychology of Men of Genius, London, Keegan Paul Trench, Trubner, 1931, p. 156-57.

<sup>25</sup>Allport, G.W., The Ego in Contemporary Psychology, Psychological Review, Vol. 50, 1943, p. 466.

Mental health and happiness....depends upon the person finding some area of success somewhere ..."

The feeling of superiority must be satisfied and is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits.

Obstacles may lie very much outside the individual as when, for instance, his best competence is not valued in his society or there is an over-supply of his particular skill. Also it may be that the obstacle in question is beyond his power to overcome. Some behaviour adjustments which have social implications such as rationalization, identification, projection and phantasy, are apt to occur. However, in a relatively integrated personality which enjoys reasonable esteem somewhere, resorts to such methods are of no consequence.

On the basis of studies presented in this chapter, the following conclusions may be made:

(1) It was noted that many problems of growing up are interrelated with changes in interest. Data of play activities show that the type of activity that satisfies the felt need of the adolescent is the one which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

(2) Studies on movie, radio, and reading revealed that adolescents prefer adventure, history, romance, fiction, comedy, etc. In this connection investigations on adolescent phantasy prove that the feeling of superiority lies mostly

in thought and is a dynamic factor in psychology.

(3) It was noted that adolescents develop a keen desire for peer approval, and that adolescence is a period of selecting friends and forming cliques. Studies show that this reflects the operation of subculture social-economic classes. Thus the manifestation of the feeling of superiority varies from one individual to another according to capacity, environment, and physical abilities.

(4) Data on the aspiration of youth bear out the fact that the craving for that feeling which gives the adolescent the desired sense of uplift in his sphere is very strong.

(5) The adolescent becomes aware that his aims and desires may involve clashes with, and defiance of, parents. Extensive studies on these conflicts prove that the self is gained at the price of confronting the anxiety inherent in the individual for the protection of his feeling of superiority in taking a stand against, as well as with, one's environment.

(6) Studies of the academic aspirations of college students and gifted children prove that that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits and that there is an increased tendency to appreciate this feeling as essential in educational programs.

(7) The average adolescent achieves selfhood only by moving ahead, despite conflicts, guilt, isolation and

anxiety. The various studies in this chapter on their feelings, instability, and social climates indicate quite conclusively that the adolescent needs understanding of that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift.

Efforts of the adolescent to adjust with the maturing self presents many problems in harmony with vocational choice and satisfaction.

## CHAPTER III

### VOCATIONAL CHOICE AND SATISFACTION

Each year millions of young people begin full-time work. For most of them, this is quite a change from the sheltered life of the home and the school. They are now on their own, their places being determined largely by the needs and demands of the times. Such a rapid transition as this is bound in many cases to produce anxiety necessitating adjustment with the individual's feeling of superiority. This subject will be presented here.

Kroger and Louttit<sup>1</sup> give the results from a questionnaire study of 4,543 boys in four technical and academic high schools. About 90 per cent of the boys expressed vocational choices. A majority indicated choices higher than those of their fathers. When compared with census figures, 70 per cent of the boys indicated a preference for types of work engaged in by only 35 per cent of those gainfully employed today.

There are a number of possible causes for these discrepancies. However, studies show that guidance has an important part to play in assisting young people to enter vocations in which they will achieve to some degree that feeling which gives them the desired sense of uplift in their sphere. Concerning vocational aspirations and their role in

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<sup>1</sup>Kroger, R., and C.M. Louttit, The Influence of Fathers' Occupations on Vocational Choices of High School Boys, Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 19, 1935, p. 203-12

the development of attitudes and anxieties, Levin<sup>2</sup> has stated:

In terms, therefore of the relationships between given opportunities and their common class status, certain attitudinal and belief requirements may be expected to be associated with the various occupations. It would not even be rash to assume that many of the emotional and personality requirements of various occupations are fundamentally based on class status factors and not on job requirements, as such. Thus, the professional is expected to appear, behave, feel, and think quite differently than the skilled worker, and even more differently than the semi-skilled worker or unskilled worker. The stereotyped heirarchical classification of vocations is essentially a reflection of their class-conferring characters.

In a relatively mobile class society in which the vocations have class-conferring potency, it is obvious that ego-involvement with respect to occupational achievement would be high for many. Occupations must be selected, consciously or otherwise, in terms of their value in either maintaining the present class membership, if that is adequate to the individual's level of class aspiration, or in terms of their value in facilitating the individual's climb to the class considered higher if he is motivated to do so.

No doubt, selection of a vocation is a real problem for all young people, in which many factors must be considered. Data of the extent of vocational choice of the adolescent are rather conflicting.

The first job is quite an achievement in an individual's life as this is the beginning of his adulthood and independence. A wrong start, resulting in release, too

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<sup>2</sup>Levin, M.M., Status Anxiety and Occupational Choice, Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 9, 1949, p, 29-38.

difficult a job, not what was expected, etc., is a frustrating experience for the young worker.

Faced with these circumstances, some will murmur in an unmanly manner; others will accept these situations as the inevitable challenge of life and proceed to adjust.

A group of psychologists and sociologists at Yale University have developed the theory that frustration is the cause of most aggressive reactions which means that we must look to frustrating situations as the cause of much vocational and other dissatisfaction.

Studies of case histories showed that the people who had made the best vocational adjustments had grown up in homes in which there was family harmony. Evidence reported by Vetter and Green<sup>3</sup> suggests that radical and rebellious attitudes on religious and social questions are frequently caused by unsatisfactory relationship with parents. A boy who develops an attitude of genuine respect for his father may, other things being equal, grow into a student who likes his instructors and a man who is loyal to his employer. Over-identification with superiors leads to emulation of the superiors, so that the attitudes of one's instructors in college or one's superiors on the job are accepted

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<sup>3</sup>Vetter, J.B., and M. Green, Personality and Group Factors in the Making of Atheists, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 27, 1932, p. 179-94.

uncritically as one accepts the attitude of one's parents. A normal degree of identification causes one to accept conditions more or less as they exist, working for a gradual improvement.

Eliot<sup>4</sup> appropriately illustrates the operation of identification as:

(...) what happens when spectators push their neighbors toward the opponents' goal; when Negroes swell when Jack Johnson wins; (...) when the humble Mr. Preemby takes on the role of Sargon, King of Kings; when the adolescent, before or after his father's death wishes to behave in his role; when a savage fears to divulge his true name or have his picture taken, because it is too closely a part of his self to give it to a stranger; when the reader feels himself the hero of the romance or drama.

Identification, which is important to co-operation, is based on that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. This feeling lies mostly in thought and is a dynamic factor in psychology.

Roethlisberger and Dickson<sup>5</sup> have shown in the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company that fewer things have more immediate effects upon job satisfactions than relations with the boss. One manager may disrupt and

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<sup>4</sup>Eliot, T.D., The Use of Psychoanalytic Classification in the Analysis of Social Behaviour, Identification, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 22, 1927, p.76.

<sup>5</sup>Roethlisberger, F.J., and W.J. Dickson, Management and the Worker, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1939, cited by Robert Hoppock and D.E. Super, Vocational and Educational Satisfaction, Handbook of Applied Psychology, edited by D.H. Fryer and E.R. Henry, Vol. 2, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. 126.

shatter the morale of his workers, while another keeps his staff happy and efficient under the same material condition. Unacceptable attitudes are responsible for more discharges from business and industry than any other non-economic factor. These attitudes often centre on and are the product of human relations, particularly in taking and in giving orders. Moreno<sup>6</sup> and other sociometrists have demonstrated that the facilitating of association with congenial persons results in improved group and individual morale.

The above studies show that people will not do what they are told merely because they are told — except under conditions of compulsion. Since each person's behaviour is designed to maintain his feeling of superiority, cause him to feel that what you wish him to do will maintain this feeling. When one's basic feeling of superiority is frustrated too greatly, anxiety-superior is experienced.

Success is widely regarded as one of the conditions which should bring satisfaction. But success is a relative matter. Achievement representing a high degree of success for one who started at the bottom could readily represent

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<sup>6</sup>Moreno, J.L., and H.H. Jennings, Sociometric Control Studies of Grouping and Regrouping, Sociometry Monographs, No. 7, 1947, cited by Robert Hoppock and Donald E. Super, Vocational and Educational Satisfaction, Handbook of Applied Psychology, Vol. 2, edited by D.H. Fryer and E.R. Henry, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. 127.

comparative failure for one who begins at the top. As for relative success, Super<sup>7</sup> pointed out that men in occupations lower than the one in which they had previously been engaged were more likely to be dissatisfied with their work than those who had maintained their highest attained occupational level.

This fact suggests that success alone will not necessarily give the individual the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

Morgan's<sup>8</sup> studies show that the relative status of the individual in the social and economic group with which he identifies himself affects the social prestige of a worker and thus his satisfaction. The mere possession of a job even of work relief, may be a source of great satisfaction if one's associates are employed in seasonal industries. But if one's social group is composed of professional workers or business-owners the required level of accomplishment rises proportionately. One may find satisfaction in a lower job only if he can regard it as a stepping stone or as a social

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<sup>7</sup>Super, Donald E., Occupational Level and Job Satisfaction, Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 23, 1939, p. 547-62.

<sup>8</sup>Morgan, C.M., The Attitudes and Adjustments of Recipients of Old Age Assistance in Upstate and Metropolitan New York, Archives of Psychology, 1937, No. 214, cited by Robert Hoppock and Donald E. Super, Vocational and Educational Psychology, Vol. 2, edited by D.H. Fryer and E.R. Henry, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. 128.

contribution more significant than the material achievement of others. Failing this he may gain social prestige by distinguishing himself in an amateur activity. Bakke<sup>9</sup> found that the English unemployed preferred the doles in their former occupations to employment at lower occupational levels, despite financial stringency and a restricted social life.

In reference to participation, role, and status, Young<sup>10</sup> states:

Status is the position, the standing, accorded the individual within the group by his fellows. It does not imply high standing only, but position along the social scale. The role, in contrast, is what you do or do not do. It is activity, and status is one's resultant place on the prestige scale.

A person may have a low status in one group and a high status in another.

The studies of the social prestige of a worker show that the feeling of superiority is dependent on only a small range of merits. The manifestation of this feeling varies from one individual to another according to capacity, environment, and physical abilities.

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<sup>9</sup>Bakke, E.W., The Unemployed Man, New York, Dutton, 1934, cited by Robert Hoppock and Donald E. Super, Vocational and Educational Satisfaction, Handbook of Applied Psychology, Vol. 2, edited by D.H. Fryer and E.R. Henry, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. 128.

<sup>10</sup>Young, Kimball, Personality and Problems of Adjustment, New York, Crofts, 1941, p. 138.

Employment security affects job satisfaction in proportion to the estimate which the worker himself places upon it, rather than in proportion to the material level of security. However, its effect upon satisfaction can be tremendous.

Among the liabilities of western society, Murphy<sup>11</sup> states:

(...) there is scarcely any doubt that the most serious frustration of individual personality will be found in the field of security needs. Here are included economic insecurity, and uncertainty as to affection, status, prestige - all that goes with the whirling pattern of change with which we are confronted. The worst phase of insecurity is ego strain. Even if society gives the individual prestige and status, he does not know how long he can retain it. (...) Many (...) are caught in a network of prestige patterns which cannot be bypassed and which constitute an ego strain both on those who achieve prestige and on those who fail to attain it.

(...) Not only is there economic conflict of man with man, class with class; there is a value conflict. (...) The present-day authority of the impersonal business code, means that there are several different "right" ways of behaving in every field of living. Certainly insecurity alone, or ego strain alone, or the lack of group identification alone, or conflict alone, could easily threaten to wreck our society; and any two of them together can unquestionably do so.

The above studies show that achieving a particular goal, having power, dominating, or feeling superior are sometimes factors through which the individual hopes to

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<sup>11</sup>Murphy, Gardner, Personality, A Biological Approach to Origins and Structure, New York, Harper, 1947, p. 908-09.

achieve his feeling of superiority. However, the dynamic factor and motivating force in the individual is to maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. If this basic feeling of the individual is greatly frustrated through insecurity, anxiety-superior will develop.

Fear is capable of destroying confidence, dissipating ability, and demoralizing a working force. Hence it is a cause of considerable dissatisfaction. It is frequently without objective foundation, especially when strong enough to have disorganizing effects. Fear in combat has been studied by military psychologists, with results which have implications for civilian situations. Shaffer<sup>12</sup> obtained anonymous responses to questions concerning their backgrounds and combat reactions from more than 4,500 combat flyers. Most flyers experienced fear on combat missions. The delayed reactions to the unusually strong stimuli included fatigue, restlessness, depression, instability, and loss of appetite and interest. Idleness and inability to do anything about danger increased fear. Uncertainties and unknown factors in a situation also aggravate fear. From the point of view of

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<sup>12</sup>Shaffer, L.F., Fear and Courage in Aerial Combat, Journal of Consulting Psychology, Vol. 11, 1947, p. 137-43, cited by Robert Hoppock and Donald A. Super, Vocational and Educational Satisfaction, Handbook of Applied Psychology, Vol. 1, edited by D.H. Fryer and E.R. Henry, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. 127.

the individual, it is well to remember that it is not so much being afraid or not being afraid that matters, as how well one is able to control fear.

McDougall<sup>13</sup> describes fear as follows:

(...) a stimulus which conveys the impression of actual or potential bodily or mental danger to the individual concerned, or to any person within the range of the self-regarding sentiment. In this way the desire for escape is aroused, together with the emotion of fear. (...) It is, in fact, a normal occurrence in every-day life. The second factor which is essential for the production of the anxiety state is some circumstance which threatens to thwart the desire (...).

The intensity and quality of the response to many stimuli will depend a great deal on the degree of feeling of superiority present at the time. The manifestation of this feeling in the individual may be influenced by how long negative experiences continue and what impressions they make. Inability to do anything about a situation causing fear may contribute to anxiety-superior.

Industrial personnel work seeks to achieve reasonable harmony between the abilities of the worker and the requirements of the job by careful selection of employees, assignment to appropriate activities, and such upgrading or reassignment as may be desirable. That this is very important to job satisfaction has been shown by the Hawthorne

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<sup>13</sup>McDougall, William, Outline of Abnormal Psychology, New York, Scribner's, 1926, p. 269-70.

study, where job placement was mentioned in roughly two-thirds of 6,800 interviews. Employees placed in jobs appropriate to their intelligence levels are likely to be more satisfied than others.

Super<sup>14</sup> has shown that men who believe they chose their jobs because they were interested in them derive more satisfaction from their work than from their avocations, whereas the converse is true of others. A study using Strong's Vocational Interest Blank found that adults who complained of occupational dissatisfaction tended to have interest patterns which were not congruent with their occupations. The provision of avocational outlet for a dominant interest is likely to result in vocational satisfaction.

These studies show that it is a distinct characteristic of man to be aware of his own capacity. The provision of an avocational outlet which will give the individual the desired sense of uplift may result in vocational satisfaction. The feeling of superiority is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits.

There is a rather widespread belief that young people are more likely to be dissatisfied with work than are older people, and that the latter are more satisfied with life in general. This fits in with Buhler's theory of life stages,

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<sup>14</sup>Super, Donald E., The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment, New York, Harper, 1942, p. 86-96.

the suggestion being that the younger men feel satisfied to have made a start, that they become dissatisfied not to have progressed more rapidly, and later, having either become established or resigned, they are satisfied again.

If the central theme of these studies on vocational choice and satisfaction is considered, the dynamic quality of self-feeling is evident. These studies confirm that, in any vocation, money, success, job without achievement, a position not at proper occupational level, or security alone will not give satisfaction to the individual.

For vocational satisfaction, an important factor is that the individual or group have a basic respect for that feeling which gives them the desired sense of uplift in their sphere.

If this feeling is greatly frustrated, a state of anxiety-superior is experienced.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANXIETY-SUPERIOR

Anxiety-superior is "a state of maladjustment experienced when one's basic feeling of superiority is frustrated too greatly". This maladjustment will be presented here.

Referring to anxiety, Hoch<sup>1</sup> states:

Anxiety, therefore, is not present to an excessive degree, is used as an ego-regulative function against other drives, and if sublimated, performs as creative energy. (...) It is logical to assume, therefore, that anxiety if present to a mild degree serves as a constructive force.

Anxiety-superior described in this report is not related as such to superiority complex. Blakiston's New Gould Medical Dictionary refers to superiority complex as follows:

A general attitude or character trait, often pathologic and usually arising out of an underlying feeling of inferiority, which is characterized by the occurrence of some form of real or assumed ascendancy and by feelings of conceit, vanity, envy, jealousy, or revenge.

It will be noted from the descriptions of "anxiety-superior" that it refers to individuals who are frustrated in their efforts to surpass in what is "desirable". Thus it is not a complex or character trait, not arising out of an underlying feeling of inferiority nor carrying feelings

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<sup>1</sup>Anxiety, edited by Paul H. Hoch and Joseph Zubin, New York, Grune and Stratton, 1950, p. 112-14.

of conceit, vanity, envy, jealousy or revenge.

It is agreed by students of anxiety — May<sup>2</sup>, Freud, Horney and others — that anxiety is a "diffuse" apprehension. Referring to the nature of anxiety, May states:

The nature of anxiety can be understood when we ask "what" is threatened in the experience which produces anxiety. The threat is to something in the "core or essence" of the personality. "Anxiety is the apprehension cued off by a threat to some value which the individual holds essential to his existence as a personality." The threat may be to physical or psychological life (death, or loss of freedom), or it may be to some other value which the individual identifies with his existence (patriotism, the love of another person "success" etc.). This identification of a value with one's existence as a personality is vividly illustrated in the remark of Tom in his period of anxiety over whether he would be forced to resort again to government relief: "If I couldn't support my family, I'd as soon jump off the end of the dock." (...) if he could not preserve the self-respecting position (...) his whole life would have no meaning. The occasions of anxiety will vary with different people as widely as the values on which they depend vary, but what will always be true in anxiety is that the threat is to a value held by the particular individual to be essential to his existence and consequently to his security as a personality.

Some of the reasons why so many individuals suffer from anxiety-superior are:

(1) Their jobs are such that they do not challenge their abilities.

(2) Fear is often a contributing factor. Many businesses are blocked by the feuds of executives who block

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<sup>2</sup>May, Rollo, The Meaning of Anxiety, New York, Ronald, 1950, p. 190-91.

each other from doing anything that might bring credit or a promotion to one of them. Even a big executive will often-times be found squelching his ablest subordinate and pigeon-holing the good suggestions he makes all for fear that the young man will get ahead and be promoted over him. Such efforts of mediocre men to hold their able subordinates down are to be noted in many an institution. They account for much anxiety-superior, unhappiness, much loss in accomplishment, and much wastage of money and opportunity.

(3) Many people suffer from anxiety-superior because they feel they have failed in life. They may not have lived up to the high hopes of their youth or they have set too high goals for themselves. Others working for an institution expect to be promoted to the top in a short time.

(4) An individual is uncertain about his status.

(5) Working under an irresponsible individual — For instance, individuals who have no knowledge of a business or industry gain control and frustrate the manager or other employees by continually telling them what to do or what not to do about things which they themselves have no understanding.

(6) Unusual event or task — Some people become upset if they are called upon to perform some task which is outside of their usual routine.

(7) Unjust accusation — Sometimes stories are maliciously spread and the individual is not even given an

opportunity to defend himself.

(8) Humiliation -- An individual is unjustly accused of misbehaviour and as a result is transferred somewhere else or released.

(9) Persons who feel set aside or no longer needed -- A common source of anxiety-superior of many individuals, especially older persons who have failed to get a long-awaited promotion or who have been retired, is that they have been superseded or their work is over.

The following notes from the studies of Alvarez<sup>3</sup> throw further light on the subject:

We fail to think of the enormous amount of illness-producing unhappiness which is round about us, and, as a result, we miss diagnoses, and occasionally we order an operation that cannot do any good.

If one takes a group of psychotic patients as they reach an asylum, and goes back over their histories to see how they were treated during the years in which they were going insane, the records make one sad.

Individuals, even with slight maladjustments (anxiety-superior) ought to consult an able and kindly psychiatrist. Patients commonly do not go to the right specialist, as

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<sup>3</sup>Alvarez, Walter C., The Neuroses Functional Disorders and Minor Psychosis, Philadelphia, Saunders, 1951, p. 4, 9.

Alvarez<sup>4</sup> remarks:

But we non-psychiatrists usually accept the patient and his self-made diagnosis, and worse yet, we tend to hold onto him and to keep examining him and treating him and operating on him perhaps for years.

As previously mentioned, the viscera plays an important role in man's feelings. In many cases, what starts out as an anxiety-superior leads to organic disease. This anxiety can, of course, be alloyed by blocking or destroying the nerve apparatus which mediates anxiety. Or for instance, let a man with a predisposition to thyroid disease live for several years under great strain in a tense environment. For a time he may have only an extra outpouring of hormones, which will place a strain on his thyroid gland. Then his trouble may be said to be functional. But, after years of excessive stimulation of the thyroid gland, it may hypertrophy and change its structure — then it will be said that the man has become mentally queer. Later on, after more years of the poisoning, he may drop dead and at necropsy much damage will be found in his heart muscles and liver.

Dunbar's<sup>5</sup> studies bear this out.

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<sup>4</sup>Alvarez, Walter C., The Neuroses Functional Disorders and Minor Psychosis, Philadelphia, Saunders, 1951, p. 13.

<sup>5</sup>Dunbar, Flanders, Emotions and Bodily Changes, A Survey of Literature on Psychosomatic Interrelationships, 1910-1945, New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, p. xxxii.

There has been a change in the picture presented by our mortality and morbidity which has far-reaching implications for our attack on disease as well as its prevention. The illnesses which now stand at the top of our list of major causes of mortality as well as morbidity, are the illnesses in which we know emotion is particularly likely to be etiological, or an important complicating factor. They are not acute infections as was the case fifty years ago, but accidents, and illnesses characterized by disorder of muscle tonus, secretion or circulation, which are the most direct and primary responses to emotion. It is these illnesses which make up the bulk of general practice as well as of general hospital admissions.

Oftentimes individuals fail to see the relation between the coming of great strain or anxiety-superior and the coming of their ill health. They fail to see the relation between flare-ups of anxiety and flare-ups of discomfort. Often it is difficult to induce the individual to tell some of his great sorrows or worries that preceded his breakdown. Even then he will express surprise that this was the cause.

Smith<sup>6</sup>, in discussing fainting, palpitation, and breathlessness, points out the deplorable neglect of psychic factors in heart disease and the resulting confusion in diagnosis. He notes:

Man, consciously and unconsciously, prefers a somatic interpretation of his suffering rather than the admission to his doctor, or even to himself,

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<sup>6</sup>Smith, R. Travers, Functional Nervous Disorders of the Heart, Post-Graduates Medical Journal, Vol. 2, 1926-27, p. 136-39, 153-55, cited by Flanders Dunbar, Emotions and Bodily Changes, A Survey of Literature on Psychosomatic Interrelationships, 1910-1945, New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, p. 211.

that he is not master of his mental fate and captain of his psychological soul. Thus it is when emotion expresses itself in bodily manifestations, as it always does when strong, the patient's mental constitution predisposes him to accept such manifestations as those of bodily disease, and so those of a rational explanation of his feelings.

Anxiety-superior differs from normal anxiety only in that it is present in a greater degree. Referring to distinction between normal and neurotic anxiety, May<sup>7</sup> states:

The phenomenological description of anxiety (...) is applicable to different kinds of anxiety, not only to neurotic anxiety. It can be applied for example, to the reaction to the catastrophic condition seen in (...) brain-injured patients; it is also applicable, making allowance for differences in the intensity of the reaction, to normal anxiety experienced by all kinds of people in a variety of situations. (...) Normal anxiety is, like any anxiety, a reaction to threats to values the individual holds essential to his existence as a personality; but normal anxiety is that reaction which (1) is not disproportionate to the objective threat, (2) does not involve repression or other mechanisms of intrapsychic conflict, and, as a corollary to the second point, (3) does not require neurotic defence mechanism for its management, but can be confronted constructively on the level of conscious awareness "or" can be relieved if the objective situation is altered.

The most important thing is to be able to diagnose correctly that a disease is (a) more functional than organic, (b) not likely to end up in psychoses, and (c) likely to be amenable to simple forms of therapy.

Psychotherapy is too broad a subject to be dealt with here. Suffice is it to say that the patient suffering

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<sup>7</sup>May, Rollo, The Meaning of Anxiety, New York, Ronald, 1950, p. 193-94.

from anxiety-superior should not be subjected to days of questioning about sexual or psychic traumas in childhood, or dreams. Nor should he be led to believe that his only hope lay in uncovering early phantasies and perhaps an Oedipus or inferiority complex.

As Allport<sup>8</sup> so aptly remarks:

Motives, being always contemporary, should be studied in their present structure. Failure to do so is probably the chief reason why psychoanalysts meet so many defeats, as do all other therapeutic schemes relying to exclusively uncovering the motives of early childhood.

It is important that cases of nervous patients suffering from anxiety-superior, when they get a diagnoses of a functional difficulty, will not feel hurt, outraged, degraded, let down, ashamed, or somewhat cheated, so that they will not just move on to find a physician who will give them more tests and a diagnosis more to their liking.

In concluding, it may be noted from these studies that the individual oftentimes is forced to look within himself to discover a new basis for orientation and integration to maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. However, if his efforts are frustrated too greatly, a state of maladjustment is experienced by the individual and thus anxiety-superior develops.

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<sup>8</sup>Allport, Gordon W., Personality, A Psychological Interpretation, New York, Holt, 1937, p. 206.

It is at this time that he may require assistance to discover a new unity within himself to further his personal development and maturity.

## CONCLUSIONS

The present investigation was designed to more fully recognize the potential effects of the feeling of superiority and of anxiety-superior as a state of maladjustment.

The feeling of superiority was defined as "that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift in his sphere". Anxiety-superior was described "as a state of maladjustment experienced when one's basic feeling of superiority is frustrated too greatly."

From a number of research studies dealing with childhood, adolescence and vocational satisfaction, the following conclusions were made.

(1) An inherent capacity for normality of the child is determined not only by biological maturation or growth, but also by the inherent capacity to be aware of aims and desires, and thus have feelings which give him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

(2) It was noted that membership in a group may provide both the feeling of superiority and anxiety-superior of individual needs. At any given time group goals may or may not be consistent with individual motivation, heightening either that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift or frustrating it too greatly.

(3) Studies on significant differences in relations among individuals, and levels of aspirations showed that they differ greatly qualitatively and quantitatively. Thus the

feeling of superiority is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits. Failure in many areas may mean little if it is offset by success in just one area. Feeling inadequate in one or more areas does not exclude the fact that the individual has the feeling of superiority in some other area or areas. The dynamic factor in the individual is not to overcome or compensate for his inadequacies but to maintain his feeling of superiority. Its manifestations vary from one individual to another according to capacity, environment and physical abilities.

(4) An inherent capacity for phantasy life and identification which follows the pattern toward normal maturation makes possible enrichment and creativeness. Thus it reveals that that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift in his sphere is dynamic. Clinical investigations recognize that this feeling is not a casual, detached or transient phenomenon, but is a dominant motivating force within the individual. This feeling carries with it capacity for expression and projection of the inner phantasy life through which the physical world and society are reconstructed and mastered.

(5) Studies on vocational satisfaction pointed to the fact that "motivation" comes largely from satisfaction derived directly from the work and the work situation. The major force underlying this motivation is related to the need of

that feeling which gives the individual the feeling of superiority.

(6) In these studies it is noted that the chief motivating force in the individual is to achieve and maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. To fulfill this desire a normal amount of anxiety cannot be avoided. However, the individual oftentimes is forced to look within himself to discover a new basis for orientation and integration. It is at this time that he may develop anxiety-superior. The individual may require assistance to discover a new unity within himself rather than to have something analyzed away or to reduce anxiety in such manner that it will produce deception.

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Adler belonged originally to Freud's group and used Freud's methods in the treatment of neurotic patients. However, instead of sexual phantasies and their derivatives of the sexual life of childhood, he noticed everywhere the subtle workings of a striving to dominate, degrade, and triumph over others. The difference between Freud and Adler is not so much in what was observed; it was rather in the immediate inferences drawn from the observation. According to Freud, neurotic behaviour becomes intelligible when one worked out the full history, from earliest childhood, of the patient's sexual strivings and assumed the persistent action of unconscious sexual motives. Adler now showed that a similar intelligibility could be reached by seizing the element of inferiority and compensation in each act of the individual and assuming the persistent working of an unconscious striving to dominate, degrade and triumph.

Adler, Alfred, Understanding Human Nature, New York, Garden City, 1937, p. xiii-238.

The fundamental tenets of individual psychology is that all psychic phenomena can be considered as preparedness for a definite goal. Aggressive and non-aggressive character traits are described.

Allport, Gordon W., Personality, A Psychological Interpretation, New York, Holt, 1937, p. xiv-588.

The whole field of psychology is reviewed and critically examined. Allport's exposition on "motives" is particularly excellent. This book was most useful.

Allers, Rudolf, The Psychology of Character, London, Sheed and Ward, 1939, p. xix-362.

A social philosophy founded on the Thomastic conception of the psycho-physical unity of man.

Alvarez, Walter C., The Neuroses Functional Disorders and Minor Psychosis, Philadelphia, Saunders, 1951, p.x-667.

Alvarez recognizes and deals with the minor functional disorders. As a physician he recommends to his colleagues methods of handling such disorders. His comments were used in this thesis.

Anastasi, Anne, and John P. Foley, Jr., Differential Psychology, Individual and Group Differences in Behaviour, New York, Macmillan, 1949, p.ix-894.

It provides the student with certain tools whereby he may evaluate for himself a set of data with which he is confronted.

Anderson, John E., The Psychology of Development and Personal Adjustment, New York, Holt, 1950, p.viii-720.

It is somewhat different from Allport's interpretation of personality. Its reference here and there to superiority as a compensation was noted.

Anxiety, edited by Paul H. Hoch and Joseph Zubin, Proceedings of the Thirty-ninth Annual Meeting of the American Psychopathological Association held in New York City, June, 1949, New York, Grune and Stratton, 1950, p.viii-254.

Anxiety and its importance were discussed at these meetings. Various approaches to anxiety were presented.

Brown, J.F., The Psychodynamics of Abnormal Behaviour, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1940, p. xiv-484.

Brown's theory of personality structure and genesis are a valuable contribution.

Carrell, Alexis, Man the Unknown, New York, Harper, 1935, p. xv-346

Carrell has considered man as the sum of the observations and experiences of all times and of all countries. His book is the product of an artist and scientist combined.

Case Histories in Clinical and Abnormal Psychology, edited by Arthur Burton and Robert E. Harris, New York, Hope, 1947, p.xii-680.

Clinical psychologists would find some value in reading this book. The cases described and the therapy employed is worth noting.

Dollard, John, and Neal E. Miller, Personality and Psychotherapy, An Analysis in Terms of Learning, Thinking, and Culture, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1950, p.xiii-488.

It propagates the theories of Freud and Pavlov.

Dunbar, Flanders, Emotions and Bodily Changes, A Survey of Literature on Psychosomatic Interrelationships, 1910-1945, New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, p.ix-604.

It is a modernized counterpart of Kraepelin's ideas. However, Dunbar does not altogether commit himself to the somatogenic point of view. Nevertheless, the chief field of observation is that the somatogenic hypothesis is most likely to be applicable.

Ellis, Robert Sidney, The Psychology of Individual Differences, New York, Appleton, 1932, p. xxiii-533.

It deals somewhat with superiority in connection with geniuses and the nature and extent of individual differences.

Feelings and Emotions, The Mooseheart Symposium, edited by Martin L. Reymert, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1950, p. xxxiii-603.

It is a continuation of the Wittenberg Symposium on feelings and emotions. The Mooseheart Symposium is a worth while contribution to psychology and is very good reading.

Feelings and Emotions, The Wittenberg Symposium, edited by Carl Murchison and Martin L. Reymert, Worcester, Clark University Press, 1928, p. vii-454.

This is written by thirty-four psychologists, and is well worth reading. It gives the views of the various schools of thought on the questions of feelings and emotions.

Garrett, Henry E., Great Experiments in Psychology, New York, Century, 1930, p. xcii-337.

Watson's studies on infant behaviour, Galton's on individual differences, Gestalt psychology, Catell's experiments in measurement, etc., are given in this book.

Garrison, Karl C., The Psychology of Exceptional Children, New York, Ronald Press, 1950, p. xvii-517.

This book deals with mentally retarded and mentally gifted children. Garrison's book on exceptional children was very useful.

Goodenough, Florence L., Developmental Psychology, An Introduction to the Study of Human Behaviour, New York, Appleton-Century, 1945, p. xxii-723.

Goodenough's studies on child psychology were extensively used.

Hall, G. Stanley, Adolescence, Its Psychology and Its Relation, Physiology, Anthropology, Sociology, Sex, Crime, Religion and Education, Vol. 2, New York, Appleton, 1905, p. vi-784.

This book contains helpful material about adolescence.

Handbook of Applied Psychology, Vol. 2, edited by D.H. Fryer and E.R. Henry, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. xvii-842.

It provides a comprehensive survey of applied psychology and of how psychologists apply techniques and experimental findings of scientific psychology for the solution of practical problems of society.

Halliday, James L., Psychosocial Medicine, A Study of the Sick Society, New York, Norton, 1948, p. 278.

This book is similar to that of Dunbar about somatogenics but he takes the position from a psychosocial point of view.

Hollingsworth, H.L., Abnormal Psychology, Its Concepts and Theories, London, Methuen, 1931, p. xii-556.

The approach of abnormal psychology is somewhat different from the usual run.

Hollingsworth, Leta S., Children Above 180 I.Q. Stanford-Binet, New York, World Book, 1942, p. xvii-332

Many of her findings were useful.

Hurlock, Elizabeth B., Adolescent Development, New York McGraw-Hill, 1949, p. viii-566.

While this book is somewhat similar to that of Garrison's *Adolescence*, it is not as extensive. This work shows originality.

Jennings, Helen Hall, Leadership and Isolation, A Study of Personality in Inter-Personal Relations, New York, Longmans, Green, 1950, p. viii-349.

Jennings' studies of "Leadership and Isolation" at the New York State Training School for girls was worth while but the experiment has limited value.

Jung, C.G., Psychological Types or the Psychology of Individuation, New York, Harcourt Brace, 1944, p. xxii-654.

The theory of introverts and extroverts is described in detail. The experiments of Jung with word-association tests are worth while studies.

Kretschmer, Ernst, The Psychology of Men of Genius, London, Keegan Paul Trench, Trubner, 1931, p. xiii-256.

Kretschmer is without doubt a brilliant psychiatrist and his observations on geniuses are, to say the least, exceptionally good. Some of his contentions were used in this thesis.

Kugelmass, I. Newton, Growing Superior Children, New York, Appleton Century, 1937, p. xii-590.

This book gives advice on how to bring up children.

LaPiere, Richard T., and Paul R. Fransworth, Social Psychology, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1936, p. xii-504.

It contains much information about social psychology. However it is not quite up-to-date.

Louttit, C.M., Clinical Psychology, A Handbook of Children's Behaviour Problems, New York, Harper, 1936, p. xx-695.

Louttit has a great store of knowledge of clinical psychology. It is a very useful book. His clinical experiences with superior children are excellent.

Murphy, Gardiner and Frederick Jensen, Approaches to Personality, Some Contemporary Conceptions Used in Psychology and Psychiatry, New York, McCann, 1932, p. xv-427.

Students of personality will find useful Murphy's contentions. His critical review of Adler and Freud is rather good.

Page, James D., Abnormal Psychology, A Clinical Approach to Psychological Deviants, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1947, p. xvii-392.

Psychoanalysis and related schools of thought are described.

Rogers, Carl R., Client-Centered Therapy, Its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory, Boston, Houghton, 1951, p. xii-560.

This book deals with the nature of therapeutic processes and with related counselling problems. It was useful.

Sarason, Seymour B., Psychological Problems in Mental Deficiency, New York, Harper, 1949, p. x-366.

The psychological approach of the various mental deficiencies are described in this book. Sarason presented a few very interesting cases to illustrate the usefulness of the T.A.T. and Rorschach Tests.

Snygg, Donald, and Arthur W. Combs, Individual Behaviour, A New Frame of Reference for Psychology, New York, Harper, 1949, p. vii-386,

The main theme running through this book is the phenomenal self. The reaction to stimuli of the phenomenal self or organism is ably described.

Spearman, C., The Abilities of Man, Their Nature and Measurement, New York, Macmillan, 1927, p. xxxiii-409.

Spearman's theories about the "general factor" is an outstanding contribution to science. It is deep reading.

Strong, Edward K., Jr., Vocational Interests of Men and Women, Stanford, Cal., Stanford University Press, 1943, p. xxix-746.

The reading of this book is a must for students interested in Vocational Guidance

Super, Donald E., The Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment, New York, Harper, 1942, p. xi-286.

Super, like Strong, is outstanding in the field of vocational guidance. Some of his findings were used in this thesis.

Symonds, Percival M., Adolescent Fantasy, An Investigation of the Picture-Story Method of Personality Study, New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, p. vii-397.

In this book is given a pioneering experiment to explore the world of phantasy. The Thematic-Apperception Test was used in these experiments and it is to the advantage of students of psychology to read this.

Terman, Lewis M., and Melita H. Oden, The Gifted Child Grows Up, Twenty-five Years Follow Up of A Superior Group, Stanford, Cal., Stanford University Press, 1947, p. xii-441.

This book on gifted children is a masterpiece on the exploration of the various psychological tests, especially intelligence tests.

Wallin, J.E. Wallace, Personality Maladjustments and Mental Hygiene, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1935, p. xii-511.

This book deals with maladjustments and its reference to inferiority was somewhat different.

White, Robert W., The Abnormal Personality, Textbook, New York, Ronald, 1948, p. x-613.

This is an excellent textbook and was helpful.

Young, Kimball, Personality and Problems of Adjustment,  
New York, Crofts, 1941, p. viii-868.

Young, like Allport, considers personality dynamic  
although his approach is somewhat different to that  
of Allport. His comments on Adler's theory were useful.

## APPENDIX I

### ABSTRACT OF

#### The Feeling of Superiority and Anxiety-superior.

This investigation was designed to more fully recognize the potential effects of the feeling of superiority and of anxiety-superior as a state of maladjustment.

The feeling of superiority is defined as "that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift in his sphere".

Anxiety-superior is a state of maladjustment experienced when one's basic feeling of superiority is frustrated too greatly.

From a number of research studies dealing with childhood, adolescence and vocational satisfaction, the following conclusions were made:

(1) An inherent capacity for normality in the individual is determined not only by biological maturation, but also on the inherent capacity to be aware of aims, desires, phantasy life and identification and thus have feelings which give him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. Clinical investigations recognize that this feeling is not a casual, detached or transient phenomenon, but is a dominant motivating force within the individual. This feeling lies mostly in thought and is a dynamic factor in psychology. It carries with it capacity for expression and projection of the inner

phantasy through which the physical world and society are reconstructed and mastered.

(2) Levels of aspiration differ greatly, qualitatively and quantitatively. Thus the feeling of superiority is dependent on only a small range of excellencies or merits. Its manifestations vary from one individual to another according to capacity, environment, and physical abilities. Failure in many areas may mean little if it is offset by success in just one area. The dynamic factor in the individual is not to overcome or compensate for his inadequacies but to maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere.

(3) Membership in a group may provide both the feeling of superiority and anxiety-superior of individual needs. At any given time group goals may or may not be consistent with individual motivation, heightening either that feeling which gives the individual the desired sense of uplift or frustrating it too greatly.

(4) It is a distinct characteristic of man to be aware of his own capacity. Motivation comes largely from satisfaction derived directly from the work and the work situation. The major force underlying this motivation is related to the need of that feeling which gives the individual the feeling of superiority.

(5) The individual oftentimes is forced to look within himself to discover a new basis for orientation and integration to maintain that feeling which gives him the desired sense of uplift in his sphere. It is at this time that he may develop anxiety-superior. The individual may require assistance to discover a new unity within himself rather than to have something analyzed away or to reduce anxiety in such manner that it will produce deception.



May 19, 1952

Dear Father Shevenell,

I've read and considered Mr. Remits' thesis. For me the main question is whether this shall fail or receive a bare pass. On the side of failure the main criticism seems to me to be his miscarriage of the scientific method. To use the data of others to support a new idea is valid enough. But Mr. Remits often seems to draw support for his thesis out of quotes that appear to the reader to be little related to his subject. The MA in psychology is supposed to be an exposition of the student's ability to work in the scientific method and even inconsequential results can be overlooked if he shows the ability to use the method. Here Mr. Remits has a conspicuous failure. If the thesis is not passed this is reason enough.

Lesser failures are in his quoting his own experience as though it ranks with scientific data. Also his dogmatic ruling out of accepted ideas (i.e., sexual instinct, uncovering therapy, etc.) as though his opinion amounts to scientific truth is disconcerting. He overuses Garrison and Super a bit but this excusable. His annotations in the Bibliography show such a misunderstanding of some works (i.e. Dunbar) that one doubts he read them. The most likely explanation is that he is unable to grasp ideas not immediately linked to his biases.

I am also impressed with counter balancing positive aspects of the work. To bring these out one can outline what appears to be the dynamic structure of his idea. By feeling of superiority he seems to be referring to an almost innate, subjective, persistent need to have self esteem. Consistent with this he sees vocational success, social success, etc. as only channels through which this subjective esteem is realized, and as he often repeats, only a few channels are needed. He does not confuse this subjective need for self esteem with its channels of realization. To realize one's innate feeling is to achieve integration and normality. To have it frustrated (he always finds frustration in the environment) is to suffer anxiety regarding one's own self esteem. If persistent the pathological and perduring condition of anxiety over one's failure to realize this esteem is anxiety- superiority. Here, true to his thesis, he feels that cure is only through a change of environment which leads to restored self-esteem. It is to be noted, too, he is in line with modern perception theory by being concerned with the meaning assigned objects by the perceiver as against taking their objective qualities as the only reality.

Because of my own interest in and study of modern analysis I may notice a positive side of the ledger which others would not see. Mr. Remits, unknown to himself, is actually dealing with the dichotomous variables in modern analysis which are becoming the major explanatory variables,

esteem and lack of esteem. It is apparent modern analysis is approaching a relatively simple, reasonable and unitary picture of mental life in which Mr. Remits' variables have a high position. Of course the analyst's explanation is far richer than that of Mr. Remits; but the point is, unknown to him, he is developing part of an idea which is coming into prominence as a profound and useful variable. Also he develops it in a relatively consistent and "psychological" way.

Seeing what Mr. Remits is trying to prove makes a little more reasonable his relative failure to do so according to scientific hoyle. The idea of esteem versus lack of esteem is so general that any piece of behavior may be used to support it. How could one "prove" the existence of such a general dichotomy? Won't almost any citation of behavior seem arbitrary? The difficulty of demonstrating such a general thesis must be borne in mind.

For another thing, Mr. Remits' idea reflects a culture (Austria-Hungary and authoritarian Europe) which is not readily appreciated by us. He is by no means a true Adlerian, something he took pains to tell us, but he is in the Adlerian authoritarian tradition of looking outside man for causes and seeing all things in terms of heights and depths of power, control, dominance, success or achievement. In fact his authoritarian power theory is more tempered by the views of our culture than was Adler's. It more nearly fits between ourselves and authoritarian Europe. In terms of our own culture, though, he appears too much beset by the power motive and too little understanding of the internal and subjective. So he is a worker with something of a foreign breed of thinking that can't be judged solely in terms of our own cultural values.

If Mr. Remits were a younger student I would unhesitatingly suggest that he be made to 1) demonstrate some understanding of scientific method and 2) demonstrate some real insight into theories and ideas not in line with his biases. This could at least be done by further excercises without rewriting the thesis.

But he is an older and not so flexible student and this must be considered. Before saying emphatically as to whether or not I would pass him I would want to quiz him and look at a few of his sources to see if he used them fairly. In his case I would be especially concerned with the practical question "What will he do with the MA?" If he is bent on setting himself up as a counselor or clinician, for the welfare of others I would be inclined to fail him. If the MA is to be only a channel through which an old man privately realizes self-esteem I would be inclined to pass him while discouraging any thought of the PhD.

These are my thoughts on the matter. Though he fails in scientific method he has the germ of a good idea which it would be difficult to pointedly demonstrate. Though I would want to examine the matter further I am afraid I would be inclined to pass or fail him depending primarily upon what he intends to do with the MA. Otherwise I am somewhat favorable to his idea.

*M. Jan*