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Studies in Clinical Psychology

George A. Kelly
Fort Hays State University

F.B. Streeter
Fort Hays State University

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1940

**FORT HAYS
KANSAS STATE COLLEGE
STUDIES**

GENERAL SERIES

NUMBER TWO

PSYCHOLOGY SERIES No. 1



Studies in Clinical Psychology

Prepared Under the Direction of

**GEORGE A. KELLY
FORT HAYS KANSAS STATE COLLEGE**



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F. B. STREETER, *Editor*

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

With this monograph, the Fort Hays Kansas State College begins the publication of the Psychology Series. The manuscript, of which this issue is the first part, contains studies by nine graduate students made under the direction of Dr. George A. Kelly, Director of the Fort Hays State College Clinic, and consists of 243 pages. The manuscript will be published in three or four parts.

F. B. STREETER, *Editor*.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The coöperation of many individuals and organizations has facilitated the investigations reported in this monograph. The director regrets that space does not permit specific acknowledgment of the contributions of each one. Special acknowledgment, however, is due the National Youth Administration, without whose active coöperation the studies by Pankaskie and Downs could not have been conducted. Miss Anne Laughlin, state director of the National Youth Administration, and Mr. Bernard J. Brungardt, district director of the National Youth Administration stationed at Hays, rendered especially helpful services. Special acknowledgment is due also to Dr. Walter G. Warnock, formerly of the Department of Mathematics of this institution and now of the Department of Mathematics of the University of Alabama, who was codirector of the study reported by Emmons.

INTRODUCTION

OBSERVATIONS MADE IN A SEARCH FOR DYNAMIC AND ACCESSIBLE FACTORS IN INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

GEO. A. KELLY

METHODS OF INCREASING THE RESULTANT VECTORIAL PRO- JECTION ON THE LINE OF INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Regardless of our acceptance or rejection of any of the conflicting theories of the intrinsic nature of intelligence—Spearman's *G* and *s* theory, Thomson's composite view, Thurstone's primary ability theory, Kelley's ample factor view, or others—it is possible to view intellectual development as the resultant of a number of vectors. These vectors vary in strength and direction. They vary from time to time. They vary from person to person. It may not be necessary for all of us to envisage them in the same way. They could be considered, in turn, as themselves partial resultants in the force system.

According to this view it ought to be possible to facilitate intellectual development in three ways:

- (1) Increase all of the vectors which have projections upon the line of intellectual development,
- (2) Modify the system so that the resultant becomes a maximum for a given vectorial total, or
- (3) Increase a selected vector which does not have too great an angular separation from the line of intellectual development.

See figure 1. The first method would increase the internal strain upon the system, but would have the advantage of not requiring any preliminary analysis of the system. The second method would decrease the internal strain but, if improperly applied, would retard intellectual development. The third method would increase the internal strain to some extent, depending upon the vector selected, but would require a clinical diagnosis of each case in order to find a vector which was both related to intellectual development and susceptible to stimulation.

An application of the first method would be the general stepping up of intellectually stimulating conditions for a child. The second method would require the reduction of unfavorable tensions, per-

haps the reduction of all external stimulation, so that the naturally favorable internal trends might manifest themselves. The third method would require a clinical study of each case so that a key factor could be singled out and suitable stimulation applied.

In connection with the third method it should be said that the stimulation of a given factor, such as silent reading ability, could scarcely be expected to cause a statistically reliable acceleration of intellectual development in an unselected population any more than

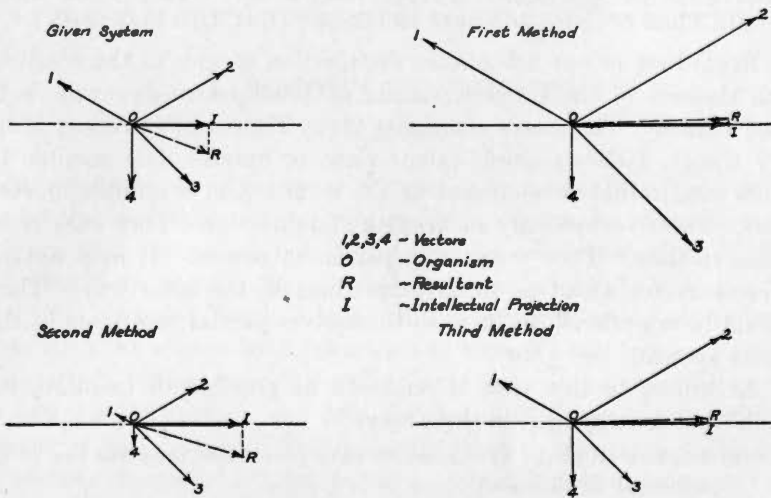


FIGURE I.

the general application of hearing aids could help a group of people most of which could already hear well enough. There are two ways of applying the third method:

- (1) Diagnose each case in an unselected population and apply the remedial devices indicated to be appropriate in each individual case, or
- (2) Select by diagnostic methods a group which may be expected to respond to a certain therapy, eliminating by partial or complete diagnoses those who appear not to be susceptible to the given treatment.

Clinical observations and some of the research attempted in the past four years at the Fort Hays Psychological Clinic may throw some light upon the efficacy of these methods. Wellman's encouraging results at the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station have inspired at least two of these studies.

ISOLATING VECTORS

There is the task of isolating some of the vectors. During the school year of 1935-'36 Martinson¹ made a comparison of the results obtained by mathematical factor analysis of certain intelligence test results with those obtained by a clinical analysis of some of the cases in the same population. In general the clinical analyses substantiated the factor analyses. The study revealed what should have been perfectly obvious in the first place: that mathematical factor analysis discovers only those factors which are rather conspicuously measured by the test battery. Of course, such substantiation by hindsight is probably the hallmark of any valid research. Certainly it appears reasonable to suppose that by the time one has progressed far enough to construct a test battery which will measure the wanted factors he will have gone far beyond the point where he should have been able to recognize the presence of those factors clinically. Emmons,² continuing the study of factor analysis in a clinical setting, found certain factors which clinical analysis showed beyond any question of doubt to be operative in a given situation, measured these known dynamic vectors, and yet found no method of mathematical factor analysis which revealed their presence in the lines along which they were known to have projections. It appears that we shall be somewhat dependent upon clinical methods for the present in isolating our vectors.

ACCESSIBLE VECTORS

But suppose we do find, either clinically or statistically, vectors which project upon any given line of development, say the line of intellectual development; how can we be sure that they possess dynamic properties or that they are not merely inaccessible resultants of more deeply seated and more dynamic vectors? While we have no evidence dealing directly with the development of intelligence in this connection, a study by Pankaskie³ throws some light upon the problem. She made a clinical study of some of the factors affecting the employability of nonschool youth who were working on a National Youth Administration work project. The factors which she found immediately bearing upon their employability were, in turn, the resultants of familial trends; still back of these were other forces, and others back of those, *etc.* There was a point in her in-

1. To be published in a later number of the *Studies*.

2. *Loc. Cit.*

3. *Loc. Cit.*

vestigation when it appeared that Catherine the Great of Russia was the prime cause of their difficulty because she invited some Germans to the lower Volga region to raise wheat; but there were probably factors behind that, too. In seeking a factorial solution of unemployment, and perhaps of intellectual improvement too, it appears that our real problem is the determination of accessible factors rather than the seeking of a comprehensive statistical or psychological vocabulary in which precisely to summarize a situation.

BREAKDOWN OF FACTORIAL COMPOSITION

Along this same line, Downs,⁴ continuing the study of the psychological factors affecting unemployment, found some interesting contrasts between attitudinal factors as revealed in a questionnaire or interview situation and those exhibited by the same person later when he is suddenly offered an unexpected job. Such a terrifying experience may break down entirely the factorial composition of his attitudes. Probably in our study of intellectual development we may also have some difficulty in discovering the truly dynamic vectors.

DYNAMIC AND STATIC VECTORIAL FORMULATIONS

Mason⁵ in a study of teachers' use of cathartic methods found that teachers described and evaluated their pupils' problems in terms of school annoyances, superficial symptoms, their own maladjustments, and various other static concepts. And this was with cases in which they were doing intensive work, hence could not have been due to an ordinary casual attitude. Mason found that the formulation of these static concepts marked the point from which there was failure to make further progress with their cases.

CLINICAL MANIPULATION OF THE VECTORIAL MATRIX

Turning now to the actual manipulation of the vectorial matrix, let us consider a clinical study by Hadley.⁶ It bears upon the method of facilitating development by the reduction of certain vectorial components. He made several case and group studies of the role of relaxation in rational psychotherapeutics. In some cases relaxation appeared to remove tensions and to foster directly better adjustment. In some cases it formed a protective frame which permitted a freer catharsis and the formulation of a more reasonable

4. *Loc. Cit.*

5. Published in this monograph.

6. Hadley, John. "Various roles of relaxation in psychotherapeutics." *J. General Psychol.*, 19, 1938, 191-203.

picture of the patient's problem. In other cases the removal of superficial tensions by relaxation simply enabled the patient to confirm his original undesirable formulation of his personality problem. In fact, there was one case in which relaxation played all of these roles, but at different stages in the treatment.

From Hadley's work it would appear that where pathological mechanisms are already deeply seated and partly satisfying to the patient, relaxation may crystalize the static mental state and prevent active progress toward a solution. Again, it appears from his study that relaxation of the accessible tensions in an individual may permit unwanted tendencies to manifest themselves. In a college class where nearly all of the other students were finding their training in differential relaxation helpful while taking a strenuous test, one individual reported that he had not permitted himself to relax because he always did careless work when he was not keyed up. Perhaps the method of reducing stimulation could be expected to have more wholesome results among young children who have not become so dependent upon such crystalized patterns of self-discipline. In adult cases where the patterns are crystallized it may be more practical to use the third method, that of lengthening a certain accessible vector, unless, of course, a complete program of psychotherapy is to be undertaken. Studies now being conducted in the Clinic have developed out of this line of reasoning. Ames⁷ used the reduction-of-unfavorable-tension method with nursery school children. No attempt was made to introduce into their program any artificial stimulation or to enrich experience beyond the usual area of a child's curiosity. Freedom of action, integration of efforts, and the reduction of social and academic tensions was the order of their day. The more or less internal developmental vectors—maturation forces, perhaps—were carefully protected from opposition. The findings indicate that such a program is more likely to be successful in the cases of children who have not come to rely too much upon the artificial control of adults. Ames used change in I. Q. as a measure of intellectual acceleration.

G. Thompson, Birrer, Bryan, F. Wright and Kelly,⁸ working with college students and using the method of selecting cases clinically which give promise of responding to a given treatment, showed some significant rises in intelligence test scores following the application of individualized and integrated remedial reading techniques.

7. Published in this monograph.

8. Unpublished.

The statistical significance of individual gains rather than that of the group gain was computed. All cases showed gain after a relatively short period of treatment. With the exception of cases in which clinically there could be little doubt of the presence of a factor other than silent reading disability which was prejudicing the intelligence test result, the treated showed gains represented by a reliability of 99.40 to 99.95 chances out of 100. While the study is preliminary and exploratory, the results certainly justify setting up a program of intensive investigation along this line.

New vectors projecting upon the line of intellectual development need to be discovered, tested for accessibility, and checked in various situations to discover their dynamic properties. J. Wright⁹ has shown a distinctive uniqueness in the pattern of transient aphasic cycles of different individuals. His results suggest that there are ways of controlling them. Others are studying the bearing of this factor upon intellectual output.

9. To be published later.

TEACHERS' USE OF CATHARTIC METHODS

HARRY MASON

CATHARSIS IN EDUCATION

The concept of emotional catharsis is one of the fundamentals of modern psychiatry, and is extensively used in programs of mental hygiene. Aristotle (1) mentioned an idea of emotional catharsis, viewing the drama as a means of eliminating the emotions of pity and terror. Methods designed to purge the mind in this manner were regarded by him as the acme of educational art. Sigmund Freud and Breuer (2) found that a female patient was cured of auditory hallucinations after telling the physician of her troubles, and they set about developing a method of treatment which was first called the cathartic method of psychotherapy and later grew into psychoanalysis as we know it today. More recently Pressey (3) has spoken of catharsis of suppressed emotion as the first necessity in using rational psychotherapy. Morgan (4) says that mere narration of a difficulty will often clear it up for a child. Anna Freud (5), Klein (6), and Taft (7) have all done systematic work in describing techniques of child analysis which are largely cathartic in nature. They are too complicated and time-consuming, however, to be used by the ordinary teacher.

The current emphasis upon the child-centered school makes it inevitable that the teacher will use cathartic treatment in some form or other in dealing with the problems of her pupils. In the days when nothing but a little elementary subject matter was taught, and the child's social life was oriented chiefly toward his home, both the military disciplinarian and the understanding human teacher were regarded as successful; but today, when the school virtually adopts the child, the teacher's success rests largely with her ability to meet the personal problems of her pupils intelligently. If she cannot understand the cathartic elements in play, in artistic endeavors, and in what was once hopelessly classified as "orneriness," she has little hope of succeeding in her profession. It has been found in general clinical practice that many children give unmistakable evidence of a need for "getting things off their chests," but it has been as well established that few teachers are effective in assisting the child in this process.

PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

This study attempts to find some of the difficulties experienced by teachers in using cathartic methods, both with a random sample of children available for experimental purposes and with actual cases in the field. By pointing out and describing these difficulties, this study should suggest something concerning the goals of teacher-training with regard to adequacy in dealing with the problems and conflicts of pupils. In contemporary thought there are two ideas concerning how the teacher may be made more adequate to deal with the problems of her pupils. One view is presented by Rivlin (8), who believes the remedy lies in regarding "the child's wholesome emotional development as a major aim in modern education," rather than in teaching prospective teachers more about behavior abnormalities. The viewpoint of the investigator is that such an aim is pointless and empty unless it implies some improvement of the teacher's insight into specific types of problems as an integral part of her preparation for teaching. This view may be summarized by saying that good intentions are made operative only by knowing what to do and how to do it in a number of everyday situations. In the present problem, that of dealing with children's conflicts effectively, knowledge of the dynamics of behavior is a necessary prerequisite to proper treatment, not a guarantee that it will be carried out.

The specific problem of this study is to ascertain some of the difficulties experienced by teachers in eliciting emotional catharsis from their pupils and interpreting its results, and to describe these difficulties in such a way as to suggest some mode of attack upon them.

METHOD

A pamphlet entitled, "Teachers' Manual for Use in Carrying Out Cathartic Treatment," was written by the investigator with the aid and criticism of Kelly.* It was hectographed and given to selected teachers who were dealing with certain children diagnosed in extension clinics of the Fort Hays Kansas State College Psychological Clinic. A recommendation calling for emotional catharsis had been made in each case. The teachers were given blanks for reporting the significant details of conferences, which they forwarded to the investigator, who criticised the reports and sent back suggestions by return mail. The conferences were planned by the teacher after dis-

* Dr. Geo. A. Kelly, director of the Fort Hays Kansas State College Psychological Clinic.

curring the type of cathartic conference suited to the case with members of the extension clinic staff and after reading the pamphlet. Conferences were ordinarily from twenty to thirty minutes in length, being held once or twice a week. Four teachers coöperated in this experiment.

The reports of those four teachers were studied and their difficulties as they then appeared to the investigator were listed under eight headings for discussion. Some of these difficulties were inferred from the teachers' reports, others were formulated in an attempt to remedy defects of emphasis in the original teachers' guide. Using these tentative factors as a basis, supplementary material to the pamphlet was compiled. Tentatively formulated factors are as follows:

1. Condition of intolerance on the part of the teacher or lack of rapport between child and teacher.
2. A tendency for the teacher to make errors in interpreting what the child says.
3. Misuse of didactic procedures in such a way as to prevent the child from independently reaching conclusions regarding himself.
4. Failure on the part of the teacher to recognize that some children can reorganize their lives quite readily while others disintegrate when suddenly confronted with this problem.
5. Failure on the part of the teacher to recognize that ordinarily catharsis is used to help the child improve himself rather than to change the external conditions with which he is surrounded.
6. Lack of teacher's interpretive skills.
7. Tendency of teachers to develop transference upon their pupils.
8. Inadequacy of teachers in maintaining classroom disciplinary and individual cathartic situations simultaneously.

As a second experiment, the pamphlet used in the first study, together with the supplementary material discussing the eight tentative factors listed above, was given to fourteen students in a second course in psychology at the Fort Hays Kansas State College during the summer session of 1937. These students were all, with the exception of two, planning to teach in the near future. Ten of them had had teaching experience, ranging from one to fourteen years. They were instructed to study the material carefully, then to find a child between the ages of five and fourteen years, bring him to the offices of the Clinic, and hold a conference with him, attempting to find out as much as possible about his personality and conflicts. The room in which they held these conferences was connected by a one-way screen to a darkened room in which the investigator sat. He was thus able to observe the conference, and could, in addition, hear all that was said. The teachers were aware of his presence in

the adjoining room; the children were not. Each teacher held from one to four conferences with the child. After each session the teacher wrote a report, giving a narrative description of the conference, an appraisal of significant findings, a plan for the next conference, and an estimate of the most significant adjustments in teaching which could be made to assist that particular child in wholesome personality adjustment. The investigator kept notes and criticisms, often copying down significant portions of the conversation. Criticisms of the reports were returned to the teachers in time to be studied before the next conference was finally planned.

The data in this entire study consist, then, in conference reports from the teachers in the field and in the Clinic, criticisms of the reports, and notes on the actual conference procedures in the second experiment. The first experiment had the advantage of reality of situation, the second of availability of data. The materials listed above were arranged, conference by conference, and typed copies made. The lines of these copies were numbered to facilitate reference in reviewing the material. Complete records of this material are appended to the original study, which is available at the Fort Hays Kansas State College Library. Numbers and letters replaced names in the reports in order to make the participants in experiments anonymous.

A critical study of the reports from both experiments was made with special attention given to difficulties which the teachers encountered. The aim was to recognize the relation of these difficulties to the dynamics of personality as pictured in the several schools of psychology and psychoanalysis and to the practical aspects of the situation in which the teacher worked. The categories used were formulated in an attempt to express the difficulties of the several teachers in as few classifications as possible, yet not to impose artificiality to the extent of making the classifications lose meaning. Formal statements of the difficulties were finally arrived at and evidence for their existence was lifted from the reports of the teachers to show how these factors appeared in the actual situation of the cathartic conference. In the original study line-references were given to the material, but these have been omitted in the present abstract. The evidence was discussed to show how it related to the statements of the difficulties on one hand and to the situations in which the teacher worked on the other. This procedure was viewed by the investigator as proper during the inductive stages of establishing a scientific hypothesis. Trial of the hypothesis (being in this case that the statements offered are helpful statements of the

teacher's difficulties) must necessarily wait upon attempts to apply the findings of this study in training and guiding teachers, as well as in evaluating the results of teaching.

Since the four cases were not sufficient as a basis for judgment as to general application of the findings, and since the teachers in the second experiment were in an unnatural situation, no attempt is made to determine whether or not the cathartic procedures used may be said to be effective in the whole, but the specific difficulties encountered may serve as bases for correcting evident faults. It should be borne in mind that the purpose of this study was simply to reveal these specific difficulties.

The material from which the final descriptive categories of difficulties were formulated is too bulky for presentation here; consequently the difficulties are stated with small portions of the supporting evidence for them, taken from the complete study, with a few instances of material from teachers' reports as supporting evidence. For a thorough appraisal of the basis of these categories, and for suggestions as to alternative ones to be presented from one's own point of view, the reader is referred to the original study, which gives material in somewhat greater length, and which includes complete teachers' reports and criticisms by the investigator (9).

ANALYSIS OF DIFFICULTIES

The first difficulty observed is stated as follows: *Difficulty One: Uncritical Acceptance of the Child's Story.*

Selected Evidence: The reports of Teacher D. 1, who participated in the first experiment, treating an actual case in the field under direction by correspondence, indicated that she had difficulty in guiding the conference to fundamental issues. In one of her early reports, she said, "He is not afraid of thunder or lightning. He doesn't have any pronounced fears, it seems." With this brusque dismissal, the possibility of fears unexpressed was passed over. At another point, she found that he was disappointed at not getting to go to a basketball tournament. Instead of attempting to determine whether or not the disappointment was related to other issues, she merely recorded it, appending the opinion that the farm work which the boy was compelled to do was probably not suited to him and that he might be expected to be disappointed. The point that catharsis is primarily concerned with helping the child to uncover deeper sources for his defects was overlooked; to the teacher a disappointment was simply a disappointment. This same tendency is quite evident among the reports of the teachers who participated

in the second experiment, as well as in the reports of other teachers in the first one. One should remember that the teachers in the second experiment were dealing with presumably nonproblem children. Teacher A. 2, who was dealing with a little girl who had given evidence that compulsive mechanisms might be operating, was instructed to probe gently for such mechanisms. The specific instruction, supplemented by oral explanation, was, "Ask her if there are thoughts which go over and over in her mind, also if there are some things which have to be done 'Just so.'" Accordingly, when the child spoke of pinning pictures on a frieze which her art class was making, the teacher asked her if they had to be put on "just so" or if they could be put on "most any way." The child indicated that they could be put on "most any way," so the matter was dropped and the teacher reported an absence of compulsive mechanisms. Teacher H. 2 asked the child, "Are you afraid in the dark?" The child's answer was a head shake. The teacher's report of the conference included the following statement: "She doesn't seem to have any fear of the dark."

A great many more instances, comparable to those above, show that the teachers had a tendency to dispose of points in question as routine matters; indeed, one has the impression that they merely wished to assure themselves that they had "tested for that."

The second difficulty observed was formulated to cover a great many instances where the point of view of the teacher as a disciplinarian of a group and a purveyor of morals was not kept out of the conference. It is stated thus: *Difficulty Number Two: Teacher Deals With Problems the Child Creates, Rather Than With His Personal Problems.*

Selected Evidence: A great deal of evidence for this difficulty is presented in the reports of Teacher A. 1, who participated in the first experiment, dealing with a case in the field. The child was registered as being "Retarded, Repeater, Indifferent." This complaint, made against the child, conveys something of the teacher's orientation toward him, and it is striking that this attitude was not dispelled completely, although her reports would lead one to believe that she tried to displace it. After the first conference, her report stated, "I feel inadequate because I have antagonized the child so much previously." Later, when she and the child were repairing some equipment about the school building, she found that he could not pull some of the nails with which he was working. She made it a point, as a part of his cathartic treatment, to tell him that those nails were just like people who would never do what was wanted of

them, yet availed themselves nothing. Here was definite orientation toward showing the child his place in the social order—an out and out lecture on conformity. Needless to say, it did not promote catharsis. In the second experiment, Teacher J. 2 said, with regard to a small girl, “—we should show her that she must have these other subjects.” (In addition to the favorite ones about which the child had spoken.)

The most convincing evidence that teachers deal with the problems the child creates rather than with those which he faces is found in examining their conference techniques. One teacher quite obviously set goals for the conference and pursued the information she had in mind without regard for the child's tendency to resist probing. This is definitely setting up social goals (involving the child and the teacher) as more important than the personal reactions of the child. While this may be good therapy in some cases, it is certainly not conducive to catharsis. There was also much “pounding away” after a child had said, “I don't know.” Teacher B. 1, working in the first experiment, quite obviously paid so much attention to the anxiety of the child's parents concerning her lack of ability in reading that she fostered a petulant “don't care” attitude in the child. She referred to the child as “stubborn,” a designation which implies recognition of the child's reaction against society, but which does not illuminate the child's point of view as would some adjective relating to an estimate of the child's own difficulties.

In contrast with the above view of the child's problems, one teacher said, “He told one of his dreams about a huge bird with a ruler in its claw. It chased P—— and his sister out of the bedroom and tried to scratch and hit them. He said it always seemed to be after them and they couldn't get away. . . . I plan to meet with P—— next Tuesday. I would like to ask him more about his dreams to see if he often has dreams of ‘something after him.’ I would like to be able to help him see that he wants to go to school . . . but I want him to come to the conclusion himself.”

The third difficulty observed is: *Difficulty Number Three: Didactic Procedures Improperly Used.* This difficulty refers to using the cathartic conference as a teaching situation rather than as one in which the child achieves free emotional expression. While it may overlap considerably with the previous difficulty, it is discussed separately because, in some instances, it might be considered as a difficulty to be treated through direct instruction in conference techniques, while the former one would imply a more thorough training.

Selected Evidence: Teacher B. 1, who dealt with a twelve-year old girl, gave up the conferences after a few tries because the girl was too defensive. In a report, she said, "We talked about cultivating the habit of becoming angry and she cried." It is quite evident from the rest of the report that the child did not introduce the subject of "cultivating the habit of becoming angry" into the conference. Such a direct didactic approach would doubtless strike a death blow to any effective catharsis. In a later report, the teacher suggested to the child that, since she took some interest in 4-H work, she should become an outstanding leader in the field. In the next conference, she started outlining questions as follows: "You want to be a 4-H state leader. Do you think you will be one?" (Answer: "I don't know.") "Why?" (Answer: "I don't know.") "Why don't you know?" (Answer: "I don't know and I don't care.") In the second experiment, there were several instances of "educational suggestion" after the pattern: "But you don't worry about *that*, do you?"

The fourth difficulty observed is: *Difficulty Number Four: Ineptitude at Following Trends in the Material Presented.* If one is to be helpful to a person in facing his problems, it is desirable that he be able to systematize the material presented and evaluate it. Most of the teachers observed in this experiment manifested much interest in what the child said, but seemed at a loss to know what comments warranted further questioning, how the questions could be phrased, or what the material meant. Although psychologists would not agree upon what the material meant, it is important that the director of a cathartic conference have some idea of the dynamics of behavior as a frame of reference.

Selected Evidence: In the second experiment, Teacher A. 2 had a girl of six who presented much verbal material and whose conversation indicated a tendency to over-categorize values and events. Compulsive mechanisms seemed likely to the investigator, who heard the conference through the screen. In the first conference, the child said: "One time I started to dream about wild tigers and lions. I started to get scared so I made myself quit." This might well have been followed to see the nature of the division of the personality, the character of the force which was active in "making herself quit." The teacher neither followed this lead at the time, nor did she return to it later.

Teacher B. 2 had a boy of nine who had retreated from competitive situations and who displayed a great deal of fantasy. The child said: "I wouldn't want to drive a gas truck, though; they

might explode." This was followed with a moment of solemn silence. Questions which suggested themselves to the investigator were, "Are there other things which might explode?" "What do you do when you are frightened?" Tell me about some time when you were frightened, or listened to a story which scared you."

Teacher K. 2 had a girl of seven years who seemed quite worried about debts owed by her parents. Following a suggestion made by the investigator, the teacher asked the child if she had ever imagined that she had parents other than her own. The child replied that she had, and seemed eager to go on, but the teacher did not ask her to tell about them, or encourage her to tell what kind of people they were. Instead, she changed the subject.

Teacher J. 2 had a child quite talented in music, who exclaimed with some emotion, "I made a mistake at school." Instead of trying to bring out the child's ideas about mistakes and what they signified, the teacher let the matter drop, did not take it up later, and did not mention it in her report.

Other evidences of the same tendency are not included, since space is limited. It is not supposed that any two persons directing conferences would follow the same leads in all cases, but the strength of this factor lies in the great many questions which the children's conversation suggested to the investigator and the very few which were asked by the teachers, even when conversation seemed to lapse and the child left initiation of a new topic up to the teacher.

Difficulty Number Five is stated: *Disruption of Regular Arrangements, Disciplinary Problems.*

Selected Evidence: In a special letter written between conferences by Teacher D. 1, who handled a case in the field in the first experiment, she asked advice concerning the "cocky" behavior of the boy with whom she was working. He was a high-school lad, and it seemed that he was reacting to the attention given him by reversing his originally introvertive behavior. Perhaps the boy had been inhibited and therefore "good" and now had offended the teacher in her position of disciplinarian. In any event, the cathartic conferences brought up a disciplinary problem. Teacher A. 1, working with another case in the field, wrote stating that she had antagonized the child a great deal previous to the diagnosis of the clinic and now experienced difficulty in controlling him. She stated that "since starting the conferences, he has not been crossed," which indicated that the conferences made it necessary to regard the child in a new light, one which broke with the teacher's previously organized ideas as to how discipline should be maintained.

Difficulty Number Six is stated: *Transference Developed by the Teacher Upon the Conference Situation.*

Selected Evidence: The child treated in the first experiment by Teacher B. 1 was extremely tense and fearful and seemingly could not stand the self-examination implied by cathartic conferences. Accordingly, the Clinic recommended that they be discontinued. In her letter, the teacher asked this question, which indicates that she had developed some transference or dependence upon the conference situation: "She is not very eager for them (the conferences) and might not ask for one. What should I do then?" In a later letter, she said: "I believe if I let L— wait until she wanted a conference, she wouldn't ask for one, since she is of that nature." In both of these letters, the teacher expressed the desire to continue with the conferences. This suggests quite strongly that the teacher had developed transference upon the conference situation as a forlorn hope in handling a problem to which she did not feel adequate.

Teacher D. 1, working with a case in the field, wrote stating that she had continued conferences after "there was nothing to talk about," indicating something of the same difficulty. It seems most likely that the teacher would misuse the child's time in this manner if she herself felt a need to "do something for someone" regardless of his need.

As a final difficulty, several aspects of the conference technique of the teachers are summarized and viewed from the light of possible correction by direct instruction of the teacher. This difficulty is stated: *Difficulty Number Seven: Mechanical Difficulties.*

One of the most glaring errors in technique was that of so phrasing questions as to give assurance or to suggest socially acceptable answers.

Selected Evidence: Teacher N. 2, in the second experiment, used the question, "What are the characteristics of a good sport?" addressing it to a fourteen-year-old girl. This is a question dealing with a more or less formal stereotype of character education and cannot be expected to call forth a great deal of true expression. Another question used by the same teacher was, "But you'd rather have true friends, wouldn't you?" A great deal of time was used in asking such questions as "What subjects do you take?" "In what activities do you participate?" The point of criticism of technique is that all these questions are directed at purely formal and stereotyped ideas, as parts of a sophisticated and "posed" attitude. "What things do you like most to write about?" is a much better question than "Do you like English Composition?"

A second error in technique is listed as "Blunt Attack." Teacher G. 2 started the conferences by assuring the child that nothing he said would be reported, even to his papa or mamma. The child's responsibility to "tell just how you feel" was stressed so much as to make the child react as though he felt that this was indeed a serious situation, one to be approached with a good deal of caution. In one or two cases, teachers said bluntly, "Tell me something about yourself." These questions seemed to embarrass the small children especially. The direct attack, "Tell me about yourself," has to be handled with caution even with hardened adults.

Most of the teachers exhibited a great deal of tenseness, and a few of them seemed almost to be victims of stage fright. The tenseness was most evident when the teacher was trying to direct the trend of the conversation. Only two teachers, Teacher C. 2 and Teacher K. 2, seemed to be relaxed and alert at the same time. The rest of the group seemed to be about equally divided between those who were relaxed and helpless and those who were tense and ill at ease. Working under observation might have increased the tendency to tenseness.

Conference planning was a point of difficulty. The teacher seemed to be faced with one of two alternatives: either to have a plan which was carried through without regard for the child's feelings, or to have no plan at all. Of the two, the latter was probably least dangerous. Practice in holding conferences of various kinds seems to be indicated in training teachers for this type of work.

Questions were often phrased without much appreciation for the age-level of the child. "Why are we not as good as we should be?" is a difficult question, even for most psychologists. For a young child, "Tell me what you do when you are bad," would be more understandable, and deals with material which is more concrete for the child. A critical study of questions designed to suggest real expression rather than to bring out conventional answers is needed. The same question may be good at one age level and very bad at another.

There was a lack of progressive order in questioning in many cases. Oftentimes, the teacher would begin with very personal material, giving the child no time to become adjusted to the conference situation. Other teachers started in a casual manner, but refused to allow the trend of the conversation to achieve any seriousness.

SUMMARY

The difficulties encountered by teachers holding cathartic conferences with school children diagnosed in extension clinics of the Fort Hays Kansas State College Psychological Clinic were found to correspond quite closely to difficulties encountered by fourteen students in the summer school, ten of whom were teachers, in holding cathartic conferences with children picked at random from homes near the campus.

Difficulties noted have been subsumed under the following concepts:

1. Uncritical acceptance of the child's story.
2. Tendency to deal with the problems which the child creates rather than with those he faces as internal conflicts.
3. Improper use of didactic procedures.
4. Ineptitude at following trends in the material presented.
5. Disruption of regular arrangements, disciplinary problems.
6. Transference developed by the teacher upon the conference situation.
7. Mechanical difficulties.

Further research might well be concerned with attacking these difficulties, controlling the experience and preparation of teachers for such work by: (1) Creating an appreciation of the importance of the individual and his conflicts as opposed to discipline based upon formal classroom rules; (2) improving the teacher's technical knowledge of the structure of personality through study of the psychology of personality and through practice in holding cathartic conferences under competent direction.

It seems amiss to conclude this paper without reference to the light which it throws upon some of our ideals of democracy and on the function of the school teacher. Louttit (10) has summarized investigations pointing out the fact that teachers view the child as a potential disturber of the peace, while mental-hygienists and psychologists are prone to interpret behavior problems in terms of their danger to the integration of the child's personality. In school administration one bumps often against the idea that there must be many "formal rules" so that everyone can be treated alike. The psychologist views each person as having individual needs, and views justice as adjustment to these needs. The teacher cannot lean upon formal rules to any great extent if she really meets the needs of her pupils. The prevalence of didactic measures, the calling for stereotyped answers, the seeming urge to carry out an inflexible "program" for each conference all suggest that the teachers represented by this

sample value a fool-proof "system" more highly than a possible fallible but direct attack upon the problems of their pupils.

It is also suggested that teachers represented by those who participated in this study need to make a sharper distinction between the things one can do for a child independent of his coöperation, and the things which can be done only by the child himself, given a situation sympathetic to him as a human being. The tendency to "make people over" regardless of their wishes is probably not limited to school teachers. It is, however, exceedingly bad therapy, either in the cathartic conference or in everyday life.

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EFFECT OF EXPRESSIVE METHODS OF CHILD PSYCHOTHERAPY UPON INTELLECTUAL EFFICIENCY

VIOLA CAPREZ AMES

INTRODUCTION

Aristotle was the first to give expression to the term "catharsis." For him it meant the expression of an evil thought or emotion. Freud (2) broadened the term in his theory of psychoanalysis to mean an expression of pent-up feelings and ideas. Jung (3) used "catharsis" even more broadly. For him it means a cleansing, a full confession confirmed by the intellect and heart and accompanied by a release of the suppressed emotions. Jung has used painting as a means of "catharsis" for his patients. The purpose was to have the patient put on paper what came to him in phantasy and thus give it the status of a deliberate act. The giving of form to a repressed emotion forces a close study of the content and more complete experience of it.

Shaw (6) describes a number of cases where children were able to paint symbolically their secret fears and worries and as a result to show a marked improvement in their schoolwork.

Anna Freud has used dolls for children in play. The children identify persons with the dolls and express their love, hate or fear of that person in imaginative play.

Taft (8), in her book on dynamic therapy, speaks of the value of creative work in bringing about a balance of the forces in the organization of personality.

According to Jung (3) psychic suffering is not a definitely localized phenomenon, but rather a symptom of a wrong attitude assumed by the total personality.

Wellman (9), of the Child Welfare Bureau of the University of Iowa, in recent studies has found a gain in the intellectual efficiency of children as shown by an intelligence test. These results raise the problem of methods and techniques to be used in bringing about the maximum intellectual efficiency of a child.

It is the purpose of this study to investigate the effectiveness of a certain type of child training in accelerating the development of intellectual efficiency. By expressive methods is meant the use of different media through which the child can find self-expression for otherwise inarticulate ideas. Such media as finger-painting, clay

modeling, dramatization and freehand drawing give opportunity for the child to create or objectify his subjective feelings or ideas. By child psychotherapy is meant a method of treatment in readjusting the personality of children. The change in I. Q. means a change in the relation of mental age to chronological age as measured by an intelligence test.

The hypothesis upon which this research is based is that the personality can be integrated by that psychotherapy in which the child is given an opportunity to express himself through some art media.

METHODS OF PROCEDURE

In this study seven children were diagnosed into three types, a mentally retarded type, a cathartic type and an overaggressive type. The mentally retarded types were diagnosed by the staff of the Psychological Clinic of the Fort Hays Kansas State College. Cases A and B were placed in the mentally retarded group.

The inhibited and overaggressive cases were diagnosed on the reactions made during the psychometric examinations and the social and emotional reactions made to other children in the playroom of the Psychological Clinic of the Fort Hays Kansas State College. Cases E and F were placed in the inhibited group and cases D, G, and H in the overaggressive group.

Each child was given a Terman-Merrill, Revision of the Stanford Binet, Form L intelligence test and a Pintner-Paterson performance test as an initial test of their Intelligence Quotient, and a Terman-Merrill, Form M intelligence test, a Detroit First-Grade and a Pintner-Paterson test as a terminal test of their Intelligence Quotient. Observations were made during the initial Pintner-Paterson test as to the emotional response of the child when faced with a complex problem and the same observations were made on the terminal tests to note any changes in responses over the experimental period.

The inhibited and overaggressive groups were between three and five years of age and were members of a group of children in the playroom of the Psychological Clinic. They were in this room five days a week for two hours each day. In this room the children were encouraged to express themselves freely and adequately through their own initiative. They were presented with such media as crayons, water colors, clay, toys, and puppets. The children were allowed to choose their own activities and carried out their own ideas as much as possible. At times they were given opportunity to

express themselves by means of puppet shows, dramatization and music interpretation.

In this room no attempt was made to train, stimulate or motivate the children. They were simply surrounded by as varied a group of constructive media as possible that they might have the opportunity to use the medium by which they could most readily express themselves. For instance, if a child entered the room and picked up a piece of clay, he was given no instructions as to how to use the clay and no model to work from. If the child decided to pound the clay he was allowed to do so.

The postulates which underlie the choice of method of this investigation are: (1) It is possible to envisage within each individual certain forces which, taken together, comprise the dynamic element of the personality. These various forces working in harmony allow a practical efficiency which approaches the potential efficiency of his personality. It is a matter of clinical observation that there is an interrelation between these forces. They can facilitate or inhibit one another. A child who is afraid is unable to think clearly and will not respond adequately to a test. If this postulate creates an accurate conception of the situation, a condition of harmony of the various forces should produce an acceleration in the development of mental efficiency as shown by an intelligence test.

(2) It is generally admitted that intelligence tests measure the mental efficiency of the personality at the time and under the conditions of the test. If this assumption is true, a personality after integration should show an acceleration in mental output.

Two teachers* and one observer took notes daily on the behavior of the children while in the playroom and behavior charts† were checked at intervals in order to record behavior changes. Each child had a number of conferences with the investigator, who directed all teaching in the Psychological Clinic. In these conferences the child was given some medium of expression such as finger-paint, water color, or crayons and asked to make what he liked. The investigator took notes on his behavior.‡ These conferences were from January 31, 1938, to May 1, 1939. The number of conferences varied from five for Case F; seven for Cases D, E and G; eight for Case H; fourteen for Case A to fifteen for Case B.

* See Appendix A of original study in library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

† See Appendix B of original study in library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

‡ See Appendix C of the original study in the library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

EXPERIMENT I, MENTALLY RETARDED CASES

Mentally retarded cases are ones which are characterized by a general deficiency. They may have varying degrees of motor incoördination, some defect such as a vision or hearing difficulty and frequently symptoms of malnutrition. Emotionally they may be either apathetic or swing from a state of hyperkinesis to one of hypokinesis. Mentally there may be aphasia, short attention span, distraction and slow, inefficient mental responses.

If we think of this schematically, we might represent the personality as a circle having a central supply of energy from which radiate very short vectors.

If these vectors are radiating out so as to drain force from the personality output line, the result will be a very short or inefficient response. The problem in this case is to integrate these vectors so as to shorten the aphasic spells, lengthen the attention span, eliminate distraction and as a result lengthen the personality output. This should bring about an increase in mental ability proportional to the amount of integration possible.

It was noted that Case A was hampered in her responses by motor incoördination, distraction and a short attention span. Her Intelligence Quotient on the Pintner-Paterson was found to be 45 and on a Terman-Merrill, Form L, her Intelligence Quotient was 40. Her chronological age was eighteen years.

Beginning January 3 and ending February 28 she was given fourteen conferences alone with the investigator. During each conference she was given some means of expression, either finger-paint, water color or crayons, and asked to make anything she liked. During these conferences, it was noted that while she seemed to enjoy playing with the media, her principal satisfaction seemed to be in having the opportunity to talk freely with someone who was willing to listen. She talked constantly during conferences about things at home and at school, some of which seemed true and some phantasy. This was considered to be a form of catharsis. During this period the teachers observed that she seemed to make no gain in emotional control.

At the end of the fourteen conferences she was given a Cornell-Coxe and her Intelligence Quotient found to be 30 and a Terman-Merrill, Form M, and her Intelligence Quotient was found to be 41.

Case B is also handicapped by motor incoördination which caused a loss on the time score. She seemed to lack insight and worked

entirely by trial and error on the initial Pintner-Paterson. Her Intelligence Quotient was 38. Her chronological age was ten years, five months.

During the initial Terman-Merrill she seemed interested in the test and seemed to be cooperating as long as it was purely performance, but on the verbal tests she refused to talk aloud and whispered her answers. Her Intelligence Quotient was 32.

Case B seemed to gain catharsis during conferences by giving expression to destructive feelings and feelings of defiance.

She made gains in her emotional control and also Intelligence Quotient during this study. Her Intelligence Quotient on the Terman-Merrill was raised sixteen points.

It was concluded that case B's initial low score was partially due to lack of rapport, but lack of rapport was taken to be a sign of personality instability since no one had been able to get a test on her except the investigator who first tested her in 1936, getting an Intelligence Quotient of 36 on a Detroit First Grade, Form A. The fact that her emotional control did become more stable was taken to indicate that her personality was becoming better integrated and so reacting in a more efficient manner.

She was given the same type of conferences as Case A. She worked in absolute silence and seemed to be expressing herself emotionally, sometimes she smeared the paint over the table as though she delighted in expressing her individuality and in doing things ordinarily forbidden. During these conferences, the teachers observed a decided change for the better in emotional behavior. Similar reports were received from the parents and housemother.

At the end of fifteen conferences she was given a Cornell-Coxe and her Intelligence Quotient was found to be 58, and a Terman-Merrill, Form M, and her Intelligence Quotient found to be 48.*

In this experiment Case A made no gains which may be explained by the fact that for a number of years she has been in special remedial rooms and is well adjusted socially. In this case there is the possibility that her maximum efficiency has been reached.

Case B has been in a special remedial room only one year previous to this and is socially and emotionally unadjusted. In her case the therapy did produce results in that both the intelligence and emotional checks showed improvement.

* See Appendix D of the original study in the library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

EXPERIMENT II, OVERAGGRESSIVE CASES

Overaggressive cases are usually described as domineering. They want to lead in all the activities, to boss the other children and some times they bully their playmates. When faced with complex situations they typically become frustrated and react with irritation.

We think of the personalities of these cases as having a central force from which radiate vectors. These vectors are well integrated, but the efficiency line is misdirected and needs to be sublimated.

There were three children of this type: Case D, Case G, and Case H. Case D was given a Pintner-Paterson test and her reactions noted. She was very calm in working, but gave up much too easily. She was eager to start a new test, but lost interest in it almost as soon as it was started. Her Intelligence Quotient was found to be about 169. Her chronological age was three years and no months. On February 9 she took a Terman-Merrill, Form L. Her Intelligence Quotient was found to be 136.

Beginning February 28, she came to a series of conferences with the investigator. During these conferences she was presented with finger-paint, colored crayons, clay and materials for freehand drawing. She was asked to make whatever she liked. At first she did not like the paint and kept washing her hands. She was very restless and tired of the paint very soon. She talked some, but it was about things that had happened in the playroom. After a few conferences she began to be more interested in the figures she was able to make.

In the playroom she was given the opportunity of drawing, coloring, painting, working with clay, dramatizing, playing with puppets, dancing, playing games, etc., with a group of children of about her own age. Her teachers reported her as quick and aggressive. She was very sadistic and always wanted to be the center of attention. She sometimes threw temper tantrums. This type of reaction continued up until March 18. Then she became more coöperative and happy with the children, although she remained independent in her point of view and determined in purpose. Occasionally she threw temper tantrums and showed some irritability. Beginning with April 8, she seemed to tire very easily and would lie down and rest. At these times she seemed very irritable.

After a few weeks in the playroom she developed a tendency to phantasy. She seemed very sensitive to everything around her. She seemed unable to shut out stimulation and swayed from one emotion to another until she seemed to burn up all of her energy and then she would say, "I am tired, I want to lie down."

On the terminal test, Terman-Merrill, Form M, her Intelligence Quotient was 144; on a Detroit First-Grade test her Intelligence Quotient was 157; and on the Pintner-Paterson it was 172.*

On February 28, the teachers rated her on a personality score sheet, and again May 20. It was found that the teachers checked her as having improved in: less destructive of materials, more obedient, fewer temper tantrums, less rude, less nervous, more social and less inclined to act silly.

During the terminal Pintner-Paterson, case D was eager to begin. She did not tire so that she finished fourteen tests as compared to eleven on the initial test. On the initial test she gave up on five out of eleven and on the terminal four out of fourteen. She showed very little frustration on the tests and seemed quite happy in working with the forms.

During the Terman-Merrill, it was noted she was more imaginative and in the picture interpretation she seemed to show marked improvement in her ability to make deeper and broader interpretations.

Case D, at the time of the first performance test, was familiar with such tests. This might account for her high initial performance on the Pintner-Paterson. The rise in her Intelligence Quotient of eight points on the Terman-Merrill seemed due to feelings of assurance, more emotional stability when faced with a problem and an increase in ability to interpret situations as shown by responses to pictures in the Terman-Merrill tests.

Case G was given a Pintner-Paterson test February 2. He did the first two tests, but on the third board he kept saying "Where does this belong?" and wanted to stop. He asked to do an easier one and finally gave up. On the fourth form he seemed to be embarrassed because he could not put it together, piled the blocks in a heap and looked at the operator as though he knew he was doing something naughty and expected to be punished.

He seemed sadistic when the puzzles were hard. He acted as though he wanted to get revenge on the clinician for his difficulty. On puzzle six he refused to try. On seven he began talking about skating as though he wished to avoid trying. He seemed very tired so took only eleven forms. His Intelligence Quotient was 84. His chronological age was four years and eight months. His Intelligence Quotient on a Terman-Merrill, Form L, was 104.

* See Appendix D of the original study in the library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

Beginning March 23, Case G received eight special conferences with the clinician. During these conferences he was given finger-paint, crayons, paper and pencil and asked to make whatever he liked. He seemed to enjoy the painting and other media. He soon developed an ability to make very good forms and enjoyed using very brilliant colors. He showed a tendency to phantasy very soon after the conferences started and during one conference painted symbolically an incident in his life and talked it over with the clinician as though it were a story he was making up concerning another little boy.

His teachers reported Case G as a good leader, somewhat defensive and exhibitionistic. He wanted to be the center of the stage and thought some of the games very silly. He did not care for poetry or literature.

At the end of the conferences his teachers reported the following improvements: more truthful, less impertinent, less inclined to bully others, less rude, less selfish, less shy and restless.

On the terminal Terman-Merrill, Form M, his Intelligence Quotient was 111; on the Detroit Primary it was 120; and on the Pintner-Paterson 100.* He seemed very interested and did not tire during the test. He showed no irritation, no frustration and tried on all fourteen tests.

He gave up on only four out of fourteen tests as compared to six out of eleven on the initial test.

Case G made a gain of seven points on the Terman-Merrill tests and a gain of sixteen points on the Pintner-Paterson tests. His gain on the Pintner-Paterson seemed to be due to a complete loss of signs of frustration, excitement, embarrassment and resentment and the ability to remain interested in the test to its completion.

Case H was given a Pintner-Paterson as an initial test. She completed the first four forms and the Manikin. She seemed hyperkinetic and moved about the room a good deal, laughed and talked very loudly. She seemed eager to cooperate, but became very tense when she did not quite understand what was expected of her.

On the "Triangle-Form" she became very frustrated and seemed embarrassed because she could not complete it. She made relatively few moves, but sat and studied for a second or so and then looked about, talked about other things or made remarks concerning the boards. Her chronological age was four years and no months.

* See Appendix D of the original study in the library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

Her Intelligence Quotient was 174. On a Terman-Merrill, Form L, her Intelligence Quotient was 141.

She seemed very hyperkinetic and tense, but she wanted to cooperate. She became frustrated when faced with difficult problems. She wished to initiate all projects and resented domination. She tried to domineer all situations as well as all people. She liked to be noticed and became very noisy in an attempt to be recognized. She talked very loudly, ran about and laughed a good deal. At times she became rather silly.

She was given eight conferences with the clinician. She seemed very imaginative and inclined to phantasy. She enjoyed the finger-paint and the water colors most.

Her teachers reported that Case H liked to take the lead in everything. She liked to tell the others what to do and how to do it. She resented being ordered about. She followed instructions very well.

At the end of the series of conferences, they reported Case H improved in the following: in not bullying others, in obedience, in temper tantrums, in less selfishness, in less stubbornness and domineering of others.

On the Terman-Merrill, Form M, terminal, her Intelligence Quotient was 144 and on a Detroit First Grade it was 149. On a Pintner-Paterson it was 154.*

On the initial Pintner-Paterson, Case H did not complete four out of the twelve tests. She seemed to tire and lost interest in the forms. On the terminal test she did not complete five out of fourteen tests.

In this group Case D made a gain from Intelligence Quotient 136 to Intelligence Quotient of 144, as shown by Terman-Merrill's and from Intelligence Quotient 169 to Intelligence Quotient 172, as shown on Pintner-Paterson. She showed a gain in emotional control up to a certain extent. She had fewer temper tantrums, seemed less exhibitionistic and more social, but there seemed to be a gain in hyperkinesis and in sensitivity to stimulation. She seemed unable to shut out or make a choice of stimulation. She increased in imaginativeness and phantasy and gained a deeper and broader insight into situations.

Case G gained from an Intelligence Quotient of 104 to an Intelligence Quotient of 111, on a Terman-Merrill, and from an Intelligence Quotient of 84 to 100 on a Pintner-Paterson. He gained a great deal more emotional control. He developed a liking for poetry

* See Appendix D of the original study in the library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

and literature and seemed to lose almost all of his tenseness and defensiveness.

Case H gained only three points on the Terman-Merrill tests and lost twenty points on the Pintner-Paterson. She seemed to make no gains in her mental efficiency which was already very high, but there was a gain in emotional control. Her loss on the Pintner-Paterson seemed to be caused by the development of a tendency to be too dependent. She asked for help or gave up too easily on several tests and seemed to tire before the test was completed. Her score was still relatively high, so these may be signs of a relaxation of the extremely strong drive which she manifested at first.

In this case the personality probably was already well integrated.

EXPERIMENT III, INHIBITED CASES

Cases diagnosed as needing catharsis are characterized by being shy, inhibited children who give up too easily and feel very dependent on others.

We think of this type of personality as having a part of the vectors blocked off by a complex so that the full personality force cannot come through in the efficiency line.

The problem here is to release the complex so that that force can be again sublimated into the efficiency line and so strengthen it.

Cases E and F were found to be cathartic cases.

Case E took a Pintner-Paterson test on February 1, and her Intelligence Quotient found to be 130. Her chronological age was three years and one month. She was very calm during the test and showed no signs of frustration. She gave up very readily because she grew too tired. Her Intelligence Quotient on a Terman-Merrill, Form L, was 123.

Case E was given seven special conferences, in which she finger-painted, water-colored or drew freehand. She did not like the finger paint, but enjoyed the water color very much. She seemed especially interested in colors. She liked to mix new colors and was delighted with the results.

Her teachers reported her as being well adjusted, easily persuaded by the other children and a good helper. She talked very loudly when excited. She liked literature and poems and soon began to create poems and make up tales.

The teachers reported an improvement in the following: more obedient, more reliable, less fearful, and improvement in speech.

On the terminal Terman-Merrill, Form M, her Intelligence Quo-

tient was 148; on a Detroit First Grade it was 150 and on a Pintner-Paterson it was 140.*

During the terminal Pintner-Paterson, Case E finished fourteen tests as compared to the initial test of nine forms. She did not tire nor ask to stop although she did give up too easily and seemed frustrated at times. She did not complete five out of nine forms on the first test and did not complete five out of fourteen on the terminal test.

Case F made an improvement of twenty-five points on the Terman-Merrill tests and of ten points on the Pintner-Paterson. This seemed to be due to an increase in the ability to freely express herself when faced with a problem. In the terminal tests, she seemed to be making more overt responses even though they were not efficient and seemed to result in some signs of frustration. Here the forces of the personality seemed released and coming through with more force, but seemed to now present the problem of redirection. A longer period of work with such children should result in an elimination of this second problem.

Case F took a Pintner-Paterson test on January 28. She finished the first test, but on the Seguin board she became very frustrated when the boards did not fit. She slapped the pieces and tried to force them in place. She became very excited and reprimanded the pieces for not going in place. On the "Five Figure," she gave up too easily and asked for help. On the "Two Figure," she tried to force the pieces in place and became a little frantic in her efforts when urged to speed. On the "Triangle," she became so excited she twisted about on the chair and shook her hands. She kept saying "That old pickle face." On the "Profile," she acted disgusted and finally began to act silly in an embarrassed manner. Her Intelligence Quotient was found to be 141. Her chronological age was three years and seven months. On a Terman-Merrill, Form L, her Intelligence Quotient was 116.

Case F was given a series of conferences. She was given different media and asked to make what she liked. She attempted symbolic pictures at once and phantasied a great deal.

Her teachers reported her as being well adjusted in the room and being coöperative, as having a wide range of imagination and inclined to tell imaginative stories, was rather shy and inclined to pull at her dress frequently.

* See Appendix D of the original study in the library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

At the close of the conferences her teachers reported her improved in the following traits: more obedient, less careless, less silly, improved in speech, with less tendency to interrupt.

On the terminal Terman-Merrill, Form M, her Intelligence Quotient was 130; on a Detroit First Grade her Intelligence Quotient was 140; and on a Pintner-Paterson it was 128.*

Case F made a rise of fourteen points in Intelligence Quotient on the Terman-Merrill tests and a loss of thirteen points in Intelligence Quotient on a Pintner-Paterson. On the Pintner-Paterson test her reaction seemed to have changed from one of frustration, extreme excitement and a feeling of inadequacy to one of less excitement, less frustration but a tendency to give up or ask for help. Here again the problem seems to be one of released force needing direction.

On the terminal Pintner-Paterson, Case F did not complete seven out of fourteen tests as compared with four out of eleven on the initial test. She showed some frustration and gave up rather easily, but she was much improved and finished the test without tiring.

INITIAL TESTS

	Pintner- Paterson	Terman- Merrill Form L	Detroit Primary Form D
	I. Q. 45		
	C. A. 16		
Case A	M. A. 7-3	I. Q. 40	I. Q. 50
	I. Q. 38		
	C. A. 10-6		
Case B	M. A. 4	I. Q. 32	I. Q. 36
	I. Q. 169		
	C. A. 3		
Case D	M. A. 5-1	I. Q. 136
	I. Q. 130		
	C. A. 3-3		
Case E	M. A. 4-0	I. Q. 123
	I. Q. 141		
	C. A. 3-7		
Case F	M. A. 5-1	I. Q. 116

* See Appendix D of the original study in the library of the Fort Hays Kansas State College.

	I. Q. 84		
	C. A. 4-9		
Case G	M. A. 4-0	I. Q. 104
	I. Q. 174		
	C. A. 3-11		
Case H	M. A. 6-10	I. Q. 141

TERMINAL TESTS

	Pintner- Paterson	Terman- Merrill Form M	Detroit First-Grade Form A	Cornell- Coxe
				I. Q. 30
				C. A. 16
Case A		I. Q. 41	M. A. 5-8
				I. Q. 58
				C. A. 10-9
Case B		I. Q. 48	M. A. 6-4
	I. Q. 172			
	C. A. 3-4			
Case D	M. A. 5-9	I. Q. 144	I. Q. 157
	I. Q. 140			
	C. A. 3-11			
Case E	M. A. 5-6	I. Q. 148	I. Q. 150
	I. Q. 128			
	C. A. 3-11			
Case F	M. A. 5-7	I. Q. 130	I. Q. 140
	I. Q. 100			
	C. A. 5-0			
Case G	M. A. 5-0	I. Q. 111	I. Q. 120
	I. Q. 154			
	C. A. 4-5			
Case H	M. A. 6-10	I. Q. 144	I. Q. 149

The original postulates were: (1) that the various forces of personality if working in harmony allow a practical efficiency which approaches the potential efficiency of the personality; (2) a well integrated personality should show an increase in mental output.

The following cases seem to substantiate the above postulates.

1. Case B made a gain in emotional control and a gain in Intelligence Quotient of sixteen points as shown by the Terman-Merrill tests.

2. Case D made a gain in emotional control and a gain in Intelligence Quotient of eight points.

3. Case G made a gain in emotional control and a gain in Intelligence Quotient of seven points.

4. Case E made a gain in emotional control and a gain of twenty-five points in Intelligence Quotient.

5. Case F made an emotional control gain and a gain of fourteen points on her Intelligence Quotient.

6. Cases A and H made no significant emotional control gains and no significant gains in Intelligence Quotient which would indicate that where no personality integration takes place no rise in Intelligence Quotient occurs.

This study indicates that further research should be done on this problem because of the limited number of cases and the short period of time used in carrying on this research. The large gains in three of these cases in spite of the limited time would seem to indicate the value of such a therapeutic method.

Practice effect may have been a factor in some of the gain although this is usually considered to be too small to be significant.

No control group was used, but in other research it has been found that with normal children under ordinary conditions there is no significant rise in I. Q.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Cases already relatively well integrated in personality made no gains under the method employed in this study.

2. Cases having destructive and sadistic feelings seemed to gain catharsis and as a result showed more emotional stability as well as a rise in the intelligence quotient.

3. Cases diagnosed as mentally retarded seemed to have a personality disintegration which interfered with their efficient responses to mental problems.

4. Overaggressive cases improved in proportion to the amount of redirection of the personality expressions.

5. Cases diagnosed as needing catharsis made the largest gain in intelligence quotient as measured by the tests.

6. Overaggressive cases showed the most emotional control improvement.

7. Cathartic cases seem to develop a second problem—*i. e.*, problems of redirecting released forces.

8. One case showing an extremely strong drive, gained a relaxation from this method which resulted in a small loss of mental efficiency, but with a gain in emotional control.

SECONDARY FINDINGS

1. The Cornell-Coxe was found to be far too difficult for children between the ages of three to five.
2. The Pintner-Paterson is not a highly discriminative test, which made it difficult to find performance I. Q's.

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