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THE UNIVERSITY OF DETROIT

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
SELF-INSIGHT AND POPULARITY

A THESIS

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The study of popularity becomes increasingly important as society becomes more complex and human interaction becomes more involved. In much of modern society popularity in some form is necessary for success. Without it the diplomat, the politician, and the salesman could not continue in their respective roles. Therefore, any study that yields new knowledge about the nature of popularity or its relationship to other characteristics of personality contributes to the advancement of society.

#### Points at Issue

This thesis is an investigation of the relationships between popularity and insight into one's personality. That is, does the more popular person have more insight into his personal characteristics than the less popular person? Former studies have shown that better adjusted persons have more insight into their personalities than less well adjusted persons, i.e., that the former possess more self-understanding. It has also been found that leaders often possess better adjusted personalities than nonleaders, and leaders also possess more self-insight. On logical grounds, then, it would seem that popular persons would have more insight into their personalities than nonpopular persons.



The concepts of popularity, leadership, friendship, and dominance are not, of course, synonymous, but there is a close relationship between them that should be considered at this time.

Popularity is generally defined as the possession of the confidence and favor of a group of people. The popular person is not always a leader, but the leader is always popular. The former may be a good fellow in his group or the life of the party, but he does not necessarily direct group activities toward a definite end. Quite often his main role is that of an informal entertainer--group members may find it pleasant to be with him. However, he may possess all the necessary characteristics of a leader but make no attempt to assert himself. The leader, on the other hand, is defined by Pigors in the following manner:

Any person may be called a leader when, and in so far as, his will, feeling, and insight direct and control others in the pursuit of a cause which he represents.<sup>1</sup>

This definition implies that the leader would not be a leader if the situation was not such that the group needed a leader. Otherwise, whether or not he will become a leader is not completely determined by him, but is determined by the situation and by the relations between group members. The most important implication here is that the leader must assume responsibility for group action. The essential

1. Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination, p. 16.

difference between the popular person described above and the leader is responsibility. The leader must be popular and take the responsibility of guiding the group toward a mutually desired end. Leadership, as defined above, is often confused with dominance; however, Pigors points out that there are distinct differences between the two concepts, and gives the following definition:

Domination is a process of control in which by the forcible assumption of authority and the accumulation of prestige a person (through a hierarchy of functionaries) regulates the activities of others for purposes of his own choosing.<sup>2</sup>

It seems that popularity does not play a role in complete domination. The dominant head of the group may act in the best interests of the group, but he does so without regard for group wishes; whether or not group members understand the orders of the dominant authority they must obey. Pigors emphasizes that leadership often turns into dominance, and there is always some domination in an organized group.<sup>3</sup> A good example of the differences between leadership and domination are the differences between a democracy, in which the leaders are chosen by popular vote, and a dictatorship, in which the dictator assumes and maintains his position by force.

The relationship between popularity and leadership is

2. Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination, p. 74.
3. Ibid., pp. 74-79.



indicated in a study by Flemming. He did not define the terms personality, popularity, and leadership, because he felt that most persons were aware of the meanings. The subjects were seventy-one high school girls. The criterion for leadership was based on the positions a girl had held in school. From three to six of the girls' teachers were asked to check a list of 46 personality traits for each girl and to indicate on a ten point scale how much personality each girl possessed. Also, each girl indicated on a ten point scale the degree of pleasant feeling she subjectively felt for every other girl.

A correlation of .50 was found between leadership and personality as defined above. A correlation of .33 was found between leadership and pleasingness of personality as defined above. Further analysis of the data revealed four types of leaders: the entertaining, the brilliant, the culture-talented, and the just. There was a great deal of overlapping of types, and the most outstanding leaders possessed traits from each type. Flemming decided that the basic qualities of leadership were liveliness, wide interests, intelligence, good sportsmanship, ability to amuse, athletic prowess, a pleasant voice, and the absence of modesty.<sup>4</sup> The traits of leadership are mentioned here in order that they may be compared with the traits reported by Benney to

4. Edwin G. Flemming, "A Factor Analysis of the Personality of High School Leaders," Journal of Applied Psychology, XIX (1935), 596-605.

be important for the social success and friendships of children. Bonney investigated sociability in two ways: through trait rating of subjects by teachers and classmates, and by sociometric techniques. Three classes of fourth grade children were used as subjects. However, only the extreme quartiles (twenty in each quartile) were used in analyzing the data. The trait data were gathered by asking each student to rate three other students of his own choosing on twenty traits. Teachers also rated the students. The sociometric data were gathered at different times during the year when children were asked to indicate to whom they would like to give valentines, with whom they would like to work, to whom they would like to give Christmas presents, and to list the names of their best friends and the leaders in the class. A composite score for the sociometric data and the trait ratings was computed for each student.

The socially successful children were found to be reliably superior to the socially unsuccessful children in the following traits: tidiness, leadership, friendly, welcomed, good-looking, enthusiastic, happy, frequent laughter, at ease with adults, and active in recitations. These data led the author to suggest that social success does not go to the docile children. The traits which differentiated between the socially successful and the socially unsuccessful



children were found to form two syndromes. The first is composed of the strong aggressive traits listed above, that is, leadership, enthusiasm, daring, and participation in recitations. The second syndrome consists of those traits which are believed to be most important in interpersonal relationships. The most important of these traits are tidy, good-looking, frequent laughter, happy, friendly, and welcomed.

Out of twenty-two pairs of mutual friendships in the group, the following ten traits were found to be the most important in the friendship association: quiet, tidy, daring, leadership, friendly, welcomed, good-looking, enthusiastic, laughter, and active in recitations.<sup>5</sup>

When the traits necessary for leadership as reported by Flemming are compared with the traits necessary for social success and friendship as reported by Bonney, it is apparent that there is much overlapping and similarity between the terms. Because of the impossibility of separating the terms, popularity in this study will include the concepts of friendship, leadership, and dominance.

To some degree, most people exhibit many of the above mentioned characteristics. And it is reasonable to assume that a large number of them can be acquired or improved upon by the individual. Further, it is true that many

5. Merl E. Bonney, "Personality Traits of Socially Successful and Socially Unsuccessful Children," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIV (November, 1943), 449-73.

nonpopular individuals wish to be popular. If these assumptions are correct, then there are at least four possible inferences: (1) The nonpopular individual has insight into his personal characteristics, but he does not know how to correct or alter them. (2) The nonpopular person does not have insight into his personal characteristics; he does not know which positive characteristics he lacks and which negative characteristics he exhibits. (3) The popular person has self-insight and has utilized the knowledge derived from it to improve his personality. (4) The popular person lacks insight into his own personality characteristics.

#### The Nature of Insight

Before considering the problem brought out in these propositions it will be worthwhile to investigate the nature of insight. Landis and Bolles give the following definition of insight:

... a peculiar characteristic of consciousness, which attaches to a belief that is based on adequate evidence; in other words, it is self-understanding. In this particular sense, insight refers to the ability of making a self-judgment as to whether these phenomena ... are natural or morbid.<sup>6</sup>

O'Kelly states:

By insight is meant the understanding which a patient possesses of those psychological factors in his own past life as well as his present status which have been instrumental in influencing his behavior.<sup>7</sup>

6. Carney Landis, and Marjorie M. Bolles, Textbook of Abnormal Psychology, p. 50.

7. Lawrence I. O'Kelly, Introduction to Psychopathology, p. 736.



Roger's definition is as follows:

... the term implies the perception of new meaning in the individual's own experience. To see new relations of cause and effect, to gain new understanding of the meaning which behavior symptoms have had, to understand the patterning of one's behavior--such learnings constitute insight.<sup>8</sup>

A comparison of these typical definitions does not leave much doubt about the general agreement on the nature of insight. Each definition states, either implicitly or explicitly, that the essential element is self-understanding. However, the nature of insight does not explain how it may be employed to improve personality and increase popularity. Some of the outstanding values of insight to the individual have been pointed out by Allport. He believes that insight is necessary for any intelligent change in the individual. This does not mean that the acquisition of insight produces an automatic change in the individual. The individual must also have a new orientation, a plan for the future, and new motivation. Insight makes past mistakes understandable so that they need not be repeated again. It clarifies the relationships involved in needless worries and leads to their elimination. Insight enables one to realize his own hypocrisies, inconsistencies, and complex motives. The realization of these factors prevents one from judging his fellow men in terms of his own abnormalities--it prevents projection. The psychoanalysts have long realized that they must understand themselves before they can understand or

8. Carl R. Rogers, Counseling and Psychotherapy, p. 174.

help their patients.<sup>9</sup> For Rogers, development of insight involves seeing new relationships between old facts. Seeing and accepting the true pattern of relationships between old facts enables one to perceive less related facts in their true form. This leads to a gradual increase in self-understanding, and to acceptance of the self. This eliminates the need for compensatory attitudes of a defensive nature in the individual. One's repressed impulses tend to be brought to the forefront of consciousness and eventually accepted as a part of the person. The individual learns to face conflicting motives, and to make an intelligent, satisfying choice between them. These new perceptions lead to action on the part of the individual toward new achievements. In addition, the individual gains new confidence and independence.<sup>10</sup> The effects of insight in the individual can be summed up by saying that the acquisition of it enables one to see himself in true perspective. This perception leads to the disuse of defense mechanisms which generally require more energy to maintain than do the real facts.

How insight into one's personality is related to his attitudes toward his associates is indicated in Sears' experimental study of projection. Ninety-eight men in three fraternities were asked to rate themselves and their

9. Gordon W. Allport, Personality, p. 515.

10. Carl R. Rogers, Counseling and Psychotherapy, pp. 174-216.



fraternity brothers on thirty-one personality traits. In addition to this, they were asked to indicate five men in the fraternity whom they liked best and five whom they liked least. From these data the author computed a composite score for each man on each trait and for the amount of each trait he attributed to other men. The author considered that a man had insight if he rated himself in the same half of the distribution that his fraternity brothers rated him. Thus, if a man rated himself in the upper half of the group and the composite score for the fraternity brothers also placed him in the upper half of the group, he was considered to have insight. He was considered as lacking insight if he did not place himself in the same half of the distribution as the group placed him.

Statistical treatment of the data yielded the following four groups: (1) men who rated above average in a trait and who possessed insight, (2) men who rated above average in a trait and who did not possess insight, (3) men who rated below average in a trait and who possessed insight, (4) men who rated below average in a trait and who did not possess insight. It was found that men who possessed a trait to a high degree, but had no insight, rated others high on that trait--higher than did men who possessed as much of the trait but who possessed insight. A man who had self-insight would not attribute his trait of stinginess to another. There was a strong tendency for such a person to

attribute the opposite trait, generosity, to other persons. Projection in this study appeared to be confined to men who lack self-insight. The author further concluded that insight seemed to be a specific trait, i.e., a man might realize he is stingy but not realize that he is also obstinate.<sup>11</sup>

The relationship of insight and projection to popularity takes on greater importance when it is remembered that fairness in dealing with one's associates is one of the outstanding qualities of many popular persons. Studies dealing with fairness as an aspect of popularity will be reviewed at another point in this paper.

A question that has already been posed and which was implied again in the above study involves the incidence of insight in the general population. There are no known statistics that will answer this question, but authoritative writers have expressed opinions based on experience. Allport recounts the percentage of college students who believe they possess self-insight. Of the students in various psychology courses, ninety-six per cent believed that they possessed average or better than average insight. The remaining four per cent admitted a possible deficiency.<sup>12</sup> A quotation from O'Kelly may be used to clarify the results of the above study. O'Kelly believes:

... the concept of insight must include the idea that it is possessed in varying degrees by all people. No individual is completely insightful

11. Robert R. Sears, "Experimental Studies of Projection: 1. Attribution of Traits," Journal of Social Psychology, VII (May, 1936), 151-63.

12. Gordon W. Allport, Op. cit., p. 220.



for the determiners of his own behavior, and no individual is completely without awareness of the forces that shape his life. In general, the mentally ill person does have less insight but reasons for this are not simple. The degree of insight is dependent upon the type of problems faced and upon the amount of stress these problems engender.<sup>13</sup>

It hardly seems necessary to expand or clarify O'Kelly's discussion. However, it brings up a third question that has been previously raised: Under what conditions does the individual acquire insight? For Gross, insight is acquired as a result of conflict. He states:

Self-insight is the acceptance and the admission of both the presence and absence of personality traits within oneself when this acceptance runs counter to a system of emotionally toned ideas or when the admission of the presence or absence of these traits clashes with one's feelings of self-esteem...<sup>14</sup>

Gross assumed that at an earlier period of personality development--the age of college juniors--there would be a positive relation between the number of problem situations faced by an individual and the degree of self-insight, but that at a later period in personality development there would be a negative relation between the two variables. Some evidence in favor of the hypothesis was derived from the results of a questionnaire filled out by students. Gross' unique interpretation suggests that self-insight is acquired during or after periods of psychological conflict. This idea is in general agreement with that of Murphy and Levy

13. Lawrence I. O'Kelly, Op. cit., p. 48.

14. Llewellyn Gross, "The Construction and Partial Standardization of a Scale for Measuring Self-Insight," Journal of Social Psychology, XXVIII (November, 1948), 219-36.

whose opinions are given in the following quotation:

In judging oneself, the first problem is insight, an objective integral view.

.....  
 The rubrics which guide an individual in learning to understand others are not necessarily useful in judging himself. He struggles autistically against many of the available cues. The answer is usually the one which John Levy once gave: Insight can seldom be increased directly by a hammer-and-tongs method; rather, as a person works with his deeper problems, with the network of his motives, and discovers what he really wants, he finds that he has achieved insight. Insight comes as a late cognitive expression of the readjustment of the motive pattern.<sup>15</sup>

From all that has been said it is likely that everybody has some insight into his personality and the world about him. Some individuals possess more than others, and the amount of insight possessed is related to the age and amount of stress encountered by the individual. The opinions of Gross, Murphy, and Levy favor the idea that self-insight is gained during or after attempts to resolve psychological conflicts brought about by the interaction between the individual and his environment.

A related point that still remains to be considered is that an individual may have good self-insight and still make no effective attempt to eliminate his undesirable qualities. Even though he may realize what the undesirable qualities are, he doesn't change them because it is impossible for him to do so, or because he does not know how to eliminate them. Thorne is convinced that it is not impossible for

15. Gardner Murphy, Personality, pp. 659-660.



an individual to be fully aware of his displeasing behavior and still not know how to alter it in a more desirable direction. He maintains that the possession of self-insight is only the first step in personality improvement. It is understood that the desire to improve is fundamental. Self-insight may make it easier to acquire new methods of control, but it must be supplemented with planned action, determined in the light of newly gained insight into one's behavior, if it is to be effective.<sup>16</sup> If Thorne's contention is correct, we should expect to find a certain percentage of individuals in our group who have good self-insight and low popularity scores. Thorne's belief also implies that there is a positive relationship between the adequacy of personality and the degree of intelligence possessed. It may well be that the popularity of an individual is due to his motives, training, intelligence, physical features, and (more important for this investigation) to the fact that he has realized and worked to develop the personal qualities necessary for popularity.

16. Frederic C. Thorne, "The Psychology of Control," Journal of Clinical Psychology, V (October, 1949), 375-384.

## CHAPTER II

### RELATED STUDIES

The results of previous studies have indicated that there are several factors related to popularity other than those mentioned in the previous chapter.

Young and Cooper investigated popularity among 418 children in grades five through eight. The differences between the most popular and least popular eighths of the group were compared for thirty-three factors. Popularity was determined by requiring each child to turn in the names of three classmates whom he would like to have stay with him for a few days, sit next to him in school, and with whom he would like to go to a party. Thus, each subject made nine choices, and each choice was given a score of one. The Aspects of Personality Test and the California Test of Personality were also administered to the group. No significant differences were found between the popular and unpopular groups for the following factors: age, number of siblings, only child, habitation in broken home, socio-economic status, length of association, height, weight, body proportion, educational quotient, solitary interests, solitary activities, group interests, and group activities. Significant differences, in favor of the popular group, were found for: extroversion, school relations, personal worth, social standards, and feeling of belonging. The



following factors were also in the expected direction but not significant: emotional stability, self-reliance, sense of personal freedom, freedom from withdrawing tendencies, freedom from nervous symptoms, freedom from antisocial tendencies, social skills, family relations, and community relations. The facial attractiveness of the subjects was judged by three adults and three children. The correlation between popularity and attractive facial appearance was found to be the most significant finding of the study. The correlations between popularity and pleasing voice, and between popularity and pleasing appearance were also positive and in the expected direction but not significant. The authors suggest that facial appearance may provide an initial, superficial basis for popularity but is later displaced by behavioral elements.<sup>19</sup>

Hunt and Soloman observed twenty-three boys in a summer camp. The age of the subjects ranged from sixty-four to a hundred and six months. At the conclusion of eight weeks of summer camp, the authors found that the following factors aided the leader's status as time increased: generosity, physical attraction, ordered activity, obedience, and lack of egocentricity.<sup>20</sup>

Bonney administered the California Test of Personality

19. Lyle L. Young, and Dan H. Cooper, "Some Factors Associated With Popularity," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXV (December, 1944), 513-536.

20. J. McV. Hunt and R. L. Soloman, "The Stability and Some Correlates of Group Status in a Summer Camp of Young Boys," American Journal of Psychology, LV (January, 1942), 33-45.

and a trait scale covering traits like bossy, daring, good-looking, etc., to the three classes of fourth grade students employed in the study mentioned earlier. (p. 6) Each subject was required to complete the trait scale for three class friends. Popularity ratings were combined with teacher ratings to obtain a composite score. The results show that sex differences were not large, but were consistently in favor of the girls. The only reliable differences were for the traits, restless and fights, and both were higher for the boys. For these two traits, the most popular boys had reliably higher scores than most popular girls. Girls were generally rated as being more tidy, better looking, and more grown-up. Although the mean differences were not statistically reliable, the girls had a higher mean total score on the California Test of Personality than the boys: The only reliably high score was for the girls on social skills.<sup>21</sup>

Van Dyne studied thirty-five girls in a summer camp. The age range was from eleven years and two months to twenty-six years and six months. The average age was sixteen years and eight months. The Bernreuter Personality Inventory was completed by each girl. Three months later each girl was given a questionnaire which was designed to elicit information

21. Merl E. Bonney, "Sex Differences in Social Success and Personality Traits," Child Development, XV (June, 1944), 63-79.



concerning friendships. The results show that the closer the friendship, the closer was the chronological age of the friends. Girls tended to choose friends of similar chronological age, dominance, and sociability as measured in this study. Emotional stability, self-sufficiency, introversion, and self-confidence measures did not yield any significant results. The author concluded that the girls did not know whether they were dominant, submissive, introverted, sociable, etc. This conclusion was partly based on the girls' answer to the question, "Are you more-like your friends than unlike?"<sup>22</sup> In sort, they lacked self-insight.

Reader and English investigated personality factors in thirty-two pairs of female, college friends. The ages ranged from fifteen to twenty-five years. Each girl was given a battery of tests to aid in the determination and evaluation of personality factors. Each girl was also given a private interview. From these interviews the authors found that there was always some quality of a friend that was admired or envied by the subject. The religious, socio-economic, and cultural backgrounds of friends were strikingly similar. Age and educational backgrounds were also quite similar. As to why the friends were attracted to each other,

22. Virginia E. Van Dyne, "Personality Traits and Friendship Formation in Adolescent Girls," Journal of Social Psychology, XII (November, 1940), 291-304.

the authors concluded from the data at hand:

Our subjects tend to lack any understanding as to why it is they prefer certain individuals to others as friends. Making friends seems to be rarely a rational process. When pressed with the question of why she especially liked her friend in preference to others, subject after subject stated that this person was preferred to others because of certain 'unique' qualities of the friend. These qualities were invariably a group of stereotyped descriptive terms. In every case the friend was chosen because she was 'sincere', 'intelligent', and 'sweet'.

.....  
 We feel it is rather testimony to the lack of insight on the part of people as to their own emotional needs, and lack of awareness as to what it is in one's friends to which one is really responding.

The study as a whole indicated that the personalities of friends are much more similar than the personalities of non-friends. No particular area of personality seems to be especially important in the association. The total pattern must be considered to ferret out the mutual attractions.<sup>23</sup>

Ames investigated awareness of acceptance status among 217 sixth grade students. The social acceptance of each student was determined from the results of a social acceptance scale completed by the students. From the total group, ten students were selected from each of the following categories: accepted by the group, rejected by the group, and neutral in the group. The student's category was determined by his score on the social acceptance scale which was determined by a guess-who technique. The student's awareness of his social acceptance was determined by the same

23. Natalie Reader and Horace B. English, "Personality Factors in Adolescent Female Friendships," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XI (July, 1947), 212-220.



procedure, but a modified version of the social acceptance scale was used. The wording of the scales was altered so as to be more applicable to the individual student. The correlation between these scores yielded no significant results. Correlations between the awareness of status scores and scores derived from observation of students' behavior yielded no significant results. The author concluded that there was little evidence that the subjects in the study were aware of how well they were liked or disliked. However, she adds that much may be lacking in the reliability and validity of the scales employed.<sup>24</sup>

Green studied the relationship between personal adjustment and group status. He assumed that a well-adjusted individual should be able to make an accurate estimate of the rank of his status and the status of his associates. Secondly, he assumed that the degree of accuracy of an individual's estimate for the above factors should indicate his adjustment when compared with the average estimate of the group for the same factors. The subjects in this study were twenty-three graduate students at the Alexandria Institute of Education. These students had been together for two years and knew each other intimately. Each subject was given a list of the names of all members of the group, and was asked to rank himself and the others for leadership

24. Viola Caprez Ames, "Socio-Psychological Vectors in the Behavior and Attitudes of Children. II. Awareness of Acceptance Status," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXVI (May, 1945), 271-289.

attributes. The marking was based on a scale of four points. Four was the best possible rating to give and zero was used to mean a virtual absence of leadership ability. The results clearly show that twenty of the twenty-three subjects overestimated themselves, but quite accurately estimated the rank of other group members. The six men who received the highest ratings for leadership also overestimated their own ranks least.

Green repeated this study with twenty-three females at the English Girls' College at Alexandria. The results were similar to those found with men. But it was found that the male group overestimated themselves more than the female group. Only one male underestimated himself, while one-third of the females underestimated themselves. A second difference between the groups was that men selected as leaders those men whose ratings of class members was similar to the group's ratings for class members. The women chose as leaders those women whose ratings of group members differed from the ratings those individuals received from the whole group. The author believed that the differences may have been due to the heterogeneity of the female group rather than to sex differences. Green concluded that leaders know their own rank in the group and the rank of other members. Further, leadership is accompanied by good adjustment to the group and better than average insight.



Poor adjustment and insight are found to accompany neurotic symptoms.<sup>25</sup>

The tendency to overrate oneself which was evident in Green's study was investigated by Kinder. He asked forty-two women at the Pennsylvania College for Women to answer a questionnaire about themselves involving thirty personality characteristics. They were to rate themselves on a scale with the ratings of always, usually, frequently, sometimes, and never. A week later the author substituted the word average in the questionnaire title for the word you, and had the women fill it out again. When another week had passed, the word ideal was substituted for the word average in the questionnaire, and the questionnaire was again filled out by the same women. Although nothing had been said about the results of the three blanks, the group had filled out the same blank for the average college woman, the ideal college woman, and for themselves. The group as a whole rated themselves above the average college woman but below the ideal college woman.<sup>26</sup>

This tendency to overrate oneself has also been investigated by Luh and Sailer. These authors were interested in determining whether or not the tendency to overrate

25. George H. Green, "Insight and Group Adjustment," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LIII (January, 1948), 49-61.

26. J. S. Kinder, "Through Our Own Looking-Glass," School and Society, XXII (October, 1925), 533-536.

oneself was culturally determined. They used twenty students at the National Central University, Nanking, China as subjects. The subjects were required to rate themselves and the others for five personal characteristics: cleanliness, courage, good-looks, and judiciousness or shrewdness. The individual's self-estimate was then compared with the average group estimate of him. The results show that there was a distinct tendency for the subjects to overrate themselves on all characteristics.<sup>27</sup> The evidence for the tendency to overrate oneself that has been given in the above studies is in agreement with Green's results. It also indicates that we should expect some overrating in the present investigation.

In Green's study, it was concluded that good adjustment was found concomitantly with better than average insight. More evidence in this direction was found by Rogers and his associates in a study of self-understanding in the prediction of behavior. Rogers used the hypothesis that, if one was given enough information about the factors which determine an individual's behavior, it should be possible to rate these factors in such a way as to make possible the prediction of future adjustment. Actually two studies were made, identical in plan, but by different investigators.

27. C. W. Luh and R. C. Sailer, "The Self-Estimates of Chinese Students," Journal of Social Psychology, IV (April, 1933), 245-249.



In one study seventy-five subjects were employed, and seventy-six subjects were employed in the other study. The subjects were obtained from the files of the Bureau of Juvenile Research in Columbus, Ohio. The age range in the two studies was from seven years and nine months to eighteen years and one month. The most outstanding problems presented by the group were stealing, truancy, incorrigible behavior, untruthfulness, and sex misdemeanors. The factors in these cases that were studied and rated for favorableness or unfavorableness were heredity, physical condition, mental status, family environment, cultural background, social experience, educational experience, and self-insight. From the ratings given to each of these factors in each case, a prediction of behavior and adjustment was made. The degree of adjustment attained by each of the subjects two years later was then correlated with the predictions made on the basis of the factor ratings. There was found to be a positive correlation between each of the eight factor ratings and the later adjustment in both studies. The most outstanding correlation was between self-insight and future adjustment. The authors state: "... in predicting the behavior of a problem adolescent, the extent to which he faces and accepts himself, and has a realistic view of himself and reality, provides, of the factors studied, the best estimate of his future adjustment."<sup>28</sup>

28. Carl R. Rogers, B. L. Kell, and Helen McNeil, "The Role of Understanding in the Prediction of Behavior," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XII (May, 1948), 174-186.

Gross presented evidence that insight could be improved in the individual by specific methods of teaching. He used two classes of thirty-three students roughly comparable for age, socio-economic status, and intelligence. However, no rigid criteria were set up. One of the two classes was taught in the usual manner. The other was taught in a manner designed to develop self-insight in the class members. The self-insight scale developed by Gross was given to both classes at the beginning of the experiment and again five weeks later. The results show that in the class that was taught in a manner designed to inculcate self-insight, the scores on the self-insight scale increased thirteen points or more for 62.5 per cent of the class. Only ten per cent of the control class increased their scores by thirteen points or more.<sup>29</sup>

Jennings studied over 400 girls between the ages of twelve and sixteen at the New York State Training School for girls. The girls were of normal intelligence, and were generally committed to the school for some kind of sex delinquency. At two periods eight months apart, sociograms were constructed for this group. The data for the sociograms were gathered by asking each girl to mark on a form three girls with whom she would like to work, and three girls with whom she would like to live. Analysis of the

29. Llewellyn Gross, "The Construction and Partial Standardization of a Scale for Measuring Self-Insight," Journal of Social Psychology, XXVIII (November, 1948), 219-236.



results showed no relation between group status and age, nor between length of residence and intelligence. Further, it was found that a girl often had high group status although her opportunities for making social contacts were limited as compared with others in the group. In general, however, those of high chosen status were often found in positions conducive to making social contacts. Only 133 of the girls were used in these studies because of inadequate data for the remainder.

In an attempt to discover any existing personality differences between girls of different status, Jennings divided the girls into three equal groups: (1) girls who were overchosen in the sociogram, (2) girls who were chosen an average number of times, and (3) girls who were underchosen in terms of the group average. A girl was considered overchosen if she received a greater number of choices from the group than did the average girl in the group. The underchosen girls received less than the average number of choices from the group. Opinions about the behavior of the various girls were obtained from the housemothers and the girls in the group. The results show that the average chosen and underchosen groups exhibited from two to fifteen times as much of the following types of behavior as did the overchosen group: quarreling, nagging, nervousness, aggression, domination, passivity, resentment, attention demanding, and reticence about personal matters. The overchosen group exhibited from two to three times as much of

the following types of behavior as the other groups: rebellious behavior, being too self-directive and self-confident, and retaliative behavior. In general, the group of underchosen girls commonly exhibited behavior that tended to separate individuals and break down the group feeling of comradeship. The average chosen group exhibited about half as much of this type of behavior and about twice as much behavior leading to good group relations. The overchosen group showed twice as much behavior leading to good group relations as did the average chosen group.

In discussions with the psychologist, the overchosen girls showed twice as much insight into their behavior as the average chosen girls, and the former group of girls showed four times as much insight into their behavior as the group of underchosen girls. These differences in the amount of insightful thinking are even more striking when insight into the behavior of others is considered. In this regard, the overchosen girls exhibited eight times as much insight concerning the reasons for the behavior of others as did the underchosen girls. The overchosen girls exhibited four times as much insight as the average chosen girls concerning the reasons for the behavior of others. Jennings concluded from this evidence that the overchosen group showed more insight into their behavior and into the behavior of others. For the study as a whole she makes the following statement:



Leadership appears as a process in which not one individual has a major role but in which relatively many share.

.....  
 The severalness of leadership appears related not only to different capacities on the part of the leader-individuals but to the personality differences within the population; ....<sup>30</sup>

Partridge devised a five man-to-man rating plan to measure leadership among adolescent boys. The boys were told that they would play games in groups of four, and each group would compete against the others. Each group was formed by drawing names from a hat. Then the group chose a leader from among themselves. These experiments were repeated for six or seven weeks, and a record of the number of times a boy was chosen as a leader by different groups was kept. By choosing new groups frequently during the experimental period, a boy had a chance to be in many groups and to be chosen as a leader many times. The tabulated data revealed that some boys were chosen all of the time; others were seldom chosen; and others were almost never chosen. He found that superior age, height, appearance, athletic ability, and intelligence were definite attributes in the leader's favor. However, possession of these qualities does not make one a leader. The leader must also possess social intelligence. Partridge also had known leaders appear before a strange group of boys of equal age. The

30. Helen Hall Jennings, Leadership and Isolation, pp. 238-39.

latter group of boys were asked to rate the former group on leadership ability by listening to their voices and not seeing them, by seeing them and not hearing them, and by seeing and hearing them. The results show that the outstanding leaders were consistently distinguished from the nonleaders, both by sight alone and by voice alone. Of course, the best results were obtained when the boy to be identified was both seen and heard by the identifying group.<sup>31</sup>

Jenkins has reviewed most of the leadership studies that have been conducted during the past decade. The studies include leaders in government, industry, military situations, the professions, and school. The results that were found to be common to many investigations were presented by Jenkins as hypotheses for further leadership studies.

He states:

Leadership is specific to the particular situation under investigation. Who becomes the leader of a given group engaging in a particular activity and what the leadership characteristics are in the given case are a function of the specific situation including the measuring instruments employed. Related to this general conclusion is the general finding of wide variations in the characteristics of individuals who become leaders in similar situations, and even greater divergence in leadership behavior in different situations.<sup>32</sup>

31. E. DeAlton Partridge, Social Psychology of Adolescence, pp. 119-132.

32. William O. Jenkins, "A Review of Leadership Studies with Particular Reference to Military Problems," Psychological Bulletin, XLIV (January, 1947), 54-79.



In almost all studies, leaders were found to be superior to followers in at least one of a variety of abilities. The most common attribute among leaders was a superior competence or ability in that particular field of endeavor. General intelligence did not seem to be a distinguishing factor. Leaders and followers possess certain characteristics in common, the most outstanding of which were interests and social background. Many studies have indicated that leaders were superior to the followers in physique, age, education, and socio-economic background.

A summary of the findings of the studies that have been reviewed is presented at this point. The studies of popularity yield few outstandingly important findings in regard to the causes of popularity. The most important factor seems to be the high correlation found between facial attractiveness and popularity. However, experience and observation lead one to believe that facial attractiveness alone is not enough to hold the favor of another person over a long period of time. The other significant findings are subject to the criticism that they may just as well be the result of popularity as the cause. The studies of friendship are in general agreement about the lack of insight among friends. This is understandable when it is remembered that even unpopular persons have a limited number of friends. These studies also present much evidence

that friends have a mutual regard for some particular characteristic or characteristics of the befriended person. There is good evidence from the studies reviewed that there is a strong correlation between adjustment and insight. Evidence was presented to show that popular persons tend to be better adjusted than nonpopular persons. There is still more evidence that leaders possess more than an average amount of insight. They tend to excel the followers in some specific ability and in physical characteristics. Leaders possess widely different characteristics, but in general, they possess much insight and concern for the group welfare. Whether or not an individual will become a leader is dependent on the particular situation as well as his skills. Some evidence was presented to show that insight can be improved in the individual.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

#### Statement of the Problem

This investigation is aimed at determining the relationships between the popularity of an individual and the degree of self-insight he possesses. In other words, the problem is to determine whether self-insight and popularity are positively related, negatively related, or not related at all. Is there an increase or decrease in popularity as self-insight increases? It is also desirable to determine whether or not there is a direct relation between the two variables--self-insight and popularity. Does one variable increase or decrease in proportion to an increase or decrease in the other variable? The purpose of this study is to clarify these relationships.

#### Definitions

In this thesis popularity is defined as the possession of the confidence and favor of a group of people. It was previously pointed out that popularity as used here includes the concepts of dominance, friendship, and leadership. The definition means that an individual who favorably attracts more of his associates than do other group members is the more popular individual.

Self-insight is defined as awareness of one's own personal characteristics. This definition does not mean that self-insight is of the all-or-none variety. Rather, it means that the individual who is more aware of his personality characteristics is more insightful than an individual who knows less about himself.

The Mental Health Analysis (MHA) is described here because it was used in this investigation to measure the personality adjustment of the subjects. The MHA consists of two sections having five categories in each section. The first section measures mental health liabilities which should be eliminated in the individual. The second section measures mental health assets which should be developed. The authors insist that a high score on one section does not necessarily offset a low score on the other section. High scores on both sections are desirable for good mental health.<sup>33</sup> The author's definitions of the mental health categories are as follows:<sup>34</sup>

I-A. Behavioral Immaturity. The behaviorally immature individual reacts on the basis of childhood (infantile) ideas and desires. He has not learned to assume responsibility for, or to accept the consequences of his own acts. He attempts to solve his problems by such childish methods as sulking, crying, pouting, hitting others, or pretending to be ill. He has failed to develop emotional control and thinks primarily in terms of himself and his own comfort.

33. Louis P. Thorpe, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs, Manual of Directions: Mental Health Analysis.

34. Ibid., p. 3.



I-B. Emotional Instability. The individual who is emotionally unstable is characteristically sensitive, tense, and given to excessive self-concern. He may substitute the joys of a phantasy world for actual successes in real life. He may develop one or more physical symptoms designed to provide him with an escape from responsibilities and thus to diminish his distress. He is quick to make excuses for failure and to take advantage of those who will serve him.

I-C. Feelings of Inadequacy. The inadequate individual feels inferior and incompetent. This feeling may be related not only to particular skills and abilities but may be general in nature. Such a person feels that he is not well regarded by others, that people have little faith in his future possibilities, and that he is unsuccessful socially. He feels that he is left out of things because he is unattractive and because he lacks ability.

I-D. Physical Defects. The individual who possesses one or more physical defects is likely to respond with feelings of inferiority because of unfavorable comparisons or of handicaps in competition with other persons. It is usually not the physical defect per se that brings unhappiness but the restrictions and social disapprovals which come in its wake. Thus the extremely short, the homely, or the crippled individual may feel that his handicap is insurmountable.

I-E. Nervous Manifestations. The individual who is suffering from nervous symptoms manifests one or more of a variety of what appear to be physical disorders such as eye strain, loss of appetite, inability to sleep, chronic weariness, or dizzy spells. Persons of this kind may be exhibiting physical (functional) expressions of emotional conflicts. Stuttering, tics, and other spasmodic or restless movements are also symptomatic of this type of mental ill-health.

II-A. Close Personal Relationships. The individual who possesses this asset to mental health counts among his acquaintances some in whom he can confide, who show genuine respect for him as a person, and who welcome close friendship of a warm and substantial nature. Such an individual enjoys a sense of security and well-being because of having status with those who mean something to his welfare.



II-B. Inter-Personal Skills. The socially skillful individual gets along well with other people. He understands their motives and is solicitous of their welfare. He goes out of his way to be of assistance to both friends and strangers and is tactful in his dealings with them. The socially skillful person subordinates his egoistic tendencies in favor of the needs and activities of his associates.

II-C. Social Participation. The socially adjusted individual participates in a number of group activities in which cooperation and mutuality are in evidence. In contrast to the isolate who prefers his own company, the mentally healthy individual enjoys the companionship of others. His willingness to contribute to the success of group endeavors provides him with the feeling of belongingness and of having status which his nature requires.

II-D. Satisfying Work and Recreation. The well-adjusted individual experiences success and satisfaction in his work, whether it be the seeking of an education or occupational relationships in the world of professions, industry, or business. He also participates in a variety of hobbies and recreational activities which provide release from tension. He will have chosen tasks that challenge him and that satisfy his need for approval and a sense of achievement.

II-E. Outlook and Goals. The mentally healthy individual has a satisfying philosophy of life that guides his behavior in harmony with socially acceptable, ethical, and moral principles. He also understands his environment and the forces and cause and effect relationships which shape his destiny as a member of a social group. He establishes approved personal goals and makes reasonable progress toward their attainment.

### Procedure

The procedure followed in this investigation involved the measurement of two factors, popularity and self-insight. The 109 subjects used in the investigation consisted of four classes of seventh and eighth grade students from the Lacey Junior High School in Hazel Park, Michigan. Three classes included twenty-seven members each; the fourth class



consisted of twenty-eight members. Subjects at this educational level were used for two reasons: First, the writer wanted to work with children. Second, subjects in these grades were believed to be mature enough to understand the seriousness and meaning of the questionnaire, while younger subjects might not have the proper understanding.

Popularity was measured by requiring each student to submit the name of five class members that he had or would like to have as friends. A numerical score of one was given each time a name appeared on the various lists. The scores were then arranged in ascending order for the 109 scores. Thus, the most popular subject had the highest score and the least popular subject had the lowest score.

The following steps were followed to measure self-insight. First, the MHA was administered to all subjects. Second, a scale derived from the categories of the MHA was administered to all subjects a week later. This Self-Knowledge scale is reproduced in Figure I on the following pages. The scale includes a brief definition of each of the categories included in the MHA. In defining each category an attempt was made to incorporate the essence of the meaning of each category as originally defined by the authors of the MHA. Third, each subject was instructed to read the description given for each mental health category, to evaluate his own behavior in the light of this description, and to rate himself on a five point scale ranging from "almost always" to

"never." Fourth, the raw scores derived from the MHA and the Self-Knowledge scale were converted to standard scores. Fifth, the insight score was calculated by subtracting the MHA standard score from the Self-Knowledge standard score of each subject. This self-insight score is the algebraic difference between the total MHA standard score and the total Self-Knowledge standard score. Thus, the self-insight score is a measure of the discrepancy between the relatively objective MHA standard scores and the relatively subjective Self-Knowledge standard scores. Zero discrepancy between the MHA and Self-Knowledge standard scores is taken to mean good self-insight, a large discrepancy means poor self-insight. A negative self-insight score means that the subject gave himself a less favorable rating on the Self-Knowledge scale than on the MHA. In a similar manner a positive self-insight score means that the subject gave himself a more favorable rating on the Self-Knowledge scale than on the MHA. Several methods of statistical analysis were then applied to the data.



## Figure I

## MEASURE OF SELF-KNOWLEDGE

Print your name in the upper right hand corner of this page. The questions that will be found on the following pages are all concerned with some part of personality. You are to read each statement; then decide how much of that type of behavior you exhibit; then mark an X in the parenthesis ( ) following that word that best describes your behavior. For example, look at the five words below it, and check the one that best describes how often you have headaches or other aches and pains.

To what extent do you have headaches or other aches and pains?

- |                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| 1. Never         | ( ) |
| 2. Very Seldom   | ( ) |
| 3. Occasionally  | ( ) |
| 4. Frequently    | ( ) |
| 5. Almost always | ( ) |

If you have headaches or other aches and pains frequently put a check (X) behind the word "Frequently." If you very seldom have headaches or other aches and pains put a check behind the phrase "Very Seldom," etc.

The purpose of this scale is to determine how well you really know yourself. Nobody knows all about himself, but some people know better than others why they act the way they do. No single answer is right or wrong. For example, some people have many headaches and other aches and pains while others have none. The only useful answer is

the correct one. Think about each answer before you mark it. The answers will be used only to learn more about the way people behave. They will not be used to your disadvantage. Be frank and honest with yourself in answering all of the questions.

## I.

To what degree do you behave in a childish way? In other words, how often do you try to get your own way by crying, pouting, sulking, hitting others, or pretending to be ill?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )

## II.

To what degree are your feelings easily hurt? That is, how much are you concerned with yourself and your own feelings? To what extent do you make excuses for your failures or take advantage of others?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )

## III.

To what degree do you feel that you are unequal to your friends? That is, how often do you feel that you are not well thought of by others and that you are socially unsuccessful?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )

## IV.

To what degree do you feel unimportant or second rate to others because of your physical defects or appearances? Otherwise, how often do you feel that your body and appearance are not as good as those of your friends?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )



## Figure I (Continued)

V.

To what degree are you nervous? That is, how often are you unable to sleep well, feel tired out for no reason, have dizzy spells, or have a poor appetite?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )

VI.

To what extent do you feel that you are able to confide in and trust your friends? In other words, how often do you feel that your friends respect you and really want you as a friend?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )

VII.

To what extent do you get along well with other people? That is, how often do you go out of your way to help others, even when you would rather do something else?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )

VIII.

To what degree do you enjoy being with others? That is, do you enjoy working or playing in a group that requires your cooperation rather than being by yourself? How often would you rather do what your friends suggest rather than be alone?

1. Never ( )
2. Seldom ( )
3. Occasionally ( )
4. Frequently ( )
5. Almost always ( )

## Figure I (Continued)

## IX.

To what extent do you enjoy and find satisfaction in your work, school, and hobbies? That is, how often do you feel that your activities in work, school, and hobbies are pleasing to you?

- |                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| 1. Never         | ( ) |
| 2. Seldom        | ( ) |
| 3. Occasionally  | ( ) |
| 4. Frequently    | ( ) |
| 5. Almost always | ( ) |

## X.

To what extent do your beliefs and your outlook on life agree with those of other people? Otherwise, are the things that you want out of life believed to be good by most other people?

- |                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| 1. Never         | ( ) |
| 2. Seldom        | ( ) |
| 3. Occasionally  | ( ) |
| 4. Frequently    | ( ) |
| 5. Almost always | ( ) |



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF PRESENT STUDY

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationships between measured self-insight and popularity. A complete analysis of the data required six statistical manipulations of the material. The methods of analysis are presented in the following pages. First, we determined the correlation between the scores for self-insight and the standard scores for popularity without consideration for the sign of those scores. For example, the self-insight scores were arranged in ascending order from zero to 2.920 and all self-insight scores were considered as being positive. Actually some of the self-insight scores are negative. This is readily seen if it is remembered that the self-insight score was calculated by subtracting the MHA standard score from the Self-Knowledge standard score. When the MHA standard score was larger than the Self-Knowledge standard score the self-insight score was negative. When the MHA standard score was smaller than the Self-Knowledge standard score the self-insight score was positive. But in this analysis all self-insight scores were considered as positive. Second, we determined the correlation between the self-insight scores and the popularity scores when the positive and negative signs of the self-insight scores are

taken into account. Third, we calculated the differences between the means of the self-insight scores for the most and least popular twenty per cent of the total group. Fourth, we determined the difference between the means of the popularity scores for the twenty per cent showing the most and the twenty per cent showing the least self-insight of the total group. Fifth, a category-by-category analysis was made of the differences between MHA scores for the twenty subjects having the highest and the twenty subjects having the lowest self-insight scores of the total group. Sixth, a category-by-category analysis was made of the differences between MHA scores for the twenty subjects having the highest and the twenty subjects having the lowest popularity scores of the total group.

#### The Correlation Between the Self-Insight and Popularity Scores

The raw self-insight scores were first converted to standard scores. Then the correlation between the self-insight and popularity scores was calculated by means of the product-moment formula. The data for this analysis are given in Table I, column 1.



TABLE I

THE PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION BETWEEN SELF-  
INSIGHT AND POPULARITY SCORES\*

	Disregarding the sign of the self- insight score+	Considering the sign of the self- insight score
Correlation	-.18	-.02
Probable Error	.06	.06

\* N = 109

+ "Disregarding signs" means using the absolute scores without consideration of the positive or negative nature of the scores.

The number of subjects was 109. The mean self-insight score and standard deviation are .736 and 2.05; the mean popularity score and standard deviation are 4.34 and 3.30 respectively. The product-moment correlation is -.18; the probable error is plus or minus .06. The correlation is only three times its probable error and, therefore, not significant. The negative correlation indicates that individuals who have a great deal of self-insight tend to be slightly more popular than those having less self-insight. The coefficient of correlation is negative because of the nature of the self-insight score. For example, the higher the self-insight score the less self-insight the subject possesses.

The product-moment correlation between self-insight scores and popularity scores when the scores are arranged according to their signs yields different results. For

this analysis the assumed mean for the self-insight scores was taken at zero. The negative scores were arranged in ascending order from zero down to -2.920; the positive scores were arranged in ascending order from zero up to 2.920. The number of subjects employed was again 109; the calculated means for the self-insight and popularity scores are .736 and 4.34 respectively. The standard deviations for the self-insight and popularity scores are 2.05 and 3.30 respectively. The coefficient of correlation is  $-.02$ , and the probable error is plus or minus  $.06$ . It is apparent that, when the correlation is computed with full consideration for the sign of the self-insight scores, the resulting coefficient of correlation is practically zero and insignificant. This change in the value of the coefficient of correlation seems to be attributable to the canceling effect of oppositely signed self-insight scores when positive and negative scores are of approximately equal value. For example, when the self-insight scores are arranged according to sign--the assumed mean is at zero--the value of the positively signed scores at the various popularity levels barely equals that of the negatively signed scores. Oppositely signed scores tend to cancel themselves out in this analysis while the same scores tended to reenforce each other in the previous analysis where the sign of the self-insight scores was ignored. To interpret these results in reference to our main variables, the first analysis



indicates that the more self-insight an individual possesses the more likely he is to be popular. The second analysis indicates that both underrating and overrating oneself are equally detrimental for one's popularity, since the zero correlation shows that the direction of the person's error does not matter.

#### An Analysis of the Self-Insight Scores for Extreme Popularity Scores

In order to clarify the relationships further a third method of analysis was undertaken. This analysis is a comparison of the means of the self-insight scores for the most and least popular twenty per cent of the total group. The figure of twenty per cent was selected in order to have a sufficient number of subjects at either extreme. Although the actual number is small, it should be remembered that it represents twenty-two subjects at each extreme of the distribution of 109 subjects. Therefore it is believed that the results obtained from such an analysis will be meaningful. The data for this analysis are given below in Table II.

TABLE II

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS OF THE SELF-  
INSIGHT SCORES FOR THE EXTREME TWENTY PER CENT OF  
THE POPULARITY SCORES

	M	Diff.	S.D.	Diff.	S.E.	Diff.	t
Most Self- Insight	.642	.268	.61		.18		1.49
Least Self- Insight	.910						

The mean self-insight score for the most popular twenty per cent is .642; the mean self-insight score for the least popular twenty per cent is .910. The standard deviation of the difference obtained for each group is .61. The standard error of the difference between the means is .18. Student's  $t$  must be 1.72 for significance at the ten per cent level. Therefore, the calculated  $t$  of 1.49 for this group is clearly insignificant. These figures indicate that while the least popular group has less self-insight than the most popular group, the difference is not significant. The most interesting fact is that the most popular group once more has more self-insight than the least popular group.

The Determination of the Significance of the Difference  
Between the Means of the Popularity Scores of Those  
Twenty Per Cent of the Subjects Who Have the Most and  
Least Self-Insight of the Group

This analysis is concerned with the significance of the difference between the means of the popularity scores corresponding to the extreme self-insight scores of the total group. It is, in this sense, the reverse of the above analysis. The data for this analysis are presented in Table III, page 48.



TABLE III

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS OF THE POPULARITY  
SCORES FOR THE TWENTY PER CENT OF THE SUBJECTS  
WHO HAD THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST SELF-INSIGHT SCORES  
OF THE TOTAL GROUP

	M <sub>+</sub>	Diff.	S.D. Diff.	S.E. Diff.	t
Most Self- Insight	5.818	1.228	1.66	.50	2.45
Least Self- Insight	4.590				

\*A high self-insight score means that the subject does not have as much self-insight as a subject who has a lower self-insight score.

†M designates the mean of the popularity scores.

Twenty-two subjects at each extreme of the total distribution were utilized in this analysis. The mean popularity scores for the twenty-two subjects having the most and least self-insight are respectively 5.818 and 4.590. The standard deviation of the difference is 1.66; and the standard error of the difference between the means is .50. The resulting t value is 2.45, and the difference between the means is significant at the two per cent level of confidence. The trend of the previous analysis is also revealed here. That is, the most insightful group is significantly more popular than the least insightful group. The fact that there is a significant difference in this analysis and not in the previous analysis seems to indicate that it is more likely for an insightful individual to be popular than for a popular individual to be insightful. There is the further suggestion that self-insight is a requirement for popularity, but it is not enough to ensure popularity.

An Analysis of the Differences Between  
MHA Sub-Scores for Extreme Groups

This analysis does not directly pertain to the main problem of the thesis. However, the analysis was undertaken because differences in MHA scores might yield important facts concerning the concomitants of popularity and self-insight. The analysis is an attempt to determine the differences between MHA sub-scores for the two groups having the most extreme self-insight scores of the total group. First, the twenty subjects who made the highest scores on self-insight, and the twenty subjects who made the lowest scores on self-insight were selected. (At the risk of excessive repetition it is again pointed out that a high self-insight score means that the subject has less knowledge of himself than a subject who has a lower score.) Second, the MHA sub-scores for these groups were compared. These data are given in Table IV on page 50.

The table shows that there are three categories in which the difference between the means of the two groups is statistically significant: Physical Defects, Close Personal Relations, and Satisfying Work and Recreation. These differences are significant at the five, two, and one per cent levels respectively. The data indicate that those subjects with better insight have, in general, higher MHA sub-scores than those subjects with poorer insight. This means that the more insightful subjects are better adjusted, because a high MHA score indicates better adjustment than a low score. This does not necessarily mean that those subjects with the most



TABLE IV

AN ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MHA  
SCORES OF THE MOST AND LEAST INSIGHTFUL GROUPS  
OF SUBJECTS

	Most		Least		t
	Self-Insight		Self-Insight		
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	
Behavioral					
Immaturity	11.70	3.55	13.30	4.24	1.25
Emotional					
Instability	13.40	4.02	11.75	4.64	1.16
Feelings of					
Inadequacy	11.10	3.97	12.50	2.74	1.26
Physical					
Defects	17.95	1.83	15.20	4.36	2.52
Nervous					
Mannerisms	14.80	4.82	13.40	4.55	.92
Close Personal					
Relations	18.25	1.93	16.35	2.45	2.67
Inter-Personal					
Skills	15.25	2.30	14.20	3.28	1.14
Social					
Participation	15.05	2.33	13.35	3.68	1.68
Satisfying Work					
and Recreation	14.45	2.55	12.45	1.96	3.12
Outlook and					
Goals	16.00	2.38	15.75	3.27	.33

self-insight and adjustment are the most popular. To decide the latter point, further analysis is necessary.

This investigation of the MHA sub-scores was made in order to study the differences between the MHA sub-scores for the twenty subjects at each extreme of the total popularity distribution. The data for this analysis are given in

Table V on page 52. Because Student's  $t$  must equal or exceed 1.72 for significance at the ten per cent level of confidence, it is readily seen that none of the  $t$ 's in this analysis approach significance. The analysis indicates that popular subjects do not have significantly better adjustment than nonpopular subjects. However, in six out of the ten MHA categories the most popular group made higher scores than the least popular group. This means that, while these trends are not as prominent in this analysis, there are similar trends. It is quite possible that these indications--that popular subjects tend to have better adjustment than nonpopular subjects and that the more insightful subjects tend to be better adjusted than less insightful subjects--would be more significant in a total group larger than 109 subjects. As they stand, our data allow us to speak of only a slight tendency which is, in general, not significant.

#### Summary of the Analysis

At this point the results of the above analyses are summarized. First, a negative correlation was found between the 109 self-insight scores and the 109 popularity scores. The correlation was  $-.18$  with a probable error of plus or minus  $.06$ . This means that as popularity increases, self-insight increases. Second, there was an almost zero, negative correlation between the 109 self-insight scores when the self-insight scores were arranged according to their positive



TABLE V  
AN ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MHA  
SCORES OF EXTREME POPULARITY GROUPS

	Most Popular		Least Popular		<u>t</u>
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	
Behavioral					
Immaturity	13.20	4.29	11.55	4.19	1.20
Emotional					
Instability	12.15	4.62	11.75	5.22	.25
Feelings of					
Inadequacy	11.60	4.47	11.40	4.88	.09
Physical					
Defects	16.20	3.74	16.67	3.03	.43
Nervous					
Mannerisms	14.65	4.46	14.30	4.62	.24
Close Personal					
Relations	16.95	3.21	16.40	3.32	.43
Inter-Personal					
Skills	14.40	3.45	14.55	2.50	.16
Social					
Participation	14.80	2.20	13.95	2.78	1.05
Satisfying Work					
and Recreation	13.25	3.00	13.80	2.21	.64
Outlook and					
Goals	16.35	2.49	16.50	1.66	.31

and negative signs. This was interpreted as meaning, in conjunction with the previous correlation, that either under-rating or overrating oneself is equally detrimental for one's popularity. Third, the difference between the means of the self-insight scores earned by the most popular twenty per cent and the least popular twenty per cent of the entire group was calculated and found to be insignificant. However, the most popular group continued to have the most self-insight. Fourth, the difference between the means of the popularity scores earned by the twenty per cent most insightful subjects and the twenty per cent least insightful subjects was significant at the two per cent level of confidence. In this analysis we found that the most insightful subjects tend to be the most popular. Because this difference was significant while the previous one was not, we took these results to mean that it is more likely for an insightful person to be popular than it is for a popular person to be insightful. Fifth, an analysis of the MHA subscores for the twenty subjects who had scores at each extreme of the distribution showed a significant difference between the means of these groups for three categories: Physical Defects, Close Personal Relations, and Satisfying Work and Recreation. The differences are significant at the five, two, and one per cent levels respectively. The analysis also indicates that for eight out of the ten categories those subjects who have the most self-insight have higher MHA scores than those subjects who have less self-insight. Sixth,



an analysis of the difference between MHA sub-scores for extreme popularity groups indicated that there were no significant differences. This analysis does not show that popular subjects have significantly better adjustment than nonpopular subjects. However, there is some tendency in this direction, since in six out of the ten MHA categories the most popular group had higher scores than the least popular group.

#### Conclusions and Comparison with Other Studies

A comparison of the results of this investigation with those of the related studies summarized in Chapter II would seem to be profitable.

Jennings found that her popular subjects significantly showed more self and group insight than did the nonpopular subjects. Partridge, and Hunt and Soloman also found that group understanding was an outstanding characteristic of leaders. Jenkin's review of leadership studies produced evidence that would seem to support the above conclusions. Our own results are in general agreement with these investigators. Ames did not find a significant difference in the awareness of acceptance status between the most and least accepted subjects in her group. In other words, she found that popular subjects were no more able to evaluate their position in a social group than were the nonpopular subjects. Ames' results, then, are the reverse of the results of the

previously mentioned studies. Ames suggested that the results of her investigation may have been influenced by the scales used in the study. The usefulness of her scales was not too well known.

The results of the studies of friendships by Van Dyne, and by Reader and English are agreed that friends exhibit a complete lack of self-insight. The results of these studies are not in disagreement with the present investigation. There is nothing in these studies to indicate whether the subjects were popular or not, and even nonpopular individuals have some friends.

The investigations of the relationship between adjustment and self-insight by Green, and by Rogers agree that the better adjusted subjects possess the most self-insight. These results are in agreement with the results of the present investigation. For example, in the fifth analysis it was indicated that the subjects who had the most self-insight also had the best personality adjustment.

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the relationship between popularity and self-insight. The data justify the conclusion that there is no close relationship--either direct or inversely proportional--between popularity and self-insight. The evidence shows that a popular person may have very much or very little self-insight. The bulk of



the evidence points to the existence of only a small, positive relationship between popularity and self-insight. The last statement holds true for the results of the present investigation and for the related studies. The results also offer some evidence which fits Thorne's contention that an individual may have good self-insight and still not know how to improve his personality, since they show that there is not a very great difference between the adjustment scores of the insightful and noninsightful subjects in this study.

Dewey, Carl E. "Personality Traits of Socially Successful and Socially Unsuccessful Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (November, 1947), 461-473.

Three classes of fourth grade were employed as subjects. Each class was divided into two groups. In one group, children and popularity were related to make a distinction between desirable social success in the group. Children of the first and fourth quartiles of the group were traits analyzed and compared by the socially successful group and by the socially unsuccessful group. Personality traits were found to be important in determining adjustment. The author makes the general conclusion that socially capable personalities are related to similar personality traits.

Dewey, Carl E. "Self Differences in Social Success and Personality Traits," *Child Development*, XV (June, 1944), 15-21.

Three classes of fourth grade students were used as subjects. In addition to taking the California Test of Personality, the subjects were required to fill out a scale of personality traits for three weeks.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### ARTICLES

- Ames, Viola Caprez. "Socio-Psychological Vectors in the Behavior and Attitudes of Children. II. Awareness of Acceptance Status," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXVI (May, 1945), 271-289.

This study involved an investigation of three problems: Are children aware of how well they are liked by their classmates? What is the relationship between the child's opinion of his own social acceptance and his unhappiness? Are there typical behavior patterns for the accepted and rejected child? 217 sixth grade children were employed as subjects. From this number thirty-two were selected for comparison. Selection of the latter group was determined by their scores on a social acceptance scale marked by the class. Correlations between scores from the social acceptance scale and an awareness scale--a modification of the social acceptance scale--yielded no significant results. Systematic observation of the subjects' behavior failed to yield useful information. The author concluded that there is no evidence that these children were aware of their status; there is no obvious relation between any of the three previously posed questions.

- Bonney, Merl E. "Personality Traits of Socially Successful and Socially Unsuccessful Children," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIV (November, 1943), 449-473.

Three classes in fourth grade were employed to gather data on social success in the group. Scores for trait ratings and popularity were combined to yield a composite score denoting social success in the group. Comparison of the first and fourth quartiles of the group show trait syndromes possessed by the socially successful group and not by the socially unsuccessful group. Several traits were found to be important in friendship associations. The author makes the general conclusion that strong, capable personalities are attached to similar personalities.

- Bonney, Merl E. "Sex Differences in Social Success and Personality Traits," Child Development. XV (June, 1944), 63-79.

Three classes of fourth grade students served as subjects. In addition to taking the California Test of Personality, the students were required to fill out a scale of personality traits for three other



students in the class. Popularity was determined through a combination of sociometric methods. The only reliable sex differences were for the traits "fights" and "restless" which were higher for the boys. The girls made a significantly higher score than the boys on "Social Skills" in the California Test of Personality.

Flemming, Edwin G. "A Factor Analysis of the Personality of High School Leaders," Journal of Applied Psychology, XIX (1935), 596-605.

This article deals with a factor analysis study of the personalities of high school students. Ratings were assigned to each girl by her classmates and teacher for the amount of personality she possessed, the degree of pleasantness that each girl felt for the other, and the scores on a trait scale. Leadership ratings were based on the number and kind of positions held by each girl. Factor analysis of these measures indicated that there were four types of leaders. A positive correlation was found between leadership and personality, and between leadership and pleasingness of the personality.

Green, George H. "Insight and Group Adjustment," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LIII (January, 1948), 49-61.

Green investigated the relationship between insight and group adjustment among college students. Each student rated himself and his classmates on leadership ability. The discrepancy between self-ratings and group ratings indicated the degree of adjustment. His results indicated that the closer the agreement of self-rating and group rating, the more leadership ability the student tended to have.

Gross, Llewellyn. "The Construction and Partial Standardization of a Scale for measuring Self-Insight," Journal of Social Psychology, XXVIII (May, 1948), 219-236.

This article deals with the principles employed in the construction and partial validation of a scale for measuring self-insight. Gross presents a detailed consideration of contemporary concepts of the nature of insight.

Hunt, J. McV., and R. L. Soloman. "The Stability and Some Correlates of Group Status in a Summer Camp of Young Boys," American Journal of Psychology, LV (January, 1942), 33-45.

Observing boys from six to nine years old, these authors



found the status of group members to vary less as the time spent in camp increased. The correlations between group status and physical attributes were investigated and found to be of some importance for the determination of status.

Jenkins, William O. "A Review of Leadership Studies with Particular Reference to Military Problems," Psychological Bulletin, XLIV (January, 1947), 54-79.

Jenkins reviewed most of the important studies of leadership carried out during the past decade and evaluated the findings. Those findings that were common to many studies were used to formulate hypotheses for future studies of leadership.

Kinder, J. S. "Through Our Own Looking-Glass," School and Society, XXII (October, 1925), 533-536.

This author investigated the self-attitudes of college students, and attempted to determine the validity of self-estimation. Once a week for three weeks college women were asked to fill out a scale of personality traits. Although the items on each scale were identical, the heading of each scale specified that it was to be filled out for oneself, for the average college woman, and for the ideal college woman. The results show that most women rated themselves above average and below ideal. Kinder offers these results as more evidence for the general tendency to over-rate one's self.

Luh, C. W., and R. C. Sailor. "The Self-Estimates of Chinese Students," Journal of Social Psychology, IV (April, 1933), 245-249.

This study was an attempt to determine whether the tendency to over-evaluate the self is a universal tendency or whether it is culturally determined. The Chinese college students, who acted as subjects, were required to rate themselves and their classmates on five personality and character traits. The results show that there was an overestimation in all traits.

Reader, Natalie, and Horace B. English. "Personality Factors in Adolescent Female Friendships," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XI (July, 1947), 1-220.

These authors investigated the personalities of mutual friends in an attempt to discover which characteristics were most important in friendships. Each subject was given a battery of tests and an interview. The main



findings were that the befriended person always possessed some quality which was admired by the friend. The group as a whole possessed little knowledge as to why they were attracted to their friends. The more general conclusion was made that the personalities of friends are more similar than those of non-friends. Further, the total pattern of personality is more important to the friendship than any particular area.

Rogers, Carl R., B. L. Kell, and Helen McNeil. "The Role of Understanding in the Prediction of Behavior," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XII (May, 1948), 174-186.

These authors attempted to predict the future adjustment and behavior of individuals by a complex method of rating the various factors which influence behavior. The nine factors rated were economic and cultural influences, family influences, education, training and supervision, heredity, mental development, physical status, and self-insight. The rating for each factor was given on the basis of case history material. The correlations between these ratings and the adjustment of the individual two years later were all positive. But, the most significant correlation--the best predictor of future adjustment--was between self-insight and future adjustment. The results were so unexpected a repeat study was conducted with similar, but less striking, results.

Sears, Robert R. "Experimental Studies of Projection: I. Attribution of Traits," Journal of Social Psychology, VII (May, 1936), 151-163.

Employing fraternity members as subjects, Sears investigated the relationship between self-insight and projection. Each subject rated himself and his associates on a scale of personality traits. The subjects also enumerated the five men in the group they liked least and the five they liked most. A subject was considered to have insight if he rated himself in the same half of the distribution as his associates rated him. The author concluded that projection in the group was limited to those subjects who lacked self-insight. There was evidence to indicate that self-insight is a specific trait rather than a general trait.

Thorne, Frederick C. "The Psychology of Control," Journal of Clinical Psychology, V (October, 1949), 375-384.

This article is a theoretical discussion of the relationship between behavior and insight. The author



points out that the possession of self-insight does not guarantee improvement. Self-insight may facilitate the acquisition of methods of control, but it must be supplemented with planned action determined in the light of new self knowledge.

Thorpe, Louis P., Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs. Directions: Mental Health Analysis, Los Angeles, California, California Test Bureau, 1946.

The manual explains the purpose of the analysis, the standardization, and gives definitions of the categories. It also presents test norms, and diagnostic evaluation of test results.

Van Dyne, Virginia E. "Personality Traits and Friendship Formation in Adolescent Girls," Journal of Social Psychology, XII (November, 1940), 291-304.

The Bernreuter Personality Inventory and a questionnaire designed to elicit information concerning friendship formation were administered to girls in a summer camp. The results of the study indicated that girls chose friends of similar age, dominance, and sociability. Other personality traits measured by the Bernreuter Personality Inventory did not appear to be important in these friendships. The most significant finding was that girls did not know whether they were more like their friends than unlike.

Young, Lyle L., and Dan H. Cooper. "Some Factors Associated with Popularity," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXV (December, 1944), 513-536.

The popularity of over four hundred children was determined by sociometric methods. Two tests of personality were administered to the group to obtain an objective measurement of personality traits. The relationship of various physiological and environmental factors to popularity was investigated. Several significant personality differences were found between popular and nonpopular subjects. But the most significant result was found in the correlation between popularity and facial attraction. The authors concluded that facial appearance may provide a superficial basis for popularity, but it is later displaced by behavioral elements.



## BOOKS

Allport, Gordon W. Personality. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937. Pp. vii+566.

This text includes a survey of important studies of personality and contemporary theories. The book is divided into five general parts. The first part deals with the approach to the study of personality and a discussion of the many definitions of personality. The author discusses the development of personality in the second part and presents his theory of the functional autonomy of motives. Part three is concerned with the structure of personality and the nature of traits. In part four the author discusses methods of analyzing personality and emphasizes the value of expressive movements. Part five is concerned with the problem of understanding personality. Insight is considered as one of the criteria of a mature personality. The author discusses the concomitants and values of insight to the individual.

Jennings, Helen Hall. Leadership and Isolation. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1943. Pp. vii+240.

Jennings studied leadership and isolation among several hundred adolescent girls at the New York State Training School for girls. Each girl was asked to choose three other girls with whom she would like to work, and three other girls with whom she would like to live. The procedure was repeated eight months later, and the scores on the two sociograms were found to correlate .65 for the positive choices and .66 for rejections. Jennings found that there was a great deal of variation between the personalities of leaders, and between leaders and nonleaders. The author concluded that the leaders exhibited more behavior of a cooperative nature than the nonleaders. Leadership is not a single trait but a combination of traits which are acted upon by the group and the situation.

Landis, Carney, and M. Marjorie Bolles. Textbook of Abnormal Psychology. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. v+576.

This text deals with the fundamentals of abnormal psychology. It has an eclectic organization which offers both experimental and theoretical material. These authors consider insight as self knowledge, a realization of the relationships between the real facts which leads to a better adjustment of the individual. The text is broadly divided into three sections. The



first section gives the description and statistics of the various mental disorders. The second section is limited to a presentation and discussion of experimental investigations of abnormality. The third section offers some mental hygiene principles for the individual.

Murphy, Gardner. Personality. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1947. Pp. vii+999.

The author investigates personality from a biosocial viewpoint. The material in the text is an attempt to evaluate the results of many investigations of personality and its development, as well as to gain an adequate understanding of personality. The following six broad categories are given extensive consideration: organic foundations, learning, personal outlook, the self, wholeness of personality, and the individual and the group. A brief discussion of insight leaves little doubt that the author considers it as synonymous with self-knowledge and self-understanding.

O'Kelly, Lawrence I. Introduction to Psychopathology. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. Pp. vii+736.

This text deals with the basic problems of abnormality. It considers the well-established problems in abnormal psychology as well as less well-established concepts. The author suggests that the possession of insight may well be in accordance with the Gaussian law. He further suggests that there is no absolute zero point in regard to possession of self-insight, and that self-insight may not always work in favor of the individual.

Partridge, E. DeAlton. Social Psychology of Adolescence. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. vii+361.

The writer's aim is to foster a better understanding of the adolescent in the minds of those adults who work with young people. The book is largely written from a sociological viewpoint. It emphasizes the adolescent and the groups which have an important influence on his behavior. Partridge discusses his own studies of leadership among several hundred boy scouts. Using the five-man-to-man rating technique he found that the personality characteristics of leaders varied considerably. Some subjects were chosen as leaders consistently and others were seldom, if ever, chosen. Partridge found leaders to be superior to nonleaders in physical and some mental characteristics.



Pigors, Paul. Leadership or Domination. New York:  
Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935. Pp. vii+262.

This book is an attempt to define and discriminate between the concepts of leadership and domination, to point out the complex interrelationships, and to determine the origins of leadership and domination in the individual. The distinguishing feature between leadership and domination is that the aims and methods of the former are understood and accepted by the followers. In the case of domination the followers are forced to yield to the will of the dominating individual whether or not they understand his aims, and whether or not they wish to follow.

Rogers, Carl R. Counseling and Psychotherapy. New York:  
Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. Pp. vi+450.

This book deals with the place and techniques of counseling and psychotherapy with emphasis on the non-directive approach. The essential element of this type of therapy is the development of insight by the patient. Insight for this author consists of the following several factors: perceiving new relationships between old facts, an increase in self-understanding, and recognition and acceptance of the self. Rogers concludes that insight develops gradually.