INFORMATION TO USERS

This reproduction was made from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technology has been used to photograph and reproduce this document, the quality of the reproduction is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help clarify markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark, it is an indication of either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, duplicate copy, or copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed. For blurred pages, a good image of the page can be found in the adjacent frame. If copyrighted materials were deleted, a target note will appear listing the pages in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed, a definite method of "sectioning" the material has been followed. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. For illustrations that cannot be satisfactorily reproduced by xerographic means, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and inserted into your xerographic copy. These prints are available upon request from the Dissertations Customer Services Department.

5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases the best available copy has been filmed.

University Microfilms International
300 N. Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

Valentin, Carol

THE MENTOR AND THE DREAM: FACILITATORS OF PSYCHOSOCIAL COMPETENCE IN INNER-CITY ADOLESCENTS

City University of New York PH.D. 1984

THE MENTOR AND THE DREAM:

FACILITATORS OF PSYCHOSOCIAL COMPETENCE

IN INNER-CITY ADOLESCENTS

by

CAROL VALENTIN

A dissertation submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Psychology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy,
The City University of New York.

1984

This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Psychology and satisfaction of the dissertation requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

4/25/84
date

Laurence F. Gould
Chairman of Examining Committee

April 30, 1984
date

Herbert D. Saltzstein
Executive Officer

Louis Gerstman

Guy O. Seymour

Supervisory Committee

The City University of New York

Dedicated to

my family whose love inspired my success.

ABSTRACT

THE MENTOR AND THE DREAM: FACILITATORS OF PSYCHOSOCIAL COMPETENCE IN INNER-CITY ADOLESCENTS

by

Carol Valentin

Adviser: Professor Laurence J. Gould

This study examined the relationship between psychosocial competence and the presence of a significant other who served the functions of a hero or mentor figure in a sample of Black and Hispanic inner-city adolescents. The three primary hypotheses tested were: 1. That a positive relationship would exist between an adolescent's scores on a measure of psychosocial competence and ratings received on a scale used to assess the presence of a hero/mentor; 2. That there would be a positive relationship between the adolescent's scores on a measure of psychosocial competence and ratings received on a measure of the quality of the adolescent's Dream (career goal and/or future self-image); and 3. That there would be a positive relationship between the adolescent's psychosocial competence scores and scores received on a measure of predisposition to fantasy.

In addition, exploratory research was undertaken to investigate characteristics of the hero/mentor and their potential relevance to competence and effective mentoring.

The sample consisted of 59 females and 42 males. There were 65 Black students and 36 Hispanic students. Ages ranged from 14 years to 19 years. The mean SES of the parents in the sample was working class. Students were affiliated with two urban college bound programs geared towards helping Black and Hispanic inner-city high school students maintain an achievement orientation.

Students were asked to voluntarily participate in a study concerning the discovery of experiences which were important to their remaining in high school. They were administered a semi-structured clinical interview which included questions related to demographic and school variables in addition to the Hero/Mentor Interview Schedule and the Dream Scale. They were also asked to complete a pencil and paper questionnaire called the Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale developed by Tyler (1978).

Results confirmed the basic thesis of the study that a relationship exists between the presence of a hero/mentor figure and an adolescent's ability to be assessed as competent. The other two hypotheses were not confirmed.

Additional findings included differences between males and females on the variable Mentor Source (characteristics of significant others who effectively served the mentoring function). The males in this study selected effective mentors from within the family network more often than female subjects. Females described their most effective mentoring experience when the mentors were chosen from outside the family system and when mentors were males. Males described relationships with effective mentors when there existed a relationship with an additional significant other.

Race, sex, parent, and non-parent characteristics of the mentor did not interact with competence variables for any of the subjects.

Discussion focused on extending mentoring concepts to parent-child and parent-adolescent dyadic interaction in order to assist parents in facilitating their child's development, the need to differentiate the type of mentoring talked about when attempting research in this area, and the potential for educational institutions to facilitate mentoring as it relates to self-integration, and psychosocially competent behavior in student populations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to Nathan Holmes, Kathleen White, Laurence Gould, Guy Seymour and William Lyles who have believed in my Dreams, my personal growth and my professional development and who have allowed me to believe in them too.

Special thanks to my adviser Laurence Gould, and my committee members Guy Seymour, Louis Gerstman, Vera Paster, and Jacqueline Fleming whose professionalism I will continue to admire and emulate.

To my friends Linda Anderson-Barbosa, Philips Spivey, Cynthia Stephens, Sharon Valentin, Elena Valentin, Leslie Holmes and Wendy Jones who helped me through the final steps, my deepest gratitude for their loyalty and support.

Many many thanks to the students of Project Double Discovery, Larry Dais, Paula Martin, Anna and James for their participation and their willingness to give of themselves to others.

Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION

Looking back through time we
are in debt to our leaders
Angels of mercy everyone
Goodfolks who believed
There was no good in evil
Fought long and hard until
the battles all were won

Heroes make the sun rise
in the morning
Heroes make the moon shine
bright at night
Heroes make our lives a
little stronger

In the soul of everyone
They can be found...

Lionel Richy, 1981

As mental health and child development facilities become less available to all communities, mental health providers are forced to seek alternatives to traditional modes of psychological intervention. Preventive mental health, a concept acknowledged by many helping professionals but practiced by few, has become key to the growth and survival of our youth. For communities having the least access to social support agencies the exploration of survival mechanisms that exist within the child's immediate reality becomes crucial.

Inner-city and ethnic minority children are noted as having few "professional" role models or authority figures whose images might serve to facilitate a successful and psychologically healthy integration into the mainstream of society. As such a child attempts to negotiate his/her identity across class and cultural boundaries, self-integration may become precarious (Mosby, 1972). The psychosocially competent youth who "has it all together" (Tyler, 1977) is assumed to be a rare breed within the inner-city. Some children however do make it 'out' with a sense of themselves

and their roots intact. Examples of these have been documented in the autobiographies of Claude Brown (1965) Malcolm X (Little, 1965), Piri Thomas (1965), Luis Munoz Rivera (1965), and other Black and Hispanic individuals who tell of their seemingly futureless existence and their ascendency to professional and leadership status. The question which this writer will attempt to explore is related to the "how" of their success: If, as inner-city youths, the odds were stacked against them, what forces enabled them to survive the psychological hardships of racial and class barriers and journey through the adolescent passage to adult competence?

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

THE MENTOR AND THE DREAM

Daniel Levinson's account of the successful adult development of 40 men suggests an answer to this writer's query. As Levinson began to explore each man's "life structure" through the use of biographical and clinical interviewing, patterns, developmental sequences emerged. The first critical phase, The Novice Phase, occurred between the ages of 17 and 35; in this phase a major transition from adolescence to adulthood was believed to have taken place. The undertaking of four tasks during this developmental sequence, influenced by each man's unique "talents, values, fantasies, competencies, anxieties," and sociocultural milieu forged the bridge between early adulthood and "BOOM" (Becoming One's Own Man). Of the four developmental tasks which Levinson uncovered, there are two which this writer chooses to explore in the attempt to understand the successful development of inner-city youth:

Forming a Dream, and
Forming a Mentor Relationship

Of the Dream Levinson (1978) writes:

> The vicissitudes and fate of "The Dream" have fundamental consequences for adult development...a young man has the developmental task of giving it greater definition and finding ways to live it out. It makes a great difference in his growth whether his initial life structure is consonant with and infused by the Dream or opposed to it. If the Dream remains unconnected to his life it may simply die and with it his sense of aliveness and purpose (p. 91-92).

Levinson suggests that The Dream has its genesis in the child's world of play. As a child begins to differentiate himself from others in his world he* begins to weave fantasies of himself in relation to the world; The Dream contains the images of the ever developing self, the self that wishes to master the environment. The child may picture himself as "a hero business tycoon, winner of a Nobel Prize or...a successful husband/father." The men in Levinson's study who were able to connect their childhood sense of "self-in-adult-world" to their current and future identity were the ones who seemed to effectively manage the transitional periods and cross the bridge between adolescence and adulthood. The successful integration of the image of the future self into the reality of adult life was, however, related to a second major task of the developmental period: Forming a Mentor relationship.

Confronted with the possibility of actualizing critical aspects of his "Dream" and forming an "initial life structure," the young adult may not have developed the psychological resources or had sufficient access to the social resources which would allow him entry into a newly chosen sociocultural and/or occupational arena. Levinson's findings suggest that forming a Mentor relationship facilitates

*The singular masculine form is used henceforth in this research purely as a matter of convenience in the flow of reading. Its use is by no means meant to imply particular gender-specific referents, and is employed rather than the singular female form for consistency with references in the literature.

the rites of passage. A Mentor is the parallel of the classical transitional object or figure which acts as a bridge between "that which is familiar and that which is distressingly unfamiliar and facilitates the acceptance of the latter" (Greenacre, 1972). As Levinson describes, The Mentor is not simply a teacher, adviser, or role model, but the Mentor has the specific function of believing in the young adult's "dreamed of sense of self-in-adult-world," "sharing the youthful Dream and giving it his blessing, helping to define the newly emerging self in a newly discovered world" (Levinson, 1978).

Levinson's conception of the Mentor as a transitional figure as well as his use of "transitional periods" in his adult development paradigm draws heavily on Winnicott's (1953) theories regarding transitional phenomena, play, the environment and the psychological development of the child. The significance of such phenomena was elaborated upon by Winnicott in terms of the "good-enough mother" who is able to create a time and place in space where her child can playfully "enact his imaginings." By allowing the child time for illusions, time to play-at mastering his environment, the good-enough parent facilitates "hope, self-esteem, integrity, and identity" (Levinson, 1978).

The good-enough Mentor serves a similar function in the Life of the young adult, for as he supports the young adult's Dream he lends credibility to current and future positive self images.

As in Levinson's study, The Mentor and his functions are defined by this writer in the following ways:

1. The Mentor's primary functions are: a) to be a transitional figure (a mixture of parent and peer); b) to mediate between what is familiar in the external world and what is unfamiliar, and c) to believe in the young person's Dream.

2. The Mentor may be a factual figure or may take a "purely symbolic form." Writes Levinson, "an aspiring young novelist

> may admire an older writer, devour his books, and learn a great deal about him, and create an idealized figure with whom he has a complex relationship" (Levinson, 1978, p. 99).

Levison emphasizes the fact that Mentoring is determined by the nature of the relationship and the functions it serves. He also concluded that forming a Mentor relationship is a task which is initiated between the ages of seventeen and thirty-five years of age.

This writer would like to propose that for the inner-city adolescent the tasks of Forming a Dream and Forming a Mentor relationship must be initiated sooner. If as Levinson suggests entering the adult world is contingent upon establishing a workable link between the self he has come to value in his unique cultural milieu and strategies utilized within the mainstream professional or academic arena, then having a Mentor may be endemic to this success.

MASTERY, IDENTITY, AND BLACK ADOLESCENCE

School is the arena where most youth are expected to develop cognitive and social skills that form the basis of their sense of mastery. For the Black adolescent whose roots are in the inner-city experience, school may provide a setting where he will encounter reinforcement of a self-image which differs from the one that he has come to value. History confirms that in most cultures, "education aims at the development of individuals whose sensitivities and whose anxieties will be useful and reassuring to the kind of people who wield the power" (Friedenberg, 1959). To the extent that black leadership is minimized in our educational, social, and political institutions, racism impinges on both psychological and social processes such that the status quo favoring the majority is maintained. To the extent that educational institutions continue to communicate the value judgments held by

the power elite, the developmental processes of self-definition, identity formation, and psychosocial competence for the black inner-city adolescent are at high risk. A "provisional life structure" which can weather the storm of racial and class barriers must somehow be prepared to manage a potentially profound identity conflict. As Mosby (1972) states:

> This conflict is so basic and intense that the lower-class child who accepts the values of the educational system becomes indoctrinated in middle-class thought and risks unpopularity with his peers, exclusion by his family, and rejection by ghetto culture. He becomes an alien in familiar quarters, a misfit in his own group. Such potent, subcultural processes are adverse enough to deter many a ghetto youngster from cultivating his native, creative, innovative, and intellectual abilities within educational settings (p. 36).

It is no surprise then that many inner-city youths seek security in what they find at their disposal instead of the rewards which higher education promises for tomorrow. Survival is constituted by that which he can "see, hold, touch, wear, and eat" (Mosby, 1972).

The adult development literature corroborates this dynamic. Inclusive in recorded biographical and life history data collected by Sheehy, author of "Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Development," is a synopsis of the life of a Black inner-city child who "made it." During his adolescent passage from street life to becoming the director of a prominent youth center, he attended Hotchkiss — a prestigous White boarding school. Dennis Waddlington, former inner-city youth, now junior varsity quarterback for Hotchkiss, finds himself "pitted against his ex-team" the project boys he grew up with. Having been one of their "Black hopes gone North" he has:

> ...the impossible task of upholding this idealization while simultaneously proving that he could not, would not ever (Please Lord!) become that most despised variant of his race — Oreos (Sheehy, 1977, p. 69).

When Hotchkiss wins the game, and the bus with his friends starts back for Harlem, Dennis is described as feeling an "ache of isolation." We hear him argue aloud to himself:

> Say I do become successful, I'll have a lot of money, a beautiful home, I'll probably have lots of broads, but it won't mean anything. Because I won't be accomplishing anything for my people. Where would I live? White folks aren't going to accept me. And if I go back to Harlem, with big bucks, they aren't going to accept me either. So the more money I make, the more I isolate myself (Sheehy, 1977, p. 70).

Freidenberg, speaking of the "lower-class" adolescent, the "corner-boy," refers to the psychological protection which remaining true to his subsystem provides him. He may be aware that the school mistreats him but his detachment prevents them from striking at his roots, "which are too deep and in any case elsewhere: in the love he has received from a stable home, or is receiving from his girl; in the status he gets in his gang...in real friendships" (Freidenberg, 1959, p. 76). Yet, for Freidenberg's corner-boy or today's black inner-city youth, dismissal from institutions of higher learning (be it an active or a passive process), short circuits both vocational and interpersonal potentials. Resignation to activities which have formerly won him prestige within his own peer group, is not without cost. The price he pays for maintaining integrity within his own cultural domain may deprive him of educational attainment and the opportunity to establish the "link between his valued self" and what the dominant culture considers "the adult society." Hence, it is this writer's belief that inner-city adolescents not only have to initiate the tasks of Forming a Dream and finding a Mentor, indeed, to become psychosocially competent they must form a relationship with a Mentor who allows them entry into new social spheres while simultaneously helping them to keep the doors of their childhood worlds open to them. There must be little

or no "struggle against identification" (Greenson, 1954) for these processes to take place.

IDENTIFICATION WITH SIGNIFICANT OTHERS THE EGO IDEAL AND THE MENTORING PROCESS: THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Psychological theory and research have contributed a great deal to our understanding of the processes by which children and adults identify with individuals and maintain belief systems. Identification and "identification systems" are assumed to determine our intrapsychic sense of our relationships in the world as well as the interpersonal manifestations of them (Kernberg, 1975). According to Murphy (1964) identification processes facilitate the consolidation of ego structures which are connected with a sense of the continuity of one's self. It is this sense of self which determines a child's perception of his functioning and Schafer (1966) notes that it is through processes of identification that our lives are enriched..."the internal presence of people who are loved and admired in a realistic way...constitutes a major source of emotional well-being." Klein (1975) adds:

> ...we keep enshrined in our minds our loved people; we may feel in certain difficult situations that we are guided by them, and may find ourselves wondering how they would behave, and whether or not they would approve of our actions...we may conclude that these people to whom we look up to in this way ultimately stand for admired and loved parents (Klein, 1975, p. 338).

Identification in the child functions as a central mechanism for development. In Smilansky's (1968) review of the literature on identification he refers to Parson's definition: identification "is the generalized motive to become like another." Both writers feel that identification does not take place as a singular event but that a series of identifications serve both a synthetic and differentiation function

as the child is forced to experience himself in relation to his parents and as the role he is to play in society begins to emerge. Two types of identification mechanisms are mentioned in this regard: the personal and the positional.

> Personal identification involves the identification of the ego with the actual person the adoption of his personality, traits, values, attitudes, and is primarily motivated by the ego's love and admiration of the other (alter). The child who identifies in this way is saying in effect, "I want to be like you. If I were, I would love myself as much as I love you. To achieve this I will incorporate your qualities and your values and your ideals. I will view and judge myself through your eyes" (Smilansky, 1968).

Positional identification on the other hand is related to fear and envy. The child wants to be in the "position" of the other. He puts himself "in fantasy" in the situation of the other, and learns the behaviors which allow him to enact the role appropriately. Smilansky proposed that identification was the basis of sociodramatic play, the acting out of themes and roles in preschool children. In his own study, the observations of the ways in which sociodramatic play enhanced the educational development of disadvantage Israeli children was found to be related to the accessability of adult models with which they could identify (1968).

Shafer's definition of identification suggests that we focus on it as a process with conscious and unconscious elements. The process can lead to an identification which can become a means to an end and the end in itself.

> In its fullest sense, the process of identifying with an object is unconscious, though it may also have prominent and significant preconscious and conscious components; in this process the subject modifies his motives and behavior patterns, and the self-representations corresponding to them, in such a way as to experience being like, the same as, and merged with one or more of the representations of that object; through identification, the subject both represents as his own one or more regulatory influences or characteristics of the object that have become important to him and continues his tie to the object; the subject may wish to bring about this change for various reasons;

> an identification may acquire relative autonomy from its origins in the subject's relations with dynamically significant objects (Shafer, 1969, p. 140).

In Schafer's conceptualization, identification is but one aspect of internalization (imitation and incorporation being related but serving different functions). While he emphasizes the tie to a particular object in the above passage he also recognizes that an identification can acquire "autonomy from its origins in the subjects relations with dynamically significant objects." This becomes important to note as one begins to look at identification as a process with many and varied outcomes and one which can be considered, for the most part, an unconscious process. Hence the maintaining of the tie may not be experienced by the subject, although the subject can be perceived as "modifying motives and behavior patterns...(and representing) as his own, one or more regulatory influences or characteristics of the object" (p. 140).

To the extent that the identification allows for a taking in of "outer regulations," or real or imagined interactions with the environment, one can make the assumptions that an internalization has taken place. The regulations, the "higher-order forms of restraint, guidance, and mastery" (Shafer, 1969) once internalized are said to be brought into a new and different relationship with the subject's previous motive system or that which Schafer considers "the ego." He suggests that identifications "do not create capacities...(but) imbue the use of capacities with a particular coloring and accentuation taken over from representations of the object" (1969). The process is then one of selective reorganization, a process whereby "certain lines of action, learning, and development are opened and others closed."

In this writer's view Schafer's theory of identification provides us with a conceptual framework with which to understand how the inner-city adolescent's attempts to strive towards mastery in the professional arena may engender conflict;

having internalized "regulatory mechanism of their primary identifications for whom mainstream educational attainment may not have been possible or desirable, the task of Forming a Dream which might be different from the perceived and internalized parent images, may cause conflict and hamper self-development.

While Schafer focuses on the successful countering of id derivatives by the internalization of regulatory aims which serve an adaptive (ego) function, this writer suggests that we look more closely at the superego to understand the proposed conflict. The superego is not only related to parental identifications but is said to have at its core the ideals and aspirations of the subject. Sandler et al., (1963) writes of the shape of the ideal self giving an overview of theories related to the origin of the ego ideal and the ideal self. In this substantive review we are reminded of Freud's early writings on narcissism (1914) and his suggestion that out of the formation of the infantile ego comes the conscience, and consequently the projection of the infant's narcissism, which crystallizes into the ego-ideal. As Sandler et al., describes, Freud's assumptions about the ego ideal changes (as does his drive theory) and by 1932 he makes a distinction between the two (the conscience and the ego ideal). The ego ideal is described as an activity of the superego: "No doubt the ego ideal is a precipitation of the old idea of the parents, an expression of admiration which the child felt for the perfection which it at that time ascribed to" (Sandler, 1963, p. 152). Subsequently, the conscience is written about in terms of the internalized prohibitive parental images which are differentiated from the ego ideal. Reich (1954) writes about them as having shared functions and derivatives. Piers and Singer (1953) emphasize that it matters less whether the two are seen as distinct entities, and more that: "The superego sets boundaries for the ego, the ego ideal goals." The critical aspects of the ego ideal are perceived by Piers and Singer to be: 1) a core of narcissistic omnipotence,

2) postive parental identifications, 3) later identifications more subject to change and 4) the drive towards mastery.

Sandler et al., (1963) cast the ego ideal in the framework of the shape of the "ideal self" as it fits into the representational world. They see the ideal self as "that shape which at that time in those circumstances, and under the influence of the particular instinctual impulse of the moment, is the shape which would yield the greatest degree of well-being for the child" (p. 153). The resolution of the shape of the ideal self is cited as being an "economic one." Hence, a choice which intensifies conflict or punishment directed towards the self, by internal or external objects will be abandoned if the threat of punishment or loss of love is greater than the gains made over other wish fulfilling identifications which might influence a new or different shape of the ideal self.

Here, one is reminded of Rank's theory of "ethical guilt" as a consequence of separation from a loved object in order to establish autonomy. As recapitulated by Menniker (1983), Rank asserts that the conflict over separation from an internalized parental ideal (given that it involves some degree of rejection) may be so great that the individual "gives up Willing." For the ethnic minority adolescent confrontation with a social and political system which may not reinforce identifications with other than Anglo cultural attributes may yield alienation. The Black or Hispanic adolescent who is forced to negate his ethnic and/or class identity may be very much like the individuals whom Greenson (1954) refers to whose lives were crippled by the thrust to "deny any resemblance" to their parents who became "hated external objects." Such is the case with the Black individual that Fanon talks about in his 1967 analysis of the mentality of the colonized Antilleans whose self-concepts appeared to him to be built on "a myth of sameness" with the White colonizers, and a denial of sameness with other people of color (including their

fellow Black Antillean of lower social status, Black Africans or Black Americans). He describes the distortion as the Black Antillean encounters the European on turf other than his own:

> And then the occasion arose when I had to meet the White man's eyes. An unfamiliar weight burdened me. The real world challenged my claims. In the White world the man of color encounters difficulties in the development of bodily schema. Consciousness of the body is (becomes) solely a negating activity. It is a third person consciousness. The body is surrounded by an atmosphere of certain uncertainty (p. 111).

Fanon goes on to say:

> "Dirty Nigger." Or simply, "Look, a Negro!" I came into the world imbued with the will to find a meaning in things, my spirit filled with desire to attain to the source of the world, and then I found that I was an object in the midst of other objects.
>
> Sealed into the crushing objecthood. I turned beseechingly to others. Their attention was a liberation, running over my body suddenly abraded into non-being, endowing me once more with the agility that I had thought I had lost, and by taking me out of the world, restoring me to it. But just as I reached the other side, I stumbled, and the movements, the attitudes of the other fixed me there, in the sense in which a chemical solution is fixed by a dye. I was indignant; I demanded an explanation. Nothing happened. I burst apart. Now the fragments have been put together again by another self (Fanon, 1967, p. 109).

The point which this writer attempts to highlight with the above passages is that a similar process may be operative in the experience of inner-city children who do not or can not seem to buy into a school system which does not reach them. She also wishes to emphasize that people who serve as objects of identification are not oppressive simply because their external characteristics differ. It is the communication that certain characteristics are superior in their differences, i.e., that European characteristics, culture, are superior to Black cultural characteristics,

which can cause the demise of the self for the Black who identifies with them to the exclusion of his own natural attributes.

Consequently it is this writer's thesis that hero/mentors who can successfully mentor Black adolescents, may not have to be Black, as much as they have to be able to understand and enhance the integration of the ego ideals with which the contemporary Black adolescent may struggle to maintain a connection. This seems to be the case in Sheehy's (1977) description of Dennis Waddlington whose "collected identities have ranged from showpiece of the neighborhood youth center, to smack peddler, to football star, to being the 'black experiment' at a fancy prep school":

> Here was Dennis, once more adhering to this mother's dictates by goin' roun' white folks and playing up to their stereotyped expectations. Knowing the act that brought him applause was just that, an act, not an authentic way of being, he nevertheless felt limited to the kind of behavior for which the group would give him recognition. He was the entertainer.
>
> Until Dennis could gather the wanted fragments from his varied and competing identifications, he could not compose his own identity — a consistent way of being and feeling that would make sense to himself and the people who meant the most to him...
>
> Fortuitously, a teacher took him in hand. He had the name of a Viking prince. "A jive-assed Viking, Leif Thorn-Thompson — now how's a street dude going to get tight with any cat wearing a hyphenated name?"
>
> ..."T.T. became my tutor, my best friend; he's a brilliant man. And that's when the real change began. T.T. was the person who introduced me to the idea of breaking it down myself, finding out what you are in the things you do" (Sheehy, 1977, p. 73).

T.T.'s ability to anticipate and reinforce positive aspects of Dennis' internalized parental images may have allowed for a new "shape of the self" and facilitated

other aspects of Dennis' ego ideal such as the drive towards mastery that Piers and Singer (1955) indicate is an important component of the ego ideal.

A more recent investigation of the ego in relation to development, undertaken by Loevinger (1976) and cited throughout Kellerman's (1979) review of the adult development literature, suggests that "the striving to master, to integrate, to make sense of experience" is not "just another thing the ego does (but) what the ego is" (Loevinger, 1976, p. 5). While most people are hypothesized by Loevinger as being unable to complete her proposed five stages of ego development, they may do so in the advent of the "pacer." Kellerman (1979) tells us:

> "The pacer is a teaser: it is any stimulus from the environment that tempts the ego to change by exposing it to attributes of higher levels without intimidating the person (ego) still at the lower level. Implicit in this notion is the assumption that under optimal conditions, persons will opt for change to higher levels. These conditions include having models of higher levels made available, and understanding that the disequilibrium induced by the now attractive shift will not be to costly" (Kellerman, 1979, p. 16).

Again what is of interest to this writer is the notion of disequilibrium in the ego system which could be caused by the pacer or model should he not be attuned to the individual's experience or development. The "shift" must not be too costly and respect must be paid to the structural components of the individual's current level of development, in order that disequilibrium not be too great.

Empirical Studies

Empirical studies of identification processes have also focused on its relationship to mastery and learning. The outcome of Smilansky's (1968) study of disadvantaged preschool children in Israel supported his hypothesis that the process of identification, in this case with parents, functioned as the major motivational force. Learning to act out and fantasize about the roles which adults played seemed to increase the children' learning potential.

Jerome Kagan, a developmental psychologist, has suggested that there are four basic assumptions related to the acquisition and maintenance of an identification. He defines identification somewhat differently than previously mentioned theorists. Identification in his eyes is defined as an "acquired cognitive response" existing within the individual. The content of this response is said to predispose the individual to react to events occurring to a model, the object of his identification, as if they were occurring to him. The model's "attributes, motives, characteristics, and affective states" may then influence the subject's behavior attributes, and affective states (Kagan, 1968). Kagan suggests that the attainment of a feeling of power and mastery over the environment along with love and afffection should lead to a decrease in anxiety over a child's sense of helplessness or loneliness. He sees these as essential motives for identification with models, and suggests that the studies of Payne & Mussen (1956) as well as Sears (1959) support the hypothesis that identification is motivated by the desire to master one's environment. Children and adolescents in their studies were more strongly identified with the parent who "controlled" their resources and sources of gratification.

After showing films to seventh grade boys and girls, Maccoby & Wilson (1957) hypothesized that seventh grade boys and girls would remember aspects of the film which were most relevant to the character with which he/she was identified most accurately. Results of this study showed that boys chose the character whose social class was most closely related to the position or social class to which they aspired as opposed to the level or status their families presently occupied. This outcome is interesting given this writer's thesis for it suggests that whether or not there is a "struggle against identification" with images that are perceived as different, there is also a press towards identification with others who are more "ideal" (or whose circumstances are more "ideal") as well as a capacity

to identify. Such identification and its relationship to psychosocial competence and the drive towards developing mastery in this society is once again reflected in a passage written by Sheehy:

> Dennis needed to affirm his worth and his strength by becoming a leader. One way of leading would be as a drug hustler. Another way, Chuck's way, would be to break out of the ghetto absorb all the education possible and return home to act as a catalyst for other boys like himself. Copying either hero required a big step (p. 66).

In Kagan's paper, "The Concept of Identification" (1968), he speculates that the concept has fallen prey to theoretical explanations with a lack of emphasis on behavioral analyses "because social reinforcement has been viewed as a specific action directed at an individual by a reinforcing agent." If one begins however to conceive of "a perception, fantasy, or thought" as a reinforcing agent, greater possibilities are believed to exist (Kagan, 1968). The writer believes that this is the case when one identified with a hero/mentor figure. A clear example of how the adolescent's fantasy life and identification with a hero figure served as a major motivational force is documented in a recent article written by Curvin (1981). In it he describes his relationship with an idealized other, Jackie Robinson:

> What mattered to all of us, though, and particularly to me, was seeing Jackie Robinson. I tracked his every move -- on the field and in the dugout. He was ebony, and he looked strong. I noticed with some concern that he was pigeon-toed. My toes point out. I was determined to work on this defect, the better to emulate my new hero, and I spent the ride home in the kind of fantasy every kid feels after watching a real game. But I felt something more. I felt proud. I was inspired...
>
> Although Robinson was followed into professional sports by many other black players, it was his courage that thrilled us, inspired us and held us to him even after he had moved on. His spirit had entered the bloodstream of a generation...
>
> Ours was not a ghetto existence, but there was isolation. We lived on the second floor of a multi-family house with only black families. We did not have central heating,

> and in the bitter cold we heated flatirons on the coal stove, wrapped them in towels and put them in the beds to keep warm.
>
> A child in such circumstances needs heroes, and Jackie Robinson came at just the right time for me. Through him I was able to indulge in the same kind of fantasies as white kids.
>
> I was Jackie Robinson in my mind...
>
> (Curvin, 1981)
> See Appendix

HERO WORSHIP, FANTASY PREDISPOSITION AND COMPETENCE: EMPIRICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Hero Worship & Social Competence

Hero worship is a phenomena that has existed throughout centuries. Biblical figures, ancient gods and goddesses, were worshipped and revered in the hopes that their supernatural powers would bring prosperity and good fortune to the individuals who worshipped them (Hamilton, 1942). Conceptualizations of the classical hero depict the hero as "a wise, self-actualized, visionary person who possesses great personal magnetism" (Smith, 1976).

As early as 1841, Carlyle was known to have categorized heroes into six types. Smith (1976) notes that all six categories portrayed the hero as "a great person as opposed to a famous person." Klapp (1962) believed that heroes represented a vehicle or dimension of social control, a typology which gave people the "impetus to rise above the ordinary." Heroes as role models were perceived by Klapp as useful in "maintaining structure" and "orienting members."

In studying the American character he suggests that there have been three main typologies: Heroes, Villains, and Fools. Such types are thought to correspond to dimensions of the socialization process such that they are respectively representative

of "better than, dangerous to, and falling short of norms applied to group members or status occupants" (p. 17). He suggests:

> An individual feels success to the extent that he lives up to heroes...He (man) is whole only in terms of the triad of ideal possibilities which add to his discomfort quite as much as they goad him into being, into becoming himself. (p. 17).

In more contemporary literature Klapp (1969) embellishes this idea and informs us that heroes are "reinforcers" of societal values, "seducers" for those who choose to go against the norms, or "transcendental," agents who help people transcend their cultural experience and negotiate new identities.

The heroes that have monopolized the "American" scene within the last ten years seem to fit less into the category of the classical hero whose leadership abilities had special implications for their followers. Sports heroes, celebrity heroes, and super-heroes, are heroes who in Fishwick's (1969) words "are not someone who is especially good, but only someone who realizes dreams for people that they cannot do for themselves" (p. 214). Yet, as non-classical as they may seem, sports heroes and celebrity heroes may still provide "a sense of identity and destiny" for the American public. This belief stimulated Smith's (1976) investigation of the relationship between sports hero worship and social integration. Smith believed that characteristics such as accessibility and readiness to take risks and to be challenged in public make the sports heroes immensely popular.

The details of Smith's study are worth noting as they bear special relevance to this research. Smith's (1976) study entailed interviewing one hundred and sixty-four residents of Alberta, Canada, ages 18 and over, concerning their sports heroes. They were instructed to list a maximum of three sports heroes. Inquiries into the sex, race, nationality, etc., were made. An alienation scale and a social integration

measure were utilized. Demographic variables of the respondents were factors. Smith's hypotheses which coincide with this author's interest were stated as follows:

1. There will be an inverse relationship between the respondent's age and whether or not a sports hero is selected. Older respondents will tend not to select a sports hero.
2. Middle-class respondents will be more likely to select sports heroes than will upper or lower class respondents.
3. Respondents who have sports heroes will belong to more organizations than respondents who do not have sport heroes.
4. Respondents who have sports heroes will be less alienated than respondents who do not have sports heroes.

A multivariate or discriminant analysis was performed on the data. This method seems to have been important to Smith's analysis given that fifty percent of his sample is reported as having no athlete that "they would like to be like." In explanation, Smith like Schwartz (1971) differentiates between admiring an athlete "to the extent that the best of any line of endeavor is admired" and identification with an athlete such that respondents "live through their sports heroes" (Klapp, 1969).

Outcomes of Smith's (1976) study which were significant imply that similarity exists between the characteristics of the respondent and the hero selected. In this case demographic variables of the respondent, gender, and race paralleled the sport hero selected. The hypothesis concerning social integraton and hero selection was borne out. Hence, respondents who were able to mention one or more sports heroes were found to have adequate measures of social integration (involvement in organizations) at the .01 level of significance. A low level of alienation was found to be significantly related to "the type" of hero such that

respondents who selected Klapp's (1969) reinforcing type hero were significantly less alientated than respondent's who did not select a sports hero. Smith refers to Nettler (1955) for an explanation of this: the nature of the relationship between individuals and their "icons" could in itself represent a measure of social integration.

Although Smith (1976) postulated that middle-class respondents would be more likely to select sports heroes than upper or lower class respondents, there were no significant difference found to support this notion. It is interesting to note that this notion was based on research done by Loy (1966), Clarke (1956), and Edwards (1973). The standard of living during the 50's and 60's was such that members of the lower classes may not yet have been acknowledged by the mainstream, and hence had little incentive to espouse mainstream values. Loy's (1966) study employed the frequency with which respondents were spectators at sports events as a measure of involvement in sports hero worship. During the 50's and 60's many members of the lower classes were still fighting for equal rights and equal access to mainstream institutions, including the opportunity to raise their economic status; perhaps, the lack of economic resources was a confounding variable in the frequency with which lower class respondents frequented sports events. One wonders if the outcome of these studies would have been different if measures of sports participation or television viewing had been used as an index.

The fact that Smith's hypothesis concerning the age of the respondents proved to be the most significant factor in determining the mention of a sport's hero lends support to the notion that the need relevancy for adolescents and children for heroes to worship is greater than that of adults, with the exception of adults in leadership positions. Again, Klapp (1969) quotes Smith (1966):

> People of all ages use heroes in some way, but teenagers give us the sharpest, most sincere picture of the hero voyage of identity, because this is the age at which idealization

> is freshest and most impetuous — as parents are ceasing to be primary models and career choices have to be made and many grown up roles adopted in a hurry from the models available (p. 214).

Though the literature on hero worship or identification with hero figures has for the most part focused on an adult population, there have been a few recent studies which elucidate the effects of hero worship on a child's performance in certain spheres. A major research endeavor at Children's Hospital National Medical Center had as one of its objectives to investigate cognitive, personality, and family correlates of children's sports participation and competence. This study, conducted by a team of psychologists (Cooper, Linvingood, & Kurz, 1980), was a part of the larger Pediatric Sports Medicine Project. The results of this study showed that the age of the child and parent's rating of sports competence had the most influence on the child's sports participation. The psychologists then decided to do another study regarding sports hero worship. They became particularly interested in the role of child/hero similarity. Livingood, Cooper, & Kurz (1980) studied 110 children, ages 7-16 years. The assumption was that sports heroes would serve as models for those children who were sports participants. Choice of sports hero was hypothesized to be significantly related to a child's race, gender, and the primary sport in which he or she participated. Seventy-five percent of the children named a public personality as a sports hero, ten percent named a personal acquaintance, and fifteen percent said they had no hero. In general, the outcome of this study confirmed the belief that children would choose heroes that were similar to them. Race in particular seemed to have a strong influence in that out of 83 subjects who named public figures only one child, an eight-year old white female, selected a hero not of her race. There was some speculation by the authors as to why there seemed to be a greater tendency for black children to select black heroes. One suggestion was that different socialization processes

including differences in the "value orientation of the school, peers, and family" and "the availability of role models" during childhood (McPherson, 1974) may affect the tendency to choose in the direction of race. Hence black children are assumed to have more models in the field of sports than they have white role models (Livingood, Cooper, Kurz, 1980). A second explanation which seems of more substance to this author was that of "individual differences in the strength of different dimensions of identification." This is similar to the construct of need relevancy and would explain why the white children in the study seemed to have less of a need to choose a model of the same race. Having more access to role models in a variety of spheres who may fullfil their emotional, social, or vocational needs, a white child could psychologically afford to select a hero on the basis of competency alone (Livingood, Cooper, Kurz, 1980).

Predisposition to Fantasy and Cognitive Competence

While studies of hero worship per se as it relates to a child's self-esteem, perceived and actual social competence, and degree of self satisfaction have not been attempted, there has been increasing interest in the empirical exploration of a related area. Imaginary or pretense play has recently become an important focus of many researchers in child and adolescent development. Its relationship to cognitive and affective development has been established by Singer (1977), Fein (1978), Freyberg (1974), Pope (1977), and theoretically by Piaget (1962). Singer (1977) suggests that pretend games are both enjoyable and influential in the acquisition of impulse control, and social role-mastery. The "reality of fantasy" according to Singer entails the importance of imagery for the learning process (Paivio, 1970; Reese, 1970; Rohiver, 1970):

> For certain kinds of problems that we confront in our daily lives, our ability to reconstruct a visual series of

> events or to project in parallel processing from the image of a particular setting can be especially important...Through imagery, we can produce earlier material more effectively than by simply making use of the verbal label for an event (Singer, 1977, p. 131).

Singer's work utilizing imagery and fantasy has had implications for psychotherapy; the reexperiencing of affects related to an event seem to come more easily when the individual has the facility for imagery reconstruction (Singer, 1977).

Theoretical and practical uses of play have been greatly influenced by psychoanalysis and its assumption that play behavior is symbolic and cathartic; that through play unconscious conflicts can be understood and instincts sublimated. Imaginery or pretense, the kind of play which this author will attempt to relate to hero worship and the development of psychosocial competence, has reflected the theoretical assumptions of social psychological, cognitive, and neo-Freudian theorists. Erickson and Piaget are both cited as having stressed "the coping rather than the drive-reducing aspects of symbolic play" (Freyberg, 1974). Cognitive models developed by Izard and Tomkins (1962) have also drawn upon the imaginative play literature because they imply that imaginary play, or the predispositon to fantasy involves developing equilibrium between inner and outer stimuli. States Freyberg:

> The model invokes the idea of an information-processing channel with limited capacity. Tomkins (1962) emphasize human efforts to amplify and seek out stimulation and he views personality as a two-way communication between individual and environment. He suggests that affect is involved in the development of the image or fantasy that governs purposive behavior. The organism uses the feedback about the discrepancy between the present and the image to activate the affect system which is motivational and cue producing (1974).

This model holds the germ of the relationship here proposed between fantasy predisposition, hero worship and psychosocial competence. That an image or

fantasy is stimulated by an affect and becomes cue-producing suggests that the process of identification with a hero figure may evoke a cognitive image which can influence ongoing information processing and learning. In this regard, both being able to form an image of one's hero and fantasize or picture one's "dreamed of sense-of-self" should come more easily given a greater predisposition to fantasy. The cue producing and motivational aspects of the system should thereby be enhanced.

Researchers in the area of imaginary play have found differences between middle-class versus lower-class (White as well as Black) children's abilities to fantasize (Pavenstedt, 1967; Griffing, 1974; Loevinger, 1974; Smilansky, 1968; Singer, 1977). However in Freyberg's study (1974) lower-class children were successfully trained to play more imaginatively. According to Freyberg their enhanced ability to engage in such play proved to be related to greater verbal communication, longer and more complex sentence usage, more sensitive responding to the social cues of other children, more apparent spontaneity, more creative use of play material, and increased attention span.

Most researchers have not adhered to Riesman's (1964) caution in their assessment of the inner-city experience. They have failed to acknowledge the richness, and diversity as well as the competencies one must possess in order to survive and transcend the hazards of such an environment. Singer (1977) and Freyberg (1974) attempt to offer an alternative to the deficit model used to explain differences in fantasy ability related to social class. Both researchers conclude that the potential for self-actualization was present in lower-class children but the appropriate technique or "stimulus" was needed to turn the potential into a skill.

A NOTE ON ROLE MODELS AND HERO/MENTORS

The concept of making the academic experience culturally relevant is not new. The assertion that Black and Hispanic role models i.e., professionals, community leaders, political leaders, etc., were necessary for identity formation dates back to the 1950's. The psychological literature as well as the sociological literature held Black self-concept formation to be a powerful and important theme well into the seventies (Clark, 1939; Hayes, 1972; Poussaint & Atkinson, 1972: and Pugh, 1972). As Erickson has so poignantly stated, "Traditional remnants of identity strength are economic, political, religious, regional, and national...identity formation is inseparable from this for only within a defined group identity can authority exist" (Erickson, 1968).

The evolution of theory related to the psychology of the Black or "minority" experience as well as theorists such as Erickson who tended not to have an ethnocentric approach to understanding human experience, seemed to influence the belief that visible Black and Hispanic role models in one's educational and wider social milieu would enhance self-esteem and contribute to achievement motivation. There is no doubt that the Black political and social revolution which took place during the 1960's had an affect on the young as well as the old of that decade (Report of the President's Commission on Civil Disorders, 1968). Evidence of this can be found in historical and scientific literature. While many contemporary social scientists lament the passing of "the Black Revolution" this author believes that identity formation is a process which has its genesis within the individual as well as via the interaction with the individual's cultural group, and that the "competent self" is rooted in a feeling of one's own effectiveness as well as one's perception of the strengths and/or weaknesses with which one's sociocultural milieu may be imbued. In this writer's opinion, role model ideology should be

extended to include a depth psychological approach as well as that of adult development. To explore the role model ideology in terms of Levinson's Mentor model is to explore the role model as an internalized motive system which may allow the individual to interact with his cultural group and the larger society in an effective way. To explore motive systems is, from the standpoint of this writer, to make the survival of the inner-city adolescent within the mainstream less situation dependent and more internally based.

The current literature on life-span development appears to illuminate an ongoing process where the "self is in the world and the world is in the self" (Levinson, 1978). Whether one focuses on Levinson's "Mentor" or Loevinger's "Pacer" as cited by Kellerman (1979) one is aware of what Erickson's calls: "a succession of potentialities for significant interaction with those persons who tend and respond to the child and those institutions which are ready for him" (Erickson, 1968, p. 39). As Kellerman (1979) suggests in reference to this quote:

> The pattern does not alter in adulthood: throughout life, personality grows as the result of the quality of the interplay between the self and the widening radius of significant individuals and institutions (Kellerman, 1979, p. 8).

If by a role model one speaks of a static image whose attributes are felt to be useful to an adolescent then, in this writer's opinion, one is referring to a situation whereby imitative behaviors are being fostered as opposed to personality growth and change. Hero-Mentors differ in that they not only create images, they create dynamisms with which the child-adolescent effectively interacts (see Curvin, 1981).

As political scientists invest in the adult development paradigm to "illuminate truths and possibilites about the body politic" and begin to see its potential for influencing political socialization and public policy (Kellerman, 1979), this writer

wishes to extend its application to the adult development of Black and Hispanic individuals by studying the Mentoring process as it relates to Black and Hispanic youth. Given this writer's clinical orientation, a depth psychological approach has been relied upon in addition to the adult development framework in order to further elucidate the elements which are believed to lay the foundation for the Mentoring process.

The Shaping of Skill: Competence Motivation

Robert White's (1965) fascination with cognitive and social competence led to the conceptualization of "effectance motivation," a construct which has been cited many times in the literature on achievement motivation, competence, and intellectual development. The origins of effectance motivation are described in his paper, "The Experience of Efficacy in Schizophrenia" (1965). Of the three key processes, action or "activity" is the first said to influence the development of adaptive skills in childhood and throughout life:

> The most important feature of the image of the exploring child is action...only by putting forth many and varied actions and learning consequences can he become adapted to his world (p. 199).

According to White, as the child learns "action possibilities" he can and does begin to monitor his impulses according to the reality of their consequences. This process, once set in motion, facilitates the development of a critical personality dimension — "self-efficacy." The extent to which the child can evoke a successful, effective response from the environment through the quality of his action, determines the extent to which that child will experience self-efficacy or a feeling of pleasure in his ability to master the environment. Directed, purposeful activity is proposed by White to result from the child's experience of self-efficacy.

by "intention" and "produces effects on the environment towards which one is aimed" (White, 1965). Consequently one experiences the feeling of "power in being an effective agent."

The relationship between action and attenton is not linear nor is it uni-directional. Self-efficacy, attention, and action form a system which acts as a sum of its parts and is believed by White to be self-perpetuating. Should any one of the components become ineffective all are jeopardized. Hence, chronic ineffectiveness in any of the three domains can influence one's ability to focus attention, experience intention, and interact with the environment in a meaningful and effective way.

Garmezy et al. (1975) based a series of studies on a similar conceptualization of competence. Nine to fourteen-year-old normal children, and children at risk for maladjustment due to a biological link with a schizophrenic parent, were studied in an endeavor to relate attentional phenomena and indices of competence. One of the major studies within this series by Devine and Tomlinson (1976), required nineteen elementary school teachers to categorize members of their classes into one of four groups ranging from superior adaptation to a school setting accompanied by a total absence of manifest problems to the presence of severe problems requiring professional assistance. Trained observers who had no knowledge of the teacher ratings, rated all children sequentially on their attentional behavior in the classroom. The hierarchy of ratings from the least able to attend to those children with superior abilities derived by the observers paralleled those of the teachers.

Garmezy's (1976) thesis that competency is dependent on attentional processes, transcends cognitive ability. He describes "interpersonal competence" as the ability to attend to others in a responsive, integrated manner. Garmezy's (1976) and White's (1959) studies of schizophrenia, both conclude that ineffectual action on the environment, and poor direction of attention are significantly related

ability to attend to others in a responsive, integrated manner. Garmezy's (1976) and White's (1959) studies of schizophrenia, both conclude that ineffectual action on the environment, and poor direction of attention are significantly related to ineffective mastery of cognitive experiences, inadequate interpersonal relations, and low feelings of efficacy and competence.

Murphy and Moriarty's (1964) longitudinal study of Coping, Vulnerability and Growth from Infancy through Adolescence, implies a similar understanding of the development of coping style and cognitive and social competencies. A child's ability to respond perceptually, affectively, and motorically to his environment in infancy was found to be significantly related to cognitive and social competencies in early adolescence or preadolescence. In the prepubertal development of these children the coping behaviors were: "openness to new experiences, pleasure in tactile experience, curiosity, active orientation, clarity of perception, determination, and drive." Creativity and self-esteem showed even higher correlations with reactivity to stimulation in infancy.* Here again, the individual's ability to interact effectively with his environment and to cope later in life are seen to be related to early abilities to attend (focus one's attention) and act (put forth an action) in response to environmental stimuli.

The Shaping of Skill: Motive Systems

The development of competence in childhood has also been approached from the perspective of motivation theorists who focus less on sensory processes of the individual and constitutional endowment and more on internal motive systems.

*Levels of autonomic reactivity showed negative correlations with "freedom from disintegration under stress, realistic evaluation of people, ability to accept warmth, intuitiveness adequacy of expression of feelings, and receptivity to the emotional impressions from the environment" (Murphy et al., 1964).

According to S. Harter (1978) there are two orientations to motive systems, that of the experimentalist and that of the social psychologist. Harter, embracing a social psychological perspective, chose to refine White's (1959) theory of motivation in an attempt to give it predictive value. Harter (1978) operationalized White's construct of "E" motivation to be understood as:

- the effects of failure and success on an individual's desire to initiate effective action on the environment or "mastery attempts."
- an optimal degree of challenge, inherent in a task, necessary to produce intrinsic pleasure and feelings of efficacy.
- the role of the socializing agent in maintaining, enhancing, or attenuating components of "E" motivation.
- the process by which children internalize a self-reward system and set mastery goals, and
- correlates of motivational constructs: Perceived Competence (the child's perception of his or her abilities), and, Perceived Control (the child's perception of his control over his environment).

Harter believed that the development of the drive towards competency in children should be studied by separating the domains of a child's experience. In her study of four thousand children ages four through fourteen approximately, she defined the domains of competence as:

- cognitive, as manifest in school performance
- social, as manifest in peer relations, and
- physicial, as manifest in athletic performance.

The two central constructs which Harter felt mediated competency within each domain were:

1. the child's motivational orientation i.e., intrinsic (self-reward) versus extrinsic (other-rewarding) and
2. the personality correlates of motivation, perceived competency and perceived control.

The three competence domains were found to be open to the influence of separate motivational orientations simultaneously. For example, a child might be motivated to engage in an activity "for its own sake" and might experience pleasure (intrinsic motivation) yet may still be dependent upon external sources for the "structure" and "definiton of mastery goals" as well as to judge the effective/successful quality of her performance.

An important finding for this author was that children make distinctions between competence in the three domains while having a "general sense of self-worth." These three domains of competence importantly parallel Tyler's (1977) conceptualization of the multi-dimensional character of coping discussed below. Harter's research provides both a conceptual and measurement link between the concept of the competence motive and the observable behaviors of attempted mastery as well as a psychodynamic bridge between the aspects of internalization and identification and the understanding of the process by which motivation becomes behavior.

Harter's most significant outcomes were related to her prediction that children high on the competence — control factor would also be intrinsicially motivated on subscales of motivation in the classroom. These subscales measured factors such as preference for challenge, curiosity, and independent mastery attempts. Mastery orientation seemed to be essentially experienced by the child in the following terms: "I enjoy the mastery process, the product is successful (I'm competent) I know why it happeend, who is in control, and that person is

me, I'm primarily responsible" (Harter, 1978, p. 30). Children low on the competence control factor are uncertain about their competencies as well as about who or what is responsible for outcomes of success or failure.

The culmination of Harter's research and her efforts to refine White's construct of "E" motivation resulted in situation specific entities or measures which could be used in the assessment of competence.

In addition, a greater understanding of the various functions of reward systems, and the degree to which such functions are internalized, lead Harter to the construction of a new scale to determine whether the functions — "incentive," "affective," "goal identification," and "criteria for success/failure" are primarily controlled by adult or peer approval or by the child's self-reward system. This determination can be made for each of the three competence domains. The differentiation of motivational (i.e., affective, incentive) versus informational functions of reward systems has allowed Harter to generate hypotheses about the personality characteristics of perceived competence and perceived control. One major hypothesis is that motivational properties have their major influence on the child's sense of competence, whereas the informational functions (i.e., knowledge of mastery goals and the criteria for success) more directly determine the child's perception of control. Harter also implies that her thesis concerning the reinforcement history of the child and its relation to the internalization process can be further delineated; parental approval of independent mastery attempts is an important prerequisite for the internalization of a self-reward system.

Harter suggests that future research endeavors should explore the following questions: "To what extent is this approval (parental) conveying information with regard to mastery goals and standards, with regard to the importance of being competent at behaviors in a particular domain? To what extent does it

convey information concerning the assessment of success or failure within domains? Does the reward have affective consequences so that pleasurable feelings are a result of it?" (Harter, 1978, p. 33). This author's research approaches these questions from the perspective of the Mentor-figure as an aspect of both the ego-idealized 'parent,' and the reward contingency which provides incentive toward increasingly effective coping style.

A recent review by Newman (1980) of four longitudinal studies which aimed at clarifying the process of adaptation, coping, and competence in adolescence, points to the necessity of exploring physiological, behavioral, and personality dimensions of competence. In all four studies a differentiation was made between competent and less competent adolescents on the basis of the ways in which they made use of sensory phenomenon and social experiences, as well as the intensity of the "energy" that characterized their interaction with the environment. The two groups were designated "Sensors" and "Censors," descriptors which equate to "high explorers" and "low explorers." Strategies characterizing the coping (adaptive behaviors) of the Sensors consisted of: the initiative to understand inconsistencies in their social environment, the ability to experiment with new activities, and the initiative to seek out new experiences.

Censors were perceived as individuals who limited sensory experiences and rejected information that was inconsistent with their traditional values. In one of the four studies the adolescent and the setting in which his competencies were being assessed were investigated. Kelly (1969) selected contrasting high school settings, and hypothesized that "social exploration," the degree to which one desires to actively explore and engage one's social environment, was a personality characteristic which would guide the adolescent's adaptation differently in different

environments. Kelly's studies emphasize the importance of the effects of environmental and institutional factors in the facilitation of adaptive skills in adolescence.

After reviewing the four studies, Newman concludes that, "the responsiveness of the setting, the value which the adolescent places on innovation and tradition, and the diversity of opportunities, will nurture or limit coping abilities." All four studies suggest that the interaction between the quality of one's activity, motility, and personality characteristics developed as a consequence of "socializing agents" are the determinants of competence in adolescence and adulthood.

The construction of psychological instruments to assess psychosocial competence as a separate psychological or personality attribute began with a research team in the early 1960's. Silber, Coelho, Murphy, et al. (1961) studied coping behaviors in young adult men and women in order to conceptualize and test the construct from a personal and social perspective. Their operational definition of competence emphasized the effectiveness with which tasks are accomplished and the cost to that individual of that effectiveness. A projective technique consisting of vignettes of problem situations typical of a college setting was devised and scored according to three dimensions:

1. solution — the degree to which the resolution of the problem was determined by the character
2. activity — the degree to which the activity produced by the main character in the direction of the solution is clearly "masterful," "full of vigorous assertiveness," and "directed effort," and
3. a favorable outcome.

Coping scores derived from this technique were found to be predictive of staying in college. According to Tyler (1977), Field et al. tested similar theoretical constructs

which yielded similar results with a population which included Hispanic individuals thus suggesting the generalizability of the constructs.

In 1968 Smith and Ezekiel investigated twenty-seven men and women in their effort to undertake two years of Peace Corps service. They hypothesized that three personality attributes would differentiate between those men and women who would prove to be "competent" throughout the training period versus those who would not. The attributes were defined as:

1. differentiation — the ability to map out the future
2. agency — perception of the future self as being the prime agent in determining the course of one's life and
3. demand — viewing one's life as demanding a long term continuing effort.

The methodology used to tap these factors included mock autobiographies, interviews, measures of authoritarianism, and other self-report instruments. It is interesting to note that the mock autobiographies were found to be most predictive of effective performance for these subjects.

In 1979 Tyler tested his conception of a tripartite personality configuration consisting of self-attitudes, self-world attitudes, and certain behavioral attributes which he felt typified the psychosocially competent personality. Tyler (1977) defined self attitudes as self-efficacy; a perception of the self as causally important in one's life. Self-world attitudes focused on a moderate degree of trust and optimism which enabled the individual to constructively build social relations. Behavioral attributes considered within this paradigm included: an active planful coping style, high initiative, goal setting, forbearance, and a capacity to build and learn from experiences of success and failure. Tyler's population included Black and White high school students matched on socioeconomic variables. Teachers

were asked to distinguish those students who "had it all together" and were well adjusted in all areas of competence from those who were making a marginal adjustment. This set of data was then compared to the data derived from a forced choice measure developed by Tyler to assess the individual's general style of approach in a particular kind of Activity (coping stance, autonomy, self-maintenance), in a major Area (personal, interpersonal, task) of that person's life, and at some Phase (search and organize, implement, culminate, conclude, and redefine) of the person's life (Tyler, 1977). A social desirability scale and a locus of control scale were also administered. The project involved four semesters of data collection over a period of three years. Though no significant differences were yielded from a multivariate analysis of variance for effects of pre-test, when all of the phases were combined substantial group and race differences were indicated. F ratios supported two of three hypothesized differences in attributes between the preselected exemplary and marginal groups. Similarities and differences between students on the variable of race were noteworthy as they challenged certain cultural stereotypes; exemplary Black students were found to be more active copers, and, contrary to expectation, scored equivalently to exemplary White students on items related to internal-external locus of control and paranoia. Tyler and Mondell (1980) have since constructed a scale to test the psychosocial competence of children ages 7 - 12 which has shown evidence to support the underlying notion of the tripartite coping style configuration in younger children.

Another recent investigation of personality competence focused on the specifics of personality characteristics of the black male. Griffin and Korchin (1980) asked sixteen instructors at two community colleges in California and New York City to define the qualities of the "ideal competent black male adolescent." A California Q Sort and an open semi-structured interview was used to this end.

The next requirement was that the teachers identify black students who they considered competent. On the average, teachers participating in this study had instructed black students for eleven years. All 23 subjects were between the ages of 18 and 21. Definitions of competence derived from teacher interviews suggested that:

> The competent person is able to adapt in many different settings and can function well in social as well as work situations; the competent person is goal oriented and his goals are realistically related to his capacities; at the same time, his goals are flexible and can shift as perspectives change. Competent individuals are seen as disciplined and confident and able to perservere under conditions that might defeat others. In their opinion, competence grows as the individual grows older. Also stressed was the competent adolescent's skill in interpersonal communication (p. 212).

The description of the competent black male rendered via the Q sort presented a profile which was similar to the interview data. The correlation between White and Black faculty members was .913.

The subjects were administered the Offer Self-Image Questionnaire, the WAIS Vocabulary, and the California Q Sort. Their ratings of themselves were then compared with the descriptions given by the faculty members. The items highly endorsed by competent black adolescents in descending order were:

- interested in the opposite sex
- high level of aspiration
- masculine in behavior
- values own independence and autonomy
- regards self as physically attractive
- has warmth
- is physically attractive
- has a wide range of interests

— appears straightforward

— is dependable

— is ethically consistent

— appears to have a high degree of intellectual capacity

— is productive and values intellectual matters

Griffin and Korchin's (1980) two main objectives were to: 1) elucidate the characteristics of the competent Black adolescent as perceived by instructors (representatives of societal norms) and 2) elucidate qualities which differentiate the "more competent Black adolescent. Although, the researchers and the Black teachers in the study held the conviction that Black competence was different from White competence, Q Sort findings indicated that both groups (Black teachers and White researchers) endorse an almost identical set of characteristics. In relation to the competent Black subject's views of themselves in comparison to their instructors ideals, the correlation on the Q Sort was 0.86 in the positive direction. Items on which the faculty and adolescents disagreed seem to reflect the differences in their relative stages of adult development. According to Griffin and Korchin (1980),

> What emerges clearly is that the young students are more concerned with appearance and self-image, sexuality and masculinity, and more ready to admit uncertainty than their mentors would like (p. 223).

The adult ideals of productivity, philosophical orientation, and intellectual skills seem relatively less salient to them. While the competent subjects describe themselves in less "intrapsychic" terms, their self-definition coincide with the description of the Optimally Adjusted Personality manifested in response to Block's Q Sort request (1961). Factors which differentiated between more and less competent adolescents were primarily in the spheres of self-image and 2) modes of interpersonal

interaction. "While both groups seem considerably concerned with self-image, their concern had different qualities" (Korchin & Griffin, 1980).

The following items were rated significantly lower by the average subjects:

- high level of aspiration
- behaves in a masculine style and manner
- is fastidious
- initiates humor
- engages in personal fantasy and daydreams
- fictional speculations

Competent adolescents rated themselves lower than average subjects on items such as: "seems to be aware of the impressions he makes on others" and "is personally charming."

"Average subjects seem to stress winning approval through influence on others, while competent subjects seem less influence oriented and more attentive to their own behavior and resources" (Griffin & Korchin, 1980).

And additional finding of interest to this author was that 62% of the competents report having other than only Black friends. Ninety percent of the "average" adolescents report having only Black friends. The researchers suggest that "competents" may be "more secure in their identity and hence more prepared to interact with diverse people."

The family environment of the competent adolescents were different from the environment of the average adolescents in important ways. Competents came from more stable families (i.e., they have moved significantly less, parents were less often divorced or separated). Competents also tended to be first borns. Both groups of boys shared similar social environs however (i.e., type of neighborhood, parental formal education and occupation, etc).

Griffin and Korchin's (1980) conclusions are supportive of this author's thesis. They indicate that more competent Black adolescents have had the opportunity to identify with significant other's (in this case parents, who were similar in sociocultural orientation); can cross ethnic group boundaries more easily (perhaps due to high levels of self-esteem and confidence); and value a predisposition to fantasize more so than the less competent Black adolescent.

Levinson was not able to make an extensive study of the successful adult development of Black males, he was however able to acknowledge that there might be critical differences in the process by which they completed the journey:

> The struggle to be true to his dream is never easy for a Black man in this society. And a Black man with heroic aspirations — literary, political, scientific, or whatever — draws upon himself with increasing intensity all the destructive forces of individual and institutional racism. These forces must be a part of the understanding of the adult development of Black men (Levinson, 1978, p. 89).

Statement of Problem

The objective of this research is to explore behavioral attributes of psychosocial competence in relation to the Black and Hispanic inner-city adolescent's experience with a focus on the hero/mentor phenomenon. This endeavor will be approached from social psychological and analytic developmental perspectives. Levinson's conceptualization of the Mentor and the Dream component of adult development will provide the foundation from which the central hypotheses will be derived. The assessment of whether an adolescent has formed a Dream and the extent to which the Dream has been effectively integrated into his life structure will be supplemented by a variable measuring predisposition to fantasy (Singer, 1977). The process of identification, assumed by this author to be an underlying mechanism of the mentoring process, will be approached from the developmental analytic perspective.

The first of the major hypotheses will be concerned with observing the occurrence of a relationship between an adolescent and a significant other. This significant other will, for the purpose of this study, be deemed a Hero (a person/character) known through fantasy, or a Mentor (a person) with whom the adolescent has had a real life interaction, if the adolescent describes a relationship which implies that:

1) The Hero/Mentor has influenced the adolescents drive towards mastery, or assisted the adolescents ability to master the demands of his environment.

2) The Hero/Mentor has facilitated the development of a competent self-image and facilitated the realization and development of the adolescent's "dreamed of self-in-adult-world."

3) The Hero/Mentor treats the adolescent as an effective problem solving agent and

4) The Hero/Mentor acts as a guide for the transition from adolescent to adulthood by facilitating the desire to master new experiences and environs.

The nature of the relationship between the adolescent and the significant other (should one exist) will be related to differences in measurements of psychosocial competence. Thus having a relationship (in fantasy or reality) which functions as described above should predict an adolescent's ability to perform well on measures of psychosocial competence.

The second of the major hypotheses will be concerned with assessing the relationship between having formed a Dream (Levinson 1978) and being assessed as psychosocially competent. For the purposes of this study the Dream component will be assessed qualitatively. To the extent that the Dream has had its origins in the adolescent's world of play, has a definite, sustaining quality and has been been integrated into the adolescent's everyday world in a way which connects past and future self images, the adolescent will perform well on a measure of competence.

The third of the major hypotheses will explore the relationship between evidence that the adolescent had been predisposed to fantasy play in childhood as assessed by Singer's Imaginative Play Interview (1977) and the adolescent's ability to perform well on a measure of psychosocial competence.

This study will then seek to explore and clarify answers to the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between an adolescent's ability to select a significant other who efectively serves the function of a Mentor and psychosocial competence?

2. Is there a relationship between an adolescent's ability to form a Dream which is sustaining and connected to their lives and psychosocial competence?

3. Is there a relationship between an adolescent's ability to be predisposed to fantasy in their childhood and psychosocial competence?

METHOD

For the purpose of presentation the chapter will be divided into five sections, namely, description of the null-hypotheses, description of the subjects, description of procedures, and treatment of the data. The following are the hypotheses which were posed for testing in the study.

State of the Null-Hypotheses

H1 There will be a positive relationship between adolescents who select a significant other who effectively serves the function of a Hero/Mentor and obtaining high scores on measures of competence.

H2 There will be a positive relationship between adolescents who Form a Dream which is sustaining and connected to their lives and obtaining high scores on measures of competence.

H3 There will be a positive relationship between adolescents who are predisposed to fantasy and obtaining high scores on measures of competence.

Description of the Subjects

The subjects consisted of one hundred and one (N=101) Black and Hispanic high school students ranging in age from fourteen to nineteen years old. Eighty of the subjects were participating in the Columbia University College Bound Program. This program, specifically designed to offer financial assistance and educational support to disadvantaged youth, was geared towards reaching students

who had at some point in their educational history exhibited academic potential, but for unspecified reasons were currently achieving at the level of a 75% grade point average (GPA) or less. The attrition rate of the program was approximately 30%. At least 50% of the students in this program were assessed as being in need of support in order to succeed in a mainstream educational environment. Most of the students in this program gain entry because they are assumed to be underachieving and it is felt that their socioeconomic backgrounds provide them with little access to educational support systems.

Twenty of the subjects were affiliated with another New York City urban college bound program geared towards high school students, Black and Hispanic in particular, who were interested in going to college and who were considered capable of utilizing counseling and tutoring sessions offered to make them better applicants. The majority of the students who were participating in this program during the data collection period were receiving passing grades or better. The staff planned group exercises geared towards strengthening leadership skills and interpersonal interactions. The staff felt that such activities would prepare students to be more competitive college applicants and college students who could function in a mainstream environment.

There were 59 males and 42 females in the total sample. There were sixty-five (65) Black students and 36 Hispanic students in the total sample. There were no significant differences found on the variable School (Program Attended) or the variable Ethnicity in regards to the variables of interest in this study.

Description of the Research Instrumentation

The Hero/Mentor Interview Schedule (HMIS), Appendix C a semi-structured clinically based interview was developed by this researcher and used to determine the nature of the relationship between the adolescent and significant others with whom he or she identified and admired. A list of significant others was established via questions which attempt to draw on positive and similar characteristics between admired figures and the subject. A rating scale developed by this researcher was then applied to their answers after a reliability check was done by two psychologists and the interrater reliability on the final trial was found to be signfiicant in the positive direction. The scale is based on the conceptualization of processes of identification, internalization, and the formation of the ego ideal as expressed by Schafer (1966) Sandler (1963), and Kagan (1968) and derived from their theoretical and empirical observations. These processes are assumed by this writer to be the underlying mechanism in the relationship between an adolescent and his Hero/Mentor. The objective of the rating scale was identification in order to determine whether the significant other fit the criteria of a Hero/Mentor or someone who played a mentoring function.

The Imaginative Play Interview (Singer, 1977). Appendix C. This five question interview schedule was established by Singer and used to measure a subject's predisposition to fantasy. Though in this study, the questions were asked from a retrospective standpoint, the experimenter wished to explore its applicability to older aged subjects. The questions were asked simply and directly as they had been asked in Singer's studies:

1) What was your favorite game during your elementary school years -- what did you like to play most?
2) When you played by yourself, what games did you play?
3) Did you ever have pictures in your head — or did you ever daydream?

4) Did you ever have a make-believe playmate?

Subjects were also asked to respond to these questions as they related to their present day activities for face validity purposes, but these scores were not considered. Answers to these questions were scored as positive if they were illustrative of fantasy play which included reports of pretend play like "house," "superheroes" or "doctor" as compared with reports of games such as running, bikeriding, watching televison, etc. Daydreaming and having an imaginary playmate were also scored for reflecting a predisposition to fantasy element.

The Dream Scale. This three level scale was developed by this researcher specifically for this study and applied to the responses given to the HMIS which included questions about career choice and early occupational aspirations as well as play and extra-curricular activities. The conceptualization of the Dream in this study was based on Levinson's definition (1978): "In its primoridal form, the Dream is a vague sense of self-in-adult-world. It has the quality of a vision, an imagined possibility that generates excitement and vitality...Whatever the nature of the Dream, the young man has the developmental task of giving it greater definition and finding ways to live it out" (p. 91-92). The three levels of the Dream (see Appendix C) as delineated by this researcher was tested for reliability by two psychologists, the interrater reliability was .78 (Spearman 4) and .79 (Pearson r) for a sample size of 20 subjects. The scale was then applied to the interview protocols.

The Tyler Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale (1978) (Appendix C). This was used to assess coping style orientation (e.g., "I usually think ahead and organize my thoughts or ideas about future situations.") As Tyler (1978) describes, this measured the concept of active planfulness in terms of

three interrelated dimensions. Interactions are divided into sequential phases during which the individual is involved in a related set of activities "a more or less active coping stance approach, self maintenance activities as we seek to become and stay focused on life interactions, and finally an effort to attain autonomy or mastery over our involvement in events." These activities were also categorized into "Areas" such that activities related to Personal, Interpersonal, Task, and General Areas of the person's functioning could be assessed in addition to an overall measure of competence. In this study, scores for the Subscales, Personal, Interpersonal, Task, and General were considered separately and as a part of a total score of psychosocial competence. Overall test reliability coefficients were .83 for Form A of the BAPC and .84 for Form B of the BAPC. The reliability of the combination of the two tests yielded a reliability of r=.92. To permit independent assessment of test dimension scores Tyler established the reliability of the various subgroups of items. For Form A, revised, Area (Personal, Interpersonal, Task, and General) range from .48 to .74. As Tyler has cautioned these subgroups are not viewed as independent psychometric tools, but as "conceptual guides" (Tyler, 1978, page 315).

Description of the Procedures

Students were enlisted voluntarily via the educational program that they were attending. They were asked to participate in a study of the kinds of experiences which helped adolescents manage their educational experience. They were told that the information would remain confidential and that their counselors and staff members would not have access to the data. (The data was then coded in terms of identification numbers for the purpose of the researcher.) Each student responded to questions related to demographics, school, and extra-curricular activities before being administered the Hero/Mentor Interview Schedule and the Imaginative Play Interview. The interview session was approximately forty-five minutes long. Each student was then asked to respond to the Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale, a pencil and paper measure which took approximately 30 minutes to complete. They were given the option of asking for clarification on test items. Data collection began during the Summer Residential session at Columbia University and continued through the Fall '82 session. Fifty-five of the 81 students from Columbia who participated in the study, were interviewed during the summer session. Student participation seemed to be affected by the period in which the interviews were done i.e., summer versus fall. This may have been due to the "group" atmosphere during the summer session whereby individual students were aware of the fact that other students were interested and participating in the study. Data from New York University affiliated high school students was collected during the Winter '83 session in the same manner as cited above. There were no differences in levels of motivation observed. The ratio of males to females in both programs tended to be at least 2:1 and was seen as contributing to the number of males from either school who chose to participate in the study. Permission for the study was granted via the Program Director after perviewing the research instrumentation.

Treatment of the Data

The analysis of the data entailed a canonical multivariate correlational model. The personality measures (The Hero/Mentor Interview Schedule, The Imaginative Play Interview, and The Dream Scale) and social demographic and school related variables were treated as predictor variables. The total cumulative score of the BAPC in addition to the scores for the subscales of the measure (Personal, Interpersonal, Task, and General) served as outcome variables in addition to grade point average. The canonical multiple regression analysis allowed for determining the relative weight of each predictor variable towards maximum correlation with the combined criteria measures.

Given that variables "school" (program attended) and ethnicity did not differentiate students on any of the predicted variables the total sample of 101 students were used in the above analyses. The grade distribution was modified such that for all analyses grade nine and ten were combined (see Appendix B for actual frequency distribution). Two-thirds of the sample was noted as having attended a program for approximately six months, the remainder of the sample was noted as having attended their respective programs for more than six months but less than one year. One student had attended the Columbia Program for more than 3 years (the program's maximum length of duration is 4 years). For purposes of analyses the students who participated in their programs less than 6 months were contrasted with the remainder. The grade point average distribution ranged from less than 65% to 85% with a small tail above 85% (see Table 5, Appendix A for frequency distribution). For the purposes of analyses the last category was defined as 86% and above. Five students failed to indicate mother's socioeconomic status. For purposes of analyses these were recorded according to the modal category of working class. Likewise almost one fifth of the students failed to supply father's

socioeconomic status. These were also recorded according to the preponderant majority of fathers' SES who were working class. Thirty-five of the students had access to only one parent, while 66 students had access to both parents. Number of siblings ranged form 0 to 7, the mean number of siblings was 2.4. Neither this variable nor the variable of birth order proved significant in the analyses. Given the frequency distribution for the Mentor rating the lowest category of 1 was merged with the next to the lowest, 2, for purposes of analyses (see Table 6, Appendix A for frequency distribution). The Dream variable was not assignable to four students. For purposes of analyses these four were added to the cateogry of students with the lowest scores on the Dream variable.

RESULTS

Table 1 (Appendix A) presents the correlation matrix of all variables. The independent variables fall into three categories. The demographic variables were subject's age, sex, mother's socio-economic status, and father's socio-economic status. The school-related variables were grade in school, grade point average (real), a counselor rating of psychosocial competence (Tyler's definition was used). Personality related variables were assessed via the Hero/Mentor Interview Schedule, developed specifically for this study to assess the nature of the relationship an adolescent maintained with a significant other and the effectiveness of the significant other as regards the mentoring function. A variable called The Dream Factor, also developed for this study, was used to measure the quality of the adolescent's career goal or future self-image and its potential. Predisposition to fantasy was a personality variable measured by adapting The Imaginative Play Interview of Singer's (1977) to the present study.

The dependent variables were the cumulative score for the Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence (BAPC) developed by Tyler (1977) as well as the four subscales of this measure: Personal, Interpersonal, Task, and General Competence. grade point average (taken from transcripts) was utilized as an additional dependent variable.

Table 1 (Appendix A) shows that the Hero/Mentor Interview score or Mentor-Rating produced the highest correlations with the BAPC and its four subscales, ranging from .328 to .466 at $p < .001$. These correlations were highly significant at the .001 level of probability.

Demographic variables, with the exception of sex, proved to be relatively unimportant. Examination of means shows that female scores are highest on the BAPC and the General Competence subscale.

The strongest correlation with GPA was produced by grade in school (r= .315 p $<$ .001). Note that the Mentor-Rating is more strongly correlated with the BAPC than with GPA (r = .28 p $<$ .01). Furthermore, the correlation between GPA and the BAPC is .267 p $<$ .01 which suggests that intelligence as measured by grade point average is not accounting for the significant correlations with the Mentor-Rating and the BAPC.

A multiple regression analysis was performed to determine which set of variables most strongly contributed to the total BAPC competence score. Table 2 presents this analysis. It shows that the Mentor-Rating was by far the strongest predictor of BAPC, accounting for 17.6 percent of the variance (68.6 percent of the explained variance). Sex also contributed significantly. Being a female in this study, accounted for 8.1 percent of the variance (3.4 percent of the explained variance in the cumulative BAPC competence scores. In all, 25.7 percent of the variance in BAPC scores were accounted for.

Multiple regression analyses were performed with the subscales of the BAPC competence scale. In this analysis, the Mentor-Rating was the only variable that accounted for a significant amount of the variance in Personal Competence scores (29%).

Table 3 (Appendix A) presents the multiple regression analysis for Interpersonal Competence subscale of the BAPC. It shows that, again, the Mentor-Rating was the strongest predictor of interpersonal competence, accounting for 9.3 percent of the variance. Mother's socio-economic status was the only other contributing factor, accounting for 5.8 percent of the variance. For this latter variable lower mother's SES ratings contributed to stronger interpersonal competence.

Table 4 (Appendix A) presents the multiple regression analysis for the Task-Related subscale of the BAPC. It shows that three variables made significant

contributions to this subscale score. As expected, the Mentor-Rating accounted for the greatest amount of the variance (i.e., 7.4 percent). Mother's SES rating accounted for 5.6 percent of the variance. Finally, GPA accounted for 5.5 percent of the variance.

Table 5 (Appendix A) represents the regression analysis for the General Competence subscale of the BAPC. Three variables make significant contributions to this subscale score. This is the only variant of the BAPC on which the Mentor rating does not load first. This time, sex contributes the largest amount of variance accounted for (i.e., 9.6 percent). This means that female scores are higher on General Competence. The Mentor Rating loads second, accounting for 8.6 percent of the variance and, finally, Predisposition to Fantasy accounts for 5.8 percent of the variance.

Mentor Source (type) did not account for any of the variance in the prediction of BAPC for the total sample (Males & Females). Nor did it correlate significantly with any of the depedent variables when the correlational analysis was performed on the total sample.

Table 6 (Appendix A) presents the multiple regression analysis for Grade Point Average. Demographic variables of grade and sex contributed equally to the variance (6.3 percent) and was followed by the Mentor Rating which contributed 4.6 percent of the variance.

Additional Analyses

Given the important contribution that the sex of the adolescent appeared to play in the above analyses, the data was examined and analyzed separately for females and males. T tests were performed on the means of all dependent and independent variables. Table 7 (Appendix A) shows these results. Means for females were significantly different from those of males on the dependent

variables, GPA, total BAPC score, and the general competence score of the BAPC at significance levels of .01 one tailed, .01 one tailed, and .01 two tailed respectively.

Using Chi square to analyze the differences between the means of the number of parents available for each of the subjects (Table 8, Appendix A) the proportion of females having access to one parent far exceeded the proportion for males (44 percent versus 21 percent, $x^2 = 4.60$ $p < .05$).

Chi square was also used to perform the analysis of the means on the variable of Mentor Source (Mentor = Family Member or Mentor = person from outside of the family). The proportion of males selecting a mentor figure from within the family far exceeded the proportion for females (93% versus 75%, $x^2 = 4.42$* $p < .05$). These results can be seen in Table 9 (Appendix A).

Additional analyses were performed in order to determine whether Mentor attributes and the milieu from which the Mentor was selected and the Mentor Source had any significant effect on dependent variables. For this activity Mentor Source was further broken down into related variables. The sex of the Mentor, the race of the Mentor, and the parental status of the Mentor figure became variables in addition to the variable "Mentor-Plus." This last variable represented the incidence of students who selected or named more than one significant other who had enriched their lives. The Mann-Whitney U Test corrected for tied ranks and expressed as normal deviates, was utilized to test for significant differences between the means of the former dependent variables in the groups listed above (see Table 10, Appendix A). The data was analyzed separately for each sex. As indicated, there were no significant differences found for males or females. Thus, the sex, race, parent/non-parent status, and present of an additional significant other did not effect the adolescent's performance on measures of competence

such as the BAPC Subscales (Personal, Interpersonal, Task, and General) and Grade Point Averge of male or female adolescent subjects.

A final set of analyses were performed to determine whether the additional Mentor related variables interacted with the effectiveness of the Mentoring function as measured by the Mentor-Rating. The results are recorded in Table 11 (Appendix A). Significant differences between means of the variables Mentor-Source, Mentor-Sex, and Mentor-Plus, for both males and females were found as they interacted with the variable Mentor-Rating. Once again, the Mann-Whitney U Test (corrected for tied ranks and expressed as normal deviates) was used to test significant differences.

The results of the above analysis indicate that Mentor-Rating in the female group is significantly higher when the Mentor is a family member than when the Mentor is not ($z = 3.51$, $p < .001$). Mentor-Rating is also higher when the Mentor is a member of the opposite sex ($z = 2.73$, $p < .01$). Naming an additional significant other does not seem to influence the rating of the Mentor for the female subjects.

The results for males vary in relation to those for females. For the male group it made no diference whether the Mentor was a family member. Nor did it seem to matter whether the Mentor was female or male. For 10 of the 42 males however, Mentor-Ratings were lower if an additional significant other was not mentioned ($z = 2.77$, $p < .01$).

DISCUSSION

Hero/Mentor Rating and Competence

The objective of this study was to explore variables related to psychosocial competence in inner-city adolescents. One of the aims was to explore whether the presence of an individual in an adolescent's life who was described by the adolescent in such a way as to imply that he/she fit the criteria established for an effective Hero/Mentor would predict high performance on a measure of psychosocial competence. Therefore the adolescent in this study who is in a relationship with an effective Hero/Mentor, that is, a significant other who effectively guides, supports, and extends himself or his ego (motive system) to the adolescent, tends to be capable of an active focus in terms of his direction and goals, and is aware of his personal strengths and weaknesses. The adolescent is able to build and maintain constructive and responsive interpersonal relationships. His attitude towards tasks allows him to exhibit effective task oriented behaviors and he has the capacity to learn and build from success experiences as well as failures. It is not surprising then that the adolescent who is strongly identified with an effective Hero/Mentor is also found to have higher GPA scores. Support for these findings is found in literature spanning both areas of research, that is, studies which look at the Mentoring process in relation to success (Levinson, 1978; Sheehy, 1977) and studies which look at psychosocial competence in relation to receiving support, guidance, etc. from a person or organization (Tyler, 1978; Fleming, 1983). Studies of self-reliance and adaptive coping styles (Bowlby, 1979) also suggest that these personality attributes are related to attachment figures. We are reminded here of Harter's study on motivation where competence in children ages four to fourteen was studied by separating the domain of experience into cognitive or school performance, social or peer relations, and physical as in athletic

performance. While she found that children high on perceived competence and perceived control measures were also more intrinsicially motivated as assessed by measures of classroom motivation, her findings related to the three competence domains suggest that the child's motivational orientation was not necessarily the same for each domain. While a child might appear to experience pleasure and engage in an activity "for its own sake" (intrinsic motivation) he may still be dependent on an external source for the "structure and definition of mastery goals" as well as to judge the effectiveness of his performance. Harter's conclusions and suggestions for further research seem consonant with this writer's thesis and outcomes. She urges us to explore "the reinforcement history" of the child and its relation to the internalization process as she feels that parental approval of independent mastery attempts is an important prerequisite for the internalization of a self-reward system. Biographical accounts, autobiographical accounts, such as those written by Curvin (1982), Daly (1982), Sheehy (1977), Brown (1965) Little (1965), and Levinson (1978) are also in agreement with the statement that special "grown-ups" in childhood and adolescence make a difference in the lives of individuals who find a way to become creative adults (Rogers, 1983).

Levinson's (1978) conclusions regarding the study of the lives of 40 men are also in support of the findings of the present research as he feels that through the internalization of the mentor the successful man is better able to "learn from himself, to listen to the voices from within. His personality is enriched as he makes the mentor a more intrinsic part of himself."

Dream Factor and Competence

The second of the major assumptions explored in this study was the positive relationship hypothesized between The Dream and psychosocial competence. The Dream was defined by this writer as being three dimensional. First, the

adolescent's protocol was credited for the mention of a career goal, i.e., an adolescent states that he has decided that he wants to be a doctor, computer programmer, writer, as opposed to not having any idea of what he would like to be. The second dimension of the dream was its motivational characteristics. Did The Dream or image of self in the future have a sustaining quality? The third dimension scored for attempted to take into consideration whether the Dream had had its beginning in the adolescent's world of play and could be seen as having been integrated into the adolescent's immediate reality. If the adolescent's protocol was scored for containing all three dimensions of the Dream, the adolescent was expected to perform well on a measure of psychosocial competence. The hypothesis that high scores on the Dream measure would predict high scores on a measure of psychosocial competence was not confirmed. While the Dream factor proved to show some degree of relatedness to the overall score of the Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale and its subscales (Personal, Interpersonal, Task, and General) these relationships were not statistically significant. These findings might be understood in light of some of the reality-based skills which are tapped by the subscales and needed to exhibit competence in specific areas.

In Levinson's study Forming a Dream was observed to be one of the developmental tasks critically related to entering the adult world. The men in Levinson's study did not initiate this task until the age of seventeen. Perhaps, for the adolescent in this study a Dream or future self-image may be relatively vague or if well defined based less on a realistic perception of skill than a fantasized perception due to their ages and may thus interfere with his/her having a clear sense of personal strength's and weaknesses.

Seeing oneself less realistically may not contribute positively to building and maintaining interpersonal relationships which in adolescence is often facilitated by the ability to honestly acknowledge one's vulnerabilities. Task related behaviors

might also be impeded if an adolescent maintains a future self-image which distracts him from developing skills which may be necessary to accomplish goals related to present day tasks.

The results of this analysis may also be due to The Dream measure itself. This writer attempted to devise a measure with interrelated cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. Such complexity may have interferred with accurate scoring. Considering that at least one criteria for the scoring of the Dream, (Level Two = Sustain) was based more on the rater's subjective sense of the protocol, the validity and the reliability of the measure may need to be investigated further.

If one looks at the Dream factor in relation to the need for achievement one finds some interesting similarities and differences. This writer attempts to relate The Dream to competence suggesting that it has motivational characteristics, in a similar vein achievenment motivation literature suggests that the drive towards mastery may be measured via one's fantasy productions and that the need for achievement is highly related to success in certain populations. In that the need to achieve is influenced by obtaining certaining goals, i.e., being successful in a particular arena, it is influenced by the actual success experiences which an individual has. The motivational component in the dream factor may also be influenced by actual successes or failures. Hence such real life experiences may mediate the degree to which a Dream has a sustaining quality and relates to psychosocial competence. This writer, however, does not maintain that the Dream and achievement motivation are one and the same. Though they may share certain characteristics, the Dream for the purposes of this study, was considered a vision of one's future self, a guiding principle and not a need to achieve specific goals to be successful at mastering specific environmental demands.

The Dream's function according to Winnicott (1971) and Levinson (1978) is described as being similar to that of other transitional phenomena, it's purpose is then to allow for:

> a boundary between reality and illusion, between the "me" and the clearly "not-me"... The play world is a boundary region between the concretely objective external reality and the entirely subjective internal image or hope (Levinson, 1978, p. 92).

The Dream Factor was shown to be significantly related to the Hero/Mentor rating ($r = .47$, p. 001). This hypothesis was not posed formally but was implicit in Levinson's theoretical assumptions and this writer's beliefs. This finding sugests that adolescents who have access to Hero/Mentors manage the developmental task of Forming the Dream. With a Hero/Mentor to mediate the boundaries of the Dream, the adolescent may be able to integrate it into their life structure in such a way as to keep the doors of imagined possibilities open. This would prevent foreclosing one's identity and facilitate competence. The formation of the Dream in and of itself may not be directly related to competent behaviors.

Fantasy Predisposition and Competence

Fantasy predisposition (Singer, 1977) was the third variable which was hypothesized to be significantly related to psychosocial competence. The findings were mixed. Using the canonical multivariate correlational model, a trend was evidenced in the relationship between these two factors but it did not reach statistical significance. This finding would suggest that adolescents who were more predisposed to fantasize in their childhood did not necessarily exhibit a greater ability to be psychosocially competent on the measures used in this research. Fantasy predisposition appeared in the multiple regression matrice predicting to Subscale General of the BAPC (Table 4, Appendix A). It accounted for 24 percent of the explained variance

when used to predict competence on the General subscale of the Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence Scale. This result might be explained by the nature of this particular scale. The general competence items appear to tap the adolescent's attitude about present and future quality of life. Adolescent's who are more predisposed to fantasy may be able to maintain a more positive attitude concerning their present and future quality of life as it relates to their general feeling of competence.

Considering that the literature supporting this hypothesis is research based on the relationship of these variables in childhood (Singer, 1961; Freyberg, 1973), this author may have erred in making the assumption that an accurate investigation of this relationship could be done on such a retrospective basis. The instrument used to measure predisposition to Fantasy, Singer's (1961) Imaginative Play Interview administered to a younger age group may not have been appropriate for the present investigation. A more accurate exploration of fantasy and its relation to competence may have been accomplished through a study of the adolescents capacity for "Imagery," noted by Singer (1973) and other (Paivo, 1970; Reese, 1970; Rover, 1970) as bearing an important relationship to the learning process. We are reminded here of Freyberg's statement:

> ...affect is involved in the development of the image or fantasy that governs purposive behavior. The organism uses the feedback about the discrepancy between the present and the image to activate the affect system which is motivational and cue producing (Freyberg, 1974, p. 131).

This author wonders, however, whether the study of predisposition to fantasy and its relationship to competence would have borne more substantive results if a more sophisticated and age appropriate measure were to have been used.

ADDITIONAL FINDINGS RELATED TO COMPETENCE

Mentor Source and Competence

The Mentor Source or the sociocultural milieu of the Hero/Mentor figure defined in this study as Mentor-Race, Mentor-Sex, Mentor-Parent or Mentor Non-Parent, in addition to the variable called Mentor-Plus (the presence of more than one significant other in the adolescents life space) did not prove to be significantly related to competence variables. This finding may seem to suggest that Mentors selected the same socio-cultural milieu as the adolescent or who have similar demographic characteristics such as Race of Sex do not necessarily contribute to the adolescent's ability to exhibit psychosocial competence or academic achievement. While this finding helps to support the hypothesis that Hero/Mentor effectiveness is central to the mentoring process and competence, this author wonders whether these results were affected by the low incidence of cross-cultural Mentor-Mentee relationships.

What for example, might have happened if groups of adolescents having Mentors from their own sociocultural milieu and those having Mentors from other cultural milieus were compared on measures of competence? These results also become questionable when the issue of Mentor effectiveness is explored from the vantage point of what types of individuals comprise the "effective Mentor group" and which adolescents have selected them. Should this finding be valid it would contrast with research which formerly suggested that sociocultural and demographic characteristics such as sociocultural background have a significant effect on learning models for inner city children (Fantini M. and Weinstein G. 1970, Poussaint A. and Comer J. 1972; Mosby, 1972). Such a finding may imply that the adolescents of the 80's differ in their need and/or desire to have Hero/Mentors

who are similar to themselves, perhaps because they are more secure in their cultural identity.

Demographic Variables and Competence

Demographic variables, Sex and Mother's Socioeconomic Status proved to show some relation to competence. When predicting the General subscale of the BAPC, the variable Sex loaded first and accounted for 40.1% of the explained variance. Prediction to Grade Point Average also resulted in Sex contributing 28.1% of the explained variance. In this study then, being female bears a siginficiant relationship to competence both in the correlational analyses and the multiple regression analyses. Females in this study have higher competence scores on overall measures of competence (BAPC and GPA) and the subscale General of the BAPC. This finding is significant and further emphasizes the likelihood that there will be fewer Black and Hispanic males who will advance to higher educational arenas. These results may be due to developmental trends, e.g., females generally maturing faster than males. They may also be related to the nature of the competence measures used in this study. (Considering the press for male members of the Black and Hispanic culture to provide and/or contribute to the economic base of their families of origin and the relationship this may bear on their self-esteem (Freidenbeg, 1959). The assessment that women are more psychosocially competent may have major implications for this population).

The second demographic variable which proved to be of importance in the prediction to competence was that of Mother's socioeconomic status. This factor emerged in two of the prediction matrices, that of the subscale Interpersonal competence and the subscale Task related competence. In the former matrix, mother's socioeconomic status accounted for 38.6% of the explained variance.

In the latter matrices (Task Subscale) mother's socioeconomic status accounted for 30% of the explained variance (Table 3). While this finding is not directly related to any of the formal hypotheses, it could suggest that the more competent adolescents are those who come from homes where mothers are least likely to be employed or to have achieved higher educational status. This result may be spurious considering the composition of the sample. If valid, however, it might be explained by the theory that adolescents whose mothers are of lower economic status are forced to learn survival mechanisms or coping techniques early in life and are assessed in adolescence to be more psychosocially competent than their peers. Or perhaps their mothers are more available to them. Considering that this variable was significant to Task and Interpersonal competence measures specifically, the above assumption might be worthwhile to consider in a more specifically focused investigation.

Gender Differences, Competence, and Mentor Source

Since subjects' gender contributed significantly to the above findings, an attempt was made to examine the data and explore the hypotheses in relation to males and females separately.

When the means of the dependent variables (BAPC, BAPC subscales, and GPA) were analyzed separately for each sex, significant differences between means were found on the variables BAPC, General Subscale of the BAPC, and GPA. While enlightening, this writer offers no further explanation of these findings other than those mentioned in previous sections.

Comparing the means of both groups (Males and Females) on the independent variables yielded signficant differences in the proportion of females having access to one parent as compared with the males. These results suggest that more females in this study have only had access to one parent than males in this study who apparently have had more access to both parents.

Mentor Source (defined for this particular analyses as a Family or Non-Family source) showed, however, a higher proportion of males selecting a Mentor from within the family than was true for females. These findings considered together might lead one to wonder if females are more likely than males to go outside the home for Mentors because they have less access to both parents and fathers in particular.

Alternatively, these findings raise questions about the sample. Do the males in this sample choose family members more often because they happen to have access to both parents? Are the mentors chosen by the males likely to be fathers? Is this related to the low incidence of males in the sample? In other words, are the males from families where the father is inaccessible less likely to find their way into college bound programs? Are they less likely to have the mentoring experience? An attempt to investigate the relationship between father's accessibility and the mentoring experience for the males in this sample was made by performing an additional chi square analysis to see if there were significant differences between the frequency of choosing Mentors from outside the family versus Mentors from inside the family for males from networks where the father was accessible or inaccessible. No significant differences were established (Table 12). These results suggest that males having access to both parents do not choose mentors from within the family more often than males having less access to both parents and father in particular.

While the limited analysis mentioned above does not answer many of the questions generated as a consequence of prior analyses, it implies that the presence or absence of one or the other parent does not necessarily have an effect on the type of significant other who is chosen as a Mentor. Of course, these results should be subjected to a more extensive and rigorous investigation. At present they continue to highlight the complexity of the mentoring process.

ADDITIONAL FINDINGS RELATED TO HERO/MENTORS

Mentor Rating and Mentor Attributes

In prior data analysis (Table 10, Appendix A) it was found that demographic (Sex and Race) and other (Parent/Non-parent) attributes of the Mentor did not relate to the adolescents ability to obtain high scores on measures of competence. Given that the Hero/Mentor rating which was representative of Hero/Mentor effectiveness showed a significant degree of relatedness to competence variables, are there clusters of characteristics which describe the significant other who is more effective at Mentoring than other individuals chosen by the adolescent?

While this question was not explored extensively, an analysis of the data was performed to determine whether there were differences in Mentor effectiveness which were related to any of the Mentor attributes which had previously been specified in this study (Sex, Race, Source, etc.). The attributes for which significant differences between means were found on the variable representing mentor effectiveness (Hero/Mentor Rating) when males and females were analyzed separately were those of Mentor source (Family Mentor, Non-Family Mentor) Mentor Sex, and Mentor Plus (more than one significant other who had influenced the adolescent had been noted). These findings (Table 11, Appendix A) indicate that for females in the sample, the most effective Mentors come from within the family network (parents or relatives). Effective Mentors also tend to be male when it comes to the females in this sample. The results for males do not parallel these findings, however. Males in this study differ from females in that higher Hero/Mentor ratings are not significantly related to Mentor Source or Mentor Sex. The significant other chosen by the males happens to be more effective when additional significant others are present in the lives of these adolescents.

These findings, at least as regards the females in this study support the hypothesis that cross-sexed Mentor-Mentee relationships may be extremely valuable (Levinson, 1978; Sheehy, 1977). However, given that these variables do not appear to directly influence an adolescent's ability to exhibit competence, this author concludes that Hero/Mentor effectiveness and its relationship to competence is the most definitive finding in the present study.

Mentoring and Parenting

Twenty-two of the fifty-nine females described having relationships with significant others who happened also to be their parents. Eighteen of the 42 males did likewise. Of these relationships, only eleven met the criteria which placed them in the category of Hero/Mentor relationships. That is, though almost fifty percent of the sample population identified their parents as being important, there was a difference between a relationship with a parent and a relationship with a Hero/Mentor. Statistically speaking, an analysis of the interaction between parent/non-parent status of the Mentor and psychosocial competence did not yield significant differences.

These results suggest that having a parent who simultaneously served as a Mentor did not influence an adolescents ability to be competent any more than having a relationship with a Mentor who was a relative, friend, or fantasy character. Some parents in the study, however, were able to provide a relationship which fulfilled the mentoring function as defined by this writer. Hence, a brief discussion of how the two processes, parenting, and mentoring might be related seems warranted.

Levinson states that the Mentor is not a parent or peer but a mixture of both. If taken literally, a proportion of the significant others described in this study could not be considered Mentors. One realizes that Levinson is implying that a Mentor must have the qualities of both a parent and peer. The men in

Levinson's study most frequently found their mentors outside of the home. However, the men in Levinson's study most often formed what appeared to be their most significant Mentor relationship after making the transition to young adulthood from adolescence. The Mentor relationship which Levinson chose to focus on had thus begun for them no sooner than age 17. More than half of the subjects in the current study (56) were under the age of 17 years. Differences in Mentor Source (the network from which the Mentor was chosen) may have been due to the age diferences of the samples drawn upon in each of the studies. From the current study one may infer that in adolescence it makes less of a difference whether or not the Mentor is from within the family system, outside of it, a parent, or peer. Clearly in this study the factor that was most predictive of psychosocial competence was the ability of the significant other to fulfill the criteria of a Hero/Mentor. Still one is forced to consider the theoretical criteria as advanced by Levinson and this writer in relation to other studies on Mentoring.

A recent review of the literature by Merriam (1983) revealed several hundred articles, reports and dissertations on the topic of Mentoring. These studies assert that Mentoring relationships are: "the key to career development and academic success, as well as a necessary ingredient in psycho-social development" (p. 161). A major criticism of the majority of the studies surveyed was that a precise definition of mentoring could not be agreed upon by all and did not seem to exist. As in this study, Merriam states that the meaning of Mentoring was most often defined by the scope of the research. An analysis of the definitions incorporated by the researchers led Merriam (1983) to believe that Mentoring was subsumed under three major categories: the mentoring phenomenon in adult development and growth; mentoring in business or in the business world; and mentoring in the university or academic setting. This current study proports to utilize a definition which

would coincide with those described within the category of adult growth and development. The major researchers in this area are cited by Merriam as Levinson, 1978; Sheehy, 1977; and Valliant 1977. The definition underlying the aforementioned research endeavors are aptly described by Merriam:

> History is replete with examples of such relationships: Socrates and Plato, Freud and Jung, Lorenz de Medici and Michelangelo, Hayden and Beethoven, Boas and Mead, Sartre and de Beauvoir and so on.
>
> From the legacy of famous mentoring relationships comes the sense of mentoring as a powerful emotional interaction between an older and a younger person, a relationship in which the older member is trusted, loving, and experienced in the guidance of the younger. The mentor helps shape the growth and development of the protege (p. 161).

Mentors in the current study coincide with the Mentor in the classical sense of the word, and it is this sense or these characteristics which may also be present in the parent-child relationship.

This finding coincides with the phenomenology of Mentoring as advanced by Levinson in that he asserts that it is determined by the nature of the relationship between two individuals and particularly by the ability of the Mentor to help provide a good-enough or facilitating environment (psychological) which helps the young adult to define and implement his newly emerging self "in a newly discovered world" (1978).

Winnicott's (1965) clinical studies which focused on parenting and the concept of the Good-enough mother have emphasized that it is not only the reliability of the maternal environment that makes for good-enough mothering but that it is a reliability which implies "empathy." Research on the differences in styles of interaction in parent-child dyads as related to the psychosocial competence of the mothers, supports Winnicott's findings. Mondell and Tyler's (1981) study

of Parental Competence and Styles of Problem-Solving/Play Behavior with Children found that more competent mothers treated their child like "an origin," that is, treated the child as if he/she was an active problem solving agent. Competent mothers also demonstrated feelings and interacted more affectively with their children as well as providing "problem-solving modeling and guidance." The less competent parent group were noted to have interacted with their children less empathetically in a more authoritarian manner "suggesting little faith or interest in the child's ability to solve problems, with less warm and more disapproving affect and with fewer problem-solving suggestions and less modeling" (p. 77). As suggested by Tyler and Mondell these parenting behaviors would not provide the basis for feelings of self-efficacy and would encourage "more passive, erratic coping attempts." Competent parents in this study are theoretically like Winnicott's good-enough mothers and Levinson's good-enough Mentors.

The conclusion that this writer draws from the above is that the concept of Mentoring in adolescence as defined for the purposes of this study may parallel or coincide wth Good-enough parenting. Hence a parent may be able to provide a facilitating environment and function as a Mentor in the same manner as a non-parent figure. Considering the developmental tasks of adolescence, the struggle for autonomy from parental figures, and separation-individuation concerns, the question of whether a parent can truly provide a non-threatening mentoring figure may need further exploration. This writer is however, of the opinion that competent parent behaviors and behaviors which Mentors manifest may be more similar than different for the adolescent. Winnicott seems to suggest this in his consideration of adolescent development:

> In the time of adolescent growth boys and girls awkwardly and erratically emerge out of childhood and away from dependence, and grope towards adult status. Growth is

> not just a matter of inherited tendency, it is also a matter of a highly complex interweaving with the facilitating environment. If the family is still there to be used it is used in a big way; and if the family is not longer there to be used, or has to be set aside (negative use) then small social units need to be provided to contain the adolescent process (Winnicot, 1971, p. 54).

The key components of the mentoring process as revealed in this study were the ability of the Hero/Mentor to treat the adolescent as an effective problem-solving agent, assisting the continued development of a vision that the adolescent had of himself in the future, and reinforcing the adolescents sense of self by supporting the notion that an adolescents identity is rooted in his attempts at mastering his environment ("finding out who you are, in the things you do" Sheehy, 1977). While many parents may not be able to separate their sense of self from the emerging self of their youngster so that they may be able to assist them in seeing themselves as autonomous and effective there are parents who can.

A recent article by Maya Pines (1982) reports some of the most significant findings of a research investigation sponsored by Professor Benjamin S. Bloom. The investigation, called the Development of Talent Project, has as its subjects, 100 world-famous individuals including concert pianists, Olympic swimmers, tennis players and research mathematicians, who reached the top of their field between the ages of 17 and 35. The study purports to "identify several conditions that stand apart from native gifts, and in nearly every case, appear crucial in producing excellence" (Pines, 1982, p.C1). In all cases, the environmental conditions which Dr. Bloom has identified are as follows:

- Parents who greatly value and enjoy either music, sports, art or intellectual activity and view it as a natural part of life, so that the child learns its language as easily as he learns to speak.
- Parents who believe in the work ethic.

— A first teacher who is warm and loving, who makes the lessons seem like games and lavishes rewards. This teacher need not be highly skilled. For the pianist it was a neighborhood teacher; for the mathemeticians it was usually their own father. But the instruction must be given on a one-to-one basis, and the parents must take great interest in it.

— A second teacher who emphasizes skills and self-discipline. Again, instruction must be individualized. For the mathemeticians, the best teacher is one who answers their questions, gives them books to read and lets them work independently.

— A gradual change in the child and his family as both realize the progress the child has been making. They now begin to focus their resources on the developing talent.

— Access to what Professor Bloom calls a "master teacher" one of the rare experts who know how to train top professionals and open the right doors for them. Some families travel 2,000 or 3,000 miles to find such a teacher or coach.

The parents in this study facilitated their child's ability to be mentored by having a clear sense of values, recognizing both their child's interest in a particular activity and desire to excel, and encouraging that desire by finding others who would help develop their child's skill. When the child began to believe in his abilities the family too had to begin to "focus their resources on the developing talent" (p.C1). Perhaps parents and Mentors share behavioral attributes, or perhaps there are parenting behaviors and qualities which make it easier for children and young adults to experience being in a relationship with someone who can mentor them. This writer feels that the area of overlap between mentoring and parenting deserves further study.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the current study was to explore the Mentoring process as it pertains to the inner-city adolecent's ability to be psychosocially competent. The study sought to establish the existence of Hero/Mentor relationships in this population given that most studies in the area of Mentoring have focused on adult mainstream populations (Merriam, 1983). The study also proposed to investigate a factor called The Dream. Both the Dream variable and the conceptualization of The Hero/Mentor were adapted from Levinson's (1978) and Sheehy's (1977) study of adult development. The formation of the Dream and the finding and solidifying of the Mentor relationship, were two of the developmental tasks noted by Levinson to be crucial to the transition from adolescence to adulthood. Completion of these tasks as conceptualized by Levinson had not previously been explored in relation to Black and Hispanic males and females of this age group. The study of such factors as they influence the adult development of Black and Hispanic adolescents was felt to be critical by this writer as an ever-increasing number of them have not found a vehicle for becoming a part of the mainstream in a manner which is not experienced by them as compromising their identity formation. A third variable, Predisposition to Fantasy, was explored in relation to competence. This fact was of particular interest to this author because of the strong suggestion in the literature of the relationship between imaginative play and communication skills, attention span, and creativity. Although not formally hypothesized, this writer was curious about a possible relationship between this factor and that of the Dream.

A rating scale (HMIS) was developed in order to provide a quantitative measure of the quality relationship between an adolescent and a significant other, and consequently the significant other's ability to function as an effective Hero/Mentor.

A quantitative measure of the Dream was also established by means of a rating scale developed by this researcher (Appendix C). Predisposition to fantasy was assessed through the use of Singer's (1977) Imaginative Play Interview. Demographic and other characteristics of the Mentor were also examined in this study.

The hypotheses posed for testing in ths study are relisted below:

H1 There will be a postive relationship between scores obtained on a measure of psychosocial competence and ratings received on a scale of Hero/Mentor effectivenes.

H2 There will be a positive relationship between scores obtained on a measure of psychosocial competence and ratings received on a measure of Dream potential.

H3 There will be a positive relationship between scores obtained on a measure of psychosocial competence and scores received on a measure of fantasy predisposition.

The analysis of the data collected relative to the principle objectives of this study indicated a positive and significant relationship between a significant other who received a high Hero/Mentor rating and scores that an adolescent received on competence measures (BAPC and GPA). A trend towards significance was also indicated between scores on the measure of Dream potential and competence measures but the obtained correlation was not significant. A trend towards a positive and significant relationship was noted between the scores obtained on a measure of psychosocial competence and scores received on a measure of fantasy predisposition but the obtained correlation was not significant.

There were no significant differences found on measures of psychosocial competence between adolescents who selected Mentors with similar demographic characteristics and adolescents who selected Mentors whose demographic chracteristics differed from their own.

Implications

From the present findings it may be possible to predict adolescents who would most benefit from a relationship with a person who could effectively perform the mentoring function. Adolescents who have not had a special relationship with any adult could be paired with a Big Brother or teacher or counselor who could provide a "special" kind of support, based on helping the adolescent to acknowledge his strengths and to respect his past, present, and future self-images. The Mentor person would not encourage a foreclosing of the adolescent's identity by encouraging definitive decisions concerning occupational goals but encouraging the adolescent's Dream potential or ability to see himself in a variety of roles and arenas. Demographic differences should be considered to the extent that the Mentor should be able to handle resistance on the part of the adolescent who may have experienced the negative consequences of being outside of the mainstream experience. A major aspect of mentoring encompasses the ability of the mentor figure to identify with and feel empathic towards the affective experience of the mentee while simultaneously providing a bridge for him/her to explore new and unfamiliar aspects of experience. The inner city adolescent's Mentor would have to share some of the ideals which the adolescent has previously felt to be important. He would have to understand his/her Dreams. The mentor would "trigger" the impetus to take the developmental step by taking his cues from the adolescent acknowledging the esteem and sense of self-worth that this possibility affords him in relation to career goals, but more importantly in relation to the kind of person the adolsecent envisions himself as.

Persons interested in becoming Mentors might be selected on the basis of interpersonal style and sensitivity to the adolescent's cultural experience and experience of self.

From a more academic standpoint — Mentors would share the qualities of a "Master Teacher" (Bloom 1982) — someone who focuses on the development of a talent or skill which the adolescent has come to value. As in Bloom's (Pines 1978) study the route by which the adolescent comes to acknowledge particular skills and talents is associated with home values, parents approval, and feelings associated with experiencing mastery.

The present study also suggests that parents might serve as the focus of workshops and consultation services by professionals who could help them learn "Mentoring" behaviors. Helping parents to assist their youngster's in finding out "who they are" by helping the youngster to identify what they are good at, and investing in that activity may create the foundation on which later mentoring can be built. Such efforts might begin with helping the parent get in touch with feelings of self-efficacy, accepting themselves as a competent individual, and identifying behaviors which inhibit the autonomous strivings of their youngsters. These services could extend to parents of all age groups since it is not only in adolescence that competence becomes an issue but throughout the life span of the developing individual.

The mentoring concept as defined by this writer for the purposes of this study may extend to educators who see their task as coming to know the experience of the child or adolescent in order to develop the youngster's natural talents. Similar to the agenda of a "Master Teacher" who is usually selected by a parent to facilitate a skill which the child or adolescent has come to value, the educator must be able to tune in to the young person's experience rather than impose upon, discourage, or distort that which gives the young person meaning; that which his sense of self may be crucially connected with.

This writer believes that educational institutions could perform the mentoring function, especially for those students who are making a transition from one sociocultural milieu to another. Considering that in such circumstances one's world-view or weltanschauung may be challenged both advertantly and inadvertantly, administrators have the option of providing experiences which would facilitate "finding out who you are in the things you do" and helping individuals to realize their Dreams! An excellent example of this was observed in response to Black and Hispanic doctoral students in the Clinical Psychology Doctoral Training Program of CUNY during the 1976-1980 training period. The director of the he training program allowed these students to raise political issues which were relevant to the Black and Hispanic community and to attempt to bridge the gap between the social milieu from which they came and the mainstream milieu to which they were going. Programs such as Project Double Discover, the Upward Bound program at Columbia University, seemed to have had this philosophy when it was initiated in 1967 by having inner-city adolescents reside on the Columbia campus for a summer school program. While this aspect is still part of the program, the staff, and the weltanschauug seems to have changed considerably along with the political climate of the times (1967 was a year when most Blacks were confronting mainstream society and solidifying a positive cultural identify). It's present focus seems to be more academic. (This may be why the attrition rate of the program is 33%). During the interviewing process the researcher discovered that the Black and Hispanic adolescents in this sample felt less conflictual about becoming part of the mainstream society than many adolescents and adults during the 60's. Given this, programs may not feel the need to assist the Black and Hispanic adolescent or young adult to integrate all aspects of themselves because they (the students) may not identify or experience moving into the mainstream as a problem area.

This may add to the belief that becoming a part of the mainstream is less fraught with racism than during the 60's. Is so these young adults may be faced with a developmental task that they are not prepared for as they begin to enter institutions of higher learning where the experience of racism is more poignant. Hence it is this writer's opinion that insitutions could be helpful in providing a vehicle for the adolescent and young adult to deal with cultural, political, and educational issues which might delay the impetus to take the developmental step" into the world of the mainstream society.

At the outset of this research, this writer made the assumption that hero worship or hero identification (the creation or use of an idealized other who served the Mentoring function) would be an important part of the Black/Hispanic adolescent's repertoire of survival mechanisms. While many adolescents could name a character whom they liked, admired, and even identified with, the concept of these characters as having served primary mentoring functions was not borne out. Interestingly the adolescents who did seem to use characters from stories, books, real life, in this way were those from the socioeconomic sector which this study fell short of reaching (the underclass). This writer feels that this area in particular and the survival mechanisms of children within the social milieu of the underclass needs further study.

Although the prediction of competent adolescents or personality and background variables which might be used to identify the competent adolescent was considered as an objective of this study, this writer feels that the exploratory nature of the present study prohibit the use of the results in this fashion. Future research may in fact be focused on establishing whether the variables in this study associated with competence may indeed be a part of a larger profile of the competent Black and Hispanic adolescent of the 80's.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Benson, L. Images, Heroes, and Self Perception: The Struggle for Identity from Mask Wearing to Authenticity. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1974.

Bowlby, J. The Making and Breaking of Affectional Bonds. London: Tavistock Publications, 1979.

Brown, C. Manchild in the Promised Land. New York: MacMillan Press, 1965.

Carlyle, T. On Heroes, Worship and the Heroic History. London: Oxford Books, 1841.

Clark, D. K. and Clark, M. P. (1939) "The Development of Consciousness of Self and the Emergence of Racial Identification in Negro Preschool Children." Journal of Social Psychology, 10: 591-599.

Devine, V.T., Shadegg, J., Tomlins, Jr. R. A Preliminary Analysis of Secondary School Outcome for Vulnerable Grade School Children. Paper presented at the 83rd Convention of A.P.A. Chicago: September 1975.

Erickson, E. Identity, Youths and Crisis. New York: W.W. Norton 1968.

Fanon, F. Black Skin, White Masks. New York: Grove Press, Inc., 1967.

Fantini, M., Weinstein, G. The Disadvantaged Child: Challenges to Education. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

Fein, G. (1975). "A Transformational Analysis of Pretending." Developmental Psychology, 11: 291-296.

Fein, G. and Robertson, A. Cognitive and Social Dimensions of Pretending in Two Year Olds. Mimeographed Report. Yale University, 1974.

Fishwick, M. The Hero: American Style. New York: David McKay Company, 1969.

Freyberg, J. "Increasing the Imaginative Play of Urban Disadvantaged Kindergarten Children Through Systematic Training." In J. L. Singer, The Child's World of Make Believe. New York: Academic Press, 1973.

Goldstein, K. (1939). "The Significance of Special Mental Tests for Diagnosis and Prognosis in Schizophrenia." American Journal of Psychiatry. 96: 575-588.

Garmezy, N. "Competence and Adaptations in Adult Schizophrenic Patients of Risk." In Schizophrenia: The First Ten Dean Award Lectures, Dean, D.R. (Editor) p. 163, MSS Information Corp. 1976.

Gould, L. J. and Klein, E. B. (1971). "Performances of Black and White Adolescents in Intellectual and Attitudinal Measures as a Function of the Race of the Tester." Journal of Consultry and Clinical Psychology, Vol. 37, No. 2.

Greenacre, Fetish and Transitional Object in Emotional Development. New York: International University Press, 1971.

Greenson, R. (1954) "The Struggle Against Identification." Journal American Psychoanalytic Association, 2:200-217.

Griffin, Q. and Korchin, S. (1980). "Personality Competence in Black Male Adolescents." Journal of Youth and Adolescence, Vol. 9, No. 3.

Griffing, P. (1974). "Sociodramatic Play Among Young Black Children. 'Theory into Practice. 13: 257-264.

Gruen, A. (1968). "Autonomy and Identification: The Paradox of the Opposition." International Journal of Psychoanalysis, 9:648.

Haimo, S., Holzman, P.S. (1979). "Thought Disorder in Schizophrenia and Normal Controls: Social Class and Race Difference." Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology.

Harter, S. (1978) "Effectance Motivation Reconsidered: Toward a Developmental Model." Human Development, 1: 34-64.

Jacobson, J.E. The Self and the Object World. New York: International Universities Press, 1964.

Jones, N.F. (1959) "The Validity of Clinical Judgments of Schizophrenic Pathology Based on Verbal Responses to Intelligent Test Items." Journal of Clinical Psychology, 15: 396-400.

Kagan, J. The Concept of Identification in Studies in Developmental Psychology. Charles A. Day and William D. Ward (Eds). California: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1968.

Kellerman, B. "Is There Life After Adolescence and If So, Should Political Scientists Care." Prepared for delivery at 1979 Annual meeting of the American Political Science ASS, August 31-September 3, 1979.

Kernberg, O.F. Borderline Conditions and Pathological Narcissism. New York: J. Aronson Press, 1975.

Klapp, O.E. Heroes, Villians and Fools. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1962.

Klein, M. Love, Guilt and Reparation. New York: Dell, 1975.

Kohut, H. The Restoration of the Self. New York: Universities Press, 1977.

Levinson, D. The Seasons of a Man's Life. New York: Knopf, 1978.

Little, M. The Autobiography of Malcolm X. New York: Grave Press, 1965.

Livingood, A., Cooper, D. and Kurz, R. "Children's Choice of Sports Heroes and Heroines: The Role of Child-Hero Similarity." Unpublished Paper, Children's Hospital National Medical Center, 1980.

Loevinger, J. Ego Development. San Francisco: Jossey-Boss, 1976.

Loevinger, J. "Theories of Ego Development" In I Bieger (Editor) Clinical Cognitive Psychology: Models and Integration. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Loy, J.W., Jr. "Sport and Social Structure," paper presented at American Alliance of Health Physical Education and Recreation Conference. Chicago, 1966.

Maccoby, E. and Wilson, W.C. (1957). "Identification and Observational Learning from Films." Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 55: 76-81.

McPherson, B.D. (1974) "Minority Group Involvement in Sports." The Black Athlete." Exercise and Sports Sciences Review, 2: 71-101.

Mondell, S., Tyler, F. (1981). "Child Psychosocial Competence and It's Measurement." Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 6: 145-154.

Mondell, I. and Tyler, F. (1981). "Parental Competence and Styles of Problem Solving: Play Behavior with Children." Developmental Psychology, Vol. 17, No. 1 pp. 73-78.

Mosby, D. P. Toward a Theory of the Unique Personality of Blacks in Black Psychology. Reginald L. Jones (Ed). New York, Evanston, San Francisco, London: Harper and Row Publishers, 1972.

Murphy, G. "Adaptional Tasks in Childhood in Our Culture." Bulletin of the Menniger Clinic, 28: 309-322.

Murphy, L.B., Moriarty, A.E. Vulnerbility, Coping, and Growth: from Infancy to Adolescence. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1976.

Newmann, S. (1979). "Coping and Adaptation in Adolescence." Human Development, Vol. 22, No. 4., pp. 255-262.

Novey, S. (1955). "The Role of the Superego and Ego Ideal in Character Formation." International Journal of Pychology, XXXVI.

Paivio, A. "Imagery and Language," In S. Segal (ed). Imagery: Current Cognitive Approaches. New York: Academic Press, 1971.

Parson, T. Social Structure and the Development of the Personality. New York Press, 1964.

Pavenstedt, E. (1965). "A Comparison of the Childrearing Environment of Upper and Very Low-Lower Class Families." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 35: 89-98.

Phillips, L and Zigler, E. (1961). "Social Competence." Journal of Abnormal and Social Pathological Behaviors, 63: 137-146.

Piaget. S. Play, Dreams and Imitiation In Childhood. New York: Norton, 1962.

Pope, K.S. "The Stream of Consciousness." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation Yale University, 1977.

Poussant, A. and Atkinson, C. Black Youth and Motivation. Reginall L Jones (Editor) New York, Evanston, San Francisco, London: Harper & Row Publications, 1972.

Reich, A. (1954). "Early Identifications as Archaic Elements in the Superego." Journal of American Psychiatric Association, Vol. II.

Russman, The Inner-City Child. New York, Hagerstown, San Francisco, London: Harper & Row Publications, 1975.

Sandler, J., Holder, H. and Meers, D. (1963) "The Ego Ideal and the Ideal Self. The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 17: 128-145.

Sanford, R.N. (1955). The Dynamics of Identification. Psychology Review, 62: 106-118.

Schafer, R. Aspects of Internalization. New York, International Universities Press, Inc.

Sheehy, S. Passages: Predictable Cases of Adult Life. Toronto, New York, London, Sydney: Bantam Books, 1977.

Silber, E., Coelho, G.V. and Hamburg, D.A. (1962). "Use of the Student TAT to Assess Coping Behavior in Hospitalized Normal, and Exceptionally Competent College Freshman," Perceptual and Motor Skills, 14: 355-365.

Singer, J. L. (1961). "Imagination and Ability to Wait in Young Children." Journal of Personality, 29: 396-413.

Singer, J. L. (1977). "Imagination and Make Believe Play in Early Childhood: Some Educational Implications." Journal of Mental Imagery, p. 127-144.

Strauss, J.S. & Giff, T.E. "Choosing an Approach for Drug Schizophrenia." Archives of General Psychiatry, 1977.

Tyler, F. (1979). "Individual Psychosocial Competence: A Personality Configuration." Educational and Psychological Measurement, 38: 390-323.

Tyler, F. (1979). "Psychosocial Competence Differences Among Adolescents Entering Group Counseling." Psychological Moriarty Reports, 44: 814-822.

Tyler, F. and Gatz, M. (1977). "Development of Individual Psychosocial Competence in a High School Setting." Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 45: 441-449.

Weisler, A. and McCall, R.B. (1976). "Exploration and Play." American Psychologist 31: 492-508.

White, R. (1959). "Motivation Reconsidered: The Concept of Competence." Psychological Review, 66: 297-333.

Winnicott, D.W. The Maturational Processes and the Facilitating Environment Studies in the Theory of Emotional Development. New York: International Universities Press, Inc., 1965.

Appendix A (Tables 1-12)

Table 1

Correlation Between Personal Variables, Demographic Variables School Related Variables and Behavioral Attributes of Psychosocial Competence

Variable	BAPC	Personal	Inter-personal	Task	General	GPA
Age	.04	-.088	-.037	.166	.027	.24
Sex	-.256	.156	.184[a]	.117	.361[c]	.275
Mother's SES	.125	.007	-.037	.290[a]	.139	.026
Father's SES	.049	.046	-.032	.168[a]	-.111	-.089
Grade in School	.019	-.078	.002	.124	-.027	.315[c]
Church Activity	-.045	-.002	.039	-.132	.005	-.818[a]
Counselor Comp	-.149	-.069	-.109	-.185[a]	-.079	-.181[a]
Hero/Mentor Rate	.446[c]	.417[c]	.388[c]	.328[c]	.328[c]	.282
Dream Factor	.247[b]	.160[a]	.134	.198[a]	.259[a]	.243[b]
Fantasy Rating	.209[a]	.119	.193[a]	.109	.253[a]	.015
Dream SES	.057	-.046	.184[a]	.043	.035	.236[b]

[a] p .05
[b] p .01
[c] p .001

Table 2

Multiple Prediction of Total BAPC Scores

from Demographic, Personal, and School Related Variables

Variable	Beta	% Variance	% Variance Explained
Hero/Mentor	.441[c]	17.6	68.6
Sex	.202[a]	8.1	31.4
Total	R=.507	25.7	100.0

[a] $p < .05$
[c] $p < .001$

Table 3

Multiple Prediction to Interpersonal Subscale of BAPC

from Demographic, Personal, and School Related Variables

Variable	Beta	% Variance	% Variance Explained
Hero/Mentor Rating	.325[c]	9.3	61.4
Mother's SES	.204[a]	5.8	38.6
Total	R=.388	15.1	100.0

[a] $p < .05$

[c] $p < .001$

Table 4

Multiple Prediction to Task Subscale of BAPC

from Demographic, Personal, and School Related Variables

Variable	Beta	% Variance	% Variance Explained
Hero/Mentor Rating	.269[b]	7.4	40.3
Mother's SES	.200[a]	5.6	30.0
Grade in School	.198[a]	5.5	29.7
Total	R=.431	18.5	100.0

[a] $p < .05$
[b] $p < .01$

Table 5

Multiple Prediction to General Subscale of BAPC

from Demographic, Personal, and School Related Variables

Variable	Beta	% Variance	% Variance Explained
Sex	.301[b]	9.6	40.1
Hero/Mentor Rating	.269[b]	8.6	35.9
Fantasy Rating	.180[a]	5.8	24.0
Total	R=.490	24.0	100.0

[a] $p < .05$

[b] $p < .01$

Table 6

Multiple Prediction to GPA

from Demographic, Personal, and School Related Variables

Variable	Beta	% Variance	% Variance Explained
Grade	.271[b]	6.3	28.1
Sex	.271[b]	6.3	28.1
Church	-.271[a]	5.1	23.0
Hero/Mentor Rating	.202[a]	4.6	20.8
Fantasy Rating	.180[a]	5.8	24.0
Total	R=.472	22.3	100.0

[a] $p < .05$

[b] $p < .01$

Table 7

Mean Scores for Females and Males on Competence Variables

	Females = 59		Males = 42		
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t
GPA	2.97	1.48	2.10	1.56	2.85[b]
Personal	8.78	1.99	8.12	2.20	1.57
Interpersonal	5.47	1.43	4.90	1.62	1.87
Task	9.71	2.85	9.07	2.50	1.17
General	8.20	2.00	6.71	1.80	3.85[c]
BAPC	32.17	6.52	28.81	6.02	2.63[b]

[a] $p < .05$
[b] $p < .01$
[c] $p < .001$, two tailed

Table 8

Variable	Sex	Sex
No. of Parents	F	M
1	26	9
2	33	33

$x^2 = 4.60^a$

$^a p < .05$

Table 9

Variable	Sex	Sex
Men-Source	F.	M
1	44	39
2	15	3

$x^2 = 4.42^a$

$^a p < .05$

Table 10

Mann-Whitney & - Wilcoxon Rank Sum W Test

	Matchsex Mean Rank U	0 number W	Matchsex Mean Rank Z	1 number Corrected for ties 2- Tailed P
GPA by matchsex				
	35.40	10	28.90	49
	218.5	354.0	-1.1178	0.2636
Personalby matchsex				
	32.65	10	29.46	49
	218	326.5	-0.5421	0.5877
Interpersonal by matchsex				
	27.40	10	30.53	49
	219.0	274.0	-0.5365	0.5916
Task by Matchsex				
	32.65	10	29.46	49
	218.5	326.5	-0.5384	0.5903
General by Matchsex				
	27.90	10	30.43	49
	224.0	279.0	-0.4319	0.6658
BAPC by Matchsex				
	31.80	10	29.63	49
	227.0	318.0	-0.3643	0.7156

Table 10 (continued)

Mann-Whitney & - Wilcoxon Rank Sum W Test

U	SameRace Mean Rank W	0 number Exact 2-Tailed P	SameRace Mean Rank Z	1 number Corrected for ties 2- Tailed P
GPA by Same Race				
	25.71	7	30.58	52
161.0	231.0	0.6379	-0.4985	0.6182
Personal by Same Race				
	33.00	7	29.60	52
161.0	231.0	0.6379	-0.4985	0.6182
Interpersonal by Same Race				
	29.86	7	30.02	52
181.0	209.0	0.9909	-0.0239	0.9809
Task by Same Race				
	36.79	7	29.09	52
134.5	257.5	0.2720	-1.1197	0.2628
General by Same Race				
	33.36	7	229.55	52
158.5	233.5	0.5893	-0.608	0.5749
BAPC by Same Race				
	35.71	7	29.23	52
142.0	250.0	03.623	-9.9394	0.3475

Table 10 (continued)

Mann-Whitney & - Wilcoxon Rank Sum W Test

	Mentpar Mean Rank U	1 number W	Mentpar Mean Rank Z	2 number Corrected for ties 2- Tailed P
GPA by Mentpar				
	28.57	22	30.85	37
	375.5	628.5	-0.5059	0.6129
Personal by Mentpar				
	30.02	22	29.99	37
	406.5	660.5	-0.0079	0.9937
Interpersonal by Mentpar				
	27.80	22	31.31	37
	358.5	611.5	-0.7765	0.4375
Task by Mentpar				
	26.41	22	32.14	37
	328.0	581.0	1.2453	0.2130
General by Mentpar				
	30.84	22	29.50	37
	388.5	678.5	-0.2952	0.7678
BAPC by Mentpar				
	27.77	22	32.32	37
	358.0	611.0	-0.7695	0.4416

Table 10 (continued)

Mann-Whitney & - Wilcoxon Rank Sum W Test

	Mentpar Mean Rank U	1 number W	Mentpar Mean Rank Z	2 number Corrected for ties 2- Tailed P
GPA by Mentpar				
	28.57	22	30.85	37
	375.5	628.5	-0.5059	0.6129
Personal by Mentpar				
	30.02	22	29.99	37
	406.5	660.5	-0.0079	0.9937
Interpersonal by Mentpar				
	27.80	22	31.31	37
	358.5	611.5	-0.7765	0.4375
Task by Mentpar				
	26.41	22	32.14	37
	328.0	581.0	1.2453	0.2130
General by Mentpar				
	30.84	22	29.50	37
	388.5	678.5	-0.2952	0.7678
BAPC by Mentpar				
	27.77	22	32.32	37
	358.0	611.0	-0.7695	0.4416

Table 10 (continued)

Mann-Whitney & - Wilcoxon Rank Sum W Test

	Mentplus Mean Rank U	0 number W	Mentplus Mean Rank Z	1 number Corrected for ties 2- Tailed P
GPA by Mentplus				
	26.54	25	32.54	34
	338.5	663.5	-1.3595	0.1740
Personal by Mentplus				
	29.68	25	30.24	34
	417.0	742.0	-0.1243	0.9011
Interpersonal by Mentplus				
	28.24	25	31.29	34
	38.0	706.0	-0.6894	0.4906
Task by Mentplus				
	28.76	25	30.91	34
	394.0	719.0	-0.4782	0.6325
General by Mentplus				
	29.14	25	30.63	34
	403.5	728.5	-0.3358	0.7371
BAPC by Mentplus				
	38.68	25	30.97	34
	392.0	717.0	-0.5072	0.6120

Table 11

Mann-Whitney U Test

(corrected for tied ranks and expressed as normal deviates)

Group I. Females

Variable	Mentor Source		Mentor Sex		Mentor-Plus	
Hero/MR	Non-F	Family	Female	Male	None	Any
2	0	3	3	0	3	0
3	4	20	22	2	10	14
4	7	13	18	2	8	12
5	9	3	6	6	4	8
	20	39	49	10	25	34
	z=3.51[c]		z=2.73[b]		z=1.22	

Group II. Males

Variable	Mentor Source		Mentor Sex		Mentor-Plus	
Hero/MR	Non-F	Family	Female	Male	None	Any
1	0	1	1	2	0	0
2	0	4	2	2	2	2
3	5	17	11	11	8	14
4	0	8	4	4	0	8
5	1	7	6	2	0	8
	6	36	23	19	10	32
	z=0.51		z=0.94		z=2.77[b]	

[a] p .05

[b] p .01

[c] p .001

Table 12

Variable	Mentor Source Family Mentor	Mentor Source Non-Family
Father Absent	9	0
Father Present	27	6

$x^2=9.892$

Appendix B (Tables 1-9)

Frequency Distributions

Demographic and School Related Variables

Table 1

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' Age
(N=100)

Age	Frequence	Percent
14.0 - 14.5	0	0
14.6 - 15.0	2	2
15.1 - 15.5	13	15
15.6 - 16.0	14	29
16.1 - 16.5	18	47
16.6 = 17.0	11	58
17.1 - 17.5	25	83
17.6 - 18.0	10	93
18.2 - 18.5	4	97
18.6 - 19.0	3	100

Mean = 16.6
Median = 16.5
S.D. = .9818

Table 2

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' Sex

Category Label	Frequency	Percent
Female	59	58.4
Males	42	41.6
Total	101	100.0

Table 3

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' Ethnicity

Category Label	Frequency	Percent
Black	65	64.4
Hispanic	36	35.6
Total	101	100.0

Mean 1.356
Median 1.277
Standard Deviation 0.797

Table 4

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' Grade

Category Label	Frequency	Percent
Tenth	25	24.8
Eleventh	35	34.7
Twelfth	41	40.6
Total	101	100.0

Mean 3.158
Median 3.229
Standard Deviation 0.797

Table 5

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' GPA

Category Label	Frequency	Percent
LT 65	12	11.9
65-70	17	16.8
71-75	14	13.9
76-80	28	27.7
81-85	16	15.8
86-100	14	13.9
Total	101	100.0

Mean 2.604
Median 2.768
Standard Deviation 0.788

Table 6

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' Hero/Mentor Rating

Category Label	Frequency	Percent
0	0	0.0
1	0	0.0
2	7	6.9
3	46	45.5
4	28	27.7
5	20	19.8
Total	101	100.0

Mean 3.604
Median 3.446
Standard Deviation 0.884

Table 7

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' Dream Factor

Category Label	Frequency	Percent
Mention (1)	20	19.9
Sustain (2)	35	34.7
Real (3)	46	45.5
Total	101	100.0

Mean 2.257
Median 2.371
Standard Deviation 0.770

Table 8

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' BAPC
(N=100)

BAPC	Frequence	Percent
16	1	1
17	2	2
18	3	3
19	1	1
21	4	4
22	1	1
23	2	2
24	3	3
25	4	4
26	6	6
27	4	4
28	4	4
29	4	4
30	8	8
31	6	6
32	4	4
33	6	6

Table 9

Frequency Distribution: Respondents' BAPC (continued)
(N=100)

BAPC	Frequence	Percent
34	3	3
35	10	10
36	6	6
37	4	4
38	5	5
39	1	1
40	3	3
41	3	3
43	3	3

Appendix C

Demographic Data

1. Date of Birth
2. Race
3. Year in School
4. Birth order, Number of Children in Family
5. Parents Occupation
6. Employment History
7. Parents Educational Background
8. Sex
9. Organizational Affiliations/Religion
10. Career Choice
11. Grade Point Average
12. Dream (Life Goal)
13. High School

HERO/MENTOR INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Do you have a best friend? What do you admire in him/her most?

2. Have there been characters in movies or books who you admire or would like to be like?

3. Are there any historical figures, political leaders, athletes, or movie stars whom you admire or would like to be like?

4. Are there any adults in real life with whom you have had a special relationship? In what ways have they influenced you?

5. Of all of the indivdiuals you have mentioned (real or imaginary) select the one with whom you are most able to identify, or would most like to be like. Describe them (demographics, talents, goals) and how you would like to be like them. Has this person influenced any important decisions in your life?

6. Does this person ever come to mind when you are confronted with a difficult situation? If not, then who does?

7. Have you ever attempted to act or perform in ways that you might expect of this person?

8. Would you consider this person to be a role model or mentor for you?

HERO/MENTOR INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Score	Criteria
0	No close friend named, no person or character named, no significant other mentioned.
1	Naming at least one person/character whom adolescent likes, admires, and perceives as being similar to.
2	Naming one or more persons/characters whom adolescent has liked and indicates a desire to behave like, copy in some way or look like. (The level of identification would coincide with that of imitation. The objects values and goals are not included. Skills which the adolescent would like to imitate may be included but if there is evidence of a more meaningful relationship do not score at this level.
3	Naming a person with whom the adolescent identifies, admires in terms of personal or personality attributes (strength, courage, power, mastery, goals, etc.). If the adolescent has interacted with this person in real life, look for evidence of role modeling or ways that the person has given support (financial, social, financial, educational). If a character (someone adolescent has been exposed to through literature, movies, media) is named, look for evidence that adolescent has learned something from them or used them as an example as opposed to wanting to copy or imitate behaviors.
4	Naming one or more person/characters with whom the adolescent shows a strong identification. The person/character should be described as having influenced the adolescent's desire to master the demands of his environment in a way which suggests his belief in the adolescent as an effective agent. The adolescent sees the person as supportive but is not dependent on the person. Similarities should exist in the way the adolescent describes himself, his future self-image and personal qualities of the mentor.
5	Naming one or more person's whose characteristics seem to have been internalized by the adolescent (consciously or unconsciously). The person should be seen as having influenced drive towards mastery, future self, and acts as a bridge to link past, present and future identifications. It is clear he/she has influence adolescent's success — and is experienced by the adolescent as a transitional object. (This is the main differentiating factor between a score of 4 and 5).

IMAGINARY PLAY INTERVIEW & DREAM INTERVIEW

1. What was your favorite game during your elementary school years — what did you like to play most?
2. When you played by yourself, what games did you play?
3. Did you ever have pictures in your head — or did you ever daydream?
4. Did you ever have a make-believe playmate?
5. Did you ever role-play with your friends?
6. Have you ever been involved in the performing arts?
7. At what age did you feel most imaginative?
8. How often do you think of yourself in the future?
9. What do you think your life will be like in five years?
10. What do you think your life will be like in ten years?

Criteria for Measurement of Dream Potential: Background

Definition of Dream: Theoretical — Levinson states: In its primordial form, the Dream is a vague sense of self-in-adult world. It has the quality of a vision, an imagined possibility that generates excitement and vitality. At the start it is poorly articulated and only tenuously connected to reality, although it may contain concrete images such as winning the Nobel Prize or making the all-star team. It may take a dramatic form as in the myth of the hero: the great artist, business tycoon, athletic or intellectual superstar performing magnificent feats and receiving special honors. It may take mundane forms that are yet inspiring and sustaining: the excellent craftsman, the husband-father in a certain kind of family, the highly respected member of one's community..

Whatever the nature of the Dream, a young man has the developmental task of giving it greater definition and finding ways to live it out. It makes a great difference in his growth whether his initial life structure is consonant with and infused by the Dream, or opposed to it. If the Dream remains unconnected to his life, it may simply die, and with it his sense of aliveness and purpose.

Winnicott: the child imagines various possibilities of his self and world in the future. He enacts these imaginings in daydreams, play, and other make-believe explorations... The play world is a boundary region between the concretely objective external reality and the entirely subjective internal image or hope. In play the child can transform imaginings of what might be into illusions of what now is, in preparation for the hard work of making the illusions real in the external world. He can create, experiment with, and slowly actualize a new self-in-world that is just starting to take shape.

Instructions:

Level One: Having a career goal, definite choices related to occupation and livelihood.

Level Two: Protocol suggests that Career Goal has a self-sustaining quality, "an imagined possibility that generates excitement." Adolescent is looking forward to living it out.

Level Three: Includes the above criteria in addition there is evidence that the Play World (PART THREE) was useful in the initial development of the Dream.

Example:
A subject states that he used to daydream about being a doctor. His career goal is health related.

A subject states that he used to pretend he was a doctor, mother, teacher. His career goal is service oriented.

A subject states that he used to draw a lot. His career goal is Graphic Arts.

PSYCHOSOCIAL BEHAVIORAL ATTRIBUTES SCALE

This is a questionnaire about some of the ways people handle their lives. Read each question. Then choose which alternative, a or b, is more characteristic of you, and answer accordingly. The task is to choose which of the two alternatives is more characteristic of you, i.e., which more closely describes how you act and feel. You may feel that neither alternative describes exactly how you feel and act; even so, choose the one of the two which you think is closer to what you are like.

For example:

1. a. When I am happy, I let everyone know.

   b. When I am happy, I keep it to myself.

Chose (a) if that more closely describes what you do when you are happy.
Choose (b) if that more closely describes what you do when you are happy.
Indicate your choice by marking the appropriate alternative (a) or (b) on the accompanying answer sheet.

Do not mark on this form. Mark only on the answer sheet.

1. a. I am very involved in trying to answer questions about who I am or want to be.

   b. I am interested in questions about who I am or want to be, but I don't consciously think about them often.

2. a. Managing to obtain my goals in life without getting upset is important but I don't focus on it a great deal.

   b. Managing to obtain my goals in life without getting upset is something to which I give considerable attention.

3. a. When I have to part with friends because I am going to move or make a change in my life, I hate to leave my old friends but can usually enjoy finding new friends.

   b. When I have to part with friends because I am going to move or make a change in my life, I usually get very upset over leaving my old friends and nervous when I think of making new friendships.

4. a. I usually make a real effort to keep up close friendships.

   b. I like close friendships but I usually don't put a great deal of effort into making them work.

5. a. I master new tasks when they happen to come my way, but I don't usually enjoy it all that much.

   b. I tend to look for new tasks, and enjoy the challenge of mastering them.

6. a. I look for possibilities that will help me improve my career goals.

   b. I put forth some efforts to improve my career goals if I can, but I don't go much out of my way to look for anything special.

7. a. Pressure situations in my work sometimes make me upset.

   b. When I meet pressure situations in my work, I hang loose.

8. a. I don't give much conscious thought to planning my life in terms of what I can handle.

   b. I generally organize my life in terms of what I think I can handle.

9. a. I systematically follow a schedule of self-improvement.

   b. I find self-improvement is difficult to work at regularly.

10. a. Trying to make sense out of life generally makes me upset.

    b. Trying to make sense out of life doesn't particularly upset me.

11. a. I try to maintain a clear picture of my inner and outer strengths and limitations as a person; I figure I need to.

    b. I seldom review my inner and outer strengths and limitations as a person, it doesn't seem necessary.

12. a. I frequently rely on events and other people to direct my course.

    b. I generally follow my own course as a person.

13. a. I expect difficulties to pop up as I carry through on a job or assignment, so I go ahead without being particularly bothered.

    b. I expect difficulties to pop up as I carry through on a job or assignment, so I go ahead but it still bothers me quite a bit when they do.

14. a. I choose friendships that will not tie me down too much, and not get me all "tied up" inside.

    b. I tend to let friendships happen and don't concern myself much with them getting me tied down or "uptight."

15. a. I plan to seek out new friendships and to develop my capabilities for being a good friend.

    b. I hope to have new friendships and to develop my capabilities for being a good friend, but I probably won't work regularly at it.

16. a. If I can't seem to get along with people, I don't see any need to worry about it.

    b. If I can't seem to get along with people, I try to find out why, so I can do better in the future.

17. a. When something I do for fun works out okay, I sometimes can't enjoy it as much as I'd like to because I get too excited.

    b. When something I do for fun works out okay, I am able to relax and make the most of it.

18. a. In new situations, I look for the kinds of personal relationships that I want.

    b. In new situations, I usually let other people indicate what friendship possibilities they would like with me.

19. a. I value my independence; however, I often prefer to go along with others.

    b. I try to keep my independence as much as possible, even when I'm with other people.

20. a. As each new experience or phase of my life ends, I tend to move on to the next without looking back or much thought for the future.

    b. As each new experience or phase of my life ends, I try to reassess where I am and what I want out of life.

21. a. When I'm involved in something and begin to have setbacks, I may drop it unless it really matters to me to finish it.

    b. When I take on something I stick with it until it's finished.

22. a. When I do something really difficult, I generally don't feel it's worth all the effort and don't get much satisfaction out of it.

    b. I think it's fun to do really difficult things,even though I don't always get as much satifaction out of it.

23. a. I follow my own course and ideas about love.

    b. Following my own course and ideas about love doesn't seem particularly important.

24. a. When I have a personal problem, I sometimes get upset before I reach a decision.

    b. When I have a personal problem, I usually work it out without getting very upset.

25. a. Life's victories and defeats offer me a time to re-evaluate myself, but sometimes, I still worry about the success of my future efforts.

    b. Life's victories and defeats offer me a time to re-evaluate myself, and I tend to take a look at myself fairly calmly.

26. a. I like being alive and I'm involved in living life to the fullest by putting something into it.

    b. Being alive is nice, but I'll probably get more out of life by taking it as it comes.

27. a. I often tell friends I'll do something, but then get worried that I won't carry through on it as well as I should.

    b. I often tell friends I'll do something, and I usually carry through on it without worrying about it.

28. a. Thinking about the work I have to do helps me to get it done without getting upset.

    b. I have to be careful not to think about all the work I have to do or I'll get worried and not get as much done.

29. a. I figure my life will be what I make of it, but even so I generally prefer to let things come to me first.

    b. I figure my life will be what I make of it, so I generally go out to meet life and make the most of it.

30. a. Although I like to meet new people, when I plan activities, I don't usually think about whether these activities will give me chances to meet new and different people.

31. a. When I've had a personal problem, I find that pulling it together, and putting it behind me is fairly easy.

    b. When I've had a personal problem, I find pulling it together and putting it behind me is fairly difficult.

32. a. I take it on myself to look around and search for the possibilities I can follow.

    b. I tend to let the world's possibilities come to me.

33. a. When I set out to accomplish a task and don't make it, I don't see that much is really gained by going over it again, so I usually don't.

    b. When I set out to accomplish a task, and don't make it, I take time out to re-evaluate my strengths and limitations and adjust my goals accordingly.

34. a. I usually arrange to set personal goals in my own way.

    b. Other people can generally help me when I think about personal goals so I usually seek their help.

35. a. When a friendship ends, I tend to look to other people to tell me what happened and whether I need to change.

    b. When a friendship ends, I usually look at it to see what happened and whether I need to change.

36. a. When I plan something for myself and carry through on it I feel good about myself and I try to express this good feeling in some way.

    b. When I plan something for myself and carry through on it, I feel sort of good about myself, but expressing the feeling isn't so important.

37. a. I tend to anticipate difficulties and problems in job situations so I can try to keep things moving smoothly.

    b. I try to see job situations through and keep things moving but I don't usually go out of my way to look for problems.

38. a. When I have had a blow up with someone close to me, I feel it's both people's fault so I don't see much use in putting myself through the wringer.

    b. When I have had a blow up with someone close to me, I figure it's up to me to take a close look at myself and how I relate to people.

39. a. To me the important part of any job or task is handling it my own way, as long as it is done correctly.

    b. To me most jobs and tasks are just work and it doesn't matter much whether I do it my way or someone else's.

40. a. I generally approach work and other tasks so that I can get them done without becoming worried or getting upset in the process.

    b. In my work and other tasks I get them done but in the process I tend to get involved to the extent that I am worried or upset.

41. a. In looking for work possibilities, it's important to me to find something in which I can be as irdependent as possible.

    b. In looking for work possibilities I don't particularly feel that I have to work independentiy.

42. a. I usually plan social activities easily and withour getting upset.

    b. While planning for social activities, I tend to worry that things won't go "just right."

43. a. Once I take on a job or assignment, it doesn't really matter a great deal whether I carry through with it in my way.

    b. When I take on a job or assignment, it's important to me to carry through on it my way.

44. a. I try to get things to come out, but I'm not always very creative about it.

    b. I tend to be somewhat creative about getting things to come out okay.

45. a. Carrying through on commitments -- to myself, other people and on tasks -- is part of life and I generally do it without worrying about it.

    b. Carrying through on commitments -- to myself, other people, and on tasks -- is part of life but I tend to get up-tight about seeing them through.

46. a. I plan to make the most of my life so I have thought out rather carefully what I want and I plan my life and carry out my plans as I go along.

    b. I hope to make the most of my life but I usually don't go out of my way to make plans or follow them closely.

47. a When I have displeased others or myself, I figure it's up to me to put things back together.

    b. When I have displeased others or myself, I don't think it matters who puts things back together just os it gets done.

48. a. Many situations may yield new possibilities for personal growth, but I usually settle for what comes my way.

    b. In most situations I usually seek out people to get information that will help me in my development as a person.

49. a. When everything is going great, I enjoy it but I don't usually go out of my way to make a big deal of it.

    b. When everything is going great, I do all I can to make the most of the occasion and really enjoy it.

50. a. I generally think it's my responsibility to look for what I want in life.

    b. I want a good life for myself, but I think other people also have some responsibility for that.

51. a. I generally prefer to live my life as I go.

    b. I usually think ahead and organize my thoughts or ideas about future situations.

52. a. When I don't do as well as I expect at something, I pick out some other job without coming apart inside very badly.

    b. When I don't do as well as I expect at something, my disappointment sometimes makes it more difficult to figure out what else to do.

53. a. People usually make me nervous.

    b. I fell completely comfortable around people.

54. a. I'm not much for planning but I do like new tasks, new people, and new experiences when I encounter them.

    b. I enjoy new tasks, new people, and new experiences, so I'm planning my life to give me those things.

55. a. I generally don't get a real sense of satisfaction from doing a project unless I put some of my ideas into it.

    b. I generally feel good when I finish a project even if I have not put any of my ideas into it.

56. a. I look forward to opportunities to think about "who I am" or "who I want to be."

    b. When I think about "who I am" or "who I want to be," I get mixed up inside.

57. a. As long as my life is going along all right it doesn't really matter much whether I'm making all of the decisions.

    b. I get a real sense of satisfaction when I make my own decisions about my own life.

58. a. I look forward to the challenges of work, keep on top of it without getting upset, and enjoy mastering it. I fully expect to be busy most of my life and to enjoy it.

    b. My work has not done much for me but make me worry and doubt my capabilities; I expect to work most of my life but I don't particulary look forward to it.