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...when a person is afraid, he is afraid all over. He not only feels afraid, but his heart, his stomach, and his muscles react in characteristic ways. All of the changes that occur constitute the pattern of fear. Fear does not cause the heart to beat faster, the stomach to stop digesting, and the muscles to become tense. They are all components of a single unified pattern. Fear does not cause constipation; gastrointestinal immobility is rather an integral part of the pattern of fear.

There is an appealing but oversimplified view of the individual which conceives of each organ as performing its own special function in the corporate whole, much as the separate instruments comprising an orchestra make their individual contribution in the performance of a symphony. According to this view; the heart is a pump, the lungs are bellows, the stomach and intestines are organs of digestion and elimination, the hand is a tool for grasping and manipulating objects, the eyes are organs of sight, and the brain is the seat of mental activity.

This is a false conception. No disembodied brain can think, no disembodied lungs can breathe. They can only function as constituents of the total organismic system. The process of breathing is influenced by the biochemistry of the blood and by electro-chemical impulses in the nervous system. Blood chemistry and neural impulses, in turn, are affected by a number of organic conditions including secretions of the endocrine glands, processes in the sense organs, and metabolism. The person is able to breathe not merely because he has lungs, but because the lungs function as part of the total organic system.

This can be easily verified by observing the changes in the breathing pattern as the state of the whole organism changes. The waking person breathes in a manner quite different from that of the sleeping person. The frightened person does not breathe in the same way as does the joyful person. When one engages in strenuous activity, his breathing is faster and deeper than it is when he is relaxed and resting. Any emotional disturbance affects the rate and amplitude of breathing. This is one of the measures used in the "lie-detector" test.

Calvin S. Hall: PSYCHOLOGY
Howard Allen, 1960.

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THE AGORA

The Archives of the History of American Psychology makes two announcements:

(1) This year marks the tenth anniversary of the founding of the Archives of the History of American Psychology. During that time more than 500 separate collections have been accessed. Present holdings include 1200 linear feet of documents as well as 600 pieces of pioneer laboratory and teaching equipment. The finding aids include an inventory of each deposit as well as a reference file noting the location of materials relevant to psychologists represented in any deposit. The current roster includes approximately 30,000 individuals. There have been at least 223 guests who have traveled to Akron to visit the Archives and the last two years has been one of dramatic increase in the on site use of the resources. The post- to pre-doctoral ratio of scholars is 2:1. There is diversity in the professional identification. For example, in a sample of 27, 15 were psychologists, 10 historians, one a philosopher, and one an educator.

(2) A stipend of up to \$500 will be awarded. This is considered as aid to a scholar wishing to utilize the primary resources of the Archives. The stipend is intended to defray travel and research expenses and the recipient is expected to reside in Akron while using the materials of the Archives. Candidates should submit a prospectus of the work planned, a vita, and two letters of recommendation. It is particularly important that there be evidence that the Archives is the most suitable place for the work to be undertaken. Preference will be given to advanced graduate students and younger post doctoral scholars. Applications should be completed by March 1st. The award will be announced not later than April 15th and will be in effect until December 31, 1976. Applications should be sent to the chairman of the University of Akron awards committee: Mr. John V. Miller, Jr., Director of Archival Services, University of Akron, Akron, Ohio 44325.

Work continues on the joint enterprise INTERBEHAVIORAL APPROACHES TO RECURRING PROBLEMS IN PSYCHOLOGY though progress is very slow. Seven manuscripts are now complete. It appears that another two or three will be the maximum. That will provide a more limited sample of areas for interbehavioral approaches than originally envisioned but a slimmer volume may have its own kind of advantages.

The editor has been offered a Visiting Fellowship to Hull College in Hull, England for 1976-77. In order to work publication of the Quarterly around that schedule it will be published as a single volume for the calendar years of 1976 and 1977, two issues in each year. Subscription price will remain the same for the volume.

Lila Goodson, author of the feature article, wrote it as a senior at Lynchburg College. The "Revisitations" by Vicki Thompson we hope to run as a feature series.

Emotions Versus Emotional Behavior: A Comparison
of J. B. Watson and J. R. Kantor

Lila Goodson

When the word, or a derivative of the word, emotion is verbalized, various thoughts or ideas are probably experienced depending on the organism's history of responding to these terms as well as the setting factors. The definitions and explanations of emotions as given by J.B. Watson and J.R. Kantor, are to be compared and contrasted.

For Watson, human action is divided into two parts: the acquired modes of responses and the hereditary modes of responses. Emotions along with instincts are paired together in the latter group. He reports that the human undergoes a process of organization whereby the hereditary and acquired reaction modes separate to a certain extent, but never completely.

An emotion for Watson is, "an hereditary pattern reaction" involving profound changes of the bodily mechanism as a whole, but particularly of the visceral and glandular systems. In referring to pattern-reaction he gives the example of a sooty-tern feinting death in reaction to a human intruder, but running away and giving an instinctive cry when the chance for escape arises. Watson differentiates emotions and instincts with respect to the adjustments of the organism. If the adjustments are internal and confined to the subject's body, emotion occurs; if the organism as a whole makes adjustments to external objects, instinct has occurred. This is clearly an example of organocentric ideology in which stimuli are assumed to elicit reactions from within the organism.

Watson's almost exclusive use of children as subjects was a deliberate move because he felt that not enough work had been done in this area. He grouped emotional reactions into the categories of fear, rage, and love, at the same time warning students not to find anything in these words that was not statable in terms of situation and response. He names four principle situations as producing fear: loss of support, loud sounds, an abrupt interruption as sleep is overtaking the organism, and pulling a blanket out from under the subject who is falling asleep. The observed reactions are catching the breath, the grasping reflex, closing of the eyelids, puckering the lips, then crying. The common belief that children are instinctively afraid of the dark was shown not to be true according to his evidence. Incidentally, Watson stipulates without reference or experimental support that children reared in the South exhibit fear of the dark more than others. Rage is said to occur as a result of "hampering of the infant's movements." The exhibited behaviors are crying, screaming, slashing movements with the arms and hands, drawing up and down with the feet and legs, and flushing of the face as a result of breath holding. Love involves smiling cooing, gurgling, etc. as a result of stroking or manipulation of the erogenous zones such as tickling, shaking, patting, or gentle rocking. The Freudian emphasis in relation to this emotion is minimal.

Different kinds of infrahuman organisms were exposed to the infants to see if generalized emotional reactions could be obtained. Relatively little fear was observed in the infants even after contact with such organisms as rabbits, pigeons, cats, dogs, white rats, as well as observation of a fire in a nearby bucket.

In the attempt to detect emotional responses, Watson considered the implicit portions to be more important than the explicit portions. He listed two methods of detection: 1) free type, where "significant" words are randomly interjected with neutral words, and continuous type where a subject is given a key word from an emotional situation and told to freely relate to it. This method is used to detect blockage as related to dreams which Watson considered to be good indicators of one's personality, stresses, strains and general emotional life.

Watson's famous conditioned emotional reaction study with little Albert was an example of the eliciting properties which can be taken on by the habit influences to "call out" emotional responses. The phenomenon of transferred conditioned emotional reactions was exhibited when Albert made fear responses to objects similar in texture to the white rat. A control procedure was used in which the infant was given blocks to interact with between stimulus presentations.

In dealing with emotional outlets, Watson describes diffusion which is equivalent to the concept of displacement. He viewed it as a threat to society, but rationalized the occurrences as resulting in relaxation. Attitudes are considered to be a consolidation of emotions, instincts and habits. Examples such as, "tenderness", "shyness", "shame", "jealousy", "hate", "embarrassment", "suspicion", "anxiety", etc. are said to represent combinations of the three reaction modes.

Physiological factors are considered to be strong components in the expression of emotions, secretions from duct glands are reduced with contraction of smooth muscles occurring in reaction to emotionally exciting stimuli. The effect on the ductless glands is increased production of adrenalin resulting in glycosuria. This condition is caused by excess sugar passing into the urine. In addition, the pulse accelerates and dilation of the pupils occurs. The post emotional state may leave the organism either poorly adjusted or better adjusted, depending on the situational factors.

Watson summarizes his discussion of emotion by saying that emotions must be recognized as part of human life rather than being discarded or overlooked. He suggests that further investigation into the control and manipulation of human behavior in relation to emotions should reveal more knowledge about the area. The faults as well as good points of Watson's theory will be openly discussed after a challenging alternative system is presented.

Emotional behavior for Kantor "consists essentially of interruptive forms of action stimulated by rapidly changing circumstances and in all cases involves various slight or intense general organic and visceral processes." He considers emotional conduct to be a momentary condition of "no response" with this cessation of activity differentiating emotional behavior from affective or feeling behavior. Bringing in the aspects of Kantor's field theory, one might say that the emotional conduct is a failure to adjust based on past reactions and the environment. By breaking emotional behavior into segments, specific characteristics can be examined such as the absence of the consummatory or final responses which are blocked by the occurring behavior. Unless these consummatory responses occur in the proper sequence, the behavior pattern will be disorderly. It is this lack of order which characterizes the emotional conduct and provides the only observable parsimonious method of detection. Kantor supports this view with various observations: the failure of psychologists to classify emotional acts, the inability of the observer

to detect which type of emotion the person under investigation is experiencing, the blunder of replacing emotions with reflexes which are not equivalent in detection of emotional behavior, and in crediting infra-human organisms with human qualities in relation to emotions.

In order to more thoroughly investigate the various types and degrees of emotional conduct, Kantor systematically analyzed the emotional behavior into four segments. These separate sequences are: Pre-emotional Behavior Segments, Emotional Behavior Segments Proper, First-Proximate Post-Emotional Behavior Segments, and Second-Proximate Post Emotional Segments. The Pre-Emotional Segment consists of whatever situation sets the occasion for the emotional segment. It therefore involves the setting factors and movements of the subject and stimulus object preparing to interact. The Emotional Behavior Segment Proper is characterized by the absence of the final reaction system and the presence of visceral and general organic functioning which operates in the absence of the consummatory response. The emotional act involves a disintegration process of the response pattern along with inhibition and suppression of any overt adjustments to the situation. An emotion is therefore a negative form of behavior even though it may precede an adjustment. The biological functions are also taken into account including such factors as disturbances of digestive secretions and respiration, contraction of blood vessels, acceleration or retardation of the heart beat, and induction of various secretions. The first Proximate Post-Emotional Behavior Segment is considered to be directly conditioned by the surrounding stimulating circumstances of the moment. The type of response is dependent upon the stimulating situation which initiated the emotional act. With primary emotion, the acts are most likely to be large overt responses which involve the skeletal muscles as in the case of running or jumping. The secondary or social emotional situation involves a gradual transition from a confused state back to equilibrium. The Second Proximate Post-Emotional Behavior Segment sometimes carries over to a subsequent behavior segment. It's considered a very transitional stage bridging the gap between isolated sequences of behavior.

Kantor feels it necessary to distinguish emotional behavior from non-emotional feeling behavior which have been mistakenly paired together in the past. Feelings do not meet the criterion of the presence or absence of an organized response system and are therefore not classified as emotional behavior. He especially wishes to separate emotions from passions which operate continuously in some form constituting an autonomous system. Unlike Watson, Kantor places love and hate under the category of passions which can be brought about by substitute stimuli as well as by stimulating objects such as other organisms. Sentiments are also distinguished from emotions, being "prescriptive and limiting types of activity developed under the influence of social approval". Sentiments are considered to be directed responses resulting in some complex social behavior examples of which are modesty, cleanliness, and charitableness. Sentiments have a broader range of exciting stimuli while passions are more closely linked with the surrounding environment.

Kantor finds the utilitarian theory of emotions to be an invalid one. He deals with this on the organic level, finding no utilitarian value in biological functions. The participation of all parts of the organism in bringing about responses is what matters. In classifying emotional behaviors, Kantor feels that there is only one type of emotional act. By finding the specific circumstances under which an organism responds, more information can be obtained about the process of human reaction. He singles

out the errors of giving excess meaning to a name which is similar to a symbol. Because all reactions depend on the characteristic of the individual and the surrounding conditions, an investigation of the conditions is considered necessary.

The distinction between emotions and expressions is made on the assumption that there is no room in Kantor's analysis for the "expression of emotion". He claims that the doctrine of emotional expression is based on the dichotomy that divides emotions into an inner state of emotions themselves and an outer expression of them. In dealing with emotions in infants and infrahuman organisms he considers the social experience of adult humans to be an important factor in emotional behavior. The continuity theory begun by Darwin is as much in error as the doctrines initiated by the non-continuity theorists. Kantor resolves the two opposing views with his field approach which concentrates on the circumstances which are appropriate for responses to be made by each organism.

While both Watson and Kantor were writing in the same decade, one can see from the two view points given, that Watson still clung to the traditional theories of psychology. Even though Watson was considered a radical, Kantor was the true revolutionary, the difference being in the size of the audiences. While introducing Behaviorism as a new school with emphasis on the environmental effects on behavior, Watson did not shed such archaic ideas as the nature-nurture conflict. Watson's organocentric ideology was also fully apparent, as was his reductionistic attitude towards isolated organs of the body.

Kantor brings in a field approach to deal with the problems left by Watson and others. With his emphasis on the environment containing setting factors and media of contact, as well as the stimulating object which excites rather than elicits responses in the organism based on the past history, any aspect of behavior can be dealt with objectively.

References

Kantor, J. R. Principles of Psychology, Granville, Ohio: The Principia Press, 1926.

Watson, J. B. Psychology From the Standpoint of a Behaviorist, Philadelphia and London: J. B. Lippincott, 1919.

Revisitations of J. R. Kantor's Principles of Psychology

Part I

Vicki Thompson

Although written in 1924, Kantor's Principles explores many areas of behavior only recently being studied by other psychologists and some of them not yet touched upon. Two chapters of his work that involve topics rarely dealt with yet comprising large portions of human day-to-day activities, namely, "Implicit Action as Responses to Absent Stimuli Objects" and "Wishing, Desiring, and Kindred Forms of Responses" are recounted. The complete objectivity with which he deals with these interbehaviors, many of them subtle and treated in the past as "mental" or internal and private, and his success in showing the way to an analysis can be a source of continuing inspiration. The Principles will never age.

Mediate reactions comprise a large number of human responses. For example, an individual may respond to an object indirectly, as in speaking about something or someone standing before him. Sometimes when completing a response, changes occur within the organism itself. This type of mediate reaction occurs in feeling behavior. Implicit responses, a third type of mediate reaction, result when an organism responds to an absent object through a substitute stimulus object.

Kantor distinguishes between perceptual or semi-implicit action and full-fledged implicit responses. In perceptual action the stimulus object is in partial or complete contact with the reacting individual. However, in a full-fledged implicit response an entirely different object must serve as the stimulus.

Implicit responses play a significant role in everyday human behavior. The language response which can substitute for an overt reaction is the most common form of implicit activity. The importance of the implicit response is again evident when considering thinking and remembering activity. For example, when planning a party the arrangements are considered implicitly before any overt actions are carried out. Implicit behavior allows us to make use of our past actions in present situations to profit from our experiences. It also makes possible complex responses which depend upon the delay of the final reaction as in all thought and voluntary conduct. The detachment of meaning functions developed by perceptual contact with objects is a final indication of the importance of implicit reactions.

Implicit reaction systems are all in some sense representative or symbolizing activities. They derive directly or indirectly from overt actions and thus contain the same component factors as any overt response system. Although the original stimulus is not present a substitute stimulus results in a reaction which may be quite similar to the original response. For example, in recalling the death of a friend one may experience his throat tightening and actually shed tears. Although implicit reactions may be only partial or diminished forms of responses they are often lacking in vividness.

Most often implicit responses are precurent or anticipatory reaction systems. The following illustration indicates their precurent character. One reads the return address on a letter and it reminds him of a friend. The implicit response of remembering the absent friend mediates between the stimulus and the final adjustment of the behavior segment, namely, writing to the person. Implicit reactions not only allow us to respond to objects and persons we are not in direct contact with but also allow us to adjust to surrounding conditions. An individual may rehearse similar circumstances, comparing the results of each before deciding how to handle the present situation.

Although occurring less frequently, implicit reactions do operate as final adjustments of a behavior segment. Such activity is commonly referred to as day-dreaming. When hallucinating an individual responds not on the basis of surrounding conditions but upon implicit reactions which may have been derived from completely different circumstances.

Kantor distinguishes between two classes of implicit reaction. A representative implicit reaction is similar to a response performed in the presence of a stimulus object and now occurring without the stimulatory arousal of that object. One example of such behavior is the imagery responses performed by an individual. The second class of implicit responses is the substitutive reaction. These responses do not resemble the original reactions to the objects for which they substitute. They may be totally symbolic. Illustrative of substitutive responses are denominated concepts or thoughts. Lying between the fully representative and substitutive reactions are the language responses, a most efficient form of detached reaction.

Probing further Kantor discusses seven different forms of implicit types:

(1) Repetitive implicit responses -- In this instance the original response is essentially repeated but without the presence of the original stimulus object. An example of this would be the acting out of some past event.

(2) Incipient implicit responses -- These are simply partial performances of some original action. For example, almost everyone has experienced the situation of nearly being able to pronounce a name but not quite able to hit upon it correctly. The inability to do so because of the absence of an adequate stimulus is quite clearly a different matter than stuttering due to interference with the verbal response.

(3) Vestigial implicit responses -- In this case substitute stimuli objects elicit a response which contains parts of actions left over from the original reaction. We may distinguish between two different forms of vestigial implicit action. (a) Image responses are reaction systems left over from original perceptual responses to things. Images are sometimes so vivid that one may seem to see or hear things even though the original stimuli are no longer present. (b) Vestigial movement responses are derived from original non-perceptual responses. A good example is that one may blush or shudder when thinking of a previously experienced unpleasant activity.

(4) Organizational implicit action -- Some implicit acts have no resemblance to the original contacts with stimuli but are connected to such original actions in an essential and important manner. Implicit behavior of this sort is conceptual activity. Concepts are reaction systems which operate when we

must make use of our past experiences in a rapid and effective manner. Our ability to develop concepts depends upon verbal aids which allow us to build up meaning functions such as concepts are. A concept is a standardized and definite implicit response which substitutes for and sums up the person's experiences in a form useful for present purposes.

(5) Combinative implicit responses -- The detaching character of implicit responses makes it possible to combine previous activities into new forms of behavior as in the development of an aspiration or ideal of some sort.

(6) Fanciful implicit responses -- This refers to daydreaming or engaging in the sheer functioning of implicit activity without any intimate contact with objects.

(7) Referential implicit actions -- Some implicit activities substitute for behaviors which cannot occur or which the individual does not wish to do or dare to do for some reason. These are apparent to an observer and thus may be used to induce someone else to perform the work. The most obvious form of referential implicit action is verbal activity.

Since the original stimulus is not present it is difficult to know just what sort of implicit reaction a person is performing. Each individual responds differently in his implicit behavior and since implicit responses occur in the absence of the original stimuli they can be indefinitely varied and modified. Thus, the study of implicit behavior depends upon our knowledge of the person's previous conditions of stimulation and his mode of response to those stimuli.

Another type of mediate activity is the desire response. Here again there is a detachment of the individual from the adjustment stimulus. Desire responses are peculiar to a specific individual making them a more personal activity. Certain objects can be desire stimuli for people only under given conditions.

In examining desire reaction systems we discover several essential characteristics. Since an individual may wish for a particular object with certain qualities, cognitive or discriminative factors must play a prominent role. Objects do not become desire stimuli by forcing themselves upon the person. Rather, they are actualized into desire stimuli by the individual as a result of previous experience with such objects. Here we see the importance of the attention factor. Some desire reaction systems involve various affective factors. Others involve the operation of neural mechanisms as in cravings and appetitive forms of desire responses.

Desire reaction systems may be of a precurrent or anticipatory nature. In such behavior segments they precede and perhaps determine what the following reaction system will be. They may be present to an effective response in which case the individual who desires something wishes to touch, manipulate, possess, or perform some other effective response, or they may be precurrent to informational reactions in which case the final response is some type of informational activity. On the other hand, the desiring reaction system may serve as the final or consummatory activity in the behavior segment. Such is the case when a person desires an object even though he can in no way secure it.

Desires are the foundations for behaviors such as striving to reach some goal or end and attempting to modify one's self or one's surrounding conditions. Our beliefs and values are largely affected by our desires for particular objects and interactions. Undoubtedly desire behavior segments assume a large role in everyday behavior.

Although some desire response may be gradually acquired over a period of time others may be accidental occurrences. An individual may come in contact with an object and momentarily desire it while in its presence. Developed desires may be referred to as desire attitudes.

Conditions influencing desiring reactions may be divided into two classes, reactional or personality types and stimulatory types. Reactional conditions of desire refer to such things as an individual's behavior equipment, his knowledge, attitudes, etc. One's capacity to obtain the thing he desires may also affect the desire response or even determine whether there will be a desire response. Interests and character traits developed through past experiences naturally influence these reactions. Other significant reactional conditions include institutional factors such as custom, law, and public opinion, and conditioning circumstances in an individual's cultural development and surroundings.

The second type of condition influencing desire reactions, stimulatory conditions, refers to the stimuli surroundings. Desire for a particular thing necessarily depends upon the presence of such an object in our surroundings or in past contact with this or a similar type of object.

Any object or condition that may serve as a psychological stimulus may serve as desiderata stimuli for desiring behavior. Kantor distinguishes between goal and goalless desire stimuli. Both elicit desire reactions that lead to specific satisfactions, but only desire stimuli necessitate a complex of behavior to bring this satisfaction about.

The degree of intensity of a desiring reaction depends upon the nature of the reacting individual and the particular situation involved. Characteristics of an object or situation or circumstances surrounding the object may affect the intensity of the reaction. For example, one may desire an object because of its importance for carrying out a specific task.

The satisfaction of desire responses depends upon the individual's knowledge of his desires and the objects stimulating them. Some may be easily and effectively satisfied while others may be impossible to satisfy. In many cases only apparent gratification is obtained as when one settles for an inferior product or a copy instead of the original.

It is necessary at this point to distinguish between desiring activity and purposive conduct. While the desiring behavior situation is quite definitely limited in time, purposive behavior is practically indefinite in its duration. Also desiring reactions consist of simple or complex behavior situations whereas purposive conduct involves a broader scope of activity.

A major difference between desiring and purposive action is the importance of the stimulus factors. In desiring activity reactionistic emphasis is placed

upon the response rather than the stimulus condition. Whereas the characteristics of things have a hold upon the individual in purposive conduct, in desiring activity things exert an influence only because the individual is interested in them or desires them.

Desiring reactions differ from purposive behavior in yet another way. They are much more localized than purposive conduct, more personal and intimate. Purposive reactions always require additional activity in order to be accomplished themselves whereas desiring reactions may or may not require other activities to be completed. Finally, it must be pointed out that every complicated desiring reaction is convertible into a purposive response.

Thus far we have considered desiring conduct as a general type of psychological activity. Kantor further analyses desiring behavior and classifies it into several different types as listed below.

(1) Craving activities are desires for the performance of action. The stimuli for such responses involve conditions of the organism such as hunger and thirst.

(2) Appetites resemble craving activities but the stress is on the nature of the stimulus objects rather than the performance of action. Thus the appetite is always a specific desire and not a general craving.

(3) Organic functioning is absent in universal desires. These are more concerned with an individual's ability to obtain comforts and conveniences. Although based upon the person's biological organization, universal desires are greatly influenced by cultural features. Included among them are the wishes and wants concerning shelter, health, and well-being.

(4) Idiosyncratic desires are peculiar to an individual on the basis of his past interactional history and his unique present circumstances.

(5) Institutions within each culture determine that man shall desire certain objects and conditions. Among the cultural desires are desires to attain certain positions, to be respectable, etc.

(6) As desiring behavior wishing is characterized by an inability to satisfy the desire. For example, one may wish he had not performed some behavior which he regrets.

(7) Yearning responses are desires of a very intimate and personal sort. The satisfaction of these desires may be very drawn out and problematical. Yearning responses are passive and hopeless activities such as an individual yearning for the personal affection of another person.

(8) Although very similar to yearning, the stimuli conditions for longing responses are not such definite objects and conditions. They are aroused by various lacks and needs. An example is longing for love, happiness, etc.

(9) Wanting is essentially a desire of occasions. Objects become desiderata for a particular moment because of some use or need for them.

In concluding his chapter on desiring behavior Kantor considers two commonly held misconceptions. First, the term desire is often used to signify forces or powers within the individual which cause him to reach out for certain objects or conditions. Secondly, the powers which supposedly condition desire responses are attributed to a particular biological organ or organ function. Kantor, however, establishes desiring behavior not as any type of mystical force but as a definite psychological activity to be objectively studied and understood.