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**ABSTRACT**

This volume was prepared for the National Institute on Drug Abuse as a part of a Research Issues Series. The issues of drug use and abuse have generated many volumes of words, all written in an attempt to explain the problem and suggest the solution. Data have been generated by researchers from many disciplines, each looking at a particular aspect of an issue. This book summarizes the major research findings in the area of drugs and family/peer influence which have been published during the last 15 years. The volume is organized to provide the reader with the purpose, methodology, findings, and conclusions of previous studies done in this area. Topics include: (1) the world of youthful drug use --groups and gangs; (2) becoming a marijuana user--predictions; (3) the family of the addict --influence and interactions; (4) Horatio Alger's children--parents as models; and (5) developmental factors--childhood experience. (Author/PC)

**DRUGS AND FAMILY/PEER INFLUENCE**

Family and Peer Influences  
on Adolescent Drug Use

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### Cover Illustration

William Blake. The figure of Urizen or the Ancient of Days.  
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## FOREWORD

The issues of drug use and abuse have generated many volumes of words, all written in an attempt to explain the "problem" and suggest the "solution." Data have been generated by researchers from many disciplines, each looking at a particular aspect of an issue. The present booklet is one of a new series intended to aid researchers who find it difficult to find the time to scan, let alone read all the information which exists and which continues to be published daily in their area of interest. An attempt has been made to focus predominantly on empirical research findings and major theoretical approaches.

Included in volumes 1 through 7 of the series are summaries of the major research findings of the last 15 years, formulated and detailed to provide the reader with the purpose, methodology, findings and conclusions of previous studies done in the topic area. Each topic was chosen because it represented a challenging issue of current interest to the research community. As additional issues are identified, the relevant research will be published as part of this series.

Several of the volumes in the series represent a departure from the above description. These also represent challenging issues, and issues of current interest; they are, however, virtually unexplored areas which have received little attention from the research world. For example, the subjects of drugs and the visual arts, science fiction, and fiction--aspects of contemporary life which impact on all of us--are explored here by writers who have been deeply involved in those fields. Their content is perhaps provocative, and certainly stimulating.

The Research Issues series is a group project of staff members of the National Institute on Drug Abuse, Division of Research, Behavioral and Social Sciences Branch. Special thanks are due to the continued guidance and support of Dr. Louise Richards and Dr. Norman Krasnegor. Selection of articles for inclusion was greatly aided by the suggestions of a peer review group, researchers themselves, each of whom reviewed a topic of particular interest. It is my pleasure to acknowledge their contribution to the project here.

Dan J. Lettieri, Ph. D.  
Project Officer  
National Institute on Drug Abuse

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A bibliographic project such as this necessarily involved a great number of people, all of whom contributed their own particular talent. Many worked on more than one phase of the project. Many more are not named here--their help and advice was instrumental in shaping and defining the series and the individual topics. It is important, however, to distinguish between the members of the peer review group who were instrumental in the initial selection of the articles to be included and abstracted, and the members of the abstracting team who bear sole responsibility for the final format and content of the abstract of each research paper included in this volume.

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## PREFACE

An extensive and comprehensive literature search was carried out to identify materials for inclusion in the Research Issues series. Major clearinghouses, data bases, library collections, and previous bibliographies were searched, either through an automated system or manually. Special efforts were made to correspond with organizations, institutions and individuals who might have relevant materials. Current issues of newsletters and journals were scanned throughout the project. A selective list of the sources accessed includes:

National Clearinghouse for Drug Abuse Information (NCDAI)

NCDAI: Report Series, Selected Reference Series

Drug Abuse Current Awareness System (DACAS)

SPEED: The Current Index to Drug Abuse Literature

Grassroots

Addiction Research Foundation, Bibliographies

Drug Dependence

Psychological Abstracts (PASAR)

Sociological Abstracts

Dissertation Abstracts

Index Medicus (MEDLINE)

Addiction: Bioresearch Today

Research in Education (ERIC: RIE)

Public Affairs Information Service (PAIS)

Monthly Catalog of U. S. Government Documents

Music Index

Art Index

Guide to the Performing Arts

Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature

The criteria for selection of documents were drawn up by a consultant group of drug researchers working with the contractor and representatives of the National Institute on Drug Abuse. For inclusion a study had to meet the following general criteria:

- (1) empirical research studies with findings pertinent to the particular topic, or major theoretical approaches to the study of that topic
- (2) published between January 1958 and January 1974, preferably in the professional literature, with the exception of certain older "classics" which merited inclusion and unpublished dissertations
- (3) English language; however, since the focus was on American drug issues, those English language materials which dealt with aspects of drug use encountered largely in other countries were excluded.

After a first review of citations and annotations, to weed out obviously irrelevant materials, the body of collected literature was subjected to two reviews: one to ensure that materials met the selection criteria, and a second by a peer review group to ensure that studies representative of the universe were included.

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I. THE WORLD OF YOUTHFUL DRUG USE:  
GROUPS AND GANGS

Blumer, Herbert. The World of Youthful Drug Use. Berkeley, California: University of California, School of Criminology, 1967. 85 pp.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	200
SAMPLE TYPE	Peers, Students
AGE	Adolescents and Adults (age 12 to 25 years old)
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Cross-Cultural
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Oakland, California
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews, Observations
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1965 to 1966
NO. OF REFERENCES	3

### SUMMARY

Due to an inability to recruit youthful drug users for a program designed to induce their peers to abstain from drug use, this project used their association with central figures among the youthful drug population in Oakland to present a realistic picture of drug use in that community.

Drug use is shown as varied and in flux. Two broad operating styles - the rowdy and the cool - exist. Four major social types are recognized by youthful users: the "rowdy," the "pot head," the "mellow dude," and the "players." The last three belong to

the cool style. The characteristics of these four types are delineated and the conditions for entrance into the drug world are described: "Rowdies," potential informers, and the conventional are excluded, while entrance is obtained through acceptance by a "cool" set. The close connection shown between drug use and the "cool" pattern led to the conclusion that the cool motive limits an adolescent's use of drugs and prevents dependence on them.

The study presents a picture of differential career orientations along which the four types are likely to move.

### METHODOLOGY

The initial project was intended to establish a program designed to induce youthful drug users to abstain from further use, using a core of youthful abstainers respected by their peers.

When this objective was not achieved, the project staff recognized a need to develop a more realistic knowledge of youthful drug use and how such use was incorporated into general life.

Procedural steps included:

1. Selecting knowledgeable key informants, chiefly from the Black and Mexican population.
  2. Gaining their trust and acceptance of the staff.
  3. Gaining their sincere co-operation as fellow participants who were serious and accurate in their information.
  4. Validating this information through the collective scrutiny of other youths by means of taped, panel discussion sessions.
- Extensive personal interviews with key informants also provided information; there was some use of thematic apperception tests and psycho-drama. All the staff engaged in considerable participant observation through their friendship with key informants.

### FINDINGS

Youthful drug use in Oakland was found to be extensive and deeply rooted, primarily among the lower strata but moving into middle and upper classes. It was a collective practice with peer sanctions, justifying beliefs, and a body of practical knowledge including protection against discovery. For the user it was a natural way of life, not a pathological phenomenon. It is therefore highly resistant to conventional prevention methods.

Drugs used included marijuana (the most frequently used), amphetamines and barbiturates, glue, and crystals. Heroin was disdained. The analogy of heroin use was inaccurate for adolescent drug use.

There were two opposing operating styles, "rowdy" and "cool" in the drug world. The "cool" consisted of a deliberate and self-conscious attempt to control oneself in all aspects of one's daily life. It was a model of behavior that attracted and coerced many youngsters in all segments of adolescent society giving rise to groups. "Cool sets" were contrasted to the "rowdy sets" and distinguished from the majority of adolescents who followed conventional lines. Four different types of drug users emerged, each with different patterns of use, ways of viewing drugs, and status:

(1) The "rowdy dude" who constituted a minority segment, appeared in the lower classes, in pre-adolescence frequently, from a violent social milieu. He used glue and toxic substances of all kinds, and alcohol, which remains a major intoxicant during adolescence. He tried to evoke fear and impress others by displays of violence, delinquency, public drunkenness and drug use and was likely to be arrested and institutionalized. He moved in a segregated group which often oriented him toward a career of criminal violence.

(2) The "pot head" was ultra cool. He used marijuana exclusively. He was respected as sensible, calm, and knowledgeable by his peers. He dressed sharply, liked to take things easy, and participated in school functions, athletics and conventional work. He kept in close touch with what was going on in the adolescent world. He was directly involved in the drug market, "scoring" his own drugs and sometimes dealing on a small time basis.

(3) The "mellow dude" was by far the most common type of drug user. He was interested primarily in parties, social gatherings, sexual conquests and pleasurable sensations. He used mainly marijuana but some LSD or pills. He did not deal for profit, but rather would exchange drugs or pass them to a friend. He did not spend much on drugs and they took up only a small portion of his time. He was essentially a sociable person who acted according to the standards of propriety in his circle.

(4) The "player" engaged in drug traffic for the purpose of monetary gain. He was an entrepreneur viewing himself as a "slick operator." He dealt at lower levels of the drug market and in other rackets. As an incipient hustler, he stood in the fringe of professional operations. He used drugs not only for pleasure but also to fortify himself for playing operations. He did not respect heroin addicts but because of his associations was the most likely of any adolescent user to become one.

Drug using circles excluded rowdies and the more conventional youths. They accepted only the "cool," the trust worthy, those who did not panic before police, and the sociable. The basic interest of the adolescent was sociability. Drug use was a part of a larger way of life of a given cool set, to which adolescents sought admission.

The organization, codes, and practices of the drug world determined how youngsters were initiated into drug use. Those who were "cool" and could be trusted not to disrupt the social circle were eagerly initiated; "rowdies" or those with a reputation for violence were rejected. The most typical way of being introduced to marijuana was by emulating an older group.

An exception was seen in the case of family members in ghetto areas. Older marijuana users frequently turned on their younger siblings to prevent them from sniffing glue, drinking wine or risking the chance of being arrested.

Proselytism in social interactions has been a great matter of concern among the general public. However, this was a technique used only among "cool people" when the novice already had a "cool" reputation.

### CONCLUSIONS

The study throws doubt on current notions that drugs are an escape from reality, an inability to live a normal life, or an expression of personal pathology. The findings stress the importance of recognizing the impact of the cool style on the conditions and extent of adolescent drug use. There is an already existing system of built-in controls which acts to prevent the youngsters from becoming addicts or criminals. This affirmative theme could be developed advantageously in future programs.

The differentiation of adolescent drug users also signifies different career lines along which users are likely to move. The largest proportion, the mellow users, are conventionally oriented and likely to become ordinary conforming citizens. This is true also of the pot head, although his dealing activities expose him to the risk of arrest. The player is inclined more to the possibility of a career of crime, while the rowdy is the most likely to become a criminal. This differential picture is opposed to the conventional idea that youthful users move along a single line from marijuana use to heroin addiction. It suggests the feasibility of a program designed to help adolescents move in a conventional direction and away from a criminal direction. The focal vulnerable points in a career line, at which a user may be turned in one or another direction, invite further study.

Davis, Fred; and Munoz, Laura. Heads and freaks: Patterns and meanings of drug use among hippies. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 9(2):156-164, 1968.

DRUG	LSD, Methedrine
SAMPLE SIZE	Not Specified
SAMPLE TYPE	Hippies
AGE	Not Specified
SEX	Not Specified
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	San Francisco, California (Haight-Ashbury)
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Observations
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1967
NO. OF REFERENCES	25

### SUMMARY

This study of drug use patterns among Haight-Ashbury hippies showed the distinction drawn by them between "heads" and "freaks" and the evolution of these terms. "Heads" and "freaks" connote different hippie life-styles along with their associated philosophical and attitudinal outlooks.

A "head" essentially is thought to be a regular user of LSD, someone who uses drugs for purposes of mind expansion, insight, and the enhancement of personality attributes. He uses drugs to discover where "his head is at." The "head," therefore, conceives of the drug experience as a means for self-realization or self-fulfillment, and not as an end in itself.

The term "freak", by contrast, refers to those who regularly "shoot speed" (inject Methedrine); someone in search of drug kicks as such, especially if his craving carries him to the point of drug abuse where his health, sanity and relations with others are jeopardized. The reference to "freak" includes all those whose drug use is excessive and of purely hedonistic bent.

The article sketches a rough sociological atlas of patterns and meanings of drug use among San Francisco's Haight-Ashbury hippies, insofar as these manifested themselves through the summer and into the fall of 1967.

Data were gathered by the methods of ethnographic field work as part of a broader study of the interaction of Haight-Ashbury's hippie community with the larger San Francisco community.

Generalizations concerning hippie drug use must be qualified carefully and treated as tentative. Actual patterns of drug use varied among individual hippies and different hippie sub-groups. The patterns themselves are in constant change as the sub-culture evolves and gains greater experience with drugs.

As to the drug use patterns themselves, it is a matter of conjecture as to which--"head" or "freak"--if either, will come eventually to clearly prevail in the hippie community. Although the "head" pattern appears to resonate more deeply with broader philosophical and ideational themes that distinguish the hippie movement, it has already lost much ground to the more exclusively hedonistic "freak" pattern. Should it continue to do so, what had the earmarks of a culturally significant expressive social movement on the American scene would dissolve into little more than the sociologist's familiar "drug users' deviant sub-culture."

Lacking accurate demographic data on the subject, the impression is that "heads" are found more often among the older, more established and less transient segments of the Haight-Ashbury hippie community, i. e., individuals of both sexes in their mid-to-late twenties who, while not holding down full-time jobs of the conventional sort, are engaged in some regular line of vocational activity: artists, craftsmen, clerks in the hippie shops, writers with the underground press, graduate students, and sometimes mail carriers. "Heads" are also usually of middle or upper-middle class origin.

"Freaks" are found more often among the transient elements of the community, in particular where "hippies" shade off into such quasi-criminal and thrill-seeking conglomerates as the Hell's Angels. "Freaks" are more likely to come from working class backgrounds and are usually male.

To the extent that the hippie sub-culture has conserved elements of a core identity and developed something of a common stance vis-a-vis "straight" society, it is still the "head" pattern of drug use that is

ideationally dominant within it. To be spoken of as a "head" is complimentary, to be termed a "freak" or "speed freak" is derogatory.

Klein, Julius, and Phillips, Derek L. From hard to soft drugs: Temporal and substantive changes in drug usage among gangs in a working-class community. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 9(2):139-145, 1968.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	More than 40
SAMPLE TYPE	Peers
AGE	16-29
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Eastville, Queens County, New York
METHODOLOGY	Longitudinal
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1965-66
NO. OF REFERENCES	19

### SUMMARY

Least explored in the literature on drug use among young people are those youths living in areas which lie between the most deprived tracts of the cities and the bohemias and semi-bohemias of the middle-classes; gray areas which are marginal to both, and in which there may tend to be more of an admixture of the hard and soft drug users. In order to look at some of the patterns and types of drug use in these intermediate areas, an exploratory investigation was carried out in "Eastville", a relatively homogeneous and

stable community located in Queens County, New York. The study examined changes over time in the use of hard and soft drugs among working-class gang members. Three different gangs were compared with respect to several factors which influenced the eventual decline in the proportion of regular users of hard drugs in the more recent gangs in this community. Among the most important of the factors explaining this decline in hard drug usage were: (1) an increasing visibility and knowledge of the "negative" effects of hard drug use; and (2) an increasingly repressive stance toward hard drug use by community agencies.

### METHODOLOGY

The investigation focused on boys or young men who were 16 years of age between 1953 and 1966 who lived in Eastville at that time. The study was largely a retrospective one, as their ages ranged from 16 to about 29 at the time the data was collected in 1965 and 1966. These youths were asked about their patterns of drug use around the age of 16 and, in the case of young boys, their present drug habits. Although the selection of the respondents was not a random one, it was fairly representative in that they showed about the same ethnic origins, income level of heads of households, and educational levels achieved by parents, as the general population in Eastville. Initially, 2 groups of respondents were interviewed. One group consisted of about 40 white males, all over 18 years of age and all of whom admittedly had used or were using drugs illicitly. The other group consisted of boys who were 18 years and younger, interviewed mostly as a group. Interviews were also conducted with relatives, friends, nondrug-using peers of the boys, and others familiar with the drug scene.

### FINDINGS

The interviews showed that the majority of boys and young men had, at some time during their youth, been members of identifiable gangs, and also revealed 3 discernible age cohorts, clustered at the time of the interviews at around 16, 21, and 28 years. Of the gangs which many of the boys mentioned, 3 were selected for further study from each age cohort.

There were two points of interest in comparing the 3 gangs: (1) the difference in the sequence of drugs used, and (2) the rather large differences in the percentage of heroin users or addicts. The first group were the trend-setters, the innovators. Prior to their adoption of drugs, they were a bopping gang: a new activity, marijuana smoking, was followed by experiments with heroin. -The

relative high percentage of heroin use and addiction which developed among them may be explained in part by the fact that there were few, if any, alternative drugs that were then known or available to them.

When the second group appeared in the late fifties, many youths had begun to use wine. This was due partially to the fact that consequences of addiction had been seen. Also, more drugs of the softer variety were now becoming known and available, giving the boys, who were influenced by the normative values of the larger society, other options. Soft drugs were less expensive, easier to obtain, and enabled boys to avoid detection and the label "addict". The rate of hard drug usage was much lower, although 40 percent still became heroin users or addicts.

In the third gang of the mid-sixties, the trend toward the greater use of soft drugs is more apparent. Early in its history, it took to drinking wine. As an alternative activity, some gang members started smoking marijuana and using pills, which led to some experimentation with opiates. At this point, several leading members introduced a pact to taboo all substances but wine, which led to the loss of two-thirds of the membership. The remaining members adopted a new standard: marijuana became an allowed and acceptable drug, but pills continued to be forbidden, since they were seen as liable to lead to addiction. It is noted that the position of leading members was connected with the amount of hard drug use within each gang, in the case of each of the three groups studied.

### CONCLUSIONS

The role of youthful gangs in the adoption of an innovative drug (heroin) appears to be an important one. The evidence presented here suggests that several factors influenced the eventual decline in the proportion of regular users in the Eastville gangs. The model of the hard drug user declined in the influence as the longer term effects and sequelae became known and shared by the boys. A greater repertory of drugs became available. Pressures from the adult community, and growing resources and awareness of social agencies, led to a general decline in tolerance for hard drugs. Internal gang pressures increased in the direction of legitimizing drugs such as marijuana and other soft intoxicants. They were commonly redefined as being chic and less harmful and visible than, for instance, alcohol.

Important distinctions appear when the data are compared with data produced from studies of lower-class drug cultures, which indicate that heroin use in slum areas has reached and maintained a plateau. In the comparatively more stable and less disorganized working and lower-middle class area of Eastville, it seems to have reached a high-water mark and slowly receded, leaving in its wake a tradition and a residue among its youth, and adoption of less potent, non-addicting drugs.

Cloward, Richard A., and Ohlin, Lloyd E. Delinquency and Opportunity: A Theory of Delinquent Gangs. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1960. pp. 178-186.

### SUMMARY

This section of the book dealt with the pressures that can lead to deviance, and what features of the social structure regulate selection and evaluation of deviant solutions. Drug use was defined as one of the most serious forms of retreatist behavior. A hypothesis was developed that the authors felt may open up new avenues of inquiry into drug use among the young.

### THEORY

Two major questions are dealt with in this book: (1) Why do delinquent norms or rules of conduct develop? and (2) What conditions account for the selection and evaluation of different adaptations?

Two theoretical points of view are examined: The first is based on the works of Emile Durkheim and had been extended by Robert K. Merton. This perspective focused on the sources of pressure that lead to deviance. The second deals with the way in which features of social structure regulate the selection and evaluation of deviant solutions. This theory was developed by Clifford R. Shaw, Henry D. McKay, and Edwin H. Sutherland.

One type of adaptation takes the form of drug use, characterized here as a form of retreatist behavior. Even though there are pressures toward a subculture formation, addiction remains in many ways an individualistic adaptation.

Retreatist adaptations, according to Merton, contain 2 factors: (1) continued failure to reach culturally approved goals by legitimate means, and (2) inability to employ illegitimate alternatives because of internalized prohibitions. The authors did not feel that these would fit the facts of drug use among lower-class adolescents.

The author proceeded to define 4 types of retreatist behavior. Types I and II arise as a consequence of internalized restrictions on the use of illegitimate means. In types III and IV access to illegitimate routes is limited by socially structured barriers.

It was the author's contention that retreatist behavior emerges among some lower-class adolescents because they have failed to find a place for themselves in criminal or conflict subcultures. If he turns to drugs as a solution, he then becomes even more removed, for he can no longer participate in juvenile gangs. Thus, this double failure makes him even more vulnerable to retreatist behavior. For those who continue to exhibit high aspirations under conditions of double failure, retreatism is the result.

As the lower class adolescent approaches adulthood, access to success by illegitimate means is diminished. New expectations are imposed which close off access to previously useful means of overcoming status deprivation. Retreatist behavior may result.

Adolescent gangs usually devalue drug use. The existence of the gang discourages drug users. As the peer group disintegrates it no longer acts as a restraint on behavior. It is at this time that adolescents may turn to drugs.

### CONCLUSIONS

The author suggested that limitations on legitimate and illegitimate opportunity combine to produce intense pressures toward retreatist behavior. When both areas of activity are restricted, some persons may become detached from the social structure. These persons then abandon cultural goals and the necessary efforts to achieve those goals.

Feldman, Harvey. American way of drugging. Street status and drug users. Society, 10(4):32-38, May-June, 1973.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	150
SAMPLE TYPE	Peers
AGE	Adolescents and Adults (14-30)
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Not Specified
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews; Observations
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1957-1969
NO. OF REFERENCES	0

### SUMMARY

From 4 years of observation and interviews with approximately 150 blue collar street youth in an urban community, the author argues against the established view that youthful drug experimentation is related to the psychic flaws of individual users. He presents the young men as active agents who choose a particular drug within the social context of neighborhood life. He relates street social types to the street hierarchy of drugs and concludes that drug use is best understood as an important activity in sustaining and enhancing a street reputation admired and respected by those with a stake in the street system.

## METHODOLOGY

From conversations with and observations of his sample, the author set up a hierarchy of local street types, ranked according to their willingness and ability to engage in the risk-taking activities that determine a youth's loyalty to the street.

1. "Faggots" (not a homosexual term). The physically weak or fearful, who are unable to manage manly actions. Fringe hangers-on.
2. "Assholes" or "Jerks". A temporary low-status designation, situationally induced, where respect is denied when a person is outwitted or humiliated.
3. "Solid Guy". Middle ground position. Strong and daring enough to manage types 1 and 2, but not to rise higher. Would demonstrate courage ("balls") by willingness to fight stronger opponents despite inevitable defeat.
4. "Tough Guy". Passed local tests of strength. Had qualities of speed, stamina, and tenacity. Performed respectably in fights with older or higher-status opponents. Determined to avoid designations 1 and 2 if a fight could settle it.
5. "Crazy Guy". Highest rank. Feared. Fierce and brutal fighter with no concern for victims or self. Held as street hero and center of legendary exploits. A symbol that with enough "balls" an individual can master a threatening environment.

From the unstated but identifiable hierarchical order of drugs currently used on the street, the author presents a table showing their ranking based on 5 components of risk: (1) real or imagined physical dangers of the drug itself; (2) addiction potential; (3) chances of parental discovery; (4) potential for police harassment and/or arrest; and (5) competitive dangers from other drug users.

## FINDINGS

The following drugs were ranked in terms of risk from high to low: heroin, other opiates (dilaudid, etc.), barbiturates, cough medicines, LSD, esoteric forms (glue, etc.), diet pills, marijuana.

High ranking street types preferred high risk drugs in keeping with their established reputations. They utilized the risks of heroin use to insure their leadership position. If a youth considered himself unable to manage the risks, he scaled down his selection of a preferred drug. Barbiturates, lacking odor, were easily concealed from parental discovery. Risk of arrest was less than with heroin, where a

user might spend much of his time in illegal activities. Barbiturates induced an anxiety and guilt-free state which made the fighting (necessary to high prestige) less emotionally threatening. Cough medicines had a low risk level and induced a lazy comfort to soften the noisy violent environment. Marijuana permitted those hesitant about hard drugs to remain on the fringe of drug activity, demonstrating their loyalty to the code of the streets.

### CONCLUSIONS

Street status was of particular importance, since, unlike the middle class world, the street system had a fixed quality where adult relationships contained the memory of younger years. Drugs were ranked by risk involved. The principle governing an individual's drug preference was the relationship of his status in the street system to the drug's local ranking. Drug use among blue collar youth can best be understood as an extension of the street system rather than an escape from it.

Keniston, Kenneth. Heads and seekers: Drugs on campus, counter-cultures and American society. American Scholar, 38(1):97-112, Winter, 1968-1969.

### SUMMARY

Despite the lack of published information about drugs on campus, the author has used scattered available studies to put together a general picture of student drug use in its psychological, social, educational, and historical contexts. A user, in this study, is defined as anyone who has ever tried any one of the hallucinogens (cannabis, LSD, DMT, STP, psilocybin, mescaline, etc.).

### THEORY

Student drug use is increasing. The highest rate occurs at small progressive liberal arts colleges (attended by only approximately 3% of American students) that value intellectual interests and academic and personal independence. The lowest rates, rarely exceeding 5%, occur at institutions attended by the majority: state teachers colleges, junior and community colleges, and the smaller religious and denominational colleges. These have a practical, vocational orientation and strong, anti-intellectual student subcultures centering around technical training, sports, or fraternities. This demographic evidence suggests a relationship between drug use and intellectuality. This may be due both to the intellectual climate of certain colleges that attracts students with the personality characteristics of potential users, and to the exposure to the pressures and subcultures of these colleges which can make drug use more probable for any student.

Eliminated from discussion are those who have merely experimented with drugs once and do not plan to continue. The rest are divided into "seekers" and "heads." Seekers are occasional users, for whom drugs are merely part of a general pattern of experimentation and of a search for relevance and meaning. Heads, a smaller, but more visible group, are regular users and usually belong to some college version of the hippie subculture. Even among heads, drugs do not constitute a psychopathological or self-destructive way of life. They are able to work, love, and play, and are as mentally healthy after as before the drug experience. Only very few suffer serious ill effects, usually those with pre-existing psychopathology. Others may drop out completely for a year or two, joining hippie subcultures, but most eventually return to the mainstream.

Drug use may be motivated by psychological factors. Seekers tend to have common characteristics. Frequently they are above-average students, intense, introspective, hardworking, and idealistic.

They seek for truth rather than grades, read widely, and while not alienated from society, are ambivalent about joining it. They demand much of themselves, and constantly struggle for more intense experiences. Drugs fit neatly into this search for experience and self-understanding. Beginning or increasing drug use is often associated with the depression or loss that accompanies change, the relinquishing of old values, and new insights.

Heads are genuinely alienated from society. Rejecting its values, they criticize it on cultural and humanistic grounds. The interior world is the only one that matters to them, and here drugs play a major role. Involved in a search for their authentic selves and for meaningful relations with others, these alienated students nevertheless often feel unusually estranged both from their own self and from others. Drugs offer a way out of this estrangement. The hallucinogens can alter the boundaries of the self and support their frequently expressed desire for fusion or mystical union with nature, other individuals, and the world. Drugs assist in the search for inner meaning through a chemical intensification of personal experience. Here too, the hippie subculture can provide a rest and recovery area in which the alienated student can explore himself and his life within a small safe group.

Drug use may also be motivated by external factors. The high rate of drug use at the academically demanding colleges cannot be explained solely by saying the students are all of the same psychological type. There are indeed very intense external pressures for academic performance and cognitive competence. There are few countervailing pressures to become more relaxed, interpersonally skilled, sensitive, or physically expressive. While academic performance occupies most of the students' time and effort, it fails to answer more ultimate and existential questions about the meaning of self and life. This has led to the creation of an informal shared culture that both counteracts and complements the formal professionalism. This experiential counterculture focuses on the here and now, on existential values of authenticity and directness, on deliberate self-transformation, and on tolerance for experimentation. It provides a sanctioning context for drug use as one path towards changing the self and creating meaning in the world.

Drug use is also influenced by social, political, and historical factors. Of particular importance is the inundation of experience (stimulus flooding) caused by changes in modern communication, and transportation. This can produce a self-protective reaction, termed psychic numbing. The confrontation faced is one of keeping external stimuli to a manageable level as well as protecting the self against overwhelming inner responses to these stimuli. But the defenses or barriers erected must not wall off or trap the individual within his own subjectivity. Drugs are attractive precisely because they can blur or break down the boundaries of the individual.

The automatic affluence of the middle- and upper-middle class students causes them to seek goals and meanings in life beyond the work, success, and achievement ethic of their parents. One alternative

is to attempt to change the world. This is the goal of the political activist, who seeks to extend his own affluence and freedom to all. Another alternative is to attempt to change the self. Both actions critique the very premise upon which technological America is based. The world is rejected as spiritually impoverished. Disenchantment with the possibility of meaningful social and political action has brought about a climate of opinion that is favorable to drug use. Drug use among students is an indirect criticism of society's inability to offer them exciting and effective ways to use their intelligence and idealism to reform our society.

Londergan, Susan J. ; Wilson, Robert A. ; and McGrath, John H.  
 "Patterns of Drug Use Among Adolescents in a Rural Community."  
 Paper presented at 1971 Rural Sociological Society Meeting,  
 Denver, Colorado. 41 pp. (ED 052 882).

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	Not Specified
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	Adolescents (12-18 years)
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Mid-Atlantic state
METHODOLOGY	Survey
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1970
NO. OF REFERENCES	10

### SUMMARY

To determine the prevalence of drug abuse in rural and suburban areas and describe demographic and sociopsychological correlates, a survey was made of students in grades 7-12 in a mid-Atlantic state, using a 35-item questionnaire. Information was gathered on the prevalence of use of particular drugs, demography, attitudes, participation in social activities, and peer group relationships.

Findings showed that drug use is lower in rural than suburban areas; absence of the father may not be a factor underlying use; there was no association between drug use and race, religion or sex; students gathered their information on drugs from both health information experts, and users; participation in organizations, or lack of it, was not strongly related to drug use; drug use by friends increased predictability of use 22.5% for rural and 38% for suburban students.

The authors hoped that findings would aid drug education and prevention groups in developing new programs. They concluded that such programs, to be influential, must precede 10th grade, and be conducted by persons whom students trust.

### METHODOLOGY

The data were collected as part of a statewide survey of over 30,000 students. The districts were randomly selected from rural, urban, and suburban areas as defined by Bureau of Census classification. Six rural schools and 5 suburban schools took part in the survey. This study used data from all students in grades 7-12 in a single rural and a single suburban district.

The rural district was largely agricultural, with little industrial development and no tourists; it had a low tax base and low tax rate. Sociological characteristics evidenced rural aspects, educational attainment was low, and population, especially among young adults, was decreasing.

The suburban district was located in a middle-class suburb of a city of 85,000 within a metropolitan area of over 300,000. Its residents were wealthy, tended to have technical or managerial positions in the chemical industry, had the highest educational level in the state, and were concerned with pre-college education. For each district the study examined the patterns of drug use as well as current theories of drug abuse within this setting.

A confidential "check off" questionnaire examined: (1) prevalence of use of particular drugs; (2) demographic information; (3) attitudinal information: types of persons as sources of information, legalization of drugs, degrees of alienation; (4) participation in social activities, both deviant and non-deviant; and, (5) strength of peer group relationships.

## FINDINGS

For this study students were divided into users, quitters (former users) and nonusers.

### Prevalence

Drug use among rural students was low: 2.7% were users, 5.5% quitters. Of suburban students, 11.3% were users, 10.2% quitters. Rural, unlike suburban, students appeared to experiment and then quit. Drugs used by rural students were, in order of prevalence, marijuana, glue, amphetamines; the order of use for suburban students was marijuana, amphetamines, other psychedelics.

Drug use increased unevenly in junior high, progressively with each grade in senior high, from 4% to 19% in the rural district and from 6% to 42% in the suburban district. Thus effective drug education programs must precede 10th grade. Whether users or not, 1/5 of the rural and 2/3 of the suburban students knew where to get illegal drugs. Use of cigarettes and alcohol was found to be highly correlated with drug use, but more so in the suburban than the rural area.

### Demographic Information

There was a slight relationship between drug use and family characteristics with female wage earners in suburban, but not rural areas. Relation between occupational status and drug use did not reach statistical significance but rural users were concentrated in the highest occupational level while suburban users showed a more even spread. There was an absence of association between drug use and race, religion, or sex.

### Attitudinal Information

Nonusers indicated higher respect for drug information, while users and quitters seemed to reject it from many sources. Persons respected by all groups were (1) "a professor from Johns Hopkins Medical School," (2) "a doctor from the Department of Public Health," (3) "your personal physician," (4) "someone who has used drugs." Nonusers rated "school counselor," "social worker," and "best friend" as below average sources. Users and quitters rated "a teacher giving a health lecture at your school," "a social worker," "a school counselor," "a policeman" as below average.

Users and quitters favored weakening of laws against use, while nonusers favored strengthening. Preliminary examination of the data showed strong attitudes of alienation in all students, but no difference between users and nonusers.

### Participation in Social Activities

Social activities did not seem to be strongly related to drug use in either area. Drug users were more involved than nonusers in political activity. Both rural and suburban drug use was highly correlated with other delinquent acts, suggesting that use was part of an overall pattern of deviance.

### Peer Group Relationships

These were strongly related to drug use. Having friends who talked about drugs was positively related to use. Knowledge of how often friends used drugs increased predictability of use 22.5% for rural and 38% for suburban students. Drug use did not seem characterized by isolation but by rebelliousness and defiance, as a part of a generally deviant youth subculture.

### CONCLUSIONS

Drug education programs must precede 10th grade to be effective, and should be conducted by persons whom the students trust as sources of drug information.

Foulks, E. F., and Eisenman, R. An analysis of a peer network using psychedelic drugs. Psychiatric Quarterly, 43:389-395, 1969.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	5
SAMPLE TYPE	Volunteer; Peers
AGE	Adults
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Not Specified
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Observations/Psychological Tests
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Not Specified
NO. OF REFERENCES	8

### SUMMARY

The authors of the study had noticed, through their observations of psychedelic drug users, a therapeutic process which they termed the "phoenix phenomeon," whereby group members who had a history of psychological problems gained a social adaptive capacity and were able to reintegrate into society. The current study attempted to discover the mechanism for the therapeutic process. Five male members of a drug-using peer network were observed for periods ranging from 7 to 16 hours, while they were under the influence of psychedelic drugs. The subjects were also given psychological tests.

Although all the subjects demonstrated asocial behavior, no abnormal psychological characteristics were found. The therapeutic process was described as a communication network whereby group members dealt with psychic stress through the use of drugs and where peer group support played an important therapeutic-like part. The authors termed this a primary process network in which the unconscious or id was expressed by either word or gesture. This process was not unlike that found in social institutions and services which were created to offer therapeutic help: Alcoholics Anonymous, psychotherapy, religious testimony, etc.

The authors planned to continue their research longitudinally to document any changes in personality brought about by this therapeutic communication network.

### METHODOLOGY

Habitual users of psychedelic drugs (marijuana, hashish, LSD, and occasionally heroin, amphetamines and barbiturates) were observed in groups of 5 to 15 members over a period of 2 years, at weekly meetings held at a user's apartment. Observations typically lasted 2 hours per weekly meeting. A therapeutic process (termed the "phoenix phenomenon") was observed whereby group members who had had psychological problems gained a social adaptive capacity and were able to reintegrate into society. In the present study, the doctors focused on the group communication process through which they found a suggestive mechanism for the therapeutic experience. The doctors observed a group of 5 males for periods ranging from 7 to 16 hours, while the subjects were under the influence of psychedelic drugs (largely marijuana). In addition, they administered to the subjects a battery of psychological tests including the Bender-Gestalt, Gordon Personal Profile, Blackly Pictures, Multiple Affect Adjective Check List and Draw-a-Person test.

### FINDINGS

On the basis of results from psychological testing, the authors found all 5 subjects to be asocial, in terms of their relations with others and in terms of their conformity to society's conventions. The tests showed that the subjects could conform, but chose not to. Also exhibited were traits of humor and creativity, and emotional instability.

Observations determined there was a communication process which the subjects themselves acknowledged. The group members termed the communication network their "hodology." Hodology, a concept developed by Kurt Lewin, is a geometric model for which the vectors are defined in dynamic psychological terms. The authors termed this network a communication of primary process, an expression of the unconscious or the id. They stated that primary process communication, which can be expressed by word or gesture, is always affect laden, and is one which serves as the medium for and the expression of gaining the intimacy required to bring social relationships to a humanly satisfying state. Through this process persons mutually

reveal their authentic selves and accept each other, despite the fact that their feelings, desires or acts may be socially unacceptable.

### CONCLUSIONS

The authors felt that the psychedelic drug-related primary process communication network was a viable one in terms of its therapeutic value. The experience the 5 subjects had was much like the experience one could get from social institutions that have been created to foster primary process therapy, such as Alcoholics Anonymous, psychoanalysis, religious testimony and confession. It was the doctor's belief that some users of psychedelic drugs were attempting to deal with psychic stress via their drug use, with the peer group support playing an important therapeutic-like part. They stated that they would continue their observations longitudinally in order to document more objectively any changes in personality.

Preble, Edward, and Laury, Gabriel V. Plastic cement: The ten cent hallucinogen. International Journal of the Addictions, 2(2): 271-281, Fall 1967.

DRUG	Inhalants - Glue
SAMPLE SIZE	60
SAMPLE TYPE	40 Volunteer; 20 Treatment (inpatient)
AGE	20 Adolescents; 40 Children (8-18)
SEX	47 Male; 13 Female
ETHNICITY	12 Black; 26 Puerto Rican; 22 White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York, New York
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews; Observations; Laboratory/Examination; Psychological Testing
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Not Specified
NO. OF REFERENCES	26

### SUMMARY

This study investigated the increasing phenomenon of glue-sniffing among groups of young people. The authors chose 60 glue-sniffers from New York City, ranging in age from 8 to 18 years. Data was obtained by means of physical and psychological examinations as well as interviews and observations.

The findings showed no relationship between mental and physical health and glue sniffing. The subjects did not show an unusual degree of psychopathology. They had the same problems as non-glue sniffing delinquents: broken home, overprotective mother, weak father image, etc.

The authors feel that sniffing glue is related to the popularity in society of using drugs to "get high." They also found that the primary desire of glue sniffers was to experience hallucinations in a social setting. The authors believe that this afforded the subjects with the opportunity to experience an intimacy with others that was lacking in their day-to-day existence. They stated this was positive adaptive behavior on the part of the subjects. However, they warned about the physical dangers that can occur with long-term use.

### METHODOLOGY

The authors studied 3 groups of glue sniffers in New York City. There were 60 subjects in all, 47 males and 13 females, ranging in age from 8 to 18 years, including 26 Puerto Ricans, 22 Whites, and 12 Blacks. All subjects were from lower-middle class and lower class populations. Twenty of the subjects were patients in a children's unit in a large mental institution. The other forty subjects were contacted in the areas in which they resided. All were behavior problem children with histories of truancy, fighting and other acting-out behavior.

Information was obtained by means of observation, interviews and physiological and psychological testing. The psychological tests included the Bender-Gestalt Test, Rorschach, House-Tree-Person, and WISC. Physiological testing included a complete physical examination, chest X-ray, hematological examination, and urinalysis.

### FINDINGS

Results of the physiological tests showed that all subjects were within the normal limitations for their ages. The psychological tests showed that the study subjects had a distribution of mental pathology that is found at large in the hospital population of the same age range. No correlations were found between mental and physical health and history of plastic cement inhalation. None of the subjects exhibited an unusual degree of psychopathology.

### CONCLUSIONS

The authors concluded that the most important feature of glue sniffing is the desire of glue sniffers to experience hallucinations in a social setting. Verbatim accounts of hallucinations experienced by the 3 groups are included in the article as evidence of this conclusion.

The authors believe that glue sniffing is a part of the preoccupation among all members and classes of society with using drugs to get "high". Above all, they feel the glue sniffing experience had special significance for these subjects in that a central feature was the social communion through shared hallucinations. It produced a psychological and emotional intimacy with others that may be lacking in the daily lives of these children. This can be interpreted as a positive adaptive effort, but with sometimes harmful side effects.

Braucht, G. Nicholas; Brakarsh, Daniel; Follingstad, Diane; and Berry, K. L. Deviant drug use in adolescence: A review of psychosocial correlates. Psychological Bulletin, 79(2):92-106, February, 1973. (102 references).

### SUMMARY

This article summarized some of the existing research on socio-cultural and personality correlates of adolescent use of alcohol, narcotics, and psychedelic drugs.

As it relates to narcotic use, much research has focused on the family fragmentation that existed in the family backgrounds of addicts.

The adolescent narcotic user is frequently a member of an ethnic minority and often comes from an impoverished urban environment. There is a generally high availability of narcotics in such urban areas. Frequently, peer-group enticement is related to deviance.

Many researchers agree that parents of addicts often are extreme personality types, but they disagree as to the nature of the deficiency. One, or both, of the parents may be either overprotective, overdominating, underdominating, or rejective.

Addicts have been found to be immature, insecure, irresponsible, and egocentric. There is some agreement that the addict suffers from a personality disorder, but hardly any agreement as to the specific dynamics of this disorder. The drug addict population is loosely defined, and includes more than 1 personality type.

Classified under the label psychedelic were 3 distinct drugs - marijuana, LSD, and methamphetamine. Research in the area of sociocultural correlates of adolescent psychedelic use has centered on 6 major variables: sex, age, socio-economic status, familial environment, peer group influence, and religious values. The single finding about which there is general agreement is that psychedelic drug users come mainly from the middle and upper classes. All other findings are ambiguous or contradictory.

There was very little agreement as to personality correlates of psychedelic drug use. Conclusive findings were difficult to obtain because of the illegality of the drugs, possible inaccuracy of information obtained, and the hostility of some of those interviewed.

This review of the literature indicated a number of methodological and theoretical shortcomings in the body of research previously conducted.

Widespread use of unrepresentative, uncontrolled subject samples and small sample observational data make it difficult to delineate the prominent personality correlates of adolescent drug use. Very little longitudinal research has been reported in this area.

What the writers felt should exist is a theoretical approach to research that embraces both sociocultural and personality variables, and relates them to the development of deviant drug use. Since it is the interaction of personality and sociocultural environment that results in specific behavior, both factors must be examined to achieve meaningful results. It was also suggested that some coordination among alcohol, narcotic, and psychedelic researchers be developed since the same variables may be involved in each kind of use.

Goode, Erich. The Drug Phenomenon: Social Aspects of Drug Taking. (Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc: 4300 West 62nd Street, Indianapolis, Indiana 46268), 1973.

### SUMMARY

The author approaches the drug controversy initially by presenting the diverse views of several other authors to illustrate the wide range of opinions currently published on the subject. The definition of a drug as any substance which has the ability to alter structure or function in the human body is too all-encompassing; drugs are more often thought of in terms of being illegal, therapeutic, or psychoactive, categories which are more appropriate to the social climate in which they are taken. The author emphasizes that the chemical effects of drugs on the human body cannot be taken into consideration apart from the social context of drug use itself.

The psychoactive drugs (those which alter human moods, emotions, perceptions and thinking processes) are divided into 3 general groups: the stimulants (amphetamines, methedrine, cocaine, nicotine, caffeine), depressants (narcotics, alcohol, sedative-hypnotics), and hallucinogens (LSD, psilocybin, mescaline). The author points out the artificial nature of these categories with the example of cocaine, which is a local anesthetic as well as a central nervous system stimulant.

Marijuana is considered unique and in a class by itself. The author details the subjective effects of the drug and discounts much of the early literature on the adverse physical effects of marijuana due to poor research and experimental design.

The effects of LSD and the other hallucinogens, amphetamines, barbiturates and tranquilizers, heroin and alcohol are discussed separately. The author states that the only absolutely necessary condition for drug use is the availability of the drug itself. Since drug use is ubiquitous in our society, the true deviant is the person who does not take drugs; therefore the important question is, "who uses drugs and why?" Users of any drug, legal or illegal, are most likely to be multiple drug users. The children of parents who drink alcohol, smoke cigarettes and take prescription drugs are more

likely to experiment with other drugs. The peer influence, however, is more important, and the neophyte will accept the idea of participating in this subculture when peers whom they respect and trust are found to be part of it. Turning on is almost exclusively a group activity and is seldom done in isolation. The illegality of the psychoactive drugs serves to reinforce the sense of belonging to and identifying with a subculture once drug use begins.

The main problem in studying deviant behavior is to understand the enterprise and process of making judgements of deviance in others. The reason why some drugs are thought of as immoral and dangerous and others, equally as harmful, are not, does not seem to be based on fact. The author points out that even the scientific research done on drug effects is subject to political and ideological interpretations before reaching the public, as has been the case with unconventional theories since the time of Galileo. Deviance, then, can be defined as that behavior which elicits condemnation in the social setting in which it takes place.

The author explores the conventional theories of why people use illegal drugs, illustrating that any form of behavior which cannot be understood within the framework of a conventional ideology must be explained by a theory invoking dark, irrational, and pathological causes. The universality of drug use is discussed, as well as the relative harmlessness of some illegal drugs and the non-causal relationships between certain drugs.

The author concludes that the negative outcome of taking certain drugs occurs in part because of the public belief in the danger of the drug. The illegality of heroin forces the user to pursue a hustling life of crime; marijuana use makes its adherents part of a subculture only because of its legal status; LSD users "go crazy" only when the society finds altered psychic states to be signs of insanity. Alcohol, on the other hand, bears the stamp of social approval, but does a great deal of physical damage as consumed in our society. Therefore, the outcome of any drug reactions will be greatly influenced by the social settings in which they are used.

II. BECOMING A MARIJUANA USER:  
PREDICTIONS

Goode, Erich. Turning on: Becoming a marijuana user. In: Goode, E. The Marijuana Smokers. New York: Basic Books, 1970. pp. 122-138.

DRUG	Marijuana
SAMPLE SIZE	150
SAMPLE TYPE	Varied Occupations
AGE	Adults
SEX	53% Male and 47% Female
ETHNICITY	8% Black, 2.5% Puerto Rican, 89.5% White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York City
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	February to September 1967
NO. OF REFERENCES	8

### SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the process of becoming a marijuana user. The major concern was the dynamic transition between being a non-user and becoming a marijuana user. Goode used the term "turning on" to mean: to give or have one's first drug experience - usually with marijuana. Findings were presented from the author's 150 personal interviews with marijuana users. They were asked why they "turned on" for the first time, and were asked for some of the elements that made up those first experiences.

## METHODOLOGY

Goode's sample consisted of 53% men, with 3/4ths of the respondents in their 20's. The majority were white, 8% were black, and 2.5% were Puerto Rican. Twenty-seven percent had parents with a Protestant background, 44% were Jewish, 14% had Catholic parents. A high proportion were students, and 78% were single. All of the subjects were living in New York or its suburbs at the time of the interview. The interviews took place between February and September, 1967. The author conducted all but 2 of the interviews himself. At the time of the interviews, the author was 28 years old, and his informal attire and long hair seemed to make the respondents more comfortable about answering his questions. The respondents were concerned that the author might be a law-enforcement person, but once they were reassured that this was not true, the author became a participant observer, interacting informally with many of the interviewees.

## FINDINGS

Marijuana use in general is a group phenomenon. The neophyte user was turned on by experienced marijuana users who helped define the nature of the experience for him. The proselytizer was someone the initiate trusted, and the good relationship between them made the use of marijuana seem appealing.

Five factors appeared dominant in the process of turning on: (1) initiates' perception of danger (or lack of it), (2) perception of marijuana's benefits, (3) attitude toward users, (4) closeness to marijuana endorsers, and (5) closeness to person trying to turn the initiate on.

A majority of those going through the "initiation ceremony" were known to be novitiates by all present. This experience was seen as a kind of milestone in the person's life experiences.

Technique in smoking was seen as a significant element in the subculture. The procedures had to be learned in order to obtain the desired state of intoxication.

Curiosity was the dominant emotion of the neophyte at the time of the "turn on." The mystery that surrounded the experience lent an air of excitement and mystery to the moment. Users drew parallels with sex; being turned on was seen as equivalent to losing one's virginity. Forty-one percent said they did not become high the first time they "turned on," and some expressed disappointment in the experience.

Much of the excitement and awe disappeared after marijuana had been used on many occasions. More experienced users found that it became an ordinary item in their lives, although it did not lose its appeal.

## CONCLUSIONS

Dr. Goode reported findings from his study, but did not draw any conclusions from these findings.

Kandel, Denise. Adolescent marijuana use: Role of parents and peers. Science, 181:1067-1081, 1973.

DRUG	Cannabis
SAMPLE SIZE	9318
SAMPLE TYPE	Parent-Child, Peers
AGE	8206 Adolescents, 1112 Adults
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Fall 1971
NO. OF REFERENCES	11

### SUMMARY

In order to examine the relative influence of parents and peers on marijuana use among adolescents, independent data were obtained from adolescents, their parents and their best school friends in a sample of secondary school students in New York State. The data indicate that drug use by peers exerts a greater influence than drug use by parents. Friends are more similar in their use of marijuana than in any other activity or attitude. Parental use of psychotropic drugs has only a small influence, mostly related to maternal use. Peer and parental influences are synergistic; the highest rates of marijuana use are observed among adolescents whose parents and friends are drug users.

Adolescent drug use has been interpreted by some as a response to parental consumption of psychoactive drugs. The assumption is that the child is imitative of adult behavior. These conclusions have been based on studies which used the child's perceptions of parents' drug use, but not actual self-reports by the child's parents. This study was based on both perceived and actual self-report use of psychoactive drugs by parents.

### METHODOLOGY

Independent survey data was gathered by means of a self-administered questionnaire on the use of illegal drugs by secondary school students, their best friends, and on the use of legal psychoactive drugs by their parents. The sampling was in two stages: the first, a stratified sample of high schools in New York State, and the second, a sample of students clustered by homerooms and then stratified to represent grades within that high school. Eighteen schools participated in the study: 13 were chosen for the stratified homeroom sample and 5 in which the entire student-body was questioned. In the latter sample (entire student-body), best friends' data was matched, providing a dyad sample; and then, in 1112 of the dyad cases, data from parents provided material for triad study of the interaction of peer-student-parent influence.

The total adolescent sample (N=8206) provides the material for this report, except where the dyad and triad material is represented--in which case only the 5 school sample is represented. Usable questionnaires were returned by 5574 parents or 61% of the initial group contacted. Using record identification codes, the following sample matches were made: 49% of all students were matched to their parents' questionnaires (parent/child dyads); 38% of the students in the 5 school sample were matched to their best friend's questionnaire (best friend dyads); and 23% of the students in the 5 school sample were matched to both parents and best friends (triads).

Adolescents answered questions about their use of illegal drugs, (and their attitude towards the legalization of marijuana), and their perceptions of their parents' use of psychoactive drugs. Questions were asked on their attitudes and activities, such as their grade average, days absent from school, attending religious services, listening to records, watching television, their political orientation and getting together with friends.

Since marijuana was the most frequently used drug by the adolescent sample, this study focuses on its use as a single behavioral entity even though, as the author states, 90% of the extensive marijuana users also used other drugs. This simplification did not alter the basic results of the study.

Parents completed questionnaires about their use of psychoactive drugs such as tranquilizers, barbiturates, sedatives, stimulants,

diet pills and pep pills. The author did not elaborate on the content of the remainder of the parent questionnaire. The adolescents were administered questionnaires in a school setting. The parents of these adolescents were mailed questionnaires three weeks later.

## FINDINGS

The most important correlate of adolescent marijuana use was involvement with drug-using peers. When the best friend has never used marijuana, only 15% of the subjects use marijuana. Yet when the best friend has used it (60 times or more) 79% of the subjects use it.

The author points up the need for analysis of the adolescents who are not in the majority statistical groups--adolescents who apparently did not respond to peer pressures.

The extent of involvement with peers seems to focus on the use of illegal drugs as a common bond. No other activity or attitude (excluding demographic characteristics) is as congruent between friends as that of common illegal drug use. The association between adolescents' drug use and the adolescents' perceptions of their parents' use of psychoactive drugs was confirmed. While the proportion of adolescent users is directly related to their perceived frequency of parental use of these drugs, actual parental report on their use of these drugs lowered the association by a factor of 2 (as measured by tau-beta association for ordinal data). Actual maternal use of any psychoactive drug and child's marijuana use is .083 in contrast to .161 based on child's perceptions of maternal use.

In situations involving conflicting role models (parents use drugs, friends do not use drugs, for example) adolescents are much more responsive to peers than to parents. Only 17% of adolescents use marijuana when their parents use drugs and their best friends do not. Parental behavior becomes important only in a situation where the peers already use drugs. Children of non-drug-using parents are somewhat less likely to use drugs, and on the other hand, somewhat more likely to use them if their parents use drugs. However, the child's use of drugs is related to the parent behavior only when such use already exists in the peer group or relationship. In these cases parental influence was found to synergize with and potentiate peer influences. When both parents and peers used drugs, the highest degree of marijuana use (67%) occurred. Parental behavior increases the influence of a peer-using drug situation and modulates it when the child's peer group has already had experience with drugs.

## CONCLUSIONS

The author suggests that the findings fit a "cultural deviance" model of behavior, particularly the theory of differential association developed by Sutherland and Crissey which points to the learning of delinquent roles as due to the availability of delinquent role models in the peer group. The family can encourage delinquency by either displaying delinquent behavior to be imitated, or by creating a hostile climate from which the child seeks to escape. But, the delinquent acts will not be forthcoming if the peer culture lacks such behavior.

In summary, peer behavior is the crucial determining factor in adolescent drug use, and parental behavior becomes important once such behavior exists in the peer group. The author points out, however, that the key question "Which comes first, drug use or drug-using friends?" is not answered by the fact that adolescents who use drugs associate with like others. She asks "Do adolescents seek out drug users after they themselves have become involved with drugs, or do they start using drugs because they come to associate with other drug using friends?" She recommends longitudinal studies to search for answers.

Lucas, Wayne L.; Grupp, Stanley E; and Schmitt, Raymond L.  
 Predicting who will turn on. In: Grupp, Stanley E., et al.  
The Marijuana Muddle. Lexington, Mass: Lexington Books,  
 1973. pp. 33-53.

DRUG	Cannabis
SAMPLE SIZE	120
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	Not Specified
SEX	Not Specified
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Illinois
METHODOLOGY	Longitudinal
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews; Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1969-1971
NO. OF REFERENCES	38

### SUMMARY

This chapter reported the findings of a longitudinal investigation of a sample of 120 subjects at Illinois State University who, at the time of initial contact, had not smoked marijuana. The study was based on the ability of selected variables to predict subsequent marijuana use in this sample. The investigation departed from studies which have identified certain common characteristics of drug users considered to be influential factors in the process of initiation to marijuana and other drug use by considering: (1) the influence of friends, (2) expressed desire to try marijuana, (3) personal attitude toward marijuana, and (4) immediate opportunities to try marijuana.

## METHODOLOGY

In 1969 a random sample of 127 students (1% of the population) from Illinois State University was selected for personal interview. Details of the selection and interview procedures are included in the article. The personal interviews conducted in 1969 used selected demographic data and questions to determine the individual's attitude toward marijuana and other drugs and to identify individual opportunities to try marijuana and other drugs. In 1971 recontact was made and responses were obtained from 120 (94%) of the original sample of 127. Questionnaires were used to establish: (1) attitudes toward drug use, (2) the extent of exposure to drugs, and (3) actual drug use by friends as perceived by the respondent.

The primary concern was to test the significance of possession of each of the four prediction variables for actual marijuana use. A modified test of significance for two proportions of uncorrelated data was used. The significance of joint effects of any of the four predictors was also computed using the Chi-square test of significance for contingency tables and corrected contingency coefficient,  $\bar{C}$ . A one-tail critical region and Alpha of .05 were used throughout. Further details regarding the analysis procedures used in this study are described in this chapter.

## FINDINGS

It was found that 20 (17%) of the subjects who in 1969 were inexperienced with marijuana had used it during the 2-year interval. The typical smoker was a college student at the time of contact (N=13), unmarried (N=17), and described as an experimenter (11 used marijuana no more than 5 times). However, 7 subjects had smoked marijuana more than 11 times, 2 subjects had tried mescaline and 1 reported the use of "downers."

Results of the tests of predictors are given in Tables 2-2 through 2-5. All of the four predictors proved to show statistical significance:

1. Friends who smoke ( $t=2.20$ ,  $p < .05$ ).
2. Expressed desire ( $t=3.86$ ,  $p < .05$ ).
3. Personal favorable attitude ( $t=4.22$ ,  $p < .05$ ).
4. Immediate opportunity ( $t=3.94$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Measures of association between the predictors and marijuana smoking were also given:

1. Friends who smoke ( $\phi = .20$ ,  $\phi\text{-max} = .75$ ).
2. Expressed desire ( $\phi = .36$ ,  $\phi\text{-max} = .97$ ).

3. Personal favorable attitude ( $\phi = .38$ ,  $\phi\text{-max} = .97$ ).

4. Immediate opportunity ( $\phi = .36$ ,  $\phi\text{-max} = .77$ ).

The statistical significance of the difference between possession of none or multiple predictor characteristics was also given:

1. None and one predictor ( $t=2.65$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $\phi\text{-max} = .56$ ,  $\phi = .26$ ).
2. None and two predictors ( $t=4.07$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $\phi\text{-max} = .89$ ,  $\phi = .44$ ).
3. None and three predictors ( $t=5.37$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $\phi\text{-max} = .87$ ,  $\phi = .59$ ).

### CONCLUSIONS

All of the predictors except possession of friends who smoked marijuana in 1969 were similarly related to later marijuana use and were judged as being indicative of a moderate association. The effect of possession of multiple predictors was impressive in that 70% of the subjects who possessed all three predictors did in fact report one or more marijuana experiences, but only 5% of the persons who possessed no predictors reported this experience.

With respect to the poorest predictor, possession of friends who smoke marijuana, the authors suggest reinterpretation of this variable and additional data collection to enhance its predictive ability.

The authors suggest 5 specific problems for future research:

1. Will those possessing predictors of marijuana use, but not yet reporting marijuana experience, begin to smoke marijuana after a longer period of time?
2. Under what circumstances will experimental marijuana smokers terminate or increase their marijuana usage and what relationship will these patterns have to the predictor variables?
3. What effect does the marijuana opportunity structure have on the ability of the predictors to predict marijuana use?
4. To what extent are there other intervening variables which influence the initiation to marijuana use or in sustaining particular marijuana use patterns and to what extent do the predictors themselves function as intervening variables?
5. Are there any combinations of predictor variables that are more conducive to the initiation to marijuana or in sustaining particular marijuana use patterns than other combinations?

Johnson, Bruce D. Marijuana Users and Drug Subcultures.  
New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973. pp. 29-50.

DRUG	Cannabis
SAMPLE SIZE	3, 500
SAMPLE TYPE	College Students
AGE	Adults
SEX	1, 692 Male and 1, 779 Female
ETHNICITY	7% Black and 93% White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York Metropolitan Area
METHODOLOGY	Statistical Survey
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1970
NO. OF REFERENCES	319

### SUMMARY

Chapter 3, "Marijuana Enters the Peer Culture", is concerned with the question of how marijuana use became prevalent in the high school population. The basic hypothesis tested was that a large proportion of those highly involved in the peer culture should use cannabis at an earlier time than persons who are less involved in the peer culture.

A questionnaire was administered to college students to determine degree of involvement in the peer culture prior to attending college. Based on these answers a Peer Culture Index was developed.

Findings indicated that there has been an increasing utilization of marijuana among Whites who were highly involved in the peer culture.

### METHODOLOGY

A sample of 3,500 college students in 21 New York colleges and universities was administered a questionnaire in social studies class. About 10% of the students took questionnaires home to friends who had used either hallucinogens, methedrine, cocaine or heroin more than 6 times. From such friends 165 usable questionnaires were returned.

The hypothesis was that a large proportion of those who are highly involved in the peer culture should use cannabis at an earlier time than persons who are less involved in the peer culture. This study concentrated upon indicators of commitment to a peer group while respondents were in high school and earlier.

Students were asked, "while you were in high school, did you ever?" And "Which did you do five or more times?" Two possible responses were "Drive around with friends" and "spend time at a local hangout." Other questions were asked which indicated the degree of involvement with peers prior to attending college.

Respondents were classified on the author's Peer Culture Index: "none", "some" or "high" according to the degree of involvement with peers.

### FINDINGS

There has been an increase of about 30% in the use of cannabis among high school students who were highly involved in the peer culture between 1966 and 1969. Those highly involved in the peer culture began at an earlier age and have "turned on" more rapidly than their peers who were not involved in the peer culture.

The increasing use of marijuana has been most striking among Whites who were highly involved in the peer culture.

Cannabis use among Blacks has not significantly changed in the same time period probably because cannabis use has long been institutionalized as a Black peer cultural activity.

The only adolescent behavior (such as theft, truancy, etc.) that has changed between 1966 and 1969 is the use of cannabis. The greatest use has occurred among those who were highly peer-oriented. Cannabis has entered the peer culture and is becoming institutionalized as a legitimate behavior, particularly for those highly involved in the peer culture.

## CONCLUSIONS

The author concluded that cannabis has entered the peer culture rather than creating a new kind of social group in which cannabis is used. Cannabis use probably entered peer groups that were relatively cohesive prior to the use of cannabis. Cannabis use has not occurred because of a general, overall change in adolescent behavior. Peer groups simply added cannabis to their repertory of unconventional behavior.'

Jessor, Richard; Jessor, Shirley L.; and Finney, John. A social psychology of marijuana use: Longitudinal studies of high school and college youth. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 26(1):1-15, April, 1973.

DRUG	Cannabis
SAMPLE SIZE	949 High School and 276 College Students
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	Adolescents
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Rocky Mountain State
METHODOLOGY	Survey
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1968-1971
NO. OF REFERENCES	18

### SUMMARY

Problem behavior theory, consisting of personality, perceived environment, and behavior systems, was employed to account for variation in marijuana use among junior high, senior high, and college students, both male and female. The research design enabled both cross-sectional comparisons between nonusers and users on variables in each of the systems and longitudinal comparisons between those who shifted to user status over a 1-year interval and those who remained nonusers. Data revealed a similar pattern of personality,

environment, and behavior differences between all nonuser and user groups, suggesting a pervasive social-psychological constancy. The same variables were also predictive of the shift from nonuse to use over time among the high school students but not the college students.

### HYPOTHESES

Marijuana use is considered purposive, goal-oriented, and functional. Since no single variable provides a sufficient explanation for marijuana use, the study postulates a multivariate network of person and situation attributes logically connected to this behavior.

Four general hypotheses were examined:

1. That marijuana use should co-vary with other kinds of problem behaviors;
2. That variation in marijuana use should be systematically related to variation in the personality and perceived environment variables;
3. That the onset of marijuana use among nonusers should be predictable over a time interval from initial differences on those same personality and social variables measured at the beginning of the interval;
4. That those who become marijuana users should show greater relative change in the personality and social variables than those who remain nonusers.

### METHODOLOGY

Subjects were drawn from two separate but parallel longitudinal studies, one of junior and senior high school students and one of college students at a large university in the same community in one of the Rocky Mountain states. A random sample of 2,220 high school students, stratified by sex and grade, was contacted by letter and invited to participate in a 4 year study of personality and social development in youth. Parental permission was requested. In year one, 949 students participated, with data collected in April, 1969. In year two, 81% were retained, and of these 82% were retained in year 3.

A year after the high school study, a random sample of 487 college freshmen, stratified by sex, was approached, and 276 agreed to participate. Year 1 data were collected in April, 1970. In year 2, 90% were retained. Any comparisons between these two studies always refer to the same points or intervals in time.

Data were collected by a 50 page questionnaire requiring approximately 2 hours to complete, consisting of psychometrically developed scales assessing personality, social and behavior variables. A 4-page section dealt with various aspects of drug use experience and included 4 questions designed as a scale of increasing involvement with marijuana (the marijuana behavior report, MBR, scale). Scores on this scale were used to establish contrasting marijuana involvement groups, who were then used to examine the relevance of the socio-psychological variables and analyze the cross-sectional data used to test the first 2 hypotheses. For testing the latter 2 hypotheses, contrasting groups of users vs non-users were established and these were explored to examine whether variables taken in the initial year were predictive of the shift from nonuser to user status by the subsequent year.

## FINDINGS

Prevalence of marijuana use was comparable for both sexes at each school level, and increased substantially with age.

### Cross-sectional Analyses.

The data from the 3 samples are presented in 3 tables. Junior high, senior high, and college provided strong and consistent support for the first 2 hypotheses. The consistency of the findings suggested the existence of a social-psychological constancy, a continuity in the meaning and function of drug use among the young. To further assess the explanatory value of the theoretical network, multivariate analyses were performed.

### Longitudinal Analyses.

In order to examine hypotheses 3 and 4, two groups were compared: nonusers in year 1 who remained such in year 2, and nonusers who became users. Two tables present initial year scores and mean residual gain scores. The high school data provided support for hypothesis 3, showing that there are significant differences between those who remained nonusers. These differences are in the problem-prone direction, occur on measures of personality, environment and behavior, and are true for both males and females.

Stepwise multiple-regression analyses were performed to investigate the extent of the predictability of the shift from nonuser to user, and these correlations were significant, increasing confidence in the utility of the theoretical variables. Discriminant function analysis was also employed to assess utility.

Using the high school data, the procedure used to test hypothesis 4 was to compute residual gain scores for each group based on the discrepancy between a subject's actual subsequent year score and the score which would be predicted for him from the regression of subsequent year scores on initial year scores. Nearly all the differential changes were in the theoretically expected direction, and a number of these were significant. The amount of theoretically expected change on the variables is associated with the shift in behavioral status from nonuser to user.

The college study data, however, were not supportive of the longitudinal hypotheses; there is no support for hypothesis 3, and only slight support for hypothesis 4.

### CONCLUSIONS

The study makes it clear that personality plays a significant role in marijuana use, and is central to variation in drug use, whether there is high social support for it or not.

Even when different intensities of marijuana use are considered, the same variables distinguish nonusers from users or moderate from heavy users. This social-psychological constancy implies that the meaning of marijuana use is widely shared and that there are processes of socialization and even institutionalization to which youth of all ages are exposed.

There are, however, 2 differences between high school and college levels: (1) the variable of social criticism is more related to marijuana use in college than in high school, and low expectations for achievement is significantly related to marijuana involvement in junior and senior high school, but not at the college level; (2) whereas the same variables were strongly predictive in the high school sample findings of the shift from nonuser to user status, this was not true of the college sample. This may be due to their relatively higher rates of use. Prediction of onset at college level may depend more on environmental factors than on the systematic pattern of variables specified in problem behavior theory.

The findings of this study are consonant with other reports in the literature and with the findings of the 5 year project. The social psychology of problem behavior theory is widely applicable and helps reveal commonalities between marijuana use and other behaviors rather than emphasizing its uniqueness.

Gergen, Mary K.; Gergen, Kenneth J.; and Morse, Stanley J.  
 Correlates of marijuana use among college students. Journal  
 of Applied Social Psychology, 2(1):1-16, January 1972.

DRUG	Cannabis
SAMPLE SIZE	Over 5,000
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	Adults
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	More Than Two Cities
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Not Specified
NO. OF REFERENCES	18

### SUMMARY

Students who have smoked marijuana are compared with non-users on a variety of attitudinal and demographic characteristics. In the present study, a nationwide sample of over 5,000 students was used. In addition to assessing the relationship of various demographic indicators to drug use, the predictive value of various institutional as well as student attitudes could be explored. A variety of mechanisms playing a possible role in fostering drug use were used. Information gathered from this survey plus other research in this area indicate there is a steady increase in the use of marijuana among college students within the past few years.

## METHODOLOGY

From the 1969 Education Directory a random sample was selected of 38 colleges and universities with student bodies of over 200. A subsample of 5 junior colleges was also included in this survey. At the sample schools a 4-page questionnaire was administered to a subsample of students on a random basis. The questionnaire was largely aimed at assessing the effects of the Vietnam War on higher education. A major share of the questions dealt with various political opinions and reactions. In addition, data were gathered on characteristics of the institutions attended and on a demographic background. All respondents indicated whether they had ever taken a variety of drugs including marijuana, LSD, mescaline, heroin, cocaine, and whether they drank alcoholic beverages.

A review of recent surveys from 1965-1969 at Brooklyn College, Washington State University, and Dartmouth College were cited along with Gallup polls.

A Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) was employed to compare the relative contribution of each variable to drug use. By locating correlates of marijuana usage, such questions can be answered as to whether such persons should be considered similar to or different from drug addicts and alcoholics; whether usage is general in scope or limited to specific locales or sub-groups; to what extent usage stems from "sickness" (e.g., alienation, depression, anxiety) or "growth motives" (e.g., curiosity, social solidarity).

## FINDINGS

A Multiple Classification Analysis showed anti-war protest, religious affiliation, and sex are the most significant predictors of marijuana usage.

Recent studies showed marijuana usage to be more prevalent in moderate to high income families than in the lower classes (Suchman, 1967; Blum, 1969; Barker, 1970). Students in the Northeast and West were more likely to use marijuana (Kenniston, 1968 and Gallup Survey 1969).

Within institutions Pearlman, et al. (1971) report marijuana users at New York City universities are no different from non-users in their grade profiles, nor do they differ in their academic aspirations.

Marijuana users are more generally dissatisfied, lower in morale, and more pessimistic than non-users (Blum 1969). Usage is correlated to feelings of parental rejection and problems in communicating with them (Davis 1971). A study of 1700 high school students (Tec 1970) showed marijuana users are more likely to come from broken homes and where parents used in excess some other form of drug (e.g., alcohol, sleeping pills).

Three classes of variables were considered in correlating marijuana use: characteristics of educational institutions, social and personal characteristics of the students within these institutions, and finally, possible by-products of the Vietnam War.

Results of the questionnaire showed one-third of the students had experience with marijuana, one in ten students had used hallucinogens, and two in 100 had experience with heroin and cocaine.

The highest incidence levels of drug use occur in large, public universities in the Northeast and West, especially at the more selective institutions. Protestant colleges reported 19 percent usage of marijuana; Catholic schools, 34 percent. It was found that membership in formal religious institutions has a prohibitive influence on marijuana usage. In all-male schools, nearly 6 in 10 experienced marijuana, female schools reported 3 in 10, and co-ed schools 1 in 3. Fifty-nine percent of the population questioned reported drinking alcoholic beverages. Ninety-three percent reporting experience with addicting drugs had experience with alcohol.

In schools where entrance requirements are highly competitive, incidence of marijuana usage tops 55 percent.

Marijuana was used by students who came from homes where both parents tended to be highly educated. Farmers' children were found least likely to have tried marijuana.

More declared Democrats have used marijuana than Republicans; Independents, 43.4 percent; radicals, 80.1 percent.

The incidence of drug use was highest among those who expect to earn a Ph.D. (51.5 percent) and lowest among those whose educational aspirations are lowest. Where grade-point average was considered, the above pattern was reflected.

## CONCLUSION

Using a large representative sample of college youth, systematic differences in experience with marijuana were traced to differences in demographic background.

Generally it is the better students in the nation who are more prone to use marijuana. "Cognitive exploration" was the one central motive for using the drug.

The data suggested several ways in which the war may have stimulated marijuana use. Some used the drug as a form of political protest. In addition, relief from feelings of anger, depression, and worry was sought from the use of marijuana. Some users indicated a general apathy if not hostility toward "the establishment." An emerging pattern from the data concludes that increased alienation from traditional institutions in society is strongly associated with drug use. The predictors of major significance are feelings about the Vietnam War and religious affiliation.

The major problem in interpreting the results thus far is the confounding of predictor variables. Many of these variables are inter-correlated. Thus, in no single case can we be certain that the variable in question is truly accounting for the observed variance.

Findings in correlational work are subject to the usual criticisms. Direction of causality cannot be certain. Even when causality seems clear, there is no certainty of the precise mechanisms at stake. However, results help to locate factors of importance in unravelling the puzzle.

Tec, Nechama. Differential involvement with marijuana and its socio-cultural context: A study of suburban youths. The International Journal of the Addictions, 7(4):655-669, 1972.

DRUG	Marijuana
SAMPLE SIZE	1704
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	Adolescents (15-18)
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	A Suburban Community Near New York City
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	February 1969
NO. OF REFERENCES	11

### SUMMARY

This study, by focusing on a large sample of high school students, and on one illegal drug, marijuana, examined differential involvement with this drug in its immediate sociocultural context. An exploration was made of the relationship between levels of involvement with marijuana and the descriptions, evaluations, and prescriptions which bear directly upon marijuana. A basic assumption guiding this analysis was that behavioral and cultural levels, although closely related, do not necessarily follow obvious patterns, and that an examination of the existing relationships and associations can be of value.

## METHODOLOGY

The research was based on a survey conducted in one suburban community within commuting distance of New York City. All teenagers attending the only local high school were asked to fill out an anonymous, self-administered questionnaire. The 75 questions concerned different illegal drugs, family, friends, school, and social and occupational aspirations. Participation was voluntary, but the rate of return was 94%, or 1704 questionnaires. The sample studied consisted of over 90% of this community's population, aged 15 to 18: 52% girls and 48% boys. They came from rather high and homogenous socioeconomic backgrounds, with only 5% reporting father's occupation as laborer or clerk. Relative socioeconomic homogeneity, plus exposure to one school environment, diminished the need for control variables in the subsequent analysis. This paper deals only with a small portion of the available data gathered. It reflects the level of drug use of a particular point in time (February 1969).

Operationally, involvement with marijuana was measured on an index constructed from answers to 3 separate questions dealing with extent of marijuana use scattered throughout the questionnaire to insure greater reliability of responses.

The association between differential involvement with marijuana (based on the index) and the following was examined: (1) reports about the extent of involvement of others with marijuana, and anticipated reactions to one's own use; (2) reasons for marijuana use; (3) evaluations of the effects of marijuana; and (4) types of approval and disapproval of marijuana use.

## FINDINGS

According to the index described above, the distribution was: 12% regular users, 12% occasional users, 8% tried once, 8% never tried but would like to, and 60% never tried and never wanted to try it. "Regular users" refers to the following frequencies of use: 30%, once a week; 49%, more often than once a week; 18%, every day or more often.

Analysis of the answers to the questionnaire indicated that the more involved adolescents were with the use of marijuana: (1) the higher was their estimate of the percentage of peers and friends using marijuana, and the less likely were they to think that their friends would apply negative sanctions to their use of the drug; (2) the more likely were they to perceive the use of marijuana as a positive

individualistic expression in the quest of freedom and happiness, and the less likely were they to explain its use in terms of difficulties, and/or group pressures; (3) the more likely were they to view marijuana as having a positive effect, and the less likely were they to define it as harmful; (4) the more likely were they to support legalization of marijuana and to approve of its use informally.

## CONCLUSIONS

Interpretation of the data suggested that while certain favorable values and attitudes may be one of the preconditions for marijuana use, at the same time such values and attitudes become progressively more favorable with greater involvement. Of special interest is the fact that the responses of those who never tried marijuana but would like to try it resemble the responses of those who have tried marijuana once, and even in a number of instances come closer to those of the occasional users. This may imply that many of those who used the drug once only are moving away from progressive involvement. It appears from the responses that those who tried marijuana once are more likely to evaluate it in negative terms than those who never tried but would like to; more of them say that they approve of marijuana "for no one," and oppose its legalization. If it is assumed that favorable attitudes and opinions are a partial prerequisite for actual experience with marijuana, then the fact that even the total abstainers are neither willing to apply strong negative sanctions against regular users, nor to oppose marijuana use vigorously, points to the existence of a rather favorable cultural climate for such use, although no precise forecasts about future use can be made.

Significantly, those who did not, and had no intention to, smoke marijuana, when compared to the regular users, showed a wider range of responses. For example, they were less likely to confine their social contacts to non-users only, and were more likely to vary in terms of their evaluations and/or approval of marijuana use. On the one hand, the findings may reflect an overall tolerance towards marijuana. On the other, they may imply wider and more extensive attachments within various social contexts on the part of non-users, as compared specifically to regular users. These findings may also lead to the hypothesis that deviants have a tendency to gravitate towards each other in order to gain support for their deviancy. Finally, the differences may also reflect in large measure the fact that marijuana use is a social activity which takes place within a social group. Interpretations of the data can only be speculative, and more rigorous empirical tests are necessary.

Tec, Nechama. Family and differential involvement with marihuana: A study of suburban teenagers. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 32(4):656-664, November 1970.

DRUG	Cannabis
SAMPLE SIZE	1074
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	12-18
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Eastern Suburban Community
METHODOLOGY	Survey
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	February 1969
NO. OF REFERENCES	25

### SUMMARY

This paper examined the relationship between some aspects of family life and differential involvement with marihuana. Data was based on a survey of youths living in an affluent suburban community and attending a local public high school. Results pointed to a negative association between degree of involvement with marihuana and: (1) availability and quality of parental models for behavior, (2) high evaluation and amount of recognition received within the family, (3) perceptions of the family as warm and not simply rigidly controlling and/or indifferent, and (4) subjective feelings of satisfaction and involvement with as well as the ability to rely upon the family as a unit.

## METHODOLOGY

Empirical data for the study was based on a social survey conducted in February 1969 in a well-to-do suburban community. The sample consisted of 1074 teenage boys and girls, all enrolled in high school. This was over 90 percent of the community's population between the ages of 15 and 18, with 52 percent females and 48 percent males. A self-administered questionnaire was handed out to students on the school premises and answered in the presence of a teacher, with the anonymity of each respondent emphasized. Despite the fact that participation in the project was voluntary, approximately 94 percent completed the questionnaires. Information collected included answers to 75 items covering a variety of areas. A large proportion of these concerned the degree of involvement with various drugs. This study's analysis was confined to involvement with marihuana alone, prompted by the fact that of all the illegal drugs used, marihuana was the most popular. While almost a third of the sample had direct experience with marihuana, only about 10 percent had direct experiences with other drugs.

The following marihuana use categories were set up:

1. Nonusers or abstainers-never used.
2. Moderate users-tried once or used occasionally.
3. Regular users-used once a week up to more than once a day.

All questions referring to family life were cross-tabulated prior to any examination of their impact on the dependent variables. Results of these cross-tabulations showed consistent associations in the directions expected. Chi-square tests of significance were performed on all associations with the level of significance for each being .001.

## FINDINGS

It was found that the likelihood of conformity to the norm studied (prohibitions against use of marihuana) varied directly with: (1) the presence and quality of parental models for behavior, (2) the extent to which associations within the family unit were defined as rewarding and meaningful by its members, (3) the presence of parental controls and/or indifference.

Youths who came from broken homes or did not live with both parents were more likely to use marihuana than youths who came from intact families. It was also tentatively concluded that adolescents whose parents, particularly mothers, drank hard liquor or used tranquilizers and sleeping pills, were more likely to be involved with marihuana than those who did not report such parental behaviors. The more rewarding the family was in terms of recognition and

respect obtained within it, and the more personally satisfactory the relationships were within it, the less the likelihood to smoke marihuana. The likelihood of turning to the family when in trouble, and the subjective definition of the family as the most important unit, both showed a negative association to regular involvement with marihuana. The likelihood of marihuana use increased when demands were made by the family which were perceived as unfair and excessive and not accompanied by "warmth." Those who perceived their families as indifferent were also more likely to use marihuana than those who saw it as undemanding and/or warm. Sheer strong control and/or complete indifference as measured by the questionnaire bore a positive association to marihuana use.

Slightly over 10 percent of the sample believed that they or their friends would discontinue a friendship because of marihuana use.

Among those who said that the family was the most important aspect of their life, 5 percent were regular marihuana users as compared to 16 percent among those who said that friends were most important and 19 percent among those who said they themselves were most important.

### CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study were viewed as a mere beginning in the complicated task of systematic analysis of illicit drug use by the younger generation. According to broad sociological thinking, conformity within a given unit is achieved by its system of rewards as well as direct controls. In terms of the cultural expectations as they pertain to the family unit, a primary group, associations were seen as typically of an intimate and personally satisfactory nature; where those expectations were not fulfilled, lack of compliance with some of its norms might be the outcome. In a sense, rigid controls which were experienced as reality by members of such a unit might be less tolerated than within a less intimate and more formal environment. Furthermore, the age of the sample implied a certain resistance and even resentment toward parental controls. To what extent this association would have appeared in other units was hard to determine. Many studies conducted in the field of formal organization have shown that the level of personal satisfaction, as experienced by its members, rather than rigid controls, was indeed positively associated with a high level of conformity.

III. THE FAMILY OF THE ADDICT:  
INFLUENCE AND INTERACTION

Seldin, Nathan E. The family of the addict: A review of the literature. The International Journal of the Addictions, 7(1):97-107, 1972.

DRUG	Opiates
SAMPLE SIZE	Not Specified
SAMPLE TYPE	Not Specified
AGE	Adolescents; Adults
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Urban
METHODOLOGY	Literature Review
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	N/A
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Not Specified
NO. OF REFERENCES	35

### SUMMARY

The literature reviewed emphasized the immature personality development of the visible (i. e., known to treatment agencies) male addict and the crucial role the family plays in such development. Typically it provides an unstable environment for emotional growth. The father is detached and uninvolved; the mother is dominant but emotionally immature, conflicted, and ambivalent about her role. The addict tends to replicate the original family dynamics by marrying a dominating, psychosexually ambivalent woman who perpetuates his immature behavior.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

An annotated bibliography is presented, drawn from several disciplines.

### Sociology.

Goode (1959) presents the classical view of the family as socializing the individual but adds the function of "emotional maintenance," of particular importance to city dwellers. Its breakdown is a key factor in urban family disorganization which McCord (1965) associates with drug addiction. Kingsley Davis (1964) sees our present social structure and rapid social change as productive of parent-youth conflict, and relates it to urban vs. rural growth. "Drug addiction occurs in cities where the young rebel by joining gangs. Ball (1965) provides statistical data to show that the addict is now 8 years younger than in Pescor's study of 1937, uses heroin rather than morphine, and is typically from a minority group in a northern city. Clinard (1963), Sutherland, Cressey, Merton, and Cloward and Ohlin (1960) hold the differential associate view. They blame the peer group subculture which initiates the addict and provides him with a sense of belonging. Seldin questions this last item, as his clinical experience suggests the addict is a loner, not a joiner. Lindesmith (1947; 1966) also disagrees. He sees the addict as dissatisfied with his life-style, and disputes any theory of an addiction-prone personality. Mowrer (1942), while viewing the family as central in the creation of personality, sees multiple sociological and psychological causes of addiction which need a pan-discipline approach. Talcott Parsons' (1964) structural-functional view of the family combines psychoanalytic and role theory. A normal child gives up oedipal attachments as he sees his future role as parent himself, but the addict evades family roles that require he take care of others. Pollak (1965) combines social system theory with psychoanalytic, emphasizing the interactional dynamics that influence the addict: he is passive, does not seek power. Fromm (1941) suggests "powerlessness" and a need to submit to another's authority. Seldin sees this as a sado-masochistic trait in the addict. O'Donnell (1969), studying the marital history of male addicts, found they tended to marry addicts or other deviants, or caused their mates to deviate (especially into addiction) after marriage. Twice the expected number did not marry; of those who did, many had multiple marriages, most ending in divorce or separation.

### Psychology.

Chein (1964) links addiction to degree of family emotional health. The mother's relationship is crucial. She is often seductive and emasculating; the father is vague, pessimistic, weak and has a poor job history. The family process is inconsistent and arbitrary. Male addicts flee into marriage but frequently return to the mother in defeat. Rosenfeld (1962) agrees that the addict's family, even more than that of the delinquent, lacks cohesion, the mother being immature

and vacillating between rejection and possessiveness, the father remote and detached. Hill (1962) holds a stimulus-response position. Poor family conditioning inclines to addiction. The addict brings a socially deviant personality to the drug. He cannot delay gratification. Drugs reinforce both psychologically and physically. The addict learns goal directive behavior to secure his drug.

### Psychiatry and Social Work.

Ackerman (1958) modifies the Freudian model with interpersonal relationship theory. He sees the family as the basic socializing unit, where social roles begin. Treatment of adolescent "psychopathic" conduct must occur along with family and community. Weech (1966) also stresses the need to understand the community, the "street", which is the addict's refuge from family hurt and disappointment. Rasor (1959) sees that the pressures and conflicts of adolescence make it a vulnerable period for addiction, especially when the family is deficient in meeting emotional needs. Erikson (1963) describes the addict as fixated at the infant's oral phase of psychosexual development. Rado (1933) believes the addict unconsciously desires to recapture the bliss of the infantile state. Fort (1954) agrees that the young male addict is oral and narcissistic. He is ambivalent toward the mother and other females. He constantly needs their association despite reduced sexual urgency due to heroin. Vaillant (1966) found that a high percentage of addicts remained unusually dependent on their family of origin, often staying with their mothers as late as age 30. Nyswander (1956) refers to mother fixation. Mason (1958) tried to include the mother in treatment since she is the dominant family figure, but found her hostile, controlling, unhappy and guilt ridden. Gerard and Kornetsky (1954) speak of mother manipulation, as provoking addict behavior and then disapproving, as in Adelaide Johnson's (1960) thesis of superego lacunae, where the mother encourages the child to act out against a social system in which she sees herself as disadvantaged. Hirsch (1961) says the mothers see the addicts as narcissistic extensions of themselves. Rasor (1959) sees the psychiatric social worker as that member of the team treating the addict who forms the liaison between the hospital and the family or community. Many social workers examine the family characteristics of addicts. Larner and Tefferteller (1964) tape recorded interviews in a community settlement house which show the difficulties addicts have in freeing themselves from the home and especially the mother. Berliner (1966) emphasizes the need for community treatment that includes family members in hospital aftercare. Frazier (1962) notices the oral, hostile, immature behavior of young male addicts, frequently directed at the father. Frazier believes the real target is the mother, who is seen as a lonely and emotionally isolated person, producing a son like herself. Wolke and Diskind (1961) wrote of clinical experiences with mothers and wives of male addicts. The mother is frequently emotionally ill and fosters dependence in the addict. Wives of addicts choose them from a desire to dominate. They, too, stress the need to treat mother and wife along with the addict. Osnos, Taylor, and Wilbus

(1966) studied 16 married couples. The wives, who came from similar family backgrounds (drugs, dominant mothers, weak fathers) were attracted to the weakness of their addict husbands. Seldin (1968) adds that since most male addicts break, however abortively and ambivalently, with their family, they seek out a supportive peer group. If they marry outside this group, they may run up against role expectations they cannot fulfill, and the marriage deteriorates.

Chein, Isidor; Gerard, Donald L.; Lee, Robert S.; and Rosenfeld, Eva. The individual environment. In: Chein, I. The Road to H: Narcotics, Delinquency, and Social Policy. New York: Basic Books, 1964. pp. 109-148.

DRUG	Opiates
SAMPLE SIZE	252
SAMPLE TYPE	Incarcerated, Peers
AGE	Adults (19 to 22)
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	Black, Puerto Rican, and White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York City
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1953-55
NO. OF REFERENCES	12

### SUMMARY

This study investigates why some individuals who live in regions where drug use flourishes succumb to addiction while others do not. It asks whether there are specific differences in the backgrounds of these two classes, whether the personal experiences of users include obvious deprivations unique to them, or shared with delinquents, yet not shared by those who become neither users nor delinquents.

Using interviews, 4 groups of adolescent males were compared with regard to family background, socioeconomic deprivation, adolescent stress and peer environment.

The study found differences between delinquent and nondelinquent groups but only a few factors that could be related specifically to drug use.

### METHODOLOGY

The study compared the personal backgrounds of 4 groups of boys aged 16-20 from neighborhoods with similar delinquency and drug rates: (1) 59 institutionalized drug users, not otherwise delinquent (Nondelinquent Users); (2) 41 institutionalized drug users who had histories of delinquency prior to drug use (Delinquent Users); (3) 50 institutionalized delinquents who did not use drugs (Delinquent Nonusers); and (4) 52 controls (Nondelinquent Nonusers).

Interviews were used to explore the nature and extent of drug use, attitudes toward drugs, the family situation, education, friendships, leisure time activities, and orientation toward present and future.

The nondelinquent users, the delinquent users, and the delinquent nonusers were interviewed during 1953-54, controls during 1955. Interviews lasted from 1-1/2 to 2-1/2 hours and were limited to the relatively recent past; "the time just before you started using heroin" for users, and age 16 for nonusers. The median age at which regular use commenced was 16. Interviewers who were all skilled and experienced, filled out a detailed schedule of questions during the interview but had great freedom in the ordering and wording of the questions.

The answers were checked against institutional records, discussions with caseworkers and parole officers, and interviews with parents.

A second group of nondelinquent users was tested against the control group the following year, as 30 questions were added to explore areas not covered in the original interview.

### FINDINGS

Data on the 4 groups was assembled in tabular form. The four groups were analyzed by ethnic group (Negro, Puerto Rican, White), age, neighborhood drug and delinquency rates, neighborhood income and education rates. The large difference between delinquent and

nondelinquent nonusers in the percentage of subjects coming from areas of high drug use, suggested that delinquents from such areas were very likely to be users.

Comparisons were made in the following areas: general family background, material deprivation of family, adolescent stress, and peer environment.

### Family Background

The family was considered the primary agency for transmitting the behavior standards of society, which in the case of delinquents and drug users have failed to take hold. The more cohesive the family, the more effective it is in transmitting such standards. An index of cohesiveness of the families with whom the boys lived longest between age 10 to 16 was constructed. Users scored significantly lower than nonusers. Some boys lived with more than one family. It was found that fewer nondelinquents, both users and nonusers, had to undergo the trauma of shifting families. Of those not living with their biological fathers, the percentage was highest in the two delinquent groups, lowest among the controls. Similarly, in answer to whom they wanted most to think well of them, 42% of the control group mentioned father or parents, in contrast to 10-15% of the two delinquent groups.

The groups were compared by families which include drug users, alcoholics, or those with police records. For police records it was found that the controls were in the best position, while the nondelinquents, whether or not users, were better off than the delinquent group. For drug users, the nonuser groups came out better than the user groups; for alcoholics, the division was along delinquency lines.

The study also investigated the possibility that failure to hold to social norms was due to the fact that the families were ill-equipped to teach these because they were immigrants or otherwise strangers to the community. This hypothesis was contradicted by the evidence.

Concerning orientation of the family to the future, no differences were noted in amount of money saved or active future plans, but there was a striking difference between the controls and the other 3 groups in the frequency with which the boys' plans were discussed. The controls reported little nagging or concern; the others felt harassed by their parents.

In summary, most of the factors studied turned out to be relevant to delinquency. They suggest no specific clues to drug use, except for one factor related to drug use and apparently unrelated to delinquency: the experience of living with the relatively cohesive family. Users have been more deprived of this than nonusers.

### Material Deprivation

The 4 groups were compared on an index of socioeconomic deprivation based on dependence of family on outside help, level of breadwinner's occupation, and quality of housing facilities.

Delinquents were found to be consistently more deprived than non-delinquents. With respect to users, Negro users were more deprived than nonusers but White and Puerto Rican users come from better socioeconomic circumstances than nonusers. The author suggests a somewhat complex explanation: Since White and Puerto Ricans have greater freedom than Negroes to move from a neighborhood when they have the financial means, then if they do not move, there may be other factors not tapped in those families associated with vulnerability to drug use.

### Adolescent Stress

Adolescent stress stems from problems of transition from childhood to maturity. The environment of the adolescent may make this transition more or less difficult. Certain factors identified by Contrell as facilitating this transition were used to question the control group and the additional sample of 50 nondelinquent users.

1. Presence of male adult acting as ideal and as guide.  
In both groups about half knew of some adult they wished to emulate, but the control group mentioned personality attributes (kindness, courage) more often; the users mentioned material attributes (wealth, skills) more often. About 2/3 of each group voluntarily sought out an adult to discuss a personal problem. The control group mentioned father, teacher, or priest more often. The users mentioned older brother more often.
2. Opportunities for respite from tension.  
More users than controls could identify a special place of escape (frequently a club or specific place to meet friends) but users more likely needed one, since their home was a less comfortable place for them. However, most boys get

over the blues outdoors, at home, at the movies - the place being relatively unimportant.

3. Consistency and timing of expectations of adult behavior. Users reported being treated as adults earlier than controls. But this premature granting of adulthood need not mean that the user finds transition to adulthood easier; it could be interpreted as an act of rejection by the family, not of affirmation of adult status. Controls admitted more difficulty in transition, but perhaps users were more accustomed to difficulties already.

### Peer Environment

The adolescent's peer group is an important source of influence and constraint. Its effect is, however, not unilateral, since the individual can help shape the character of the group he chooses. Nor is his choice final. But basically it depends on 3 factors: the variety of the groups available, the individual's preferences, and his acceptability to the group of his choice.

There seem to be 2 main subcultures in the adolescent street culture: the delinquents headed for trouble ("the cats"), and the nondelinquents who stay out of trouble ("the squares"). These 2 ideal types are seen as poles of attraction and repulsion.

The lifestyle of the cats is aimless. Over 80% had left school by age 16. Only 1/3 had plans for the future, vague and conditional, but most wanted clothes, a car, and money in the present. They hung around, often in gangs, were bored and were willing to try anything for a kick, including the taking of addictive drugs.

Of the squares interviewed, only 5 had left school before age 16. Almost all had over 10 years of schooling and held a job after age 16. They had less time to hang around; at least 1/2 engaged in sports, 3/4 said they enjoyed reading. They tended to join small cliques, not large arranged gangs. Half had definable short-range job plans. Few wanted merely clothes and a car; rather, most wished for a different way of life or a variety of possessions (bicycles, cameras, etc.). This profile is in sharp contrast to the delinquents, and although these boys were familiar with addictive drugs like heroin, their subculture was not hospitable to experimentation. Drug use had no meaningful place in the boys' lives or future plans.

The pressure of street associations lies in alignment with the cats. Squares have contact but not involvement. Squares tried to disassociate themselves from the dominance of the tough crowd and selected their friends more purposefully, for common interests, protection, or other specific reasons.

The study examined users' interests and lifestyles in the year preceding the onset of drug use. Their position in the peer subculture reveals more alignment with the cats than the squares. Users made less use of libraries and participated in fewer extra-curricular activities. Users left school earlier and received less on-job training. They mentioned going to movies, hanging around, going to parties and dances, and a desire for clothes. They were more likely to come into frequent contact with the cats.

However, users do not perceive themselves as closer to the cats than the squares, but thought of themselves as equally distant from both. Unlike controls, they did not express negative feelings towards the cats nor a determination to steer clear of them. They expressed a detached tolerance of both groups. This nonpartisan passive attitude was reflected in their friends - not chosen, these were simply boys with whom they had grown up. These friends seemed to be aligned with activities and concerns typical of the delinquent subculture. The study thus concludes that there is a connection between the nature of peer association and experimentation, the first step toward addiction.

Chein, Isidor. Narcotics use among juveniles. In: Cavan, R. Readings in Juvenile Delinquency. New York City: J. B. Lippincott, 1964. pp. 237-252.

DRUG	Multi-Drug; Heroin
SAMPLE SIZE	Over 3,000
SAMPLL TYPE	Juvenile Offenders
AGE	Adolescents
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	Cross-Cultural
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York City, New York
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews; Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1952-1963
NO. OF REFERENCES	1

### SUMMARY

The Research Center for Human Relations at New York University along with other groups started investigating juvenile drug use in 1952. Data were collected for 5 studies which attempted to analyze: (a) The characteristics of neighborhoods in Manhattan, Brooklyn, and the Bronx in which heroin use by male adolescents had the widest prevalence; (b) The relationship between the rates of drug use in various neighborhoods and the rates of other delinquent activity; (c) The home life and other behavioral and attitudinal characteristics of 100 heroin users and 100 nonusers; (d) The role that the delinquent street gang plays in heroin activity; and (e) The prevailing information and at-

titudes toward drugs and drug use among 1,000 young boys, about 13 or 14 years old, who lived in 3 neighborhoods differing in known incidence of heroin use. In the last-mentioned study, inquiry was made about certain general attitudes and value systems held by these boys, and certain specific attitudes toward policy, parents, etc., in the hope to establish the psychological context within which these boys held their attitudes toward narcotics. The author's methodology and theoretical overview of the data collected from the 5 studies are abstracted here.

## METHODOLOGY

In the first of the 5 studies, the addresses of 1,844 boys between the ages of 16-21 who had in the 4-year period from 1949 to 1952 come to the attention of some official agency in New York in connection with narcotics were distributed by census tract divisions of the 1950 census, and census tract rates of drug use were calculated; the 1950 census also gave socioeconomic information about each tract.

The second study consisted of an analysis of a sample of court charges other than narcotic violations lodged against boys in the same age group as the first study, covering the same time period, to compare delinquency and drug use rates.

The third study explored family characteristics and personal experiences which might distinguish drug users from nonusers who lived in relatively high-use areas. Two hundred boys, divided into 4 groups, were interviewed: 1) delinquents before becoming drug users, 2) delinquents who were not drug users, 3) non-delinquents before becoming drug users, and 4) neither delinquents nor drug users. The 4 groups were matched as closely as possible for incidence of drug use in neighborhoods of residence and on a number of other variables (age, ethnic origin).

The fourth study, conducted in cooperation with the New York City Youth Board, gave information about drug-use patterns of 18 anti-social gangs in the city derived from reports of group workers who were in close contact with gangs.

The fifth study focused on eighth-graders; with the assistance of the school systems of the city, drug information and attitude questionnaires were administered to young boys in 3 selected neighborhoods of low socioeconomic status: one with the highest drug rate in the city, one with a somewhat lower rate and the third with very little current drug activity.

## THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

The data collected indicated that forms of behavior, like delinquency and drug addiction, do not take place in a vacuum, but are carried out in a physical and social context which plays an important role in determining likelihood of occurrence and specific forms.

Communities in which there is a relative breakdown in the fabric of human relationships and the individual stands essentially alone are the breeding ground of delinquency and crime, alcoholism, drug addiction when drugs are widely available, and a variety of other antisocial and socially maladaptive behavior. In New York City, this environment is associated with a triad of neighborhood characteristics -- widespread poverty, low level of education and high proportion of broken families and other deviant family arrangements. When antisocial behavior becomes widespread, a new norm tends to emerge which is not only consistent with the prevailing atmosphere but which also makes such behavior acceptable and even desirable.

A prevailing atmosphere of degenerated interpersonal relationships that characterizes a neighborhood can be markedly counteracted by a cohesive family group, giving an individual a sense of human solidarity, a feeling of belonging, respect for the integrity and value of human beings and a long-range motivation of things worth living for. In the environment described the family is vulnerable, as is evidenced by a high proportion of abnormal family arrangements in high drug use areas. It is precisely from disrupted families in deteriorated neighborhoods that the bulk of delinquents and drug users come.

Individuals who do not have strong internalized restraints and who have various neurotic and other needs (an accumulated fund of hostility against society, an urge to maintain a sense of personal integrity in the face of society at large, a desire to share in the social goods that seem to be denied them, a need to conform to the behavior standards of the deviant social circles in which they move) are inclined to act in an antisocial manner. If these needs are strong enough, the inner restraints weak enough, such individuals will become delinquent and criminals in the best of environments. An individual whose balance of needs and restraints is not essentially different than in the average member of our society, placed in an environment conducive to antisocial behavior, is likely also to become a delinquent.

With easy access to drugs, a new wide-open channel of delinquent activity becomes available. Many of the delinquents who experim

with heroin become addicted. Other addicts have not responded to the delinquency-producing vectors of their environment, but nevertheless display personality patterns in close harmony with the social atmosphere of their neighborhoods. These are the unaggressive, withdrawn, dysphoric individuals who gain a sense of well-being and social acceptability through heroin and the related subculture.

### CONCLUSIONS

The interpretation of juvenile narcotics use derived from the studies led to the conclusion that it is not feasible to conceive of worthwhile community action programs with a narrowly defined goal of preventing drug use. Drug use among juveniles appears to be one symptom among many; personally damaged and environmentally deprived youths need broad programs of social action aimed at helping them grow up to healthy adults.

Chein, Isidor, et al. The family of the addict. In: Chein, I. The Road to H: Narcotics, Delinquency, and Social Policy. New York: Basic Books, 1964. pp. 251-275.

DRUG	Opiates
SAMPLE SIZE	59
SAMPLE TYPE	Peers; Treatment (inpatient)
AGE	Adolescents and Adults (15-23)
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	21 Black; 19 Puerto Rican; 19 White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York City
METHODOLOGY	Controlled/Experimental
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews; Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1956
NO. OF REFERENCES	7

### SUMMARY

The study reported in this chapter is part of a larger work on the characteristics of those who move from narcotic (heroin) use to addiction. The study asks what sort of early home environment the typical addict must have had, then sets out to check the accuracy of this imaginative reconstruction. This was also a test of the validity of current personality theory, on which the reconstruction of home life was based, but the question was: Is the characteristic personality pattern of the addict a consequent or an antecedent of the addiction?

Thirty addicts were matched against a control group and scored on an index of factors within the family background conducive to the formation of the given personality picture. The conclusion was drawn that conditions favorable to such personality development already existed in the addicts' early life. However, the control group had no history of drug use; thus the possibility still remains that the study isolated factors conducive to use, rather than to addiction.

### METHODOLOGY

The five-part hypothesis of the study stated that the family background of the male adolescent addict is conducive to the formation of a personality with:

- (1) weak ego structure,
- (2) defective superego functioning: either too weak or overly severe and restrictive,
- (3) inadequate male identification,
- (4) unrealistic level of aspiration toward the future, and
- (5) distrust of major social institutions.

The experimenters first defined those characteristics and attitudes that made up these 5 personality features. Then they constructed a rationale to select certain family experiences as conducive to the development of such a personality. This list of family experiences formed an index which could be scored to determine the potential harmful effects of family environment on personality development.

A sample of 30 addict subjects was matched against a control group of 29 subjects who had no history of drug use or of delinquency. The controls came from the same high drug rate neighborhoods, and were similar in age, ethnic background, occupation of head of household, and education of mother.

From 2 to 4 casework interviews were held with each family, based on a guide focusing on areas of family experience relevant to the indexes, i. e., physical characteristics of neighborhood and house, household composition, health history of family, adolescent life situation of subject, childhood training and socialization, relationships within the family, and between the family and the outside. Each interviewer filled out a checklist questionnaire, designed to permit computation of index scores.

### FINDINGS

The 5 hypotheses were strongly supported by the analysis of the indices and each hypothesis was supported within each ethnic group separately.

Defective superego functioning was considered as either inadequate internalization of accepted standards or as overly-severe functioning. There was a clear cut difference between addicts and controls only in regard to weak superego functioning. There were no differences in forces making for overly-severe functioning.

Contrast at the .05 level of confidence or higher appeared on certain items, particularly in terms of the relationship of a boy with his father. Half the addicts had no father figure for a significant period; when present he was often distant or hostile, or provided an immoral model. In almost all (97%) of the addict families, but in only 41% of the controls, there was a disturbed relationship between the parents (e. g., divorce, open hostility). The mother then usually became the important parent figure. There was little evidence of an atypical relationship between the addict and his mother. However, clinical observations provided strong reasons to believe that the mothers were much more involved in their sons' addiction than indicated. The nature and importance of the relationship between mother and addict was complex and individual. (Note: It is presented more fully in the qualitatively oriented following chapter of 6 case histories).

The family setting of addicts did not facilitate acceptance of discipline or development of behavioral controls. Parents set vague and inconsistent standards of conduct. Over 70% of the addicts were over indulged, over frustrated, or experienced vacillation between the two.

Haastrup S., and Thomsen, K. The social backgrounds of young addicts as elicited in interviews with their parents. Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica, 48:146-173, 1972.

DRUG	Not Specified
SAMPLE SIZE	187
SAMPLE TYPE	Parent-Child
AGE	Under 25
SEX	Not Specified
ETHNICITY	White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Copenhagen, Denmark
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1968-69
NO. OF REFERENCES	21

### SUMMARY

This study is one part of a Danish hospital study during which all young drug addicts admitted to psychiatric hospitals in the Copenhagen area during a 12-month period were interviewed. During the pilot phase of the hospital study it appeared that the social histories of these patients differed from those of both normal young people and other mental patients. There was evidence of an excessively high rate of broken homes and of parental mental illness, including alcoholism and drug abuse. It was decided to investigate these differences more thoroughly, particularly in relation to the drug abuse

and social deterioration of the children. The purpose was, through interviews with the parents in the home environment, to see if any common factors would be found in the children's social histories. To study the effects of the individuals' social background, 187 patients were selected, and their parents were interviewed by one social worker in their homes 6 to 12 months after the patient had been admitted to the hospital.

### METHODOLOGY

Of the 350 young addicts comprising the original hospital study sample, 250, selected randomly, were asked if they would permit a supplementary interview with their parents. Of the 224 interviews planned, 187 (83 percent) were carried through; 5 percent could not be found at the addresses given and 12 percent declined to be interviewed. The interviews took place in the parents' homes, utilizing a structured questionnaire designed for coding for statistical purposes. At the time of the interviews, nothing was known about the specific patient, beyond the name, name of the hospital, and any hospitalizations of the parents for mental illness. Data on the percentage of biological parents living together, on the socio-economic distribution, and on the number of fathers with alcohol misuse was also used for comparison with studies of adolescents made by previous researchers.

### FINDINGS

The social and psychiatric factors showing differences between the young addicts' parents and those of normal young people were: the number of broken homes, the number of fathers who were more than 40 years old at the time of the child's birth, mother's use of psychoactive medicines. In the socio-economic distribution the highest and the lowest socioeconomic classes were overrepresented. There was no difference between the young addicts' parents and those of the normals with regard to: standards of housing, rural to urban moves, unmarried mothers, father's psychiatric admissions, father's use of psychoactive medicines, and mother's misuse of alcohol.

A large number of the addicts' parents had sought assistance from public agencies before the abuse began, and a high percentage of the parents admitted that there were problems with the child (these factors were somewhat overrepresented in the lower social classes). Many of the children had psychiatric or parapsychiatric admissions prior to their drug use. There was no significant relation between these admissions and their parents' psychiatric hospitalizations.

The expected relationship between both lower social class and broken homes and multiple hard drug misuse was found. There was no correlation between the percentage of schizophrenics among these hospital-admitted drug misusers and their parents' psychiatric admissions. Schizophrenics had a significantly lower percentage of broken homes than the other misusers, which can be explained by the fact that schizophrenics who become involved with drugs are quite different from other drug misusers, both in symptomatology and in social background.

It seems that hard drug abuse and lower social class are more strongly related to poor adjustment; in the follow-up study those who had been involved with hard drugs were more likely to be unemployed.

### CONCLUSIONS

The parents interviewed were cooperative and seemed to be well-informed about their children, except for their misuse of drugs. The features which the interviewer had expected to find in the parents, however, were not found. It is impossible, from the results of this study, to state the factors which could form the basis for a program of prevention. A number of the psychiatric and social factors which are usually found with increased frequency among the parents of deviants were found frequently among these parents. However, the socio-economic distribution was clearly different from that which is usually found in the parents of deviants, because there was an overrepresentation in both the highest and lowest social classes. This finding seems to be due to the spread of drug abuse in Denmark from the highest to the lowest social classes.

A higher incidence in the highest social classes was found, compared to the results of studies from a number of other countries. This should be seen in light of the fact that psychiatric units are better integrated in the total hospital system in Denmark than in many countries. Generally, it can be stated that the children who came from the higher social classes used drugs less and had less severe problems than the children from the lowest social classes. Caution should be exercised in interpreting this observation, because the possibility exists that children from higher social classes were admitted to the hospital sooner with less advanced and less severe drug problems than those from the lower social classes. The follow-up data shed some light on this problem. The prognosis was found to be best when high social class and less severe misuse occurred together. Among hard drug users, those from the highest social classes had less severe problems than those from the lowest social classes.

Hirsch, Robert. Group therapy with parents of adolescent drug addicts. Psychiatric Quarterly, 35: 702-710, 1961.

DRUG	Opiates
SAMPLE SIZE	4
SAMPLE TYPE	Parents
AGE	Adults (40 to 50 years of age)
SEX	1 Male, 3 Females
ETHNICITY	White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York City
METHODOLOGY	Case Studies
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Observations
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1958
NO. OF REFERENCES	7

### SUMMARY

A review is presented of the psychiatric literature on disturbances in the parent-child relationship that often engender adolescent drug addiction. The author presents 4 case histories outlining parent/adolescent conflicts as evidenced in therapy. It was hoped that the group helped individuals see their conflicts, and that others at Riverside Hospital would be stimulated to work with mothers and/or fathers of drug addicts.

The pattern which emerged included an unhappy marriage; narcissistic mother; the child a narcissistic extension of the mother; sons who were infantilized and rejected by mothers when their demands were not met; and generally passive fathers.

### CASE STUDIES

Four individuals who were parents of narcotic addicts participated in 25 sessions of group therapy at Riverside Hospital.

Case 1 was a short, 47-year old Roman Catholic who felt extremely inferior and tried to compensate through his often meager accomplishments. He expressed considerable anger toward his son; he had competed with his son and saw the son's addiction as a blow to his own self-esteem.

Case 2 was a 40-year old woman with a complicated marriage. She was partial to an older daughter and fostered competition between her son (the addict) and the daughter. She had 5 brothers who depended on her; this was seen as a clue to her relationship with her son.

Case 3 was a 47-year old, Jewish saleswoman with a chronically ill husband. She seemed to be an angry, repressed woman, much afraid of her husband. She verbalized her guilt, and became aware of her own role in her son's addiction.

Case 4 was a 50-year old, Catholic housewife who related in a passive, dependent manner. She was unable to recognize her hostility toward her son and usually appeared helpless.

### CONCLUSIONS

These were disturbed people who had much to do with their children's choice of symptoms - the use of narcotics.

One consistent pattern emerged: an unhappy marriage reluctantly entered into by the woman who was ambivalent toward her children. The child was a narcissistic extension of the mother. The parents allowed themselves to be intimidated by the narcotics user. The mother reacted with rejection and aggression when the addict did not gratify her narcissistic needs. The child was found to be like the mother in many ways. Both mother and child gave a history of being powerless before a rejecting mother.

Fathers were generally passive and offered little in terms of identification with their male children.

These parents of drug users were intimately involved with their children's psychopathology. Their tremendous guilt acted as a motivating force in therapy.

The author felt that while group therapy may not be the answer to the problems of drug addiction, it would be worthwhile to further investigate this approach.

Wolk, Robert L., and Diskind, Meyer H. Personality dynamics of mothers and wives of drug addicts. Crime and Delinquency, 7(2):148-152, April, 1961.

DRUG	Opiates
SAMPLE SIZE	3-4 and families
SAMPLE TYPE	Parolees
AGE	Not Specified
SEX	Male
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York State
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Observations
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	November 1, 1956 - October 31, 1959
NO. OF REFERENCES	0

### SUMMARY

As part of the Special Narcotic Project, Division of Parole, in New York, parole officers observed relatives of paroled addicts who were living with their families. The purpose of the experimental program was to determine the efficacy of casework treatment with families as well as addicts. A special quality of emotional debility was observed as an aspect of mutual dependency between son and mother or wife. The relationship was characterized as having all the destructive effects of parasitism but none of the advantages of symbiosis.

## METHODOLOGY

Due to the emphasis laid on casework with the addict's family by the Special Narcotic Project of the New York State Division of Parole, the Project's consultant psychologist (Wolk) and 4 parole officers observed the personality of the mothers and wives of addicts. The caseload comprised 344 parolees who were living with their families.

## FINDINGS

The mother, regardless of economic status, was found to be neurotic, overprotective and masochistic. She encouraged and prolonged her son's dependency on her, even accepting abuse, commonly manifesting very inconsistent behavior. She contributed heavily to the poor adjustment of the addict. Observations supported findings by the New York University Institute of Human Relations that in many cases of adolescent drug use the father was absent, or weak. In some cases separation was caused by the emotional imbalance of the mother. Mothers would sometimes compete with therapists and negate their efforts to benefit the addict. The mother herself was not resistive to therapy, or the influence of caseworkers. It was found to be preferable to begin treatment of the mother before the return of the addict to the home.

Some wives deserted their addict husbands. Those who did not were of two types: (1) not aware of their spouses' addiction prior to marriage, or married to someone who began drug use after marriage; and (2) aware of addiction prior to marriage. Type 2 was often emotionally disturbed herself, having an unconscious need for an addicted, incompetent husband. She took a dominant role, resembled the addict's mother in personality, and frequently clashed with her.

## CONCLUSIONS

- Both wives and mothers of addicts would benefit from treatment but there is a general lack of treatment facilities and personnel. Correctional facilities in California and New Jersey have set up group counseling programs. These are staffed by parole and probation officers selected, trained and supervised by therapists. Such programs could be established more widely, either providing separate groups for addicts, mothers and wives, or integrated groups with all 3. Hospitalization of the addict is not enough, for

he will eventually return to family and community. The authors see addiction as symptomatic of underlying personality disorganization largely to to faulty family relationship. They advocate treating the cause, not merely the symptom.

Attardo, Nettie. Psychodynamic factors in the mother-child relationship in adolescent drug addiction: A comparison of mothers of schizophrenics and mothers of normal adolescent sons. Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics, 13(4):249-255, 1965.

DRUG	Heroin
SAMPLE SIZE	129
SAMPLE TYPE	Parent-Child
AGE	Adults
SEX	Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Not Specified
METHODOLOGY	Comparative
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Not Specified
NO. OF REFERENCES	14

### SUMMARY

This study investigated the symbiotic aspects in the mother-child relationship of drug-addicted adolescents and compared them with mothers of schizophrenics and mothers of normal sons. It was hypothesized that the symbiosis would clearly differentiate among these 3 groups of mothers. An "S" scale devised by the investigator was used to measure this dimension. The results supported the hypothesis as predicted: the mother-son symbiosis is a clear-cut differentiating factor in adolescent heroin addiction and may be

a major predisposing factor. Similarities were noted, however, between the schizophrenic group and the normal group on several parts of the scale.

### THEORY

A hypothesis was formulated that there are psychodynamic factors in the relationship between mothers and their addicted sons which are peculiar to this group; moreover, that the mother-child symbiosis would differentiate between the mothers of addicts, mothers of schizophrenics and mothers of normals. It was further hypothesized that the mothers of schizophrenic sons would resemble the mothers of addicts in having higher scores than mothers of normal sons. To test these hypotheses, 3 groups of mothers were compared: a group of 28 mothers of drug addicted sons (experimental) were compared with 2 control groups, 41 mothers of schizophrenics and 60 mothers of normal sons, between the ages 16-25. Data was compared on the following variables, obtained in a series of several interviews: socio-economic status, religious affiliation, marital status, age and education of mother, and age of son.

Since there was no appropriate instrument available to study the dimension of symbiosis, an "S" scale was devised, with items developed in terms of psychoanalytic psychology. The items were arranged in 4 parts, covering the major phases of psychosexual development from birth through adolescence. The items were designed to reflect the major dynamic components of symbiosis, such as ambivalence, clinging, narcissism, masochism, and mother's fear of object relationships. Five judges, psychoanalytically oriented and familiar with the field of addiction, agreed that the items were appropriate and relevant, and measured the essential dimensionality of symbiosis. The 103-item scale was then administered to the 3 groups of mothers used in the present study for item analysis. The final scale of 38 items resulting from item analysis of the 103 items had a KR 21 reliability of .77.

### CONCLUSIONS

The data supported the hypothesis that the mother of the addict is clearly different from the mother of the normal son. However, the hypothesis of no difference between the mother of the addict and the mother of the schizophrenic was not upheld; the mother of the addict is significantly different -- more symbiotic -- than the mother of the schizophrenic, but when mothers of schizophrenics were compared with mothers of normals, they showed similarities.

There were no significant differences among the 3 groups during the early developmental phase of the child's psychosexual growth (from birth to age 5). All 3 groups showed a similar degree of symbiosis, so that for this stage the questionnaire did not reveal any differences in the mother-child relationship. From age 5-10 the mothers of normal sons and the mothers of schizophrenics were apparently able to loosen their symbiotic tie to their children; the mother of the addict was apparently not able to do this. For age 11-16, the differences among the 3 groups became more sharpened. The data indicated that the mother of the addict becomes more fixated in her symbiotic tie to her child. The mother of the schizophrenic shows more symbiosis than the normal group, but still not as much as the addict group. Since the normally symbiotic relationship decreases progressively as the child grows older, the differences found indicate that the mothers of addicts and, to a lesser extent, the mothers of schizophrenics, seem to be fixated at an earlier phase of the mother-child symbiosis. The data concerned with the mother's symbiotic needs indicated that the addict group had a higher mean score, but the difference between the schizophrenic and normal group was not statistically significant.

The implication of these findings is that the mother-child symbiosis is a clear-cut differentiating factor in adolescent narcotic addiction and may be a major predisposing factor to this form of pathology; if symbiosis represents a powerful dynamic in adolescent addiction, then the mother, too, must be included in the psychotherapy process along with her son, for his treatment and rehabilitation.

Rosenberg, Chaim M. 'The young addict and his family. British Journal of Psychiatry, 118(545):469-470, April, 1971.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	87
SAMPLE TYPE	Siblings
AGE	Adolescents (13-25)
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Sydney, Australia
METHODOLOGY	Comparative
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Not Specified
NO. OF REFERENCES	1

### SUMMARY

Thirty-five adolescent addicts were compared with their full siblings with respect to relationship to both parents, physical and psychiatric illnesses, and childhood neurotic and anti-social traits.

It was found that the addicts had shown more personality disturbances, serious neurotic and anti-social traits. Over one-third of the parents and siblings also manifested serious disorders, indicating their addiction is symptomatic of a wider family problem.

## METHODOLOGY

The author visited the homes of adolescent addicts (intravenous use of amphetamines and barbiturates) whom she had previously examined in the hospital. The parents were interviewed regarding home background and their children aged 13 and over. Thirty-five addicts (aged 14-21, mean 17.2 years, 26 male, 9 female) were compared with 52 full siblings (aged 13-25, mean 17.8 years, 30 male, 22 female). Information was provided from 27 mothers alone, 3 fathers alone, and 5 mothers and fathers together.

## FINDINGS

Three homes were located in slums, 20 were in working class areas and 12 in middle class suburbs. In 15 homes where the fathers were absent, conditions were poor. In 16 families, affecting 21 parents, there was a history of parent psychiatric ill-health. A good relationship with the father was enjoyed by only 37% of the addicts, but 55% of the brothers and 60% of the sisters. Over 90% of all addicts and siblings had a good relationship with the mother. Fifty-seven percent of the addicts, but only 12% of the siblings had had serious and long physical illnesses. Addicts had had more moderate to severe neurotic symptoms than their male, but not their female siblings. One-third of the addicts had manifested shyness, tantrums, dependency, and nervousness, but differed significantly from siblings only in shyness. Almost 1/2 of the addicts had 6 or more anti-social traits before age 15, compared to 7 of the brothers and 1 of the sisters. Twelve of the 52 siblings had received psychiatric attention or had been institutionalized, with 8 others showing severe symptoms.

Male relatives (fathers and brothers) showed behavioral disorders including alcohol and drug abuse, while mothers and sisters manifested neurotic or depressive symptoms.

## CONCLUSIONS

The author relates the higher degree of personality disturbances of the addicts to their greater hostility toward the father, plus an overdependent bond to the mother. Since the study showed over one-third of the parents and older siblings were also disturbed, the author concludes that addiction is symptomatic of a broader family problem, rather than a mere manifestation of the adolescent's personality disturbance.

IV. - HORATIO ALGER'S CHILDREN:  
PARENTS AS MODELS

Blum, Richard H., et al. Horatio Alger's Children: The Role of the Family in the Origin and Prevention of Drug Risk. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972. 327 pp.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	211 Families
SAMPLE TYPE	Parent-Child
AGE	Cross-Age
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Black, Mexican-American, White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	California
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews, Observations, Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1968 to 1971
NO. OF REFERENCES	223

### SUMMARY

The study was concerned with the extent to which families influence illicit drug use by their children, and the possibility of predicting such drug use. The research group assumed that characteristics of families and special features of the individual members of families are associated with the degree to which children use illicit drugs. To test this general expectation, 211 families from Black and Mexican-American populations, from poor, middle-class and upper-class White backgrounds, and young hippie families in San Francisco, were studied. Interviews, individual self-ratings, observations in

natural settings and in psychiatric treatment, and videotaped experimental situations were used as methodological tools. Families were classified as low, middle, or high risk, based on a measure of the children's drug use. This measure was derived from the lifetime experience of each child, as reported in direct, private interviews, and supplemented or modified by reports of siblings and parents. Comparative and clinical studies were carried out, including intensive clinical studies of 13 families and case studies of 10 hippie families.

The investigators concluded that it is possible to make satisfactory predictions of children's drug risk from analysis of information available within the family and pertaining to parental beliefs and conduct. Factors most strongly associated with children's drug risk had to do with family income, family political preferences, mother's and father's religiosity, mother's and father's alcohol use, mother's acceptance of youthful self-expression and rebelliousness, the hierarchy of family values, and the rejection or acceptance of authority by the child as viewed by the parents. Using the long-form predictor developed in the study (176 items), the investigators would expect to predict low or high drug risk correctly about 80% of the time from family characteristics in unknown middle-class families. Using the short-form predictor (13 items), they estimate correct prediction of children's low or high drug risk could be achieved in 75% of unknown middle-class families.

The study report includes a lengthy consideration of factors which may be related to children's illicit drug use, such as family variables (e. g., child rearing practices, parental authority, emotional health, class, politics, Machiavellianism, family psychopathology, neurophysiological-biochemical links between parent and child) and external variables (e. g., peers, school, environmental stress, drinking, delinquency, religion). Previous research in these areas is reported. The study concludes with recommendations for education and action in terms of drug risk drawn from discussions with 282 non-sample parents and community leaders. The investigators conclude that drug education does not consist in the mere accumulation of scientific or historical data; these are components, but the "essence is faith in a certain way of living . . . Drug education is then a family process which transmits the age-old wisdom, 'Love thy neighbor as thyself.'"

## METHODOLOGY

### Calculating the Degree of Family Drug Risk

The conception of risk included medical, social, and legal outcomes which had in common only the fact that a young person used a psychoactive drug without medical approval. The definition included

estimates for the future as well as events of the past; that is, some kinds of drug use were considered risky even if no unhappy outcome was reported by the child or the family. For the pretest classification, a family was considered high risk if any child in that family showed (1) compulsive use of alcohol or tobacco, or both; (2) any use of LSD, opiates, cocaine, or special substances; (3) regular illicit use of barbiturates, amphetamines, tranquilizers, and marijuana; or (4) any bad effects from the use of any of these. The middle risk families were those with occasional illicit use of any of these drugs; and the low risk families were those showing no use, by any of the children, of any substances (other than alcohol or tobacco) without medical prescription.

After the pretest, weights were assigned to the kinds of drug use reported for each of the psychoactive drugs employed. Each child in each family received a cumulative score based on the number of points assigned. Scores were possible for alcohol, tobacco, tranquilizers, sedatives, stimulants, cannabis (marijuana or hashish), hallucinogens, opiates, cocaine, and special substances (gasoline, glue, paint thinner, nitrous oxide, amyl nitrate, asthmador, etc.). A very high correlation from pretest results in the White, middle-class families (correlation coefficient of .92) showed that alcohol and tobacco use levels and outcomes did not contribute much to family ranks and these were discarded in classifying families. Classification was then based on illicit use scores only. For White, middle-class families, the same scoring procedure was used but families were normalized. The sum score of each child was divided by the number of children in that family who were 13 years of age or older. Children under 13 were excluded after it was found that no child under 13 in the study had used any illicit drug other than alcohol or tobacco. In the White, middle-class study, families were grouped on the basis of their relative standings in the final distribution of risk scores for all families. The highest possible risk score (excluding alcohol and tobacco) was 83. The lowest scoring family (low risk) had a score of 0; no child had any risk score at all. The highest family scored 150; their children 13 and over averaged a risk score of 15 out of a total possible high risk score of 83. The distribution of families was divided into approximate thirds; the actual cutting points were made wherever there were breaks in the score continuum. There were 33 low risk families, 29 moderate risk, and 39 high risk.

Since false reporting of drug use was suspected among the Black children, the arrest record of each child was checked. Two young Black men were hired to "nose around" to identify the kind of crowd each child belonged to and whether or not there was talk of illicit drug use, and the parents were asked to report their children's histories of arrest, hospitalization or accidents.

## Selecting the Families

White middle-class families: those residents of the same area were chosen who had at least 1 college-age child, both mother and father living at home, high school-age or younger siblings living at home. Families were selected by taking a complete sample of all undergraduates who attended a major university and who listed local addresses. These students were randomly contacted and screened to see if they met the criteria.

The original criteria for selection of other families in the study were revised when they could not be met, (i. e., intact families with one child in twenties or late teens, other children at home; and for low-income White families an income of under \$8,000 per year). The original method for selecting families (whole-block census work) was also replaced with family case finding through known institutions and agencies, local residents, newspaper advertisements and mass mailings.

### The Sample

White middle-class families: 101, classified as 33 low risk, 29 moderate risk and 39 high risk.

Blue collar White families: 23, classified as 11 low risk and 12 high risk.

Blue collar Black families: 20, classified as 10 low risk and 10 high risk.

Mexican-American families: 20, classified as 10 low risk and 10 high risk.

Hippie families (or mother-child constellations): 23 intensive studies.

### Data Collection

Interviews and ratings were conducted by using a pretested schedule for which interviewers had been trained for reliability. No single interviewer saw both the child and the child's family. To prevent interviewer bias based on a knowledge of the children's drug use, the drug history taken from each sibling in the family over the age of 5 was delayed until all other interviews had been completed. Families were not classified until all interviews were completed.

In the White middle-class sample, the original interviewer's reliability was checked 1 year later against a videotape experimental session with 13 of the original 101 families. On 15 rating areas (which involved over 1200 possible agreements or disagreements) there was agreement 83% of the time between the original interview and the videotape experimental session.

Interviews took place in the home. Included were individual sessions with 1 parent (usually the mother), a family-together session, a dinner-together session, and individual interviews with each resident sibling. Families were usually seen over a period of 4 weeks, involving at least 3 home visits.

There were 2,071 inquiry and rating areas, including questions, ratings, descriptive choices, and forced choice rankings.

## FINDINGS

### White Middle Class Families

High risk families differed significantly from low risk families, with the moderate risk families falling in between (but more similar to the low risk group). High risk families were less religiously involved; put less emphasis on child rearing, belief in God, and self-control; gave greater freedom to children; formed less cohesive family groups; showed more evidence of alcohol and medication use; and generally demonstrated more permissive attitudes. High risk parents emphasized the child's adjustment, individuality, freedom, exploration, and change. Low risk families gave priority to discipline, family togetherness, love of God and country, support for authority and the status quo. Low risk families were more satisfied and had far fewer problems than high risk families.

### Individual Factors Predictive of Drug Risk Among White Middle Class Children

Although family factors accounted for most of the differences between high and low risk drug use among children, within some families the children themselves differed. Individual children 13 years or older (no illicit drug use was found in the children in this group under 13) were distributed along the drug risk score continuum from low to high, and were compared. Most of the features that discriminated groups of individuals also discriminated between low and high risk families, showing that family variables had the major prediction power and individual variables were complementary to the family ones. High risk children were characterized by early health problems, behavioral problems at meal time and at school, mild conduct disorders and a lack of self-confidence and parental uncertainty. High risk children reflected a self-centered philosophy of life and had learned anti-authoritarian values from their parents. Low risk children had learned obedience to authority, self-control and little self-indulgence from their parents; they were not as ambitious, scholarly or focused on their own self-understanding as the high risk children.

### Blue Collar White Families

The absence of differences between low and high risk families in this group was striking. The differences that did emerge were compatible with previous findings. High risk families tended to be disharmonious, permissive, and liberal, and the mothers tended to use social and prescribed drugs. High risk mothers were dominant, not confident in their child rearing, had diverse interests, and were less family-centered. Low risk parents stressed obedience, respect, love of parents, self-control and belief in God. A minority of cases reported bad outcomes with drug use.

### Blue Collar Black Families

The families were similar: intact, Protestant, Democrat, employed fathers, respectable. The low risk families demonstrated a wide diversity of interests, sharing of power, liberalism in a few value areas, and early trust in children to make their own decisions. Low risk families were conservative, religious, exercised quiet discipline, had few family conflicts and produced children who got along in school, with the police, and who were polite and cooperative. High risk parents seemed to be incompetent as parents, and were simultaneously punitive, hostile, indifferent, seductive, naive and mocking in their relationships with their children. More than 50% of the sample reported bad outcomes with drug use.

### Mexican-American Families

All families were poor and shared similar cultural values. Low risk families had insightful, confident, flexible and affectionate mothers, and active, communicative, authoritative fathers. Low risk children had early, strict standards for conduct. High risk mothers were more upset, less acculturated to Anglo ways, more ritualistic than low risk mothers. High risk families were discordant, undirected, unhappy, attached to television, drugs or the excitement in the outside world. Low risk families had accommodated to Anglo ways but kept their family-centered tradition.

### Hippie Families

The investigation of hippie families was pervaded with methodological difficulties, both in the experimental design and in locating families to participate in the study. Data indicated that the use of LSD during pregnancy was related neither to the mother's capacities for mothering nor to the child's health and mental status. Drug use was extensive in all families; drug use per se did not prevent adequate mothering nor lead to developmental, mental or adjustment difficulties in the children. Neither the hippie status nor the drug use were necessarily permanent; some mothers were undergoing change in a conventional direction. All children in the sample

were normal on motor and mental development. The investigators' expectations, that a sample of young parents heavily involved in drugs would produce many examples of inadequate parents, was not supported. The expectation that hippie families would transmit drug use to their children by direct exposure and value teaching was supported.

### CONCLUSIONS

The authors conclude that the family is the crucial source of children's behavior. The peer group, contrary to what is commonly believed, has little or no influence as long as the family remains strong. Peers take over only when parents have abdicated, and parents will tend to abdicate if family life and values are demeaned. The authors see the extended clan where grandparents still play an important part as an excellent family; in these families children can learn love, understanding, forgiveness, and appreciation by watching parents interact with their own parents. Youth who suffer no drug risks have discovered that the values worth living by are self-respect and respect for others and kindness and responsibility to the family and to oneself.

It is pointed out that the data reported in the study should not be used to make value judgments about families and children. For instance, low risk children may emphasize control and obedience but are not strong on scholarship, self-understanding or flexibility in a changing world. Although they are reliable, honest and sensible, and may make no mistakes because they venture nothing, the times demand that at least some citizens be capable of innovation, flexibility, skepticism and uncertainty.

Robbins, Lillian, et al. "College Students' Perceptions of their Parents' Attitudes and Practices toward Drug Use." Paper presented at 42nd Annual Meeting, Eastern Psychological Association, New York, April 15-17, 1971. 8 pp. (ED 053 422).

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	12,142
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	Adults
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	New York Metropolitan Area
METHODOLOGY	Survey
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1968
NO. OF REFERENCES	14

### SUMMARY

In 1968 a survey was made of 12,142 students from 20 colleges in metropolitan New York to examine differences between users and non-users of medicinal substances and illicit drugs. Questionnaires covered demographic factors, patterns of use, reasons for use or non-use, side effects experienced, opinions and attitudes. The present paper presents student responses to questions about their parents' attitudes and practices. Findings showed that students using marijuana or other illicit drugs saw their parents as both using more drugs and tolerating more than students who had never used or had ceased to use drugs. The data confirmed the

presence of a relationship between students' behavior and their view of their parents' practices and attitudes.

### METHODOLOGY

The students were divided into 5 groups: (1) current users of illicit drugs, (2) past users of illicit drugs, (3) those who had used medicinal substances such as amphetamines, barbiturates, analgesics, anti-depressants or tranquilizers, (4) those who used analgesics only, and (5) those who used nothing.

Students indicated parental attitude on a Likert Scale (1-5), and parental use (1-3) of alcohol, cigarettes, amphetamines, barbiturates, analgesics, tranquilizers, and anti-depressants, as well as marijuana, LSD, other psychedelics, heroin, opium, methadone, and cocaine.

### FINDINGS

Alcohol and cigarettes, in that order, were perceived as most approved by all, followed by tranquilizers for groups 1, 2, 3 and 5, and analgesics for group 4. Marijuana users perceived more tolerance for marijuana than for anything else other than tranquilizers, while users of amphetamines perceived more tolerance for them than marijuana. Current marijuana users perceived greater parental tolerance in general than the rest of the sample. LSD and heroin were uniformly seen as highly disapproved of. The greatest range of responses appeared for analgesics, tranquilizers, and marijuana.

Students showed great certainty of parental attitude toward alcohol, cigarettes, and illicit drugs, but much less toward medicinal substances. Males perceived parents as more highly differentiated in their approval than females. Students were more certain of their parents' practices regarding drinking, smoking, and using illicit drugs than regarding medicinal substances. Cigarettes and alcohol, followed by tranquilizers, were reported as most used by parents. Anti-depressants, barbiturates, and amphetamines came next. All groups reported that marijuana, psychedelics, and heroin were used by very few parents.

Tranquilizers, analgesics and amphetamines were reported used most often by parents of group 1. Alcohol and cigarettes were both most used and most approved for student use; LSD and heroin were least. But marijuana, while rarely used by parents, was not seen as highly disapproved of. This was especially true of group 1, which

reported their parents as preferring it to amphetamines and barbiturates.

### CONCLUSIONS

Students are more certain of their parents' use of alcohol or cigarettes than of their use of medicines or other drugs. Student reports may reflect their own rationalizations or their parents' acceptance of a fait accompli. However, the data suggest that students tend to see a similarity between their own behavior and attitudes and those of their parents. Parallel data from the parents would be needed to establish the accuracy of the students' perceptions.

Losciuto, Leonard A., and Karlin, Robert M. Correlates of the generation gap. The Journal of Psychology, 81:253-262, July, 1972.

DRUG	Marijuana
SAMPLE SIZE	2, 362
SAMPLE TYPE	Students
AGE	Adolescents
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Black and White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Pennsylvania
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	April 28, 1969
NO. OF REFERENCES	5

### SUMMARY

In 1969, 2,362 high school students in Pennsylvania were given a questionnaire to be self-administered. The questions concerned different social attitudes and behaviors, and were asked in order to determine correlates of student dissent and alienation. A scale measuring the perceived amount of agreement with parents on 15 social issues was used to establish criterion groups of extremely high and extremely low dissident students. These 2 groups were then compared on a number of demographic and attitudinal variables.

The strongest predictors of dissidence were sex and grade in school. Male students and students in higher grades were more likely to be highly dissident than females and students in lower grades.

In addition, it was found that among the most dissident students were those who spent little time with their parents. They also tended to feel more separated from adults in general, and were more inclined to reject traditional sources of advice and comfort, such as religion.

### METHODOLOGY

During the week of April 28, 1969, self-administered questionnaires were completed by 2,362 students in 54 high schools across the state of Pennsylvania. The main aim of the study was to measure the generation gap, and to compare on a number of demographic and attitudinal variables the adolescents for whom the gap is relatively large with those for whom it is practically nonexistent.

### FINDINGS

The greatest degree of total agreement with parents was found among students in health related issues such as smoking marijuana and cigarettes, and drinking alcohol. There were only three items for which more students expressed total disagreement than expressed agreement. They were: homework, spending money, and hair style. In general, the students in the sample exhibited more harmony than discord with parental viewpoints, and that the questions on which there was most disagreement may be less important than those on which agreement was highest. A small but consistent minority of students reported complete disagreement with parents over a variety of issues.

The general notion that males tend more often to be in disagreement and conflict with parents, while girls tend to be more acquiescent and family-oriented, is substantiated in this study.

Blacks and Catholics tended to be somewhat, though not significantly, more dissident than Whites and other religious groups.

The greatest degree of dissidence was expressed by males and upperclassmen. The dissident group was also characterized by a significant degree of physical and psychological alienation, especially from other family members.

### CONCLUSIONS

The fact that degree of dissidence increases with each year in high school would seem to infer that alienation, so often associated with college youths, may have its beginnings earlier than would have been expected. If efforts are made to reduce alienation, it would appear that those efforts might begin earlier in the home and in the school.

The authors felt that no concrete conclusions could be drawn concerning the ultimate achievements and adjustments of these adolescents, or about ways in which they might differ from their predecessors.

Smart, R. G. and Fejer, D. Relationships between parental and adolescent drug use. In: Keup, Wolfram, ed. Drug Abuse: Current Concepts and Research. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1972. pp. 146-153.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	8568
SAMPLE TYPE	Student
AGE	8568 Adolescents
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Ontario, Canada
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1970
NO. OF REFERENCES	3

### SUMMARY

Assuming that drug taking as a form of mood modification could be a behavior learned in the family environment, this investigation hypothesized that:

- both illicit and licit drug use will occur more frequently in families where parents use psychoactive drugs.
- the heavier the parental use of psychoactive drugs, the more likely the adolescent's use of licit and illicit drugs.

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The hypotheses were based on several premises: (1) a previous study which demonstrated that more adolescent users of marijuana and LSD had parents who used alcohol and tobacco than was expected; (2) the fact that the present generation of parents is the first to have major problems with adolescent drug use and the first to have a wide variety of psychoactive drugs legally available; and (3) a 1968 survey by Parry which demonstrated that 25% of the American adult population is currently using a psychoactive drug.

Two surveys were conducted with a total of 8,568 adolescents in Ontario, Canada, in 1970. The students were asked about their own drug use and their perception of their parents' drug use.

Cross-tabulating the results for mothers and fathers separately with the results for students showed an apparent positive association between drug use of parents and their adolescents. The relationship held for parental use of psychoactive drugs, tobacco and alcohol, and for adolescent use of psychoactive drugs and hallucinogens. The association was closer for mothers than for fathers; the association was closest when parents and adolescents were using the same drug.

### METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate the relationship between parental and adolescent drug use, two surveys were conducted in 1970 in the province of Ontario, Canada. A total of 8,568 students completed questionnaires regarding their own use in the six months prior to the survey of alcohol, tobacco, marijuana, hashish, solvents, barbiturates, opiates, speed, stimulants, LSD, tranquilizers and other hallucinogens. The students also answered questions about their mothers' and fathers' use of alcohol, tobacco, tranquilizers, stimulants and barbiturates (sleeping pills). They were asked to describe their mothers' and fathers' use as "never," "less than once a month," "every day," "nearly every day," or "don't know."

The first student sample included 5900 rural and urban students in grades 9-13 from Lincoln and Welland counties, representing a 25% random sample of public high school classes in the two counties. The second group, representing a 20% sample of urban and suburban high schools in Toronto, included approximately 120 students chosen at random from each of grades 6, 7, 9, 11 and 13.

The drug use questions had been matched against a second method of estimation and considerable confidence was placed in them (see Smart, R. G. and Jackson, D. A Preliminary Report on the Attitudes and Behavior of Toronto Students in Relation to Drugs. Toronto: Addiction Research Foundation, 1969). The questionnaire also covered certain demographic and social factors.

In both surveys each of the four parent use questions was cross-tabulated with the twelve student use questions for mothers and fathers separately. The data from the two surveys were then combined for further analyses, since association patterns were identical.

### FINDINGS

The results for student drug use showed that tobacco and alcohol were the most commonly used drugs. The students' rates of drug use were as follows, the first number representing Lincoln and Welland counties, the second Toronto.

Tobacco: 40.6% and 30.4% had smoked in past 6 months; half of these smoked more than 20/week

Alcohol: 70.3% and 52.9%

Marijuana: 12.4% and 14.5%

Hashish: 10.8%; (not included in Toronto survey)

LSD: 8% and 7.2%

Glue: 7.6% and 4.1%

Opiates: 3.6% and 3.5%

Speed: 5.6% and 4.1%

Other Hallucinogens: 5.6% and 6.4%

Tranquilizers: 10.1% and 7.6%

Barbiturates: 5.8% and 3.8%

Stimulants: 9% and 5.8%

The results for student-reported parental drug use showed a statistically significant relationship between student and parental drug use in both surveys for both mothers and fathers. For every drug examined, parents who used drugs frequently had children who also used drugs frequently. Parents who were infrequent or non-drug users had children who were more likely to be nonusers. The relationships reported in the study are summarized here:

1. Parental drug use compared to children's drug use:
  - The heavier the mother's use of tranquilizers the more likely the child was to use all drugs studied except alcohol and tobacco.
  - The more frequent the stimulant use of both parents, the more likely the drug use of their children. (Except for alcohol and tobacco.)
2. Student marijuana users and non-users compared to parental drug users:
  - 29% of the users vs. 16.5% of the non-users had mothers who used barbiturates.
  - 15% of the users' mothers vs. 7.3% of the non-users' mothers used stimulants.
  - 31.7% of the users' mothers vs. 17.3% of the non-users' mothers used tranquilizers.
  - 18.4% of the users' fathers vs. 8.4% of the non-users' fathers used tranquilizers.
3. Student tranquilizer and barbiturate drug use compared to parental use of psychoactive drugs:
  - 56% of the student tranquilizer users had mothers who used tranquilizers.
  - 34.7% of the student tranquilizer users vs. 7.5% of the student non-tranquilizer users had fathers who used tranquilizers.
  - 48.1% of the student barbiturate users had mothers who used barbiturates and 26% had fathers who used barbiturates.

The study includes one table on frequency of mothers' tranquilizer use and the extent of their children's drug use.

### CONCLUSIONS

The authors conclude that an apparent positive association was shown between drug use of parents and their adolescents. The association was closest where parents and adolescents were using the same drug and closer for mothers than fathers.

The concluding hypothesis is presented that students are modeling their drug use after their parents' use. Since it is clear that much adolescent drug use occurs in families where maternal pill use is common, it is suggested that parental drug use may need to be reduced before adolescent drug use can be reduced.

The implication for treatment of adolescent drug users is family therapy rather than individual or group therapy.

Mellinger, Glen D. Psychotherapeutic drug use among adults: A model for young drug users? Journal of Drug Issues, 1:274-285, October 1971.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	1,164
SAMPLE TYPE	General Suburban Population
AGE	Adults
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	98% White
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Contra Costa County, California
METHODOLOGY	Survey
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1969
NO. OF REFERENCES	6

### SUMMARY

The study investigated whether the use of psychotherapeutic drugs by older adults provides an example for drug use by young adults. Data were obtained from a cross-section probability sample of adults aged 18-74 in suburban Contra Costa County east of San Francisco. The study ascertained the extent and the prevailing patterns of drug use. These differed noticeably among older as compared with younger users. The 18-29 age group did not emulate patterns found among subjects 30 and over. The implications for the use of other drugs (particularly marijuana) showed that use of psychotherapeutic drugs per se was not related to marijuana use. Unconventional patterns of obtaining these drugs were related to marijuana use, the conventional pattern was not.

## METHODOLOGY

Personal interviews were conducted with a cross-section probability sample of 1,164 suburban adults, aged 18-74 from Contra Costa County. The community was chosen since comparative data were available from the central city of the area, San Francisco, and accurate census records permitted selection of a typically suburban sample. The sample population had characteristics regarded as typically suburban:

1. 47% of the males commuted to work outside the county.
2. 37% were in the 30-44 age group.
3. 61% were married with children.
4. 45% lived in a household with an income of at least \$15,000 per year.
5. 29% had a college degree.
6. 61% were Protestant.

Interviews averaged 1-1/2 hours in length, and dealt with the use of psychotherapeutic drugs as well as the social and personal traits (health, medical practices, attitudes, and values) of respondents. Procedures were pretested, rapport established, and a validity study comparing self-reports of use with pharmacy records showed good results.

Psychotherapeutic drugs studied included prescription drugs such as stimulants, sedatives, minor and major tranquilizers, antispasmodics, antidepressants, and hypnotics, as well as over-the-counter (OTC) drugs marketed as sleeping pills, stimulants, or tranquilizers.

## FINDINGS

Regarding prevalence of use during the past year, it was found that the drugs most used were prescription minor tranquilizers (18%), stimulants (13%), OTC sleeping pills (10%), prescription hypnotics (8%). A relatively large number of women (25%) used minor tranquilizers. This was twice as many as in the San Francisco study. Women were more frequently users than men for all classes of drugs except OTC stimulants. Twenty-nine percent of the subjects obtained drugs from conventional medical sources, 10% from non-medical sources (friends or relatives), 17% used OTC drugs. In all, 46% had used one or more prescription or OTC drugs.

Women were more likely to use psychotherapeutic drugs than men. More than twice as many obtained these medically, but both men and women were almost equally likely to use OTC drugs or prescription

drugs from a non-medical source. This was similar to the San Francisco findings. Men, however, were more likely to use alcohol.

Extent of involvement with drugs was examined. For each user, the one drug most used during the past year was selected. For 54% this was the only drug used. Heavy involvement was defined as daily for at least one month, daily for 6 months, 31 or more intermittent occasions, 2 or more different drug classes or 3 or more different drugs. Only 6% of all subjects were daily users for 6 months or longer, 13% were daily users for one month or longer. Another 6% were intermittent users 31 or more times. With a total of 19% of the subjects using drugs for the equivalent of one month or longer, these findings did not support the claim that we are a society of "pill poppers."

Drug source was found to be related to degree of involvement and classes of drugs used. Three models of drug use were distinguished.

The "Conventional Medical Model" (6 out of 10 users) involved the use of prescription drugs obtained exclusively from a medical source, fairly frequent occurrence of regular daily use for a month or more, and a greater use of minor tranquilizers than stimulants (52% vs. 28%).

The "Informal Model" (2 out of 10 users) involved use of prescription drugs from non-medical sources such as friends or relatives, fairly widespread use of various drugs and drug classes, but seldom regular daily use, and greater use of stimulants than minor tranquilizers (57% vs. 42%).

The "OTC Model" (2 out of 10 users) involved use of over-the-counter drugs only, a low level of involvement, and use of sleeping pills (57%) rather than stimulants (40%).

It was found that the majority of users aged 30 and above relied on the Conventional Medical Model, while those younger used the Informal (42%) or OTC (25%) Models to obtain drugs. Patterns of drug use among the young differed importantly from those of older users. The young were more likely to use stimulants than tranquilizers; only 18% of users 18-29 had taken a drug daily for a month or more vs. 44% of those aged 60-74; younger subjects also used drugs less frequently on an intermittent basis, and did not tend to become involved. There is little evidence that use of drugs by older persons provides a model for the young.

## CONCLUSIONS

Young adults rejected the Conventional Medical Model to obtain drugs, in the kinds of drugs used, and to the extent to which they became involved. They did not emulate the older generation.

The results showed patterns that relate to the use of other drugs by the young, particularly to marijuana. Those aged 18-29 who conformed to the Conventional Medical Model were found to be slightly less likely

to have used marijuana during the past year than those who used no psychotherapeutic drugs at all. Marijuana use was most frequent among those young people who obtained prescription drugs informally (63% vs. 11% in the Conventional group).

The authors conclude that it is not the use of psychotherapeutic drugs per se that ~~appears to be~~ related to marijuana. Rather, unconventional patterns of obtaining psychotherapeutic drugs were strongly associated with use of marijuana. These findings are consistent with those of the earlier San Francisco study.

V. DEVELOPMENTAL FACTORS:  
CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES

Pittel, Stephen N., et al. Developmental factors in adolescent drug use. A study of psychedelic drug users. Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry, 10(4):640-660, 1971.

DRUG	Cannabis; Hallucinogens
SAMPLE SIZE	250
SAMPLE TYPE	Volunteer
AGE	18-26
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	San Francisco, California
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews, Questionnaires, Laboratory/Examination
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	Not Specified
NO. OF REFERENCES	33

### SUMMARY

Researchers at the Haight-Ashbury clinic in San Francisco studied 250 psychedelic drug users between the ages of 18 to 26 who volunteered for a study of developmental factors responsible for adolescent drug use. Information was obtained from questionnaires, interviews, autobiographical material and psychiatric examinations.

In general, subjects came from middle- to upper-middle-class environments, were intellectually bright, had declined in academic performance and become isolated from their peers.

Although they showed no symptoms of neurosis, psychosis, or character pathology, they did demonstrate impairment in ego functioning, perhaps due to the traumatic familial experiences that the subjects experienced in their childhood. These traumatic experiences had deprived the children from experiencing the harmony usually associated with the latency period. Drugs may have offered the subjects the peace and harmony that they missed in the latency period. The need to study more closely the frequency, severity, and rate of stressful childhood events to determine how they affect ego functioning was pointed out.

### METHODOLOGY

Two hundred and fifty subjects volunteered for the present study. All were paid one dollar per hour for their participation. Subjects were recruited from the Haight Ashbury district, referred by community agencies, or referred by friends who had themselves participated in the study.

Ninety-five percent were between 18 and 26 years, with a mean age of 22 years for males and 20 years for females.

Generally both males and females had used, at least on an experimental basis, 13 different psychoactive drugs. Twenty-five percent of the subjects had experimented with or used 18 to 29 different drugs. Marijuana and psychedelic drugs were preferred, although subjects had experimented with amphetamines, barbiturates, cocaine, codeine and heroin. The pattern of drug use for the subjects included daily use of marijuana or hashish, with less frequent use of LSD, mescaline and other psychedelics.

Data on developmental histories and backgrounds of the subjects were obtained from questionnaires, personal interviews, written autobiographical material, and psychiatric examinations.

Contact was maintained with a majority of the volunteers for two to three years.

### FINDINGS

The data on family background showed that the study subjects primarily came from middle- and upper-middle-class families, the majority from urban or suburban areas (67 percent). The subjects and their parents had attended, on the average, at least one year of college; 25 percent of the mothers and 30 percent of the fathers had obtained at least a bachelor's degree. Over 90 percent of the fathers were employed; their occupations ranged from skilled to professional and executive positions. Almost 50 percent of them were in administrative or semi-professional jobs. Nearly 40 percent of the mothers had been employed on a part-time basis while the subjects were children.

Subjects' ranking of parental traits and practices showed parents as having high expectations for their children, encouraging achievement, and tolerating independence and right of self expression. These data do not parallel those found among the young heroin user, the young alcoholic, or the juvenile delinquent. Rather, they parallel more closely the middle-class American student.

Subjects were characterized by high intelligence (median IQ score of 119 on the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (n=40) ). They also demonstrated high academic achievement, although their grades became progressively worse in high school and college.

### CONCLUSIONS

The authors described two factors which they felt were the basis for the subjects' drug use. (1) Subjects shared a feeling of loneliness and a deep sense of isolation from others. (2) Subjects were exposed to a high degree of stress and trauma throughout their childhood. They had great difficulties in forming relationships with peers, believed to be related to inadequate familial relations or to the superior intellectual capacity which made subjects feel "different" from others.

Because of familial pressures and the chaotic state of their childhood, behavioral and psychological problems may have arisen in adolescence which led to the use of drugs.

The findings were consistent with other studies of the young drug user. However, in contrast to most other theorists who place the cause on intrapsychic conflict, the authors felt that deficits in ego function led to drug use.

Due to stresses throughout childhood, the subjects developed impairments in reality testing, judgment, concentration and other ego functions. Because of these chaotic experiences the subjects never experienced a moratorium from stress that is associated with the latency period. The psychedelic experience may act as a substitute.

The authors stated that more attention should be focused on the severity, frequency and rate of childhood traumatic events to understand how they affect ego functioning in later life.

Pittel, Stephen M. Drugs and the adolescent experience. Journal of Drug Issues, 1:215-236, July, 1971.

DRUG	Hallucinogens
SAMPLE SIZE	250
SAMPLE TYPE	Youth - Heavy Drug Users
AGE	Adults ( 18 to 26 years of age)
SEX	Both Male and Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	San Francisco, California
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews, Observations, and Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1967 to 1970
NO. OF REFERENCES	0

### SUMMARY

In this paper the author considers three separate, but related, topics. The article first deals with the research carried out at the Haight-Ashbury Research Project which explores the drug experiences of a group of young people heavily committed to drugs. Next are presented the possibilities of applying the results of research with this group to research with youngsters that are less intensely involved in the contemporary drug culture. Finally, a number of suggestions are offered in the areas of education, treatment, and prevention.

## METHODOLOGY

Two-hundred fifty subjects were studied for a three year period. They ranged in age from 18 to 26, with a median age of 21 for males and 20 for females. The subjects were part of the "hippie movement" in the Haight-Ashbury section of San Francisco, but the majority of them came originally from other large urban centers throughout the country, with the exception of the Deep South and the Southwest. The subjects were characterized by the author as an especially privileged group, representative of middle and upper class American youth. Interviews were conducted with these subjects regarding their experiences with psychedelic drugs and their attraction to the drug culture. Data pertaining to I. Q. level and family background were also gathered.

## FINDINGS

It was found that during the psychedelic experience several perceptual alterations commonly occurred. Color perception was brighter and more subtle in hue. Loss of boundaries and apparent fusion of objects and persons occurred, and a synthetic experience, by which sound was often perceived as if it were a color, was common.

The individuals involved in the study often grew up under conditions of fragmentation, over-stimulation, disorganization, and confusion. The young drug users often had a relatively high impairment in their ability to organize and understand the world in which they live. It was also noted that the adolescent today has to contend with a greater awareness of social problems. In many cases the subjects were so weighed down by unpleasant experiences that they were unable to daydream or fantasize without the use of drugs. They were found to have had a feeling of differentness and loneliness in considering their relationship to other human beings.

## CONCLUSIONS

The author concluded that these youngsters were attracted to drugs because drugs seemed to help them to synthesize what had previously been fragmented. Drugs also seemed to fill a need to share a community of experiences, one which need not be transmitted in words. Dangers were seen in the use of drugs to block the usual healthy or pathological ways of attempting to solve problems. Drugs tend to blunt necessary patterns of coping, maturing, and relying on the strengths of one's own potential.

Regarding prevention and education, the author emphasizes reaching children in the latency age, between 6 and 12, before they have been exposed to drugs. He would not focus on drug education, but would instead attempt to help children to develop confidence in areas which lead particularly to the continued use of drugs. The author suggests involving children in games which will help them to deal with frightening or overwhelming problems, whether they be personal, social, or political.

Hartmann, Dora. A study of drug-taking adolescents. Psycho-analytic Study of the Child, 24:384-398, 1969.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	12
SAMPLE TYPE	Treatment (outpatient)
AGE	15-25
SEX	10 Male - 2 Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Not Specified
METHODOLOGY	Case Study
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews, Observations, Questionnaires
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	1967-1969
NO. OF REFERENCES	37

### SUMMARY

This paper reported the findings of a Study Group formed by some members of The American Association for Child Psychoanalysis, which tried by microscopic studies of individual cases to supply some answers as to why a great number of young people, in spite of the "fashion" of acting out in groups and cultural-sociological pressures, resist the temptation to take drugs. The study investigated psychological factors which make an individual either decline taking drugs, take them once and never again, experiment a few times with them, or become more and more involved with them.

An analysis of 12 therapy patients led to the conclusion that none of the study findings could be called pathognomonic for drug users or drug addicts.

### METHODOLOGY

A great variety of cases was reported to the group. A questionnaire was worked out to bring some order into the data collected and to concentrate study on the questions of primary interest: 1) the underlying psychological development and dynamic reasons for the strong impulses of adolescents to become more or less intensely involved with the taking of drugs, 2) the unconscious meaning and the different effects various drugs have on gratifying or inhibiting impulses, in strengthening or in weakening defenses, 3) the ego structure of youngsters who need a constant supply of drugs and the changes in the ego of those who depend completely on drugs, 4) the interpretation of the meaning of the drugs to these youngsters and the possibility that the interpretations, aimed at giving them understanding, would diminish the need for drugs.

This questionnaire was based in part on some of the headings in Anna Freud's Developmental Profile (1962) as modified by Laufer (1965) for adolescents. Questions were added which it was hoped would throw some light on the drug experience itself. It was hoped to compare: 1) similarities and differences in the parents' background--especially in its relationship to the development of their children, 2) similarities and differences in the adolescents--their own libido, aggression, and superego development, their ego functioning, affect and object relationships before and after their experiences with drugs, 3) similarities and differences in their experiences--onset, conscious and unconscious motivations, genetic determinants, the course of drug-taking, its relationship to other symptoms and to the treatment. The answers thus obtained in 12 cases were compared and studied in detail. This group included 10 boys and 2 girls ranging in age from 15 to 25, the majority being about 19 years. They all belonged to the middle or upper-middle class; either they themselves or their parents could afford private treatment. The method of treatment that had been employed in the series of 12 cases was either psychoanalysis (in 7 cases) or psychoanalytic psychotherapy (in 5 cases). The duration of the treatment was from 9 months to 5 years.

### FINDINGS

There seemed to be more pathology among the mothers than the fathers in the background information on the patients. Infantile libido and superego development prevailed among the mothers; with regard to aggression, the fathers seemed to show more controlled, the mothers more uncontrolled aggression. With regard to the parents' relationship to their children, only one mother and two fathers were considered adequate. Seductive behavior was more prevalent among the mothers; inconsistency and distance,

more among the fathers. Drug-taking was found very frequently among the siblings in the group. Ten of the youngsters were characterized as orally fixated (or regressed) in their libido development; they appeared much more pathologic than the 2 who took drugs only occasionally or transiently as a rebellious acting out against the parents or analyst.

Nearly half (5) of the 12 cases started on drugs during their treatment, which indicated that drugs were easily available as a means of acting out in the transference and alleviating conflicts or symptoms brought out in treatment through the revival of early memories and traumatic childhood situations and through the re-experiencing of early object relationships in transference. The conscious motivation for the use of drugs was, in a few cases, the desire to experiment; in most others, it was the wish to avoid painful affects (depression), alleviate symptoms, or a combination of these factors. Among the unconscious motivations (in addition to oral gratification and passive identification with a parent) the need to replace a lost object seemed to play a very important role. Three patients had lost one of their parents in childhood; another one had lost his mother due to divorce, and a fifth one lived alone with his mother until he was 2 years old. Among the genetic determinants, many of these youngsters had to face death, a severe illness, an operation on one of their parents, or themselves had had a severe illness or operation as children. Traumatic histories led to disturbances in the early object relationships and in the early ego development of these patients.

Only 3 youngsters showed no change in their drug-taking pattern during their treatment. All the other patients either stopped taking drugs when their early object relations were understood and worked through, or started taking drugs when an early traumatic situation was remembered or repeated in the transference; or they stopped at a certain point and started again when frustrations could not be tolerated. Usually these changes could be understood and analyzed.

Eight of the patients finished their treatment. Of these, 3 were successfully analyzed; 2 of them worked through the neurotic aspects of their drug-taking and stopped using drugs altogether; 1 experimented with drugs during his analysis and continued to do so, but without it becoming a real problem. Five dropped out or were dropped from treatment, "because drugs were much more important to them than gaining insight into and understanding of their conflicts, or because they could not tolerate the frustrations of treatment and of their lives without alleviating their symptoms in an artificial way." Four cases were still in treatment, 3 of them in classic analysis; 2 had stopped taking drugs.

## CONCLUSIONS

None of the findings of this study could be called pathognomonic for drug users or drug addicts. Neurotic patients, whether or not they take drugs could also have infantile mothers. A mother's seductive behavior might lead to a boy's passivity, sexual disturbances, learning difficulties, and neurotic symptoms either in combination with or without drug-taking. The same can be said about adolescents who show oral fixations and regressions. These factors are not specific to drug-taking. Early traumata such as severe illness and operations, or the loss of a parent during childhood, can be found as causative factors in disturbed adolescents--drugs or no drugs. Low frustration tolerance, depression, and difficulties in establishing mature object relationships are characteristics and symptoms seen frequently during this period of life--drugs or no drugs. Even though these considerations make it clear that none of the data on symptoms, character structures, childhood experiences, background, etc., can by themselves explain the wish or imperative need for drugs, it was felt that what significant factors the case material would disclose might be of interest, to make it possible for other psychoanalysts treating drug-taking adolescents to compare findings.

Rosenberg, Chaim, M. Young drug addicts! Background and personality. The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 148(1): 65-73, 1969.

DRUG	Multi-Drug
SAMPLE SIZE	50
SAMPLE TYPE	Drug Addicts
AGE	Adolescents and Adults (12-30)
SEX	35 Male and 15 Female
ETHNICITY	Not Specified
GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	Sydney, Australia
METHODOLOGY	Exploratory/Descriptive
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	Interviews, Laboratory/Examination
DATE(S) CONDUCTED	February through October 1967
NO. OF REFERENCES	22

### SUMMARY

The purpose of the study was to learn about the background and personality of young drug abusers, and to determine any causal factors for the use of drugs.

Data were obtained from 50 drug addicts under the age of 31 in Sydney, Australia. Information was received from interviews, psychological tests, and school records.

Most of the subjects belonged to the "hippie" subculture and used a variety of drugs for their euphoric effects. The majority came from homes disturbed by alcoholism, mental illness and broken marriages. As a result the subjects developed personality problems, including immaturity, passivity, difficulty in handling anxieties, and sometimes, sexual deviation.

Psychological tests showed that the subjects scored high in anxiety and neuroticism. The author suggests that drug abuse occurred among young people from deprived backgrounds who had personality disorders.

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was to investigate the background and personality of drug addicts to determine any causative factors that may be involved in their dependence on drugs. A drug addict was defined by the author as "a person who, as a result of repeated administration, has become dependent on the effects of a drug, has an overpowering desire to continue taking the drug and shows a marked tendency to increase the dose." Investigation is further for the purpose of determining any causative factors that may be involved in addicts' dependence on drugs.

The author selected 50 subjects who were currently under treatment at various medical centers. Only those subjects fitting the author's definition of drug addict were included in the sample. All subjects were 30 years of age or under, with the mean age being 20.4. There were 35 males and 15 females.

Information was obtained by means of interviews, psychological tests (Eysenck Personality Inventory, IPAT Anxiety Scale, Raven's Progressive Matrices), and school records.

### FINDINGS

The patients divided into 2 broad categories: (1) those adolescents who associated with other drug takers, who identified themselves as "hippies", and who used various drugs (e. g. , amphetamines, LSD, marijuana) for their euphoriant effects; and (2) those older, solitary drug takers who were dependent on barbiturates, and whose dependence developed gradually over the years.

Only 24% of the drug addicts' fathers, and 18% of the mothers, continued their education beyond the age of 14. Seventy-six percent of the fathers were unskilled, semi skilled or skilled workers.

Seventeen of the fathers and 4 of the mothers were heavy drinkers or alcoholics. There was a history of mental illness in 18 of the 50 families.

Only 50% of the subjects had attained the age of 15 with both their natural parents living at home. In 38% of the families there was a history of divorce, separation, or desertion.

Nearly 50% (23) of the subjects stated that their mothers were kind but poor disciplinarians, and 23 of the subjects stated that their fathers were disinterested or rejective. In addition, 25 of the subjects said they had been unhappy during their childhoods.

Prior to taking drugs, a little over half of the subjects had a moderate degree of personality disorder characterized by abnormal dependency, withdrawal or hostility in their relationship with others. Twelve subjects were classified as psychopaths. Most of the subjects complained of difficulties in their relationships with others, including shyness, inadequacy, anxiety and feelings of hostility.

The author found the subjects to be passive, immature, and "less masculine". He stated that many subjects' interests lay mainly in the arts; and that many of them considered themselves literary-oriented.

The mean results of the psychometric testing are found in the table below.

TEST	YOUNG ADDICTS	NORMS
E. P. I. Form A:		
Neuroticism	15.0	9.1
Extraversion	12.2	12.1
	(N=49)	(N=2000)
IPAT Anxiety Scale	44.6	27.1
	(N=48)	(N=935)
Raven's Progressive Matrices (raw score)	42.6	43.3
	(N=40)	(N=888)

The mean neuroticism scores for the addicts were above the norm, but the extraversion scores did not differ significantly between the 2 groups. The IPAT shows the addicts had a high anxiety level, and Raven's Progressive Matrices test indicates that the subjects were of average intelligence.

### CONCLUSIONS

The author stated that domestic instability and lack of parental control could account for the personality weaknesses of the subjects. He also felt that because of their homosexuality, passivity and artistic interests, the subjects felt alienated from society and formed their own drug-taking subculture where they gained a sense of belonging and relief from their feelings of anxiety.

The author suggested that serious abuse of drugs mainly occurred among young people from deprived backgrounds who had poorly integrated personalities characterized by immaturity, passivity, and difficulty in handling anxiety.

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## INDEXES

The numbers in the indexes refer to the unique identification code found in the upper right-hand corner on the first page of each abstract. Roman numerals reference categories from the Table of Contents; Arabic numerals reference abstracts within categories. It should be pointed out that a given index term refers to an entire abstract rather than to pages within an abstract.

The keyword terms selected for the indexes are those terms used in the literature; no terms were inferred. The most specific term was used whenever possible. Thus, some material on marijuana will be found under that term but other material may be found under the term cannabis. Similarly, studies of heroin use may be indexed under heroin but also under opiates.

For convenience to the reader, the indexes have been divided into the following five sections:

### Drugs

Includes general and specific names of all drugs mentioned in the abstract, as used by the authors of the document.

### Sample Types

Terms which describe as specifically as possible the sample population studied.

### Geographic Locations

Organized by state, the location where the study was carried out; includes also names of universities, schools, drug programs, committees, etc., in the order in which they occur in the abstracts.

### Subjects

Terms which describe the subjects or concepts of the studies; included also are names of specific data collection instruments, evaluation tools, and questionnaires.

### Authors

All authors named in the citation to each abstract are listed in the author index; however, this does not include all authors of the materials abstracted since documents with more than two authors have been cited with et al.

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