

Meaning (1984), named one of the 10 most influential books by general readers in a 1991 Library of Congress survey, the striving to find meaning in one's life, what Frankl called the will to meaning, is the primary motivational force. In contrast to the atheistic existentialists (e.g., Sartre, Camus, and de Beauvoir) who claimed that life has no meaning, Frankl, as a religious existentialist, believed that one must create meaning in life. Such meaning is unique and specific; it can and must be fulfilled by a person and only by the individual person. Although meaning may vary from person to person and from moment to moment, Frankl described three kinds of values that could be actualized in order to create meaning in one's life: creative values, experiential values, and attitudinal values.

Creative values are actualized by creating something, such as doing a good deed or by taking pride in one's work. One actualizes experiential values by finding meaning in a moment, by appreciating the beauty in nature or in a work of art or a piece of music, or by appreciating the uniqueness of another person through love.

Attitudinal values are actualized by realizing that no matter how dire circumstances are or how little one can do to change a situation—such as when imprisoned in a concentration camp—one can take a stand toward such conditions. That is, one can choose to face the inevitable, such as suffering or death, with dignity: "Human life under any circumstances never ceases to have a meaning . . . this infinite meaning of life includes suffering and dying, privation and death," he wrote in *Man's Search for Meaning* (p. 90), which chronicles his personal experiences. (It was originally subtitled *From Death Camp to Existentialism*.)

Frankl witnessed and wrote about instances of prisoners finding meaning in their lives and dying with dignity, as well as many instances of prisoners succumbing to the degradation of their conditions. Frankl's brother, parents, and wife were killed in the death camps. He himself found meaning in his own concentration camp experience by choosing to help other prisoners find meaning in the final moments of their lives.

If the will to meaning is frustrated, a person may experience a type of spiritual sickness, as opposed to a psychological disorder or a physical illness, called noögenic neurosis, or existential frustration. Noögenic neurosis is frustration in existence itself, in finding the meaning of existence, or in striving to find a concrete meaning in personal experience. This frustration at not being able to see meaning in one's life may be experienced as boredom or depression, and is manifested in escapism, materialism, hedonism, or addictions.

Logotherapy, therefore, is a type of philosophical therapy rather than traditional psychotherapy based on Frankl's philosophy. The therapist helps an individual

to create his or her own personal meaning of life and to see meaning in all human life. Happiness comes as a by-product of finding meaning: "[It] must ensue. It cannot be pursued," Frankl says in his book *The Unconscious God* (1975, p. 85).

Although Frankl corresponded with both Freud and Adler, he disagreed with both and went on to found his own philosophy and therapy. His ideas have had great impact on the practice of psychotherapy and especially on pastoral counseling, prison counseling, AIDS counseling, and suicide prevention and recovery.

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Marianne Miserandino

FRANZ, SHEPHERD IVORY (1874–1933), American neuropsychologist. Franz was a pioneer in both basic neurobehavioral research and clinical neuropsychology. He was the first (1902) to combine experimental brain ablations in animals with experimental behavioral testing. He is recognized as being the first (1904) to establish a psychological laboratory in a hospital (McLean Hospital, associated with Harvard Medical School), although Franz attributed that accomplishment to Edward Cowles, his superintendent at McLean; see the dedication in Franz's *Handbook of Mental Examination Methods* (New York, 1912). Franz was the first (1907) to implement routine psychological testing of patients in a psychiatric hospital (St. Elizabeths, then known as the Government Hospital for the Insane, Washington, D.C.), and his *Handbook*, intended for use with psychiatric patients, was among the first of its kind. He was also among the first psychologists to address rehabilitation of neurologically damaged patients.

Franz received his Ph.D. degree at Columbia University under James McKeen Cattell in 1899. Franz's neurological and clinical interests, which remained prevalent throughout his career, developed during his

appointments to teach physiology at the Harvard (1899–1901) and Dartmouth medical schools (1901–1904). His animal research investigating the role of the cerebral cortex in learning and memory resulted in his strong theoretical opposition to his contemporaries who argued for localization of brain function. Franz sarcastically referred to their views as the "New Phrenology" (*Science*, 1912). His antilocalization viewpoint influenced his protégé Karl Lashley, who began doing brain research under Franz's supervision in 1915, to develop the principles of mass function and equipotentiality (e.g., *Brain Mechanism and Intelligence*, Chicago, 1929). Franz's and Lashley's theoretical views also influenced Franz's clinical work: for example, equipotentiality (one cortical area can substitute for another) implies the potential for reeducation (see Franz's book cited below) of lost functions following brain damage.

Franz was hired in 1907 as the psychologist at St. Elizabeths Hospital, and he eventually became Director of Scientific Laboratories. In his early years at St. Elizabeths, he and Superintendent William Alanson White, an eminent psychiatrist, got along well, and Franz worked nationally to promote cooperation among psychologists and psychiatrists. Such work, including publications devoted to this cause, resulted in his being made an honorary member of the American Medico-Psychological Association, later renamed the American Psychiatric Association. Over the years, Franz's and White's relationship deteriorated. They began to have theoretical differences when White's early enthusiasm for scientific research yielded to his commitment to psychoanalysis, but it was Franz's being held responsible for minor infractions by subordinates in his administrative charge that resulted in his abrupt demotion, significant salary reduction, and quick resignation in 1924.

Meanwhile, Franz's research and publications including the *Handbook* and textbook, *Nervous and Mental Re-Education* (New York, 1923), helped establish him as the first clinical neuropsychologist in the United States. The latter textbook grew largely out of Franz's assignment, as the government's top psychologist, to address the needs of brain damaged veterans returning from World War I. The book also addressed rehabilitation associated with disorders such as poliomyelitis, tabes dorsalis, cerebral paralysis, speech defects, and psychoses.

Concurrently with his St. Elizabeths appointments, Franz had professorships in physiology and psychology at George Washington University, and, following his resignation from St. Elizabeths, he quickly accepted a faculty position with the newly established University of California, Los Angeles. He chaired the department of psychology and the committee that planned the establishment of UCLA's Graduate School. Franz Hall was opened in 1940 to house UCLA's Psychology Department.

Franz was also chief of the Psychological and Educational Clinic at Children's Hospital in Hollywood.

Franz's final books, *Psychology* (New York, 1933) with Kate Gordon and *Persons One and Three: A Study in Multiple Personalities* (New York, 1933), were published in the year of his death, caused by amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Persons One and Three*, according to reviewer H. Meltzer (*Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1934), differed from previous works on multiple personality in being "largely on a descriptive, observational level." Franz avoided speculative Freudian and organic explanations, preferring to explain the observed dissociations in terms of specific amnesias which, in this patient, had begun during military service in World War I.

Franz was well recognized during his career as editor of *Psychological Bulletin* (1912–1924) and *Psychological Monographs* (1924–1927) and associate editor of *Journal of General Psychology* (1927–1933). He was president of the American Psychological Association (1920), the Southern Society for Philosophy and Psychology (1911), and the Western Psychological Association (1927–1928), and he was a Fellow in the American Medical Association and in the American Association for Advancement of Science.

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