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THE EDUCATIONAL LEADER

EDUCATION and PSYCHOLOGY
NUMBER

Published by the Faculty of the
KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
PITTSBURG, KANSAS

Vol. 1

JANUARY, 1938

No. 2



A heavy sleet storm during the night of January 7, 8, 1937, transformed the campus of Kansas State Teachers College into a fairyland of arctic splendor.

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The Educational Leader

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Some Aspects of the Youth Problem

CLAUDE WINSHIP STREET

Among the most vital problems facing the nation today are those which concern the welfare of American youth. The depression has created crises in the care and education of young people which existing institutions are not prepared to meet. Changes in social and economic conditions not only have greatly intensified the problems of our schools "but also have created an urgent need of protection and further education for millions of youth whom the schools are not now reaching."¹ These conditions constitute a real threat to the national welfare.

The discovery of youth as a distinct age-group in our population is one of the by-products of the depression. Youth is now commonly recognized as comprising all young persons within the age range of sixteen to twenty-four years. The census of 1930 showed that the number of youth was slightly over twenty

million or approximately one-sixth of the total population.

John Fiske, years ago, noted the gradual extension of the period of childhood as civilization advanced. Time was when boys went to war at fifteen and girls were ready for marriage by twelve. Life was simple and prolonged preparation for adulthood unnecessary. The hard struggle for existence forced upon youth the full responsibilities of life at an early age. A hundred years ago, children as young as ten were obliged to work long hours in factories and mines. Today all this is changed. Society no longer requires the services of young persons. For hundreds of thousands of persons steady employment is not available under eighteen or twenty years of age. In fact, occupational adjustment is not completed for many until the twenty-fourth year is passed.

There has thus emerged a gradually lengthening period between childhood and adulthood which has come to be designated as the period

¹"Highlights on America's Youth Problem." *School Life*, December, 1935.

of youth. It covers the eight-year span from sixteen to twenty-four.

It has become clear that this age-group has been subject to a special number of problems relating to personal, social, and vocational adjustments. Many of these are of a baffling nature and are interfering seriously with a smooth and easy transition from childhood into a satisfying and well adjusted adulthood.

The depression did not, as some suppose, create these problems of youth, but it did intensify them and make them more difficult to solve. Fortunately the depression also focused the attention of the public on the seriousness of these problems. As a result, numerous surveys and many studies have been undertaken for the purpose of helping young people to make better adjustments to life.

Foremost among the organizations which are making a scientific study of the problems of young people is the National Youth Commission.² This was established in 1935 under the auspices of the American Council on Education. The Commission has been granted a half-million dollars to cover the expenses of a nationwide, five-year program. A part of its work consists in cooperating with other agencies in gathering, organizing, and giving out information already available. Dr. Homer P. Rainey, ed-

ucator and writer of note, is director of the organization. Two reports have already been issued and others are forthcoming.

One of the most fundamental aspects of the youth problem arises out of the employment situation. Under present trends young persons are finding it increasingly difficult to secure employment. This is due partly to the large increase in the proportion of employable adults in modern society, resulting from decreased birthrates and increased expectancy of life. In 1870 there were fifty-seven youths, fifteen to twenty-four, to every one hundred adults, twenty-five to fifty-nine; today there are only forty youths to every one hundred adults. This means that youth encounters more competition than formerly for available jobs.³

Another significant element is the attitude of employing agencies toward hiring young people. In a recent study of this factor among 230 large employer organizations, the National Industrial Conference Board found that employers preferred the age of eighteen as the minimum age for employment in offices and factories.⁴ A further evidence of the trend is seen in the action of labor unions in setting twenty-one as the minimum age for beginning apprentices in many instances.

The records which are available on unemployment also emphasize

²Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1937.

Homer P. Rainey and Others. *How Fare American Youth?* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937.

³Rainey and Others. *Ibid.*, pp. 6-7.

⁴Homer P. Rainey. "What is the American Youth Problem?" *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. November 1937, p. 20.

the handicaps of youth in securing jobs. The age-span from sixteen to twenty-four covers only a fifth of the average working lifetime. Yet youth constitute a third of all the unemployed. Of those youths counted as employed, many, perhaps a third, really work only part time. Forty per cent of employable youth are finding it impossible to secure even part-time or temporary jobs. The larger proportion of these comes from those under twenty years of age. More than two-thirds of the sixteen-year-old group out of school and wanting work have been unable to secure it.⁵

The seriousness of the situation is further revealed by the fact that many, perhaps two-thirds, of the unemployed under twenty, have never been regularly employed since leaving school. Large numbers of these have been out of school and unemployed for two or more years. They constitute the group so often referred to as "the lost generation."

This wide gap between school and the first job represents one of the major problems in the welfare of youth. In commenting on this problem, Dr. Homer Rainey says: "Under the operation of our compulsory school laws, virtually three-fourths of all youths sixteen years of age are in school. After that age, however, youths begin to drop out of school in great numbers, and three-fourths of all youths eighteen years of age are out of school. Thus we have a steadily widening gap be-

tween the completion of school and the beginning of employment Studies indicate that this gap between school and employment for many youths extends to two, three, and in extreme cases to four or five years."⁶

Another factor respecting the employment problem of youth is that young persons in many cases are having to seek types of work which formerly would not have been considered acceptable. Jobs open to the high school graduate, today, are largely below the occupational level to which high school graduates have usually aspired. To secure jobs, they are obliged to do simple manual labor or other unskilled work such as factory work or domestic service. In a Minnesota study, it was found that over twenty-five per cent of the girl graduates of that state in 1934, who secured employment the following year, were working as domestics or as waitresses.⁷

It is undoubtedly true that with the vast increase in the numbers of boys and girls attending high school too many young people are looking forward to professional or white-collar occupations. For example, forty-six per cent of the 1933 graduates in Milwaukee listed professional occupations as those which they preferred.⁸ Yet less than seven per cent of all gainfully employed persons are in the professional class and most of the pro-

⁵Rainey, "What is the American Youth Problem?" op. cit., p. 21.

⁷Rainey and Others, op. cit., pp. 25-26.

⁸Ibid., p. 27.

⁶Rainey and others. Op. cit., p. 34.

fessions are seriously over crowded. The opportunities in the non-professional white-collar jobs of the more ambitious kind are not much better. A recent survey in Rochester, N. Y., reveals the sad plight of the high school trained youth of that city. Quoting from the report: "Those who were able to find themselves work of a professional or supervisory or managerial nature were in most instances less than one per cent of all who became employed. In other words, about one student in a hundred who leaves high school for any reason, eventually becomes a 'brain worker' or a 'boss'."⁹

...Various surveys have pointed out the reluctance of youth to accept distasteful work. In reporting the findings of the Denver Survey of 1935, Dr. Rainey says, "Over 1,000 youth sixteen to twenty-four who were in full-time employment were asked whether their work was the kind they desired; the number who said it was not reaches the astonishing proportion of 71 per cent."¹⁰

In view of these facts our schools are facing a serious dilemma. Modern industry is organized in such a way that jobs in increasing numbers require little or no formal training. To quote Dr. Rainey again: "Our employment system is requiring finer and higher skills for fewer and fewer people; for the vast majority of jobs, workers can be prepared in a period of from a few weeks to six months. On the other hand, in our

educational program we are steadily enrolling a larger and larger percentage of the population in our schools, and we are giving our people better training. Thus we are faced with the situation of training more and more people for better and better things and sending them out to seek employment in a system that requires less and less of that which the schools can accomplish; it seems that for the vast majority of workers in the future their jobs will be merely routine, operative types of employment requiring little or no skill or special training and offering little satisfaction ... If this is true, it means further that the great body of workers must seek their major satisfactions in life outside of their employment ... "¹¹ Young people are not to blame for wishing to avoid poorly paid work of a drudgery nature. The solution lies partly in dignifying such occupations and giving them a better social and economic status. The schools, too, can help to remove the stigma which now attaches to manual and other unskilled labor.

The situation calls for a general overhauling of our educational system so as to fit youth better for life in an industrial democracy. Aside from any vocational values, the right kind of an education should assist youth to make adjustments to all aspects of life.

Something must be done to bridge the gap between school and employment. One plan which is

⁹Ibid., p. 28.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 29.

¹¹Rainey, "What is the American Youth Problem?" op. cit., p. 21.

being commonly proposed is that of raising the school leaving age. Since the gap is caused largely by the immaturity of the job-seekers, it could be decreased in a large degree by keeping youth in school until eighteen years of age. Unemployment is considerably greater at sixteen than at eighteen. Youth at eighteen would, therefore, have a better chance of securing employment and would be better qualified through two more years of schooling. It is suggested by some that they be kept in school until twenty, unless suitable employment is secured before that age.

One of the most constructive proposals in behalf of young people, not adequately served by our present educational set-up, is that suggested by a committee of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association.¹² This committee, consisting of twelve prominent educators, has urged the need for a new branch of the state educational program. Through committees in the various local districts working in cooperation with the school authorities, such an agency would be given oversight of boys and girls who had ceased to profit by further school work but who had not yet obtained regular employment. Concerning the work of the proposed new agency, the committee says: "Its oversight should begin with an accurate census of all boys and girls subject to its care. Supervision may

be provided in part through the enrollment of boys and girls in centralized work camps.... There are many boys, however, and there are even more girls, who can be quite as profitably occupied at home or under an occasional vocational apprenticeship system as in special camps.... For boys and girls who cannot on their own account find useful work to do, each such agency should provide appropriate work. The work should be both socially valuable and of a kind which does not compete with the activities of regularly employed adults.... The work should, moreover, be such as to allow each boy or girl to make use of whatever special abilities and skills his previous education may have given him.... Boys and girls employed on such work should be paid a regular wage,.... lower than that paid locally to adults, but large enough to represent a tangible return for the service rendered.... In connection with the work, there should be systematic effort to provide... a kind of learning through experience which the formal school cannot effectively offer."¹³

Dr. Harl R. Douglass proposes a plan which would supplement very well that of the Secondary School Principals Association. Dr. Douglass is the author of the first report of the National Youth Commission. He suggests that all young people be required to continue in school for at least half time until the age of twenty or twenty-one. His thought is that suitable work ex-

¹²Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals. *Issues of Secondary Education*, January 1936.

¹³Ibid., pp. 14-15.

perience or apprenticeship training might be provided on a half-time basis for youth between sixteen and twenty-one who do not continue in full-time school attendance. This would require a more practical type of educational program than that provided by our high schools today. According to Dr. Douglass, this plan has several distinct advantages. "In the first place," he says, "it provides work experience. It makes possible at least some earnings and consequently some participation in the prevailing types of social life. The work experience and increased maturity of the youth would make more meaningful much of the material . . . now taught in schools . . . The period of contacts which may be used for guidance . . . would be extended by two years."¹⁴

One of the most pressing needs in our schools today is the need for an adequate vocational guidance program for youth. Changes in the home and in industry have made the choice of a life-work increasingly difficult. The home has come to provide fewer and fewer opportunities for work experiences which are so necessary to an intelligent occupational choice. As Dr. J. H. Bentley points out: "These young people not only do not work with their parents or see their father at work, but frequently know little or nothing about what he does or where he works and have only a vague appreciation of the vocational base on which the home rests;

work is just something father goes to in the morning and comes home from at night. The result is that the home and home-life no longer contribute vitally to the induction of youth into vocational life."¹⁵

Then, too, rapid changes in industry are constantly going on which profoundly affect employment opportunities, "wiping out old jobs and creating many new ones." Bentley further says, "This increasing complexity and specialization of business and industry make it very difficult, if not impossible for the young person to make, unaided, an intelligent choice of an occupation or to sample various kinds of work save by drifting from job to job."¹⁶

These changes have added greatly to the responsibilities of the school—responsibilities which the school sometimes has not been prepared to meet. While the need for guidance has been realized for years by many of our foremost thinkers, very little has yet been done along guidance lines except in some of the larger cities. Efforts along these lines have been confined too largely to the imparting of vocational information. The experiences of the depression period indicate that guidance should also include placement and follow-up work. There seems to be some question, however, as to whether the placement work should be handled directly by the school or by a pub-

¹⁴Harl R. Douglass, "Our American Youth: Their Plight and a Program." *Journal of the National Education Association*, April 1937.

¹⁵Jerome H. Bentley, "The Vocational Guidance of Youth." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November 1937, p. 34.

¹⁶*Ibid.*, p. 35.

lic employment agency, acting in cooperation with the school.

The National Youth Administration has been experimenting with a plan which represents one approach to the problem of providing youth with special assistance in job-finding. Under its auspices, junior placement offices are now in operation in about 65 cities. In a number of cases, these agencies operate in close cooperation with guidance bureaus in the public schools. This appears to be an ideal arrangement in that it provides "the essential service at the point in the youth's career where it is most urgently required. . . which is just when he leaves school."¹⁷

Another problem of youth is that of providing wholesome social contacts and leisure-time pursuits without undue expense. The mechanization of industry and unemployment have produced a big increase in leisure hours. The average community, however, has made little provision for the suitable recreation of its youth. Harmful commercial amusements flourish because of an absence of proper facilities for inexpensive amusements. Young people do not engage in harmful amusements because they are naturally depraved. They participate in such pleasures in many cases because there is nothing better to do. Thus the night club and the roadhouse are attracting large numbers of our young people.¹⁸ Conditions in these

places are highly demoralizing and often lead to drink and immorality. Unfortunately the roadhouse, located outside the city limits, largely escapes police supervision.

Young people crave social pleasures which cannot be realized in many cases. Our leisure-time amusements have become so highly commercialized that a certain amount of spending money is essential to the happiness of youth. The movie, the dance hall, the automobile, the cabaret, and the night club are highly alluring but involve much expense. For the young girl, permanents, cosmetics, silk hose, new dresses, shoes for various occasions, jewelry, and other fineries—items dear to the hearts of young women—all cost money which is not always obtainable by honest means. For at least a third of our youth the desires of social participation cannot be satisfied through legitimate sources. As a result, young persons in large numbers are turning to crime and immoral practices as the easiest means of satisfying their social desires.¹⁹

The school, the home, the church, as well as other institutions, should do more to develop desirable leisure-time interests. Much can be accomplished through cultivation of interests in art, music, literature, and dramatics. Hobby interests and special interest clubs should be encouraged. Athletic games and sports both indoor and outdoor, which can be continued in adult life, should be used more largely.

¹⁷Rainey and Others, op. cit., pp. 38-39.

¹⁸Mabel A. Elliott, Francis E. Merrill, Dorothy G. Wright, and Charles O. Wright. *Our Dynamic Society*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1935. Chap. 24.

¹⁹Douglass, op. cit., p. 111.

Public provision for recreation should be greatly expanded and made available to all, young and old. The facilities of schools as well as of churches and libraries should be opened evenings for wholesome recreation.

Youth should have a large part in planning, developing, and supervising the recreational program in each community. A good beginning in this direction has been made in some communities.

The annual cost of commercialized recreation in the United States has been estimated at over ten billions of dollars.²⁰ Could not a portion of this wealth be diverted to the development of public playgrounds and recreation centers? Would not such a policy reduce in the end the cost of crime? Studies show that 75 per cent of juvenile delinquency is closely related to the misuse of leisure. It may be cheaper to provide playgrounds today than jails tomorrow.

²⁰Ibid., p. 287.

There are other serious problems confronting youth in America today. The employment and vocational adjustment of youth, the crime problem, and the question as to the wise use of leisure time are but a few of the many pressing problems.

There are many hopeful signs indicating progress in the solution of these important problems. Until quite recently, there has been a steady improvement in the employment situation. The Unemployment Census, recently taken, should furnish much helpful data. It is also encouraging to find that school administrators and leading educators are giving much thought to all aspects of the Youth Problem. The major theme at the Atlantic City Convention of the American Association of School Administrators next February will be "Youth Problems" and the 1938 Yearbook of the Association will be devoted entirely to that subject.

Applied Psychology

CHARLES BERTRAM PYLE

No word puts us under a greater spell than the word "psychology." It is upon the lips of the layman as well as the professional man. Books are crowded with psychological subjects. There are psychological plays. There are innumerable references to psychology in newspapers and magazines. Fields where psychology is applied have multiplied rapidly in the last quarter of a century. More than half of the psychologists are engaged in these applied fields today.

The reason for the increasing popularity of psychology is that it has largely severed its relation with the ancient and honorable subject of philosophy. It has descended from that mount of illumination and has come down to dwell among common folk. It has abandoned speculation for experimentation. Wherever human beings have interests and are concerned, there psychology is present and at work.

We speak of the psychology of education, of medicine, of business, of industry, of advertising and salesmanship, of athletics, of music, of war, of peace, of politics, of law, of the control of the audience, of the radio, of emotions, of sex, of personality, of street and highway traffic, of personnel administration, of propaganda, of crime, of mental hygiene, of writing, and of

fine art. If psychology is whatever the psychologists are interested in, the above fields show the everwidening interests in these late years.

We have time to mention only a few of these realms into which psychology has extended its conquests.

PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION

We can only summarize a few of the results of psychology as applied to education. The science of psychology underlies the art of teaching. Through the impress of psychology the disciplinary concept of teaching has been largely displaced by that of utility. The present trend in education is to enable the student to acquire habits, skills, and attitudes which will be useful in life. The humanitarian subjects are coming to dominate the curricula of our schools—to take the place of Latin and Greek which dominated a quarter of a century ago. The laws of efficient learning are deduced from psychological knowledge. The introduction of the intelligence tests by Binet in 1905 and their application to education a little later have furthered a scientific spirit in education. It is for that reason that these objective measuring instruments have become so popular with all progressive educators. Their uses for organization and administration, for homo-

geneous grouping, for admittance to institutions of higher learning, for vocational selection and guidance, for problems of scholarship and discipline, for discovering aptitudes, for measuring personality traits, for the segregation of borderline and backward children have afforded education some of its most precise techniques of procedure, resulting in a greatly improved social adaptation.

PSYCHOLOGY AND MEDICINE

The relation between psychology and medicine has always been very close. Many of the outstanding psychologists have been students of physiology and of medicine. Tuke gave us a *Dictionary of Psychological Medicine* and Lotze, *Medizinische Psychologie*. Wundt, who established the first experimental laboratory at Leipzig, Germany, in 1879, wrote a physiological psychology and more recently so did Woodworth and Ladd. The late Professor James of Harvard University, the pre-eminent psychologist in American history and famous throughout the world, was an M. D. and gave psychology a definite physiological slant. Medical men, as Janet, Coriat, Sidis, and Freud, wrote our first abnormal psychology and many psychological methods are now employed by medicine and modern psychiatry.

The acquisition of specific techniques in medicine is highly important. But it is just as essential that the physician or surgeon possess a psychological knowledge of the patient. For the surgeon operates not only upon the brain, the foot or the

appendix, but also upon the mind of the patient, relatives and friends, as Crane says. To the degree that he reduces fear and begets confidence, he facilitates the patient's recovery. This is often the major part of the battle he wages against disease. "It is quite as important to know what kind of patient the disease has as to know what kind of disease the patient has." Dr. Campbell of Boston, a great physician and psychiatrist, says, "It is better to think of a physician as a man whose business it is to treat, not symptoms or diseases, but sick people. The patient is more than a group of symptoms, more than a collection of interesting juices; he is a living individual with a most complicated pattern of reactions, and the physician who overlooks this pattern may find the symptoms intractable, the disease unintelligible. Headache may be a reaction to eye-strain, but it may be a reaction to a mother-in-law; pain in the back is sometimes explained by an x-ray plate, but sometimes by unwillingness to work; indigestion may be more closely related to a troubled conscience than to poor cooking; palpitation is not always an indication of organic heart disease—it may be an expression of the romance of life gone astray, not that the situation is always simple; the patient with organic heart trouble may (also) have romantic longings. A bad cook may conspire with a troubled conscience to ruin digestion. The extent to which a man is disabled depends partly on the nature of the disease, but perhaps more on the way he

reacts to it." With the healthiest of bodily organs an under-tow of devastating fear of parental or social disapproval may transform the sunniest disposition into one of morbid dread and gloom. Psychology has made a weighty contribution to the understanding of these factors in the mental sphere.

One of the finest fruits of applied psychology is to be found in the prevention of disease—bodily and mental. The greatest stress in medicine, law, and mental hygiene is placed upon the necessity of "keeping well" rather than "getting well." Psychology has helped to overcome the resistance to preventive measures and is helping to prevent diseases peculiarly mental by providing conditions in which mental disease cannot flourish. It knows that insidious diseases, which often require years to come to full bloom, can be dealt with successfully if treated before they get well under way. It is well known that our reactions to the painful and disagreeable are short-sighted and aim at immediate relief. If we were on the way to the dentist's office with a terrible toothache, we probably would never arrive if the pain should pipe down considerably. The more remote the emergency the less the motivation; as long as our health is good we do not see the value of life insurance. To give it immediate appeal an investment feature or borrowing privilege must be attached. We hesitate in good health to contract for space in the cemetery because it suggests the disagreeable. For the last place we wish

to go is the cemetery. It exerts only a remote control even though it is certain. We put off the writing of our will because it reminds us that the grim specter is close upon our trail and even now may be peeping over our shoulder as we write. Nothing is more certain than that at sixty-five years of age we'll have six out of seven chances of being on the township or in the poorhouse or dependent upon relatives; yet it takes the mandate of 45,000,000 voters and the power of the federal government to compel 26,000,000 workmen to begin to lay the foundations of future security. We are indifferent to poverty, disease, and death because we refuse to consider their possibilities. The calamities which overtake others become to us as a "tale that is told." We cannot realize that anyone "like us ever really was within the tiger's jaws and conclude that the horrors we hear of are but gilded tapestry" for the comfortable couch upon which we are content to lie and dream.

This indifference and fear may be banished by the sale of the idea of disease-prevention as the sale of a refrigerator or an automobile. It is a process of training through salesmanship. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has used psychology to "put across" the idea of disease-prevention. It illustrates how parental affection may be enlisted in the interests of preventive measures. "The business of being a parent is difficult at best. There are days when everything seems to go

wrong—days when the children are so exasperating that you forget what they really mean to you. But at night when you steal quietly in for a last good-night look, how like blossoms they seem—exquisite promises of the future. You dream of the things you hope to do for them—of the advantages you wish to give them—of the gifts you would like to lavish upon them. But has it occurred to you that there is something else that you should be doing for them right now? Today, before it is too late, use the great gifts of modern science to protect your children from disease and to help them become strong and healthy men and women—physically, mentally and morally. Many deadly diseases can be prevented by vaccination or inoculation. Do not risk the blighting of a single blossom.” This is a psychological appeal and aims at an immediate, positive interest rather than a negative and remote one. It makes immediate and powerful appeal to the sixteen year old girl to tell her that to keep her teeth clean and white by the use of Ipana will add to her attractiveness now rather than to tell her if she does not care for her teeth she will become a toothless hag at sixty.

So far we have seen that psychology is an aid to medicine in breaking down resistance and paying the way for new ideas. But its more obvious function is to prevent mental diseases by discovering their causes and the methods of rendering them innocuous. Most vices are virtues excessively indulged in and

“gone to seed.” Most mental aberrations are slight deviations in the child but exaggerated in the adult if uncorrected. Mental experts tell us that of the 72,000 who come into institutions for mental disease each year, two-thirds could have been prevented had they been properly guided when children. Many an inherited or acquired tendency has been “nipped in the bud.” Some mental disturbances cannot be prevented. For persons so affected, institutional care is provided. But even here often the conditions are so sanitary, so aesthetic, so peaceful and thoroughly scientific and humane that the inmates become the envy of many who are yet at large. These favorable conditions prevail because of psychological suggestions as to the treatment of the mentally disturbed.

One of the most recent and important developments of applied psychology is the psychological clinic. By means of intelligence and personality tests and other techniques, the mental status is determined with a precision hitherto unknown. More and more the psychologist is called upon to aid in the administration of social problems wherever mental deviates are concerned. In the modern clinic the psychiatrist and psychologist will be found applying to their concrete problems the technique of psychological science which has proved to be of value. The psychological clinic has extended its service to the children of the schools where it helps to guide them into happy and successful adjustment.

More and more medical schools are making use of psychological principles. But not sufficiently yet have they recognized the importance of adequate psychological training. The training in medical schools has been largely confined to the observation of pathological conditions. It has fallen short of a thorough knowledge of human behavior and its variation among normal human beings. It would be difficult if not impossible to judge what is abnormal behavior without first setting up a standard of normal variability. Recently, there is a tendency to employ psychological skill in hospital service in "examination and case work, nursery, therapy and research." The reconstruction of patients is essentially a re-education process. The re-education process is carried on in accordance with the seasoned principles of educational psychology. This process constitutes the central phase of therapy. The development and maintenance of morale among patients, whether undertaken by the physician, nurse, social worker, or psychologist are at base psychological enterprises.

PSYCHOLOGY AND LAW

Since law aims at the control of human conduct it holds intimate relations with psychology for psychology on the higher side is a science of human conduct.

Today the prevention of crime is stressed more than its punishment. Psychology has had much to do with bringing about this change of emphasis because the prevention of crime involves the consideration of

the individual and the motives of his behavior. The willingness to apply psychological knowledge to the domain of law has led to significant changes in legal technique and procedure. The establishment of children's courts is a recognition that children deserve different treatment from that of adults. Sex differences are recognized in dealing with crime as well as are differences between first offenders and habitual criminals. The parole, suspended or indeterminate sentence, is obviously based upon the psychology of the individual. The jury system could be improved by the use of psychological knowledge in the selection of jurymen. The qualifications of a jurymen should certainly involve other considerations than veracity and ignorance of the case under trial. A jurymen should be able to hear well. He should have a good memory for the facts in the case. He should possess a rather high I. Q. to enable him to digest the facts. He should know something about the use of correct forms of reasoning as well as to know the pitfalls of lawyers' arguments. He should understand human nature and its motivation to a high degree, and he should be divested of emotional bias. All of these are important qualifications when one passes judgment upon the frailties of another. The employment of psychology would insure a better selection of jurymen and would save time and expense. In one case, reported by Sullivan, 4,821 persons were examined and \$13,000 spent in selecting twelve men "good and true." By the em-

ployment of the knowledge of psychology, justice might be better served and much of the mushy sentimentalism surrounding the jury trial might be avoided.

From the psychological viewpoint the discovery of the causes of criminal behavior takes precedence over the question of punishment. In dealing with crime rationally, psychologists seek to control the causes and to modify the circumstances of malignant behavior by rebuilding habit patterns of thought and action which will bring about a reclamation, not by methods of revenge whereby future criminal behavior may be curtailed and original offenses forestalled.

Psychological knowledge is also extensively employed in the determination of guilt. All the mental processes are involved in the taking of testimony and evaluation of evidence. Students of criminology suggest that a psychological expert attend every criminal court. Psychological tests should be given where the testimony is complicated to determine the mental peculiarities of the witnesses. That there is need of such service is evidenced by the errors of sensation and perception. Professor James said that he was "sitting reading late one night" when he suddenly heard a formidable noise filling all the upper part of the house. He rushed to the hall and the noise ceased. Resuming his seat in the room the noise began again, "low, mighty, alarming, like a rising flood" or the advance of an awful gale. Quite startled he went to the hall again and the noise ceased

once more. "On returning the second time to the room," he discovered that it was "the breathing of a little Scotch terrier which lay asleep on the floor." It is surprisingly difficult or impossible to locate the direction of sound if the stimulus producing it is equidistant from the ears. Distortions of experience occur under changing colors or shades of color. Errors in judgment are frequent. Different people have varying judgments of speed. In judging the speed of a hand moving round a dial at four inches a second, different people said it was moving anywhere from the speed of a man walking slowly to forty miles an hour.

In judging the number of spots on a card, when the actual number was 50, the answers of different judges ranged from 25 to 200. The estimated duration of twenty-second intervals varied from five to 155 seconds. We are familiar also with the unreliability of faulty observation and memory. At a meeting of the Association of Legal Psychology and Psychiatry at Göttingen, Weber carried out a very clever experiment. During one of the sessions he had a clown and a negro rush in suddenly before the members assembled and after an excited altercation rush out again. It all happened in plain sight of the spectators, and each was asked to write an account of it. In all but one report more than 20 per cent of the important details were omitted. Thirteen omitted more than 50 per cent. "In twenty-four reports, 10 per cent of the statements were

purely imaginary, and in ten, more than 10 per cent of the statements were absolutely false." In a somewhat similar experiment carried out by psychologists, a company of youths engaged in mock battle over a brief period of time and then rushed from the room. One of the young men carried a banana and pointed it at another of the boys as though it were a revolver. One of the spectators declared that he heard the report of the gun and actually saw the flame shoot out of the end of the banana. All this goes to show how unreliable our observation and memory may be in moments of extreme excitement, which prevails in criminal situations.

Psychology has also played an interesting role in the detection of crime after a suspect has been apprehended. A list of words is read to the subject, and he is asked to respond to each word in turn with the first word that comes into his mind. Among these words are "key-words" which bear directly upon the crime. It usually requires from one to three seconds for the response. If the suspect takes longer time, it is assumed that he is trying to avoid speaking the word which is connected closely with the crime. The word which is associated with the crime stirs the emotion, making it impossible to respond normally.

The "lie-detector" has also been used in detecting crime. It records automatically the blood pressure and circulation rate. The experimenter asks questions concerning the crime. If the suspect begins to

falsify, the autonomic nervous system quickens the heart beat and respiration rate. The "lie-detector" has given splendid results. It has led to many confessions, though its results are not yet admitted as evidence in the courts. It is more trustworthy, I believe, than much of the testimony offered on the witness stand.

In summary we may say that the juvenile court was established to provide more humane treatment of youth; the sex discrimination in crime, prison reform, and the recognition of mental irresponsibility are all the outcome of the psychological approach to the problem of individual differences and a more thorough understanding of human motivation.

PSYCHOLOGY AND BUSINESS

Stuart Chase and F. J. Schlink in their book, *Your Money's Worth*, say, "the dollar is an adventurer's barque that may come home from the market with colors flying, or may be wrecked on a hidden reef." The struggle for the consumer's dollar is looked upon as a psychological adventure. The objective of business is to grab that dollar before the other fellow grabs it. This procedure is national as well as corporate or individual. The seller invades the domain of the buyer and forces him to surrender. We were accustomed to talk of "strategy" and the "tactics" of salesmanship, of the "shotgun" or "rifle" method of selling. We spoke of "breaking down resistance" of the consumer. Goods were manufactured and

somebody must be forced to buy them.

This has been called the militaristic point of view. In contrast with this view the consumer is now regarded as a human being possessing certain desires which the seller seeks to satisfy. He distributes goods to the buyer as a matter of service to him. The producer is not selling commodities but service. As Henry Ford said, "I am not selling automobiles but transportation; I am not selling tires but mileage." Satisfaction for the consumer is the goal. If the sale is to be permanent, it must bring satisfaction to the buyer. He then returns for some more of the same, or there is a recoil and a loss of trade to that particular seller. In addition to the ideal of service, there must be adequate knowledge of human nature. For this we return to the trained observer in the psychological laboratory.

It is important in business to know that the consumer has needs and to know what those needs are. It is just as essential that the seller tell the buyer what commodity will satisfy those needs. This is accomplished through advertising and direct selling. Psychology is deeply involved in these processes. Many psychological factors enter here to strengthen the appeal. The factors of change, repetition, intensity, size, color, striking quality, definite and symmetrical form aid greatly in attracting the attention of the buyer. Street signs that flash on and off illustrate change and repetition. Big

signs usually attract the attention more than smaller ones.

Psychological experiments have shown that doubling the size of an advertisement increases the number of readers 40 to 50 per cent. Repetition of an "ad" enhances its appeal. Newspapers and magazines and business firms profit greatly by these factors. Wrigley's huge electric sign, displayed in Times Square, New York, costs \$104,000 a year. But it more than paid its way by the increased demand for Wrigley's gum. According to *Fortune*, George Washington Hill, president of the American Tobacco Co., spent \$20,000,000 for advertising Lucky Strikes in 1931 but realized \$46,000,000 profit—the greatest in the history of any American tobacco company before or since. In face-to-face selling, persistence brings its reward. Very few sales are made before the third interview. Most occur after the fifth. Many business men lose the majority of their sales because they desist too soon in their "follow-up." Only 10 per cent of those who buy, buy on the first follow-up; 14 per cent on the second; 22 per cent on the third; 32 per cent on the fourth; 16 per cent on the fifth; and only 6 per cent on the sixth. Ninety-four per cent buy on the first five follow-ups. Of 77 business firms only one sent five follow-ups and then desisted. Sixty-eight of these firms ceased their follow-up when 76 per cent of their sales were waiting for an additional two or three letters. Psychological investigation has made these facts known.

PSYCHOLOGY AND VOCATION AND
INDUSTRY

Vocational psychology has to do with the problems of the selection and guidance of individuals into the occupations which are best for the worker and employer. Industrial psychology is interested in the worker and all the factors which contribute to a maximum return for labor expended. Business psychology is concerned with the psychological problems involved in the distribution of commodities to the consumer—his needs and desires and the means employed for their satisfaction. The time was when the worker was an abject slave, a beast of burden, a being without civic existence. But his partial emancipation has come through the years. In the great industrial maelstrom he threatened to become a mere "cog" in the gigantic machine. His bargaining power has enabled him, to a large extent, to specify the working conditions, hours of employment, and wage scale. More and more leaders of industry realize that a cooperative relationship is better than a combative one. Men of every rank and type of work, when contented and happy, are more efficient than when in constant fear of losing their jobs. This implies a change from the autocratic type of leader to a more discerning and helpful type. It also implies an adaptation of the worker to his job. Psychology has led the way into these happier and more fruitful adjustments. By means of aptitude tests, achievement tests, vocational

interest tests, social attitudes tests, and physical tests, human beings have been scientifically measured and rated. The result has been a notable increase in industrial efficiency and human welfare.

Not only has psychology helped to place employees in the type of work for which they are best suited, but it has also given such persons an opportunity to achieve their maximum efficiency. The ideal of human efficiency has been defined as the "production of the maximum output of the highest quality in the shortest time, with the least expenditure of energy and with the maximum satisfaction." The application of the principles of psychology to industry has helped largely to achieve this end. In scientific management everything centers in the individual. He is the unit to be measured and dealt with. His special abilities must be utilized. He must be given conditions in which he can best do his work. Incentives must be directed to the individual, and records of individual performance must be kept. The welfare of the individual worker must be made foremost without diminishing the welfare of the whole. The chair in which the working girl spends most of her hours while awake is being made to fit the girl rather than the girl to fit the chair. The correct height of the chair is measured for each girl—the height best adapted to her particular work. Moreover, the adjustment of levers, the distance and direction they must be moved, the location of raw mate-

rials and finished parts are all considered from the point of view of the worker.

Often the worker is fatigued not because of heavy task but because of the awkward position he must take while engaged at the task. A slight change in the height and slope of a table at which girls were sorting filing cards enabled them to increase their output 50 per cent. The English type of winding machine requires the operator in picking up the bobbin to "bend the body at the waist, neck, and knees in order to reach the bobbin." The American type of machine is adjusted so that the erect position is but slightly altered, thus greatly lessening fatigue.

There is economy in the proper relation between periods of work and rest. Jones found that when the laborers worked steadily through the working hours, each man could load twelve tons of pig iron a day. But when the working hours were broken into periods of work alternating with short periods of rest, each man could load forty-eight tons, a fourfold increase in efficiency. Without intervals of rest most of the work is performed under great fatigue. For this reason overtime labor is an uneconomical procedure. In other experiments the maximum production was found to be under a work period of forty-five minutes alternating with a rest period of eight minutes. During the World War records show that the total output was 19 per cent greater on a 55.5 hour week than on a 66.7 hour week.

Thus we see that psychology is at work throughout the realm of industry. It is "down on all fours" drawing loads. After one month's work in a restaurant, breakages were reduced 44 per cent. Girls employed as candy packers and paid for piece work increased their output 35 per cent to their own profit after psychologists showed them how best to do their work. Taxicab accidents were reduced one-third by a psychologist on the staff of a large company employing 6,000 drivers. In wrapping tobacco, girls increased the output 14 per cent by shifting operations twice in each working period, thus lessening monotony and fatigue. On a laundry mangle, psychologists suggested that the feeder and receiver shift places every twelve minutes to relieve the strain of continuous standing, and the output was increased 30 per cent.

These are only a few of the accomplishments of the psychologist as he increasingly becomes the handmaid to industry. Let it be said in all solemnity that the psychologist, contrary to much popular opinion, is no crystal gazer, fortune teller, palm reader, voodoo-vender, or occultist who casts magic spells over his victims, but he is a human engineer, pursuing his work with the same tested accuracy as any worker in science, tapping human reserves, examining the stresses and strains of human nature, and seeking their control as he extends his conquest and widens his knowledge of Man, the Unknown, toward Man the Known.

The Marks of a Good Teacher

JANE MORROW CARROLL

Who is the good teacher? This is the question which has not yet been answered in such a way that the answer possesses both validity and reliability. Many experiments and studies have been made, but no certain qualifications have been found to belong to the good teacher. "The current methods of determining good and poor teachers are subject to error," Meade¹ says, and continues, "Yet the importance of this problem is probably greater than that of any other single problem in the entire field of education." Since we have no definite characteristics scientifically worked out and agreed upon by educators, the marks of the good teacher differ according to the opinion of what the writer has found in his observation of teachers. However, from the studies made, there are some points in common on the qualities that go to make up a good teacher. Let us look at them.

LOVE OF CHILDREN

The good teacher loves children. She loves them as a group and she loves them as individuals. Children also love her. How can a good teacher not love children? She loves them to such an extent that she naturally

magnifies their goodness and minimizes their defects, and by this love she helps them to overcome their defects. By love she gets everything possible from the child, for with love comes understanding. To teach children, one must live in a child's world, for childish troubles are very real; in fact, they generally cause more anguish to the child than serious troubles do the adult. The good teacher loves and understands the child with the low capacity for learning as well as the one with the higher level of intelligence.

SENSE OF HUMOR

The good teacher has a keen sense of humor. She laughs with the children rather than at them. A study of humor on the part of teachers when they are in the classroom was carried out a few years ago. The data from this study show "not that a high sense of humor makes a good teacher, but that a sense of humor in the classroom appears to be a trait of the good teacher more often than of the poor teacher."² To illustrate one teacher tells of this experience:³ One afternoon, while rehearsing a dance with the chil-

¹A. R. Meade, "Qualities of Merit in Good and Poor Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, XX, November, 1929, p. 239.

²H. W. Hepner, "Good Teachers and the Sense of Humor," *School and Society*, XXIV, pp. 395-396.

³F. A. Allen, "Happiness in Teaching," *Journal of National Education Association*, January 1927, p. 17. (adapted)

dren for an entertainment to be given in the assembly, she warned them with exaggerated seriousness not to tell anyone about the program they were arranging for it was to be a surprise. Before the children were dismissed, she was called outside the room for a minute. During her brief absence, a neighboring teacher stepped in. Surprised at seeing such a large assemblage of children, she asked them the reason for their presence at this late hour. The children were confused and scarcely knew what to answer. Finally, one blurted out, "We are helping teacher." At that moment the regular teacher returned, grasped the situation, and burst into a gale of laughter accompanied by the children and the neighboring teacher when she was "let in" on the secret. "Surely they were helping me," said the regular teacher winking, "helping me prepare an entertainment."

INTEREST IN PARENTS

A good teacher is interested not only in children but in parents as well. When she meets parents at the market or at the postoffice or in the theater, she shows them by her greetings that she is really interested in the children and their family. She not only asks parents to visit school but urges them. She makes parents feel welcome and comfortable; she exchanges experiences with them; and she learns more about the children themselves. She is not the teacher who complains that parents bother her, but she is the one who encourages the parent-teacher relationships. Meeting parents tact-

fully, she benefits the child, the school, and the home.

SOUND METHODS

The good teacher is known by the soundness of the methods she uses. She sees that her children are happy in the work they are doing. She educates them through celebrating their successes. She knows that children as well as adults like to do the things that they can do well, that they are eager to carry a message, to tell a story, or to sing a song when they know they can do it. This eagerness puts children in a frame of mind for learning. The teacher assumes the responsibility in selecting acts that can be praised and deciding how the eagerness *to do* can be utilized. This means that work is play and play is work, but only good work is praised. The celebrating of successes is a big factor in educating children. Right habits and attitudes may be formed in this way in both subject matter and social assets. For instance, a good teacher skillfully plays up the social graces of each child. Good sportsmanship is taught in this way. "One of the most difficult and noblest of human achievements is to be able wholeheartedly to manifest enthusiasm for the successes and achievements of one's fellows. It is the essence of good sportsmanship and the basic principle of likableness."⁴

This habit must be cultivated early in the child. How better can

⁴Garry Cleveland Meyers, "Education of Young Children Through Celebrating Their Successes," City School Leaflet, No. 26, p. 9, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

it be done than to praise him when he wholeheartedly enjoys the success of another? This means that the good teacher rarely commands that a thing be done; instead, she gets the child to suggest. For example, she does not command the child to pick up his blocks or close the door but suggests that this be done and then shows approval. In order to make children happy, we do not mean that they will be without a challenge; for the work to be interesting must be challenging to the child. In the old school the teacher was prone to do everything for the child. But in the new school the good teacher helps and guides the child to do for himself. The following example illustrates the difference between the two methods of securing happiness for the child.⁵ In a schoolroom not long since, Billy was pulling a little wagon about the room none too carefully. He bumped it against a sand table and knocked off a wheel. He began to cry loudly and stood looking helplessly at the broken toy. The teacher, hearing his wails, ran quickly to him, grasped the trouble, and gathered him into her arms, saying, "Don't cry, dear, we'll take the wagon down to the corner shop and have the man put the wheel on again." So Billy stopped his sobs, and the teacher felt that she had made the child happy. Perhaps at the time he was, but such a course failed to provide happiness in the future when the teacher or some other person was not present to sympathize and relieve the trouble. In contrast, let us notice another

teacher and the way she handled the situation.

This incident took place in a kindergarten room. John was running a small mechanical automobile which operated by winding a spring. He was having great fun when his automobile bumped into the wall and bent one of the front fenders so that the car would not run straight. "I bent my auto," he said to the teacher.

The teacher asked casually, "What can you do about it, John?"

"I don't know yet," said John, "but I'll do something."

The teacher soon saw John in the tool section working with some wire. Within a short time he came toward her saying, "See what I've invented." The invention was not perfect, you can be sure. It consisted of a front bumper made from a stout piece of wire. He had also straightened the bent fender. "Now," he said, "if my car hits the wall, the fender won't bend," and his eyes shone with the true joy of accomplishment. He had met a difficulty and conquered it. He was not helpless as the other child had been; he had gained happiness in winning a victory over adverse conditions. So it is in all phases of child life; addition facts, multiplication tables, spelling words can all be made challenging to the child. The good teacher will direct children toward achieving happiness by preparing them to think and do for themselves. She doesn't require work of them which they are unable to do. She avoids facing such

⁵Edith L. Reid, *Ways of Happiness* (adapted).

an embarrassing situation as the following:

Teacher—"Willie, did your father write this essay?"

"No, ma'am. He started it, but mother had to do it all over again."

PROFESSIONAL IN THOUGHT
AND DEED

The good teacher is professional in both her thinking and her acting. She never bears tales or repeats scandal. "In her school she comes in contact with all classes of society, but her mental attitude is a sieve that sifts out the gold of life and lets the tales and the scandals drop through."⁶ You have heard of the peasant with the troubled conscience who had gone to the monk for advice. After the peasant had circulated slander about a friend, he found out that it wasn't true. The monk was old and wise.

"If you want to make peace with your conscience," he said, "you must fill a bag with chicken feathers, go to every door yard in the village, and drop in each of them one fluffy feather."

The peasant did as he was told. Then he came back to the monk and announced that he had done penance for his folly.

"Not yet," said the monk sternly. "Take up your bag, go the rounds again, and gather up every feather that you have dropped."

"But the wind must have blown them all away," said the peasant.

"Yes, my son," replied the monk, "and so it is with gossip. Words are easily dropped, but no matter how

hard you try, you can never get them back again."

The good teacher is not jealous of her colleagues. She delights and rejoices in the promotions that come to her mates and never tears down that which a fellow has built up. She is never guilty of saying, "I can't see what Miss So-and-So taught these children last year." She is eager that the teacher following her be as well liked as she. In this way she is like the old umbrella maker. One day when this old man was sitting on a box mending broken and torn umbrellas, a passer-by stopped to watch him work. The old man seemed to take unusual pains in testing the cloth, in carefully measuring, and in strongly sewing the covers. The passer-by, a business executive and always interested in one who did his work well, said, "You seem extra careful."

"Yes," replied the umbrella mender without stopping his work.

"Your customers would not know the difference until you were gone," the business man suggested.

"No, I suppose not."

"Do you ever expect to come back?"

"No."

"Then, why are you so particular?"

"So it will be easier for the next fellow who comes along," the umbrella man answered firmly. "If I put on shoddy cloth or do bad work, they will find it out before long, and the next mender who comes along will get the cold shoulder or the bull dog."

⁶Salina Public School Journal.

IN TOUCH WITH WORLD

A good teacher is in touch with the world's work and helps the boys and girls under her to have an interest in world fellowship, for even small children are interested in current news. A few years ago the writer visited a kindergarten where the teacher, "Miss Agnes," talked during the first period in the morning with the children grouped around her about the newspaper she held in her hand. "I found something most interesting in the paper this morning," she said; "it concerns some one whom we have been reading about. Do any of you happen to know who it is?"

One small chap seated with one foot crossed over the other knee said seriously, "Well, Miss Agnes, I just can't say. I didn't have time to read the paper this morning."

Other children, however, immediately spoke of Amundsen, who at that time was venturing in the North Polar region. The article was then read in parts from the paper itself with the keenest interest on the part of the children. These children were becoming acquainted with the news of the day and knew more about Amundsen and his trip than, perhaps, many adults did at that time.

"The daily newspaper, the national magazines, the radio, the 'movie' are all textbooks from which the teacher gains that larger content of knowledge that vitalizes her daily teaching. Her homeroom is a laboratory of world interests. To this laboratory she and her

children make constant daily contributions. It is through this sort of study that the ideals of American government, of American homes, of the economic welfare of the American people are inculcated, applied, and understood."⁷

HIGH IDEALS

The good teacher has high ideals and tries to live up to them in appearance and social standards. She believes in the maxim that "example is better than precept." She is always simply but well dressed, in good physical condition, and at ease socially.

HAPPY IN WORK

The good teacher is happy in her work. She is as proud of her vocation as is a good doctor, a good merchant, or a good lawyer. She wants her associates to know that she is a teacher by choice, that she has chosen her profession because she believes in it. "She is not a complainer; she lives in the joys of her work and not in its drudgeries. There is drudgery in all work that is worth while and there is joy in all work that is worth while."⁸

Love, understanding, a sense of humor, sound, psychological principles, and professionalism are essential if the teacher is to be a good teacher, but the greatest of these is love. Florence Allen⁹ says, "Very often I come in contact with a teacher who to all appearances is a

⁷Salina Public School Journal, author unknown.

⁸Florence A. Allen, "Happiness in Teaching," *Journal of National Education Association*, January, 1927, p. 17.

⁹*Ibid.*

model one; her procedure is excellent; her lessons are conducted according to the best psychological principles; her aim is clear; her scholarship is superior; yet her results are mediocre. WHY? When I have made an earnest study of the teacher as well as of the teaching, I frequently find that the fault or rather the lack lies, not in the presentation of the subject matter but in its presenter; not in the topic taught but in the tutor. She does not love her profession and is not personally interested in children. Too often she forgets that it is the child and not the subject matter she is to teach. She fails to see that the minds of children who are not

held to her by strong bonds of love, sympathy, and confidence cannot be receptive even to the most temptingly-coated piece of knowledge."

It is important that we have sound methods of teaching; it is important to know subject matter; it is important that one's personal appearance be neat and attractive; it is important that the daily lesson be prepared each day; and yet if the teacher does not love children she cannot be a good teacher. Again let me quote Florence Allen. "If one would be a happy teacher she must carry Leigh Hunt's 'Love Thy Fellow Men' one step further—'Love Thy Little Fellow Men.'"

The Child in the Home

PAUL MURPHY

That the home is an important influence in molding the personality and character of the child is too generally conceded today to require argument. Numerous studies and investigations all point in this direction. Since it has been agreed, then, that the home is a vital personality building agency, probably ranking above even the school in this field of activity the next step would seem to involve some inquiry into the nature and identity of those factors in the home environment that are of fundamental importance for such work. After all, merely to say that the home wields much power in the shaping of personality is hardly enough. The term, "home environment," covers a great deal of ground and is in need of further analysis before our knowledge can be applied most effectively.

The problem here indicated is highly susceptible to discussion in terms of theories, possibilities, and abstractions; consequently, this paper might very well revolve around a speculative consideration of those phases of home life that have been generally conceded to be of major significance in the determination of the child's mental and physical development. Actually, however, there is no necessity of dealing with this problem in terms of theories

and guesses, for psychologists and child welfare experts have been accumulating information over the past two or three decades that makes it possible to state rather definitely which factors are important and which are relatively unimportant. The day when it was necessary to discuss this problem in terms of vague generalities is fortunately past. It can now be dealt with in terms of cold, hard facts. And it is the intention of this paper to summarize briefly some facts discovered by Psychologist Harry Baker in the course of his work with problem children in the Psychological Clinic maintained in connection with the schools of Detroit, Michigan.¹

It should be pointed out before proceeding further that there is probably more to be gained by approaching this problem positively than negatively; that is, the majority of psychologists are firmly convinced that more can be accomplished in the field of child training by emphasizing the things that parents ought to do rather than the things they ought not to do. In general, parents need to assume the "Do this" attitude rather than the "Don't do that" attitude. The

¹Baker, Harry Jay, and Traphagen, Virginia. *The Diagnosis and Treatment of Behavior-Problem Children*. New York. The Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. 393.

majority of parents are probably more interested in knowing what they can do to develop desirable personality traits in their children than they are in knowing merely how to prevent the development of undesirable characteristics. However, there is frequently much to be learned from a negative approach to the problems of child training, and when such pronouncements are made by as competent and authoritative an expert as Dr. Baker we can well afford to give some consideration to the matter from a point of view that is admittedly somewhat negative, even though a different approach to the matter is generally recommended.

But let us see what Dr. Baker is inclined to emphasize as a result of his contacts with "problem children." So far as home influences are concerned he places considerable stress upon the role played by discipline in the production of such problems. To be more specific, in comparing a group of children who presented many behavior problems with a group that exhibited few, which, by the way was the method used by Dr. Baker throughout his study, he found that the third most important difference between the two groups of children pertained to the type of disciplinary measures used and the frequency with which they were administered, the better-behaved children coming from homes in which severe disciplinary measures were comparatively taboo, being regarded only as a last resort and used infrequently. Of course, it must be remembered that

the whole problem of punishment and discipline is one on which there is considerable diversity of opinion even among experts. Therefore, to attempt to lay down hard and fast rules for administering punishment or meting out disciplinary measures is quite futile, for the nature of the measures that should be used will vary with a number of factors, not the least of which is the temperamental and emotional make-up of the child. Nevertheless, keeping these reservations in mind we would seem to be justified in concluding from Dr. Baker's study that severe discipline tends to react to the detriment rather than the benefit of the child.

One of the principal difficulties with a great many disciplinary measures, especially corporal punishment, is that they are administered only when the parent is himself angry, and therefore accomplish nothing except to antagonize the child. As one eminent psychologist has so aptly said, to become emotionally wrought up about any problem automatically disqualifies a person for any sane or effective consideration of that problem. This would appear to be specially true in dealing with children. Punishment, at least so far as children above the age of five or six are concerned, is effective only when its justice is realized by the child and when it sets up a repentant attitude. This requirement is so seldom fulfilled, however, that the great majority of disciplinary measures are probably quite abortive, accomplishing nothing more than to cre-

ate several problems where one existed before. Even in those cases where the disciplinary measures do operate to set up such repentant attitudes on the part of the child, they need to be followed up with more constructive measures. We need to realize the importance of rewarding the child for doing the right thing as well as punishing him for doing the wrong thing. When we do nothing but punish, and then often unjustly, we are apt to be on the road to the creation of attitudes within the child that may give rise to rather serious behavior problems later on. This statement should not be taken to mean that the writer is an advocate of the "never thwart, never repress" doctrine. No one realizes more vividly than the psychologist the importance of the child's developing a moral code that includes a number of desirable "don'ts." The complete absence of restraints of any kind is just as likely, if not more likely, to land the child in difficulties as the development of too many inhibitions. The point is that there is discipline and—there is discipline. The type of discipline generally advocated by the informed psychologist, and especially by Dr. Baker, is that which develops from within on the basis of a sane, rational consideration of the important aspects of the situation rather than that which represents the enforcement by physical or mental suasion of a code that is beyond the comprehension and ability of the child to follow or the parents to administer.

A second factor that Dr. Baker finds to be highly important in the production or prevention of behavior problems in children, as the case may be, is what he has chosen to call general home atmosphere. This term is, of course, rather general and indefinite but he apparently has in mind primarily the emotional atmosphere of the home rather than the mere physical make-up of the environment. In evaluating this aspect of the home situation, it would be important to know whether the parents were congenial or not, whether the child was made to feel that he was wanted or unwanted, what sort of an adjustment the children make to each other, and whether the child is subjected to much nagging and criticism from other children or parents. There can be little doubt that such items as these often shed much light on the genesis of unsocial and problem behavior in children.

As for evaluating the standing of the home in these respects, Dr. Baker is of the opinion that we can learn much from our observation of the hold that the home has on the various members of the family. In other words, does the child appear to be strongly attached to the members of his family or is the hold of the home on him quite weak and precarious? Does he seem to find adequate fulfillment of his emotional needs in the home or does he have to look outside the home for sufficient sympathy and affection? In general, while it is true that the hold of parents on the child may

become so strong as to be a hindrance to the development of a strong, independent personality, there is real danger created when the child has to look outside the home for the satisfactory recognition of his emotional needs. The day may come when society will be able to provide adequate and satisfactory substitutes for the home in this respect, but that day has not yet arrived. In the great majority of cases, the home is still the only agency that can provide satisfactorily for such needs.

In the home possessing a satisfactory emotional atmosphere, the child feels secure and protected against the onslaught of the none-too-friendly social and physical environment. The development of such a feeling of security represents one of the fundamental psychological needs of the growing child. In such a home there is always someone to whom he can take his problems and find help in solving them. He is sure of a refuge when the going gets too tough. Life becomes a happy, wholesome existence instead of a dog-eat-dog affair as it is so often when the emotional tone of the home is uncongenial and discordant. It is in this latter type of home, where there is no one in whom the child has sufficient confidence to pour out his problems, that unsolved conflicts grow into actual mental illness and delinquency. In such a home a child loses the urge to emulate and imitate his parents and begins to look elsewhere for adults who will provide him with the sympathy and understand-

ing that he craves. Since he is in no position to evaluate the true character of strange adults, it often happens that he falls in with individuals whose influence upon him is more to be deplored than commended. Parents need to realize that they have an obligation to provide for more than the mere physical needs of the child. The child has such needs, it is true, but he also has certain mental needs that are most important. Much can be done to meet such requirements by providing just as congenial and sympathetic an environment in the home as possible.

Still another factor which is more or less closely related to the one just mentioned is that of parental attitudes toward children. Dr. Baker's investigation demonstrated quite clearly that the difficulty of children's behavior problems increases in proportion to the undesirability of parental attitudes toward the child. But what constitutes an undesirable attitude? Dr. Baker is inclined to stress particularly those tendencies which involve the rejection of the child by the parent; a condition which leads the child to feel that he is unwanted in the home. There are undoubtedly other attitudes that are just as undesirable, as for example an over-solicitous or an over-protective attitude on the part of the parents, but Dr. Baker is probably quite justified in giving special emphasis to the one just mentioned.

Of course, it should be realized in considering this point that parents do not always reject the child

overtly. Such feelings are often vehemently denied, and yet little things, apparently trivial bits of behavior, will belie the parent's professed love for the child, causing the child to become cold and rebellious, and setting up a vicious circle of events that may ultimately lead to an open break between parent and child. As Dr. Baker points out, there are innumerable ways in which parental attitudes may become distorted. The child may bear a physical resemblance to a disliked marital partner, in which case part of the antagonism toward the partner may be unconsciously transferred to the child, or the child may resemble a renegade member of the father's or mother's family, or he may have developed objectionable mannerisms that are aggravating to the parents, or mannerisms that were despised by one parent or the other in his or her own childhood. Then, there are many incidents that take place in the child's life that may lead to such rejection by the parents. Among these are the sacrifices that parents are required to make for the child in babyhood, the low grades made by the child in school that may lead the parents to doubt the mental capacity of their son or daughter, the friction that so often develops at adolescence between parents and children, or the inability of the boy or girl to support himself or herself later on either because of actual lack of ability or because of lack of opportunity to work, with the attendant concern and worry on the part of the par-

ents. All these things have a cumulative effect, the net result of which in many cases is to lead to a rejection of the child by the parent, which in turn reacts back upon the child to create feelings of confusion, worry, and insecurity.

As parents, we need to be on our guard against being too greatly disturbed by such events as these. Of course, the love and concern we feel for our children are in the great majority of cases sufficient insurance against such an eventuality. Even so, however, we need to scrutinize our behavior occasionally to make sure that we praise as well as blame, that we commend as well as criticize, and that we do not hide our affection under a bushel. There is much room for improvement here so far as most parents are concerned.

Finally, to mention just one further point brought out by Dr. Baker's study, he found that the social and personality adjustment of the parents had much to do with the behavior problems of children. To be more specific, those parents showing poor personalities and inadequate social adjustment tended to have children manifesting more frequent and more serious behavior problems than parents having good personalities and making a good social adjustment. Other parental characteristics such as education, intelligence, occupation, and health also seemed to be important, but none of these appeared to be so vital to the child's development as personality and social adjustment. This, as well as most of

the other points brought out by Dr. Baker's investigations, would appear to place the brunt of the responsibility for solving the child's behavior problems upon the parent. But that is just the point. Most of the difficulty lies with the parents in the majority of cases, and in so far as the problems of the parents are cleared up the child's problems disappear.

This was very clearly demonstrated in a recent study reporting the treatment techniques used and the results obtained in dealing with 100 behavior problem children,² wherein it was shown that the primary cause of the behavior problems and the most important factor in determining the effectiveness of the treatment procedures used was the attitude of the parents toward the child's difficulty. When the parents appeared to have some insight into the nature of the child's difficulty and were cooperative in carrying out remedial procedures, the chances of the child improving were greatly increased. There is probably no respect in which the vital influence of the parent and his attitudes upon the child's development is more clearly shown than in this matter of the parent's personality and social adjustment. As a matter of fact, it can almost be said that the child is very largely a reflection of one or both parents so far as these matters

are concerned. Our natural inclination is to account for such resemblances in terms of tendencies that the child inherits from the parents, but in most cases such similarities are probably more largely outgrowths of environment contacts between parent and child in the home after birth.

This is a fact that parents need to realize. Some have already become vividly impressed with their obligations and are making every attempt to present their children with desirable patterns of behavior to emulate. Others realize the force with which their own behavior influences that of the child but have little interest in the matter. For the great majority of parents, however, this is a lesson that still remains to be learned, and only as it is learned and taken to heart can we expect any marked improvement in the personalities and social adjustment of the next generation. Of course, it is difficult for adults to modify behavior patterns that have become set by years of practice and experience. It is almost like attempting to lift oneself by one's boot straps. Yet it is a job that will have to be done if progress is to be made—not in one generation, perhaps, because we will probably never be able to find a generation that will be willing to turn its back upon its own cherished prejudices and biases and adopt new methods of child rearing; but over a long period of time we may be able to accomplish something of value in this respect.

²Hubbard, Ruth M. and Adams, Christine F. "Factors Affecting the Success of Child Guidance Clinic Treatment." *American Journal Orthopsychiatry*, 1936, 6, 81-102.

One Way to Spend August

DAPHNE VAUGHAN-CROSS

This past summer whenever the question, "Where shall we go and what shall we do in August?" presented itself, there were many possibilities. But it didn't take long to decide that the 'where' should be the Southwest, and one of the 'whats' should be attending the Inter-Tribal Indian Ceremonial at Gallup, New Mexico.

The Inter-Tribal Indian Ceremonial is held in Gallup each year, the last Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday in August. During this week Gallup becomes host to more than seven thousand American Indians of thirty tribes or more, to say nothing of the thousands of white visitors who crowd the auto camps, hotels, and homes of Gallup.

Whatever the number, the streets of Gallup were lined solidly Wednesday morning with men, women, and children—Indian and white. Sport clothes, uniforms, blankets, buckskin, and velvet blouses intermingled. All were there to see the first ceremonial sight, the parade.

Promptly at ten o'clock the parade came. Led by an all-Indian band, hundreds of Indians, each in his native costume, moved past. There was wide and interesting variety in these costumes which ranged from painted nakedness to garments elaborately beaded and feathered. Some of the paraders

were dressed as they would be for the evening dances. Whorls of feathers centered by small flashing mirrors, brightly colored ornaments, embroidered sashes, and long, wide skirts made a continuous blaze of color.

In the midst of this flashing throng came the Zuni women bearing large pottery Ollas on their heads and walking with unbelievable grace, dignity, and poise, their eyes straight ahead, seemingly unaware of their surroundings.

Groups of Indian men and women rode by on horses. Picturesque covered-wagons, loaded with entire Indian families from grandparents to papooses strapped in their carriers, made the last part of the parade as interesting as the first. All moved on to the ceremonial grounds in Lyon Memorial Park where the programs were held.

The afternoon programs were very much like rodeos. Indian sports, games, and races were presented. One very interesting performance was a tug-of-war in which eighteen or twenty Indian women were matched against an equal number of Indian girls. Pulling and sliding, slipping and falling, the girls were finally dragged over the line by the women who far outweighed them.

The colorful beauty of the evening performances needs to be seen

to be realized and appreciated. These performances opened with music by the all-Indian band, while all the dancers in their finest costumes passed in review. The only illumination was that provided by six large bonfires and a full harvest moon. One exception to this statement should be made, for on the first night the bonfires were unaided by the moon, which was blotted out by flashes of lightning and showers of rain which added to the weird scene.

The review over, the dancers formed a line opposite the grandstand. Everyone paused and became still. The band played "The Star Spangled Banner," the national song of whites and Indians equally.

The line of dancers separated into their various groups and the performances began. The already enthusiastic audience became more enthusiastic as it heard the Acome Princess sing, and saw the Hoop

dance given by two little Acoma boys, aged four and five. Gasps were heard at sight of the weird head-dresses of the Apache Devil Dancers. Warm applause followed the Zuni Pinon Tree Dance, the Tesuque Eagle Dance, the Navajo Buffalo Dance, the Taos Horse Tail Dance, and many others performed to the beat of tom-toms.

The gripping climax of the evening programs was invariably the Navajo Fire Dance. The Fire Dancers, who wore but loin cloths and who painted their bodies a gleaming deadly white, leaped through the high blazing bonfires and struck each other with burning embers. It is a spectacle that cannot be described.

Next summer there will be no question, "Where shall we go and what shall we do in August?" We are going back to Gallup. Reservations have already been made.

Making Psychology Interesting

JOHN ARTHUR GLAZE

Many teachers of psychology seem to assume that since the subject elicits their interest, it will "naturally" interest their students as well. This may be true in part if the teacher sees in his subject that elusive something that makes the course captivating and holds the interest of the student. This "something" may be characterized as that beauty and completeness of detail that someone has called "the romance of teaching." Since the average psychology teacher in our secondary schools has to teach several other subjects, he can't be expected to be equally enthusiastic over all of them. Psychology, however is a subject that lends itself to practical interest more than many others in the school curriculum.

I want to propose several principles that I think should prevail in the teaching of psychology if the subject is to be made interesting. More than ten years of teaching experience in the field of psychology alone has convinced me that these principles are important, and, though I do not claim to have exhausted the possibilities, yet it is hoped that the younger teachers of psychology will see in them some important pitfalls to avoid in the teaching of the subject. Making psychology interesting does not

mean that its scientific view point is to be sacrificed, in the least.

One of the first points to consider is the importance of a good text. Usually the selection of any text requires that the best of several inadequate ones be chosen. No text is yet written that seems to be equally satisfying to all teachers, but this is true of other subjects as well. But more and better texts are being written in psychology than perhaps in any other subject. And they are being written more and more with the student in view rather than with the teacher; but this in turn reacts to the advantage of the teacher.

The teacher should try to remember that some parts of almost any text do not fit into his particular scheme of teaching or adequately explain important details. Of course, the teacher's function is to elaborate these details, but it is not his function nor even his privilege, to criticize adversely the author's viewpoint to the extent that the student will lose respect for author, text, or teacher. We positively cannot "fight the text," as this is sometimes called, without losing something of interest and advantage to the student. Young people are not so discriminating as are older ones and take sides more violently and with less deliberation. More unfor-

tunate than his attitude of disliking the text is the student's feeling that the teacher is prejudiced and narrow-minded. This occasionally happens.

A second requisite is the ability to make good use of the blackboard. If there is any common deficiency in all teaching, it seems to me it is found in too little use of this simple and ample device that means so much to visual education. Some time or another the student must learn how to take notes, and, since as a rule nobody ever teaches him how, the teacher should at least give the skeleton outline on the board as he talks about the different topics. While many students who take the teacher's notes and outlines find that these notes mean nothing to them when they get "cold," yet, at the other extreme, is the unguided student trying to make notes of his own volition. He may write and write and write, or write not at all, either of which is wholly undesirable.

Once the student learns how to outline adequately, he can be thrown surprisingly on his own resourcefulness. Our better students in psychology, or at least many of them, tell us that they thoroughly outline each chapter before being quizzed on it. Many have stated that no matter what type of quiz we administer, they are not deceived into incorrect answers after they have made a thorough and, to them, comprehensible outline. Blackboard notes and drawings certainly help to pave the way to a better comprehension of the sub-

ject-matter and the teacher should learn to make free use of them.

A third requisite is the elimination of technical and useless terminology. All texts are prone to incorporate occasionally a useless and too often technical term. Though a single word often conveys a complete thought, the student has to spend much of his time in trying to remember what the term means and misses the main point of the author. "Same" is a useless word in most places when it is made to stand for "similar;" "kinesthetic" sense, for muscle sense; "peripheral," for outer; and "afferent" and "efferent" for sensory and motor are further illustrations of burdensome language for beginners. It is feared that we teachers often dull otherwise sharp blades by rubbing them against the rough rocks of our technical terminology. We do not need difficult terms in our first courses, and these should be, when encountered, not only explained adequately but replaced with more common terms. As a rule the new term will be self-explanatory.

Another thing that sooner or later the young teacher must find out, unless forewarned, is that the average student positively will not spend sufficient time and energy in reading tables and diagrams for thorough understanding. Some tables are, it is true, a little complex for the beginner, but many will not devote enough time and patience to comprehend the simpler ones. They seem to regard any "picture" as so much more "stuff" to complete the book. Even explanations in the

text, other than that beneath each figure, seem to bore many students. This is true for other than psychology courses, and one has but to check on his classes to find how few, even after thoroughly "studying" the chapter, have as thoroughly studied the figures and diagrams and know what they attempt to portray.

In 1933-34, Roy Douglas, who was at that time teaching at Havana, Kansas, made a study of the teaching of psychology in the high schools of the state. He incorporated his findings in a master's thesis. Among the rather significant data was the fact that few teachers were employing much illustrative and demonstrative material in teaching the first course. This was, however, the greatest felt need of the teachers, according to their reports. Nearly all of them wanted helps that we could give them in order to teach more effectively the first course.

My next requisite for effective teaching is that the teacher have available and make use of those helps which tend to make the subject more concrete. It is surprising how the biologist can see in this or that specimen something important for use in his classes, and the psychologist, who has probably as great a world to draw from, has such a dearth of illustrative material. Yet any teacher of psychology who is only partially alert can collect an abundance of aids within the limits of a single semester, if he will. These range all the way from newspaper and magazine accounts—some of

which can be trusted for accuracy—to objects as large and useful as the biologist brings into his laboratory. There are an abundance of small demonstrations, sometimes called "class experiments" too, that can be freely and effectively used in class work. Space will not suffice to list them here, but many texts and laboratory manuals provide an increasing number of them.

While Douglas found that 48 out of 215 teachers in the high schools reporting majored in psychology, at the other extreme there were 81 with ten or less than ten hours' credit, 14 of whom actually having three hours or less of college credit. It is not easy to see how a teacher could adequately teach such a difficult subject without a more thorough background. A teacher with a minimum of training in psychology must feel impoverished even in considering the fundamental principles only. It may be that some considerable part of the difficulty of teaching the subject lies right here. We might point out that we are trying to remedy this situation as best we can by having our prospective teachers in this institution take a final course in Advanced General Psychology, so that all the field may be better integrated and a better fund of knowledge may be acquired for teaching the subject.

A final requisite, that is perhaps an important one for the teacher who is to realize his best in the earlier courses, may be added. Do not try to teach advanced or graduate psychology to the student in the first course. This is one of the

greatest faults of the new teacher who has done graduate study. These teachers, having advanced beyond the fundamentals into the more complex phases of psychology, are apt to try out those facts on their pupils which are interesting to themselves. The result is that the student is led away from the fundamentals emphasized in the text into a complexity of subject matter that may be almost entirely "over his head." Only one advantage may accrue to the teacher who does this in college as well as in our high schools. He may get credit for great erudition. The impression may prevail that he actually "knows too much," as was expressed of one professor in another department outside this institution. This man, by the way, had just acquired a new graduate degree.

If the gap between teacher and pupil is to be eliminated, the former must get down to the level of the student in presenting the subject-matter. If a teacher lets his memory roam back to the little he acquired from the first course he himself had, that recollection will

be sufficient to keep him humble and furnish him a clue as to what the student actually can do. Someone has said that the adult who discovers what little children know of what they know is apt at the same time to discover what little he knows of what they know. The gulf is not an inseparable one, however, and can be bridged more adequately by a careful and detailed presentation of the fundamental facts. These facts should be clothed in the simplest explanatory words, not overly dramatic, but it is better to have them dramatic than with no feeling at all.

In conclusion let me say again that the teacher who is in love with his subject and who loves the subjects (students) he is teaching is the one who will successfully "put across" his courses. Unless these two conditions prevail there is hope for little success for him. The first course in psychology can be made interesting. It is the course also in which interest should be manifested by the student for pursuing the more specialized courses in psychology.

CAMPUS ACTIVITIES

THE PSYCHOLOGY Department of the College has recently organized a Psychological Clinic, the services of which are available at the minimum cost to anyone who may care to apply. While the clinic is maintained in the Psychology Department at the College, arrangements may be made for holding "extension clinics" in communities where there are interested persons. The fees are nominal (traveling and maintenance expenses for the members of the clinic staff, which would comprise not more than five people, plus a charge of 25 cents for each case to cover the costs of tests and other materials). The only specific requirement is that some person or organization assume definite responsibility for the enterprise. In most cases, of course, this would be a school or Parent-Teacher group.

The Clinic offers a scientific examining, testing, counselling, and remedial service on the psychological, educational, and vocational problems of children and young people. Some of the more common types of difficulties and problems on which the Clinic is prepared to advise include: personality maladjustments, such as are exhibited by shy, timid, fearful, friendless, stubborn, over-aggressive, inatten-

tive, jealous, or introverted children; poor habit formations, such as tics, sleep disturbances, thumb-sucking, nailbiting, faulty feeding habits, or speech disorders; behavior problems including stealing, lying, destructiveness, truancy, disrespect for authority, or fighting; problems involving intellectual and educational deviations, such as reading, spelling, or arithmetic difficulties or poor scholarship generally due to emotional or intellectual factors which are not immediately apparent; and problems involved in the selection of and preparation for a vocation.

The permanent staff of the clinic is composed of Dr. C. B. Pyle, head of the Psychology Department and of Dr. J. A. Glaze and Dr. Paul Murphy, professors of psychology. The staff of an extension clinic is usually made up of these three persons plus one or two clerical assistants. The services of the clinic are available at all times during the school year.

DR. WALTER S. LYERLA, head of the Department of Commerce and Business Administration, was one of the speakers at the Social-Economic Round Table at the Convention of the National Commercial

Teachers Federation which was held at Chicago, Dec. 28-30. The general theme was Administration and Supervision of Social Business Education. Dr. Lyerla's subject was "From the Standpoint of the Head of a State Teachers College Teacher Training Program."

DR. ROWENA WELLMAN was elected to fill the vacancy created by the resignation of Mrs. Lillian Miller-Crane in the Department of Commerce and Business Administration. She will teach shorthand and typewriting and assist with the graduate work of the Department. Dr. Wellman received her doctor's degree at Columbia University last year.

MISS GABRIELLA CAMPBELL will conduct six rural school music festivals in each of which 400 to 1500 children will participate. These will take place at Yates Center, Jan. 22; at Columbus, Feb. 26; at Fredonia, March 5; at Paola, March 19; at Sedan, March 26; and at Ft. Scott, April 8.

MISS MARY KARPINSKI and Miss Virginia McAllister of the Foreign Language department are giving to the children of the fifth and sixth grades in the training school an hour of French instruction each Tuesday and Thursday. Miss Karpinski and Miss McAllister are teaching French to these children through plays, games, dramatizations, songs, and art work.

MISS JANE M. CARROLL, principal of Horace Mann Training School, and Miss Dorothy McPherson, elementary supervisor of Coffeyville, Kansas, have been appointed by the State Board of Education to serve on an advisory committee to recommend textbooks for Kansas schools.

The Department of Industrial and Vocational Education held its Third Annual Department Dinner in the Arabian Room, Hotel Besse, Jan. 8, for the purpose of receiving reports from two important conventions. Professors Rudolph L. Schwanzle and Laurence G. Cutler reported on the proceedings of the twenty-eighth annual meeting of the Manual Arts Conference of the Mississippi Valley, which was held in Chicago, Nov. 11-13. Mr. Charles M. Miller, State director of vocational education, Topeka, reported on the thirty-first annual convention of the American Vocational Association, which occurred in Baltimore, Dec. 1-5. Dr. William T. Bawden, head of the Department, served as toastmaster, and supplemented the reports of the other speakers.

DR. JACOB UHRICH presented his research findings on "The Social Hierarchy in Albino Mice" to the Animal Ecology sectional meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Indianapolis. Dr. Uhrich is teaching in the Biology Department of the College during Professor Claude Leist's leave of absence.

Miss ETHEL PECK, kindergarten supervisor in the Horace Mann Training School, was appointed president of the Kansas Division of the Association of Childhood Education at a meeting held in Lawrence, Kansas, Nov. 5, 1937. The meeting of the association will be held in Pittsburg next fall during the state teachers' meeting.

DURING THE 1937 summer session a graduate course in commercial education was offered in the Department of Commerce and Business Administration. This course, Principles of Commercial Education 310, is not only for commerce students but also for principals and superintendents who are desirous of obtaining information concerning commercial education and securing knowledge of the educational requirements for teachers of commerce. Of the fifteen enrolled in the course last summer there were a number of principals and superintendents.

WHILE IN Washington, D. C., during the Christmas holidays, Miss Mary Karpinski, of the Foreign Language department, visited the National Headquarters of the American Association of University Women and discussed the Association's program for international peace, in which she has been actively interested since her work as European Fellow of the Association in 1933-34.

Miss PATRICIA WEBB, president of Lambda Chapter of Phi Alpha Theta, and Miss Lula McPherson, national historian of Phi Alpha Theta, attended the National convention of their fraternity in Philadelphia, Dec. 27-28. They also, along with Dr. Elizabeth Cochran, attended the American Historical Association.

MR. RUSSEL MYERS was added to the staff of the Department of Commerce and Business Administration. Mr. Myers received his B. S. degree at K.S.T.C. and his master's degree from the University of Iowa.

Miss DALE ZELLER, director of the State program of curriculum reorganization of the State Department of Education, Topeka, visited the College, Dec. 16, and spent the day in conference with members of the staff of the Department of Industrial and Vocational Education in a study of implications of the state curriculum program for the teacher training institution, with special reference to problems involved in the preparation of teachers of industrial arts.

WITH THE anniversary of "Prexy's" 25 years of service to K.S.T.C. as its feature, the Kanza staff this year is planning a bigger and better yearbook, surpassing those of all preceding years, according to Fred Childress and Esther Sherman, manager and assistant editor of the publication.

FIELD NOTES

MORE THAN 600 K.S.T.C. alumni, former students, and faculty members joined in reunion dinners or luncheons, Friday, Nov. 5, in the six cities in which sections of the Kansas Teacher's Association conventions were held. Souvenir booklets distributed at all of these reunion dinners were dedicated to President Brandenburg.

Miss Gladys Rinehart, fifth grade supervisor of the Horace Mann Training School, who is studying at Columbia University, sailed for South America Feb. 11, on a three months' trip. Her itinerary includes Iquassu Falls, the Inca country, and the Chilean lakes besides Rio de Janeiro and other cities.

LLOYD BEATTY, B. S. in 1936 and M. S. in 1937 in history, is head of the history and social science department of St. Phillips Junior College, San Antonio, Texas.

Miss S. LUCILLE HATLESTAD, assistant professor of physical education, is on sabbatical leave for the year 1937-38. She is studying for her doctor's degree at the University of Iowa, Iowa City. Miss Hattie Stoskopf, who has been teaching in Baxter Springs, Kansas, and Miss

Sue Smith, a major student in Physical Education, are assisting in the Department of Physical Education in the absence of Miss Hatlestad.

MISS BEULAH FERN SHOCKEY died Jan. 2, 1938, in Kansas City, Kansas. She was an alumna of the College and a member of the home economics staff in the summer of 1924.

JOHN F. HABERBOSCH, B. S. and M. S. in history, has a position in Wasatch-Logan Academy, Mt. Pleasant, Utah. He writes that the academy is a co-educational boarding and day school with a faculty of twenty-one teachers, having eleven buildings on the campus and a mountain lodge in the Wasatch range.

WORD COMES from Indianapolis, Indiana, that Professor D. M. Bowen is improving in health. Mr. Bowen was taken seriously ill last summer and has not been able to return to work. Physicians report his condition at the present time is quite favorable. Mr. and Mrs. Bowen are spending the winter with their daughter and son in Indianapolis.

DR. AND MRS. ERNEST MAHAN are in Springfield, Illinois where they will be the greater part of the winter. During the last few weeks they traveled extensively in the New England States. Their Christmas vacation was spent with their parents in Indiana.

RUTH TORRANCE, student in the College last year, has been awarded the legislative out-of-the state scholarship at the University of Wisconsin for the coming year. She will major in journalism.

JACK BROWN, former gymnast and physical education major who attended the University of Iowa last year, received a scholarship from the University of Budapest, Hungary, for this year. This was made possible by an exchange of students with Iowa University.

ARTHUR C. PHELPS, former student, has been appointed principal of the Boys' Industrial school, Topeka. Mr. Phelps was county superintendent of Labette county 1925-1931. During the Woodring administration he was principal of the industrial school.

ORA MCCLELLAN has been recently appointed legal adviser for the Social Security board at Topeka. Mr. McClellan received his B. S. in 1930 and his M. S. in 1934 in the history department. He later graduated from law school at Washburn University and was admitted to the Kansas bar.

CLARENCE STEPHENSON, A. B. in history, is assistant business manager for General Motors in the Chevrolet Division for the Oklahoma City Zone. Mr. Stephenson was president of the Student Council in 1934-35.

STACY DENHAM, B. S. 1930, who is employed with the Bureau of Fisheries, Washington, D. C., is a fieldman in the southeastern states for this Bureau. Mr. Denham held a fellowship in the Department of Zoology, Indiana University in 1931-32.

GARRETT MORRISON, who graduated from K. S. T. C. last spring with a major in psychology, is attending Duke University, where he is working on an advanced degree. He was awarded a fellowship in the psychology department there and is teaching two sections of elementary psychology in return for his stipend.

WILLIAM Y. BAKER, who was a Pre-medic student here from 1926 to 1929 and who later received his M. D. from Nebraska University School of Medicine, was awarded a Research Fellowship, Rockefeller Foundation, at the Institute of the Pennsylvania Hospital, Philadelphia, in July. Dr. Baker served his internship in Harbor View Hospital, Seattle, Washington, and at the time of receiving the fellowship appointment was on the staff of St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C.

WAYFARING

This column is devoted to notes and letters from faculty members away on leave or from other friends of the college who are doing interesting things.

A LETTER FROM
DR. RALPH A. FRITZ

Nine months of study and travel in Europe will end for Dr. Ralph Fritz of the Education Department when he and Mrs. Fritz and their three children set sail in May in time for Dr. Fritz to be back at work at the College by the beginning of the summer school. The Fritzes were in Nice at the end of February for the big festival held there annually. From there they planned to go to Geneva, thence down the Rhine into Germany, and over into France to see the once war-torn country where Dr. Fritz soldiered back in 1917-18. Then they were to spend the rest of the spring at Brussels and in England.

Late last fall Dr. Fritz wrote an interesting letter to President Brandenburg telling of studying in the University of Innsbruck, Austria, and of his observations and experiences.

"Our politicians have made of the world an unnecessarily complex mess," Dr. Fritz said in lamenting the great number of monies one must learn when traveling in for-

eign countries. "We would just learn how to count change and how to estimate the cost in dollar equivalents of things when we would have a new set of money to learn. We ran through a maze of pounds, shillings, pence; marks, pfennigs; crowns, and another coin I have forgotten; pengos and filars; and schillings and groschen. Soon it will be francs, centimes, and lires.

"We thought Norwegian and Swedish bad enough, but the language in Czechoslovakia just meant nothing to us. The signs on the shop windows are just a mixture of letters—with a few vowels. We were in each country just long enough to learn a few words and how to locate a bakery or distinguish a grocery from a hardware, when we would have to go to another and have to learn all over again."

The momentous events taking place in the Old World are proving extremely interesting to Dr. Fritz, especially those in Austria and Hungary. However, a return to the United States will afford welcome relief from confusing customs duties, he said.

COMMENTS ON BOOKS

The Mentally Ill in America; A History of Their Care and Treatment from Colonial Times.

By Albert Deutsch

The nature of this very readable book is indicated by the late Dr. William A. White of St. Elizabeth's Hospital in Washington, D. C., when he says in the foreword, "Mr. Deutsch's book . . . might be described in a very few words by saying that it traces the evolution of a cultural pattern as represented by the way in which people through the years have thought and felt about the so-called insane."

Contrary to what one might expect from the title of the book, the contents are not laden with technical language nor designed primarily for the consumption of experts in the field of mental defects, but are served up in an exceptionally readable style that will appeal to the reading public. Since the preparation of the book was made possible by a grant from the American Foundation for Mental Hygiene, one would suspect that Mr. Deutsch was selected for the task of producing the volume on the basis of his literary skill as well as his knowledge of the field.

Of especial interest to the lay reader will be those chapters dealing with the outstanding personalities who have worked with the insane. The chapter on Benjamin Rush, "the Father of American Psychiatry," is noteworthy for its impartial evaluation of his contributions to the science of psychiatry, paying, as it does, full tribute to the innovations introduced by him, yet reminding the reader that the millennium in psychiatric practice is far from being reached. Deutsch's characterization of Dorothea Dix, the nineteenth-century crusader in the interests of providing better facilities for the care and treatment of the insane, will do much to remove the atmosphere of mystery in which the life and work of this woman has heretofore been shrouded. Clifford Beers, the founder of the mental hygiene movement, also comes in for his fair share of richly deserved praise. As a matter of fact, the author seems to be at his best when he is dealing with personalities; however, the entire book is written in masterly style and will undoubtedly serve as a source of inspiration and enjoyment to all who read it.

—Paul Murphy

Education in a Democracy

By Alonzo F. Meyers and Clarence O. Williams.

This book is designed as a basis for an orientation course for students in education but is adapted to the use of the non-professional student or layman who desires to gain some basic concepts concerning education in our American school system. The point of view and procedure of the authors differ significantly from that of the traditional introductory text in education. "Education, broadly interpreted comprises all the efforts, conscious and direct, or incidental and indirect, made by society to accomplish certain objectives that are desirable." The major emphasis is placed upon the function of education in a democratic society with reference to its implications in contemporary social, economic, and political problems.

The content of the book is organized into seven interrelated units instead of chapters. The topics of these units are: Our American School System, Influences Affecting Our Schools, The Significance of Education in Society, Contemporary Problems Challenging Education, Necessary and Impending Changes in American Education, Promising Educational Activities Today, and Shall I Become a Teacher.

Topics are approached with the idea of raising questions concerning

fundamental issues rather than dictating the answer. Students are encouraged to develop attitudes and express opinions instead of lesson learning, reciting, and preparing for examinations. Abundant opportunities are provided for encouraging independent work. Each unit is concluded with a number of problems and references for out-of-class study.

—Ernest M. Anderson

Mozart

By Marcia Davenport

This is a human unromanticized biography of Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, that miracle of genius who, at the age of five gave his first public performance on the clavier, whose melodies are still unmatched, who died a pauper in 1791 at the age of thirty-five.

This is the first American biography of Mozart. Written for the general reader, the biography flows with rapidity and zest. Historically, it is exceptionally accurate, and musicians will find in it a brilliant, authentic, new interpretation of the life, times, and work of Mozart.

The book contains much new and important material including the revelations derived from the Constanze Mozart-Nissen documents which appear for the first time in English.

—Eugenia Johnson