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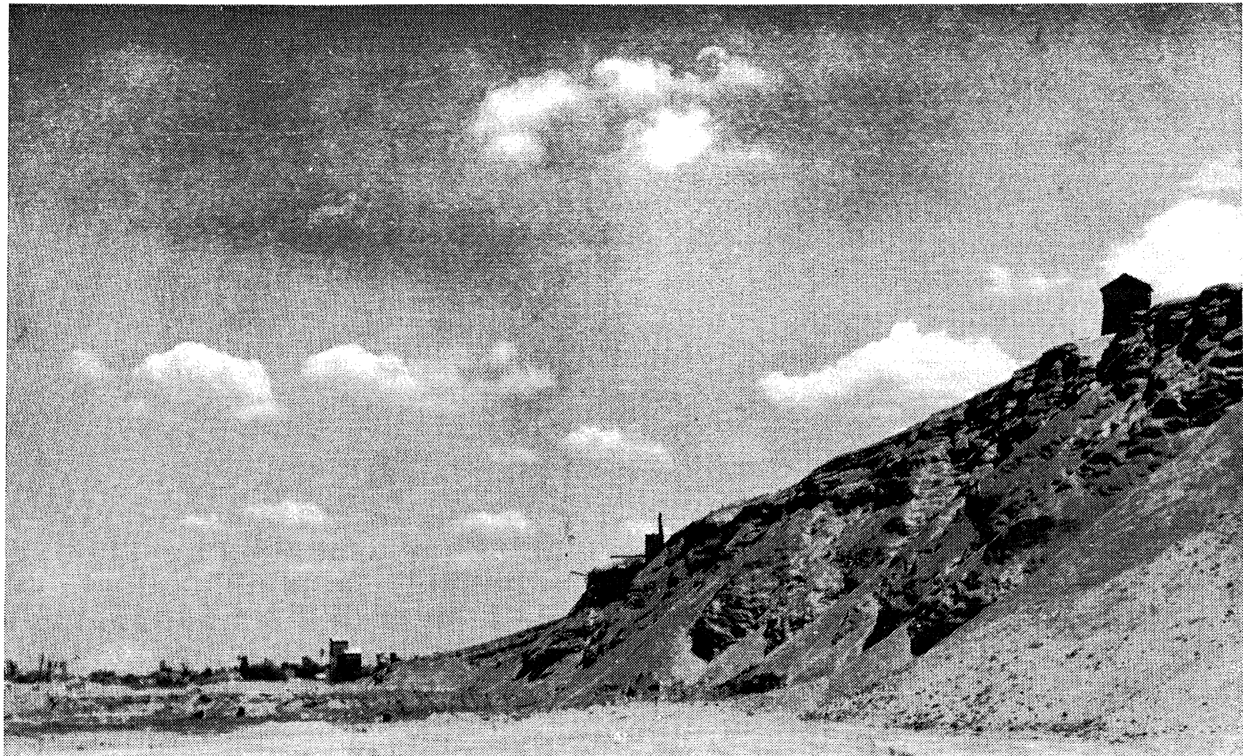
THE EDUCATIONAL LEADER

EDUCATION and PSYCHOLOGY
NUMBER

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

Vol. 5 JANUARY, 1942 No. 2



Southeastern Kansas and ajoining portions of Oklahoma and Missouri constitute one of the important lead and zinc mining regions of the United States, characterized by enormous accumulations of crushed limestone refuse, which is used in road building and concrete construction.

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The Educational Leader

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The EDUCATIONAL LEADER

Vol. 5 JANUARY, 1942 No. 2

A Challenge to College Youth[1]

Rees H. Hughes

We here today compose a unit in the great public school system of our nation, a school system that had its origin in those very early days when the founders of our government foresaw that the development and the strength and continued security of a great democracy would be dependent upon the degree of intelligence and enlightenment of its citizens.

That public school system has grown as the nation has grown until, as we enter this new school year, it is estimated that more than one-fourth of the entire population of the nation will be enrolled in some phase of the public school program. There will be more than twenty-three million students in the elementary schools; over seven million in the secondary schools; and nearly two million in the colleges and universities.

Not only has the school enrollment increased, but there have been similar changes in the organization and in the curricular and activity offerings to meet the changing needs of those enrolled. The elementary schools have been extended downward to include nursery schools and kindergartens, and it is not uncommon to find therein children as young as two-and-a-half to three years. The secondary schools have been extended downward to include the junior high schools and upward to include the junior colleges with greatly expanded programs of activities, suitable for youth from the early adolescent period to those who are ready to enter college or employment. It is a program such as has never before been provided for the youth in any nation.

Education on the college level has been liberalized and extended throughout the nation, and here, today, we represent a typical unit in the collegiate program.

There are leaders of youth in increasing numbers throughout the nation, who, during the years prior to this period of expanding defense industries, which we trust is temporary, were saying that the business of youth, up to the age of twenty years, is to be in some type of school attendance. Those who are forced to accept employment, before completion of the formal school pro-

[1]An address delivered by President Hughes at the opening of the fall semester.

gram, should be provided the opportunity to continue their training through various types of part-time, extension, and correspondence courses, many of them definitely "terminal" in nature.

Surely the growth of such a system of education, the continuous support of it by public taxation, and the increasing responsibility and confidence placed in it by its patrons is evidence that our citizens, generally, believe that ample provision for public education is vital to democracy's welfare. Educational opportunity for all its youth is the democratic concept of our people, and the American public school system is the concrete result of that belief.

Along with the rapid expansion in the provisions for education, developments in other important fields have taken place.

The first important advanced step in the improvement of communication was taken in the invention of the telegraph only a little more than a hundred years ago, and today it has been expanded and extended until it links together for communication purposes every important city and village throughout the nation.

It was only some sixty-five years ago that a Philadelphia newspaper warned the people to beware of a peculiar young man in the community by the name of Alexander Bell, who was possessed with the idea that he could talk through a wire, and because of the development and prefection of that silly idea there will be more than eighty-five million telephone calls made in the United States today.

Forty-five years ago Marconi perfected wireless, and today twenty million radio units in the United States make it possible to unite us into one vast audience.

There has been similar advancement in the modes of transportation. A hundred years ago there were only a few miles of railroad in the United States, and now our great railroad systems have been extended to include over two hundred fifty thousand miles. Forty-five years ago the first automobile patent was registered in the United States, and today you and I and the rest of our citizens are using more than twenty-eight million cars and, to use those cars, we have changed our county roads into a great system of state and national highways within a single generation.

Forty-five years ago Edison was referred to as a "crack-brain," who thought he could light homes with little glass bulbs. Today the use of electric lamps, from the standpoint of available lighting, has literally turned night into day.

It was only twenty-one years ago that women were given the right to vote in the national elections.

Through the use of machines and gasoline and steam and electricity enough power has been made available so that it is estimated that every man, woman, and child in the United States now has the equivalent of thirty-five slaves.

Engineers have harnessed nature and created satisfying services for our use.

Through the science of health the span of life expectancy has increased.

The standards of living increased four-fold between 1790 and 1930, and there is a direct relationship between the standards of living of people and the education level to which they have attained.

The average rate of pay for wage earners has been increased five times since 1860.

The development of motion pictures has enlarged our vision until characteristic scenes and interesting people throughout the entire world are available to all of us.

We have amplified our voices and through sound transmitters strengthened our ears until we hear from the other side of the world as well as from our neighbor's yard.

A recent report of the National Resources Committee says: "There have been nearly one and a half million new patents registered in the United States in the past thirty-five years, a direct result of our scientific and mechanical interest and study."

These developments and many others, characterizing our so-called progress, are largely the result of advancement in science and mechanics and invention, and there has been a direct relationship between these and the program of education in the schools.

However, this period, which has produced a greatly expanded system of public education, witnessed the development of scientific and mechanical power, and recorded great social and political changes, has also brought some unsolved problems and incompleted tasks. We have boasted of our advances in transportation, through the development of the automobile, and yet in using those automobiles last year, we killed one person every sixteen minutes, injured one person every three and one-half seconds, and destroyed property at the rate of nine million dollars every day.

Note this interesting comparison. "Our nation since 1776 has engaged in six major wars that extended for a total of fifteen years, and in those wars 244,357 persons were killed in action and died of wounds, and in the fifteen years from 1923 to 1938 we killed 441,912 persons on the highways in this country."

We have boasted of our fine homes and many modern conveniences, and yet these are not available for thousands of our worthy citizens.

Through improved farming and scientific manufacturing we have produced great food surpluses, and yet many have starved for proper food. We have built great factories that have capacity to produce what our people desire and can use, and yet many of our citizens have been unable to purchase those products. In turn, failure to operate the factories has caused serious unemployment problems.

We have become the richest nation in the world and many of our people are in poverty. It was reported that in 1929 the income for the the top one-tenth of one per cent in our population was equal to the total income for the lowest forty-two per cent.

We have the greatest government in the world, and yet it has become necessary to create a strong arm for that government to protect it from those who would destroy it.

We have brought the nations of the world closer to us through travel, radio, and motion pictures, and yet we are now attempting to direct all of our resources toward getting ready to fight the people of those nations.

We have more work to be done and more kinds of jobs (it is estimated that more than ten million are working at jobs that did not exist forty years ago), and yet never in our history has the government furnished so many jobs for the unemployed.

Crime has increased more than seven times in the last forty years, and a well known economist recently stated that the crime in the United States and Canada is costing eighteen billion dollars a year.

We have great medical schools and well-trained doctors and yet a startling percentage of our low-income group received no medical or dental care last year.

There are important things yet to be accomplished, and what a challenge and an opportunity is presented to members of a college faculty and to representative youth who are in training in a typical American college.

The governmental agencies, responsible for directing the affairs of an increasingly complex democracy, will require more and more the services of those who are technically trained for employment in the various departments of government.

There will be a growing need for students well informed in the historical and social background of the peoples of all nations in order that the causes for present conflicts may be better understood and a sound basis for their settlement provided.

If America is to justify its position as a great world power and continue as a leader of nations, we, its citizens, must have understanding and an appreciation of the obligations, as well as the opportunities, of world citizenship.

Dr. James Conant, President of Harvard University, says in a recent statement, "that there is a need for scientists in many fields and the supply is exhausted." The President of the United States has recently made the following statement to American college youth: "The message I would emphasize to you this year is that America will always need men and women with college training. Government and industry, alike, need skilled technicians today; later we shall need men and women of broad understanding and special aptitudes to serve as leaders of the generation which must manage the post-war world. We must, therefore, re-double our efforts during these critical times to make our schools and colleges render even more efficient service in support of our cherished democratic institutions."

We have grown as a nation in the philosophy of peace, but now, because of outside forces that threat-

en, we are forced to accept the philosophy of war. It may be war today but surely it must be peace again tomorrow. War leads to destruction, and peace to life. May we build well the path to peace.

In such a critical period in our national life it becomes necessary for us to direct the factors that characterize our strength—our wealth, our machines, our production power, our man power—into united effort in the defense of our democracy.

A recent press dispatch says: "The proper education for all the people is the first line of defense in a democratic state. Democracy is not an easy type of government. Its founders could not guarantee its continued existence. Every generation must assume that obligation. Democracy can not be supplied by a few leaders. Its success depends upon active participation of all of its citizens."

May our great system of public schools, from kindergarten to college post-graduate, provide the type of education that will enable us to solve our problems, that will safeguard national ideals, our liberty, and freedom, and that will guarantee the perpetuation of our great democratic institutions. And may it be that our institution, the Kansas State Teachers College in Pittsburg, as a unit in the public school system, shall contribute its part.

In a book entitled "Victorious Living," written a few years ago by Dr. E. Stanley Jones, there is described a small church, located high on one of the hill-tops in Syria. The young people of the community gather in the little church on Sunday for their evening worship and it is the custom, as the service draws to a close, for everyone to go forward and take a lighted candle from the large candlelabra, located in the front of the church. Dr. Jones says that one can stand outide of the church and see those bright spots moving away, down through the valleys in all directions, lighting the pathways of those young people on their homeward journey.

I trust that your educational experience, in attending the Kansas State Teachers College, will serve to light your pathway through the journey of life. May it contribute to your personal happiness and success. May you be a worthy American citizen and make a noteworthy contribution in the building and safeguarding of our democracy.

Fears: And Their Control

C. B. Pyle

All people, unless they conquer them, have fears of various kinds and degrees. They haunt us in childhood and track us down to old age. They diminish our happiness and lessen our courage and usefulness. They spoil our friendships, for they make us nervous, irritable, gloomy, and at times irrational. "They are the black beasts of fantasy which paralyze our waking hours and fill our dreams with morbid dreads." They are the ghosts of unreality, monsters, which we dare not meet and attempt to vanquish. The unhappy throng of distressed human beings that populate our cities and towns, that crowd into the offices of nerve specialists and into our state institutions—beaten, wrecked, and hapless personalities as they are—attest the immense toll of victims of fears of childhood or emotionally undisciplined adult life. Seventy-two thousand fear-driven human beings—new cases—according to Frankwood Williams—crowd into our institutions annually for mental treatment. The economic consequences of mental and emotional maladjustments, either as outright mental disease or as a factor in social problems, reach the amazing cost of $972,000,000 as reported by a late Federal census.

Knowledge in the field of psychology has been organized and applied to so great an extent that thousands can find relief from their ailments through scientific methods rather than in cults, fads, and charlatanism. Better still, mental aberrations will be prevented by observation and guidance of children. If children are treated early in life before the aberrancies become too pronounced, they may be preserved for good citizenship and personal happiness. Most of these mental defects are caused by some underlying fear.

The basis for fear reaction is to be found in the primitive portion of the brain stem. It is native like the reflexes of sneezing and coughing. Like these also, it is constant, prompt, and uniform in man and the lower animals. In lower animals the lower brain centers perform the functions of existence. In man, though subject somewhat to cortical control, they exhibit energetic response where occasion demands urgent action, as when a human being is in peril or is driven to satisfy his elemental needs. In this event the behavior is primarily impulsive. When emotion is at high tide, cortical control is in abeyance, while the sympathetic phase of the automatic system is dominant. It sets up a barrier against intense emotion. Where the emotion accumulates too great a force, the barrier is broken down and the emotion discharges into the viscera instead of through accustomed motor channels. The emotion then "goes to the

head" like wine, causing many woes and babblings. For this reason we are often driven wildly by our emotions rather than guided sanely by our intelligence. It is not our intellect that hinders us. We trip over our emotions. Our prejudices, our biases, our deep-rooted likes and dislikes push us into actions and judgments which later we must find reasons for defending.

The net result of the investigations of Bard, Woodworth, Sherrington, Penfield, Britton, Cannon, and others seems to indicate that the dominate center for emotions is the sub-thalamus. It is in this compact center, which in a cat is less than one-fourth of a cubic centimeter, that emotions are generated, unified, and distributed. It is from this native center that the emotion of fear first arises as a means of enviromental adjustment. It is because of this important center that the infant, before it is old enough to understand the danger, responds to a loud noise or a tendency to slip or fall with a reaction of fear, as Watson has shown. This original type of fear-behavior may be greatly modified or removed by training, or it may be tremendously exaggerated by false education, the accumulation of superstitious beliefs, and unwholesome experience.

One should study the objects of fear to learn if there is real ground for fearing them. If he should find good reasons, he should learn new ways of adjustment to them. If they are not dangerous, his fear will subside. The way to combat a habit of fear is to set up a habit of courage. Since a series of failures establish the habit of fear, a series of successes will set up a habit of courage. By displacing a fearful spirit with a fighting spirit one may gradually substitute a habit of success for a habit of failure. We need to develop what one has called the "courage of possession." A minister borrowed from a substantial member of his board a ten dollar bill every Saturday night and returned the very same bill to him every Monday morning. His benefactor asked why he borrowed and returned the same bill every Monday morning. The minister replied, " When I have a ten dollar bill in my pocket I feel courageous and can look every man in the eye, and preach the gospel without fear or favor as it should be preached." Many of us go stooping around like Uriah Heep because not only on Sunday but every day in the week we do not have in our pocket that potent ten dollar bill.

A reasonable fear is of value in preventing contact with concrete situations which are really dangerous. But many fall victim to vague fears of they know not what, which carry havoc into the realm of mental and emotional stability. Fears of insecurity established in infancy are often carried over into adult life. They weaken our will and sap our courage when we undertake the responsibilities of life. A young man of splendid education, setting out on the serious work of life, when offered a responsible position, preferred to accept another position paying half the salary, because he feared failure in the better position.

The decision seemed to be one of self-sacrifice and was imputed into him for righteousness. Yet, after all, it was a decision of fear.

Many young people view with alarm the breaking of home ties and of being forced into the unsympathetic world to face ever increasing responsibilities. Nostalgia (homesickness) in its most terrible form is induced by the feeling of insecurity amid new and untried situations. And especially does one experience a keen sense of anguish if he has been the recipient of over much affection in the home. Normally one should progress gradually from the helplessness of childhood to a happy independent existence of maturity. But if he should not receive as much affection when away from home as was bestowed upon him by father and mother, the bottom seems to drop out of things and life becomes empty and futile. The loss of love and security which we once possessed at our mother's breast causes much of our fear, anxiety, feeling of guilt, and inferiority. We truly have been driven from the garden of Eden, our first security of ignorance, and must win back that love of security of knowledge in mature form by the sweat of our brow. We must not expect as much attention from strangers or from friends made later in life, as we received in the bosom of the family and from our intimates of childhood and youth. Often we must become immune to the indifference which the outside world shows to our efforts and if need be even grow pachyderm to the shafts of enmity.

A feeling of insecurity and of fear may be aroused by excessive ambition of parents for their child, by forcing a standard of achievement upon him which is beyond what his young mind can attain. Goading the child to do better by pointing out his defects breaks down his assurance and develops a sense of failure. The goal of the child always must be one he establishes for himself, which, of necessity, will be ever changing. Many fears of parents are caused by their excessive ambition for themselves—a fear of failing to realize their ambitions. "Where no hope is left, is left no fear," said Milton. As ambition wanes, fear subsides. Failure to adapt successfully is a basic cause of the fear-complex. White says, "The *summum genus* of fear is a sense of the inability to cope with life, a dread of being vanquished, and becoming not victors in the battle, a sense of limitation and of inferiority in our power to achieve the fullest success and happiness."

The great "Matinee idol," the "greatest lover of them all" on the stage, suddenly ended his life by stabbing himself with a pair of scissors because a member of the party remarked that he was a "has been." It was erroneously reported to Tellegen by a lady friend that a gentleman called him a "ham actor." "I guess that is right," said the actor, "I am just a ham actor." Several months later when he was seriously ill in a hospital, Tellegen, in moments of delirium, called himself a ham. He insisted he was a "ham actor" and a failure. Despondent, and

in failing health, haunted by the fear that his illness would affect his mind, he despairingly ended it all by suicide. It was fear, fear of failure, that he could not rebuild his shattered career that brought him to this tragic end.

The feeling of inferiority and insecurity which begins early in the life of the child determines the goal of the individual. The striving for power and superiority is a compensation for the feeling of inferiority. It is this struggle for mastery and superiority, when abused until it becomes pathological, that creates the tragedies of the lives of individuals and the gigantic evils of the lives of nations. For nations may become pathological as well as individuals. And all the teaching of the ideals, even of Christianity, provides but a slight check upon this fundamental and driving force. Education, if enlightened, can do much when begun early in life by teaching the art of living together, by giving trained comprehension, and by providing a social sympathy.

With the expansion of experience comes a rapid development of fears. Children are helpless against ignorance, superstitution, and false training. Because of this, fear is accumulative and may become a fixed habit. One's fear often spreads, attaching to objects closely related to situations he already fears. One untoward experience with a ferocious dog may create a fear of even harmless dogs. One experience with a tornado may develop a life-long dread of storms. A succession of misfortunes may place one under the perpetual thralldom of fear. Fear is contagious and may be communicated from parent to child. One develops the attitude of fear when forced to live with those afflicted with morbid dread and anxiety.

The first reaction to restraint is anger. If anger does not bring freedom, the next reaction is fear. Anger means action while fear means submission, a giving up. It is therefore a poorer form of adjustment than anger. The use of fear in child training is extremely dangerous, though easily applied and temporarily effective. But it is ruinous in the end. It is often said that a child needs to be taught what things to fear. Rather we should say that he needs to learn how to adjust himself to situations which might prove injurious if he is not properly adjusted to them. He needs more knowledge of how to control them. Such knowledge dispels fear. The child does not fear the automobile when he learns not to cross the street in front of it. He does not fear the dog after he has patted it and played with it.

Most of the child's fears are learned from its elders and not from its own experiences. Investigation by Jersild has shown a wide gap between things that children fear and the things they should fear. In case of children from five to fifteen years of age, over 20 per cent of their fears were of "supernatural events, ghosts, mysterious happenings, death, corpses, skeletons, and the like." Yet not one of these constitutes a rational ground for fear.

About eighteen per cent of fears were of "dogs, cows, pigeons, cats, horses, and the like." Yet all of these are harmless if one is properly adjusted to them. Fourteen per cent of the fears were of "darkness, being alone, strange sights, bloody people, and deformities." But when the children were "asked to tell the worst events that ever happened to them," not one "reported experiences with supernatural agents, ghosts, corpses, or death; less than two per cent reported attacks by animals; and less than three per cent reported experiences of being alone in the dark, being lost and the like." Obviously the fears came from teaching and not from actual experiences. Hagman, in a study of the fears of children of pre-school age, reported a tendency for children to have fears which correspond closely to the fears of their mothers. This only shows how almost indelibly the fears of mothers are implanted in the sensitive lives of their children.

In order to treat successfully such fears, at least by way of prevention, one would have to deal with the mothers or with those who tell children fearsome stories or mention at nightfall the "face in the window," the bogey-man, to gain control over the child. If taken in time, such fears may be erased from the minds of the children by a process of re-education, by causing the child to experience pleasant situations with the fearsome one until the fear is reduced as psychologists have so conclusively shown. In the absence of such re-education dreadful scars will remain in the child's impressionable nature for life.

These are normal fears which may be learned. Then there are the abnormal fears which demand more extensive knowledge and treatment which may be caused by an inherited, unstable nervous system, or by shocking experiences or by both. Agoraphobia (fear of open places), claustrophobia (fear of closed places), astraphobia (fear of thunder), acrophobia (fear of high places), and a score of other phobias are abnormal fears of specific situations. Usually they can be traced to childhood experiences. In one instance a three year child became fretful, whereupon a boarder in the home took the child outside, held him over a cask of water, and told him he would drop him into the water if he didn't keep quiet. At seven years, the child's teacher (a young man) in play, held him by the ankles head-down over a wall, twenty feet high on the lower side, and threatened to drop him. This filled the child with terror. At nine, his father took him to a high balcony and forced him to walk around the tower with only a small railing to prevent his toppling over. The boy was greatly frightened. His father laughed at his fear instead of trying to understand it. These childhood experiences developed in him acrophobia, a fear of high places, fear of falling, or of being pushed over the edge, especially if the high place overlooked water. The phobia was generated by his early experiences, revived by the later ones, and, though irrational,

yet was persistent and terrible. Similarly we may trace the development of other phobias or persistent fears. A discovery of their real cause will lead to a solution of the problem of fear.

Then our fears are often based upon our wishes. They are just wishes in disguised form. As paradoxical as it may seem, we may fear something will happen because we wish it would happen. The "lady in waiting" who looks under the bed fearing to find a burglar may be concealing a disappointment in not finding some assailant. The man who fears that he may forget to pay his creditor may be concealing a wish that he could forget to pay a creditor. The girl who "protests too much" a fear of being pursued by a man may indeed be afraid of such pursuit or she may be concealing a wish to be pursued, since she has taken so many pains to be attractive. One who preaches most fiercely against a certain form of sin may be near a break-down at that very point, showing that he fears his disguised wish to indulge in that sin. The more intense the desire the greater the fear which is needed to mask such desire. This mounting fear is an "energy-consuming" force, which more and more threatens to disturb the placidity of our mental life. It is the exaggeration of these disguised fears through the play of imagination that so imperils our mental life. As Morgan says, "If we should dig deep into ourselves and bring up these hidden desires and look them straight in the eye we might find them innocent and harmless." It is the emotional attitude, which, through superstition and false training, makes our desires look like goblins and spectors. Change the emotional complex and we change the character and amplitude of our fears.

Then there are obsessions in which the mind is fixed, against the will of the patient, upon words, acts, or ideas; and though the sufferer rebels, yet his mind carries on the conflict, oscillating back and forth between the thought and the deed and the rebellion it engenders; the compulsions which cause silly acts like the constant washing of the hands or touching every third post; or being fearful of the numbers three or thirteen or counting eighteen times before turning off the light at bed time. J. E. Edwards, as reported by Oliver, felt "three" to be unlucky and "eighteen" lucky. On retiring, when arranging his watch and purse on the dressing table, if he should touch one of the objects three times he felt uneasy and could not sleep. But the number eighteen gave him a feeling of assurance and peace. So he would touch each object eighteen times and that seemed to set things right. All this silliness is caused by an underlying fear. In this case a fear of high blood pressure and consequently death. These obsessive chains of thought go round and round in one's mind and one cannot stop them, like a tune that gets into one's head and that drives one nearly mad with its ceaseless repetition. Fear increases this torment by weakening one's power of turning

to other associations and so blotting out all but one circle of thoughts. The associations chase one another like a flock of sheep that trot one after another in lackadaisical monotony, always in the same path, until at length the mind gets sore. The more these monotonous sheep sink their tiny hoofs into the quick of the mind, the sorer the mind becomes until it becomes unendurable.

To cure the underlying fear, show the patient how the fear started, what lies behind it, and what reinforces it.

When a woman who has acquired a phobia of cancer can be brought to realize that her mind has become sensitized to the fear of cancer because she beheld daily the suffering of her beloved father who died of the disease, you have robbed her phobia of its persistent horror. If one can once see how the machinery of his mind works, he can do some of his own repairing when a nut or a screw shakes loose.

Then there are inhibitions which produce periods of indecision, where the mind is on center and will not move in either direction. One cannot make up his mind to do the simplest thing. The son, a victim of psychasthenia spent long hours when he arose in the morning, unable to decide whether he would put his right leg into his trousers first or his left. He feared that if he put his right leg in first, his father would die, and if he put his left leg in first, his mother would die. Not wishing to kill either parent by so rash an act he sat and gazed unable to make the weighty decision.

In various schools of psychoanalytic thought, fear is acknowledged to be a common factor. In the investigation of symbols we find according to Freud, the striving for avoidance of discomfort; according to Adler, a tendency toward assurance; according to Jung, resistance toward fulfilment of duty; according to all three men, fear of reality. The influence of parents and teachers upon children tends to repress the manifestation of fear. Often a child is ashamed to mention the night terror of his bad dreams, which only adds to the horror that oppresses him. His lips are sealed to the daily misery he suffers because of some bully, his failures in school, ridicule of his gang, or the teasing of his elders or companions on account of some native or acquired defect or some misdeed in his youth. Fear has been described as "flight with the body in chains." A kind of paralysis creeps over the organism in fear suggestive of a primitive type of reaction to danger as with the baby-quail or the opossum which compress themselves into the smallest space and remain perfectly quiet while danger is near. Probably the paralysis dream, as has been claimed, is the reproduction of the fear experience of early childhood.

In his *Men Like Gods,* H. G. Wells causes one of his characters to say, "As night goes round the earth, always there are hundreds of thousands of people, who should be sleeping, [who are] lying awake, fearing a bully, fearing a cruel competition, dreading lest they cannot make good, ill of some illness they

can not comprehend, distressed by some irrational quarrel, maddened by some thwarted instinct or some suppressed and perverted desire."

And we may add: With the depression that gray hair and wrinkles bring, the shudders engendered by the thought of approaching old age, loss of employment and at length decrepitude and death and with many a fear an unwelcome consignment after death, is it any wonder that the big, bad wolf chases men every step down to the very end of life? Is it any wonder that courage oozes out and manhood dwindles to the vanishing point under these successive and accumulated assaults of fear until one crawls at last, a poor, tortured worm behind a camouflage of whited sepulcher or erects for his last defense a flimsy barricade of barbed-wire entanglement of obsequious servility?

Shall we succumb to our fears or shall we master them? Shall we not employ our intelligence to ferret out our fears, to understand them, to discern further how to deal with them in order to direct and control them? Our science has been strikingly successful in dealing with many forms of fear. Psychology has extended the frontiers of the mental with startling revelations, which give a more complete understanding of the human mind. At length fear-driven humanity, which has struggled piteously against these unseen enemies, may find in "sound, scientific practice what it has long sought in ignorance, superstition and mystery."

Colleges for Everyone

Ralph A. Fritz

If a high school boy should ask you to name the colleges he might or could attend after he graduates next May from high school in southeast Kansas, what would be your answer? Surely the answer to his question is easy. You could name the public junior colleges at Ft. Scott, Iola, Chanute, Parsons, Independence, and Coffeyville and the State Teachers College at Pittsburg. But the question remains, is there a college suitable for *every* boy in southeast Kansas?

It is true that Kansas has a larger proportion of its youth of college age in school than most sections of America. It is also true that only a small fraction of all American youth do attend college. Some of them do not wish to attend, but is there a college-offering suitable for all who may want to go? Let us examine the question of whether colleges are available, suitable, and desirable for everyone in southeast Kansas.

WHEN DOES SECONDARY EDUCATION END?

Some of my readers will answer the question about colleges for everyone by saying that colleges should be selective, and therefore only the best students should attend. They believe that a secondary education is the limit of our educational responsibilities for the general public, and that colleges are for the few, the so-called leaders. Suppose we accept as the purposes of secondary education the seven cardinal objectives, or the more recent list of four objectives given by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938. These four objectives of self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibilty are sub-divided into more specific points. If these *are* the purposes, could they possibly be achieved by the end of grade 12? And if they are the *correct* purposes, should we not try to accomplish them with all our youth? And if the job cannot be done by grade 12, how can we continue work on it after high school graduation? In other words, when should secondary education end, with grade 12 or grade 14?

For some years Dr. Leonard V. Koos has maintained that secondary education should continue through the first two years of college. This belief has led to the organization of some public school systems on the 6-4-4 plan as at Parsons, Kansas.[1] This plan clearly recognizes the elementary school of six years and two secondary units of four years each, which end with the fourteenth year

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[1]For a description of the organization and values of this particular four-year college at Parsons see an article by E. H. Farner, W. H. Guthridge and D. B. Youel—"A Six-Four-Four Plan in Operation," *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 25, No. 100, October 1941, pp. 83-88.

of school work. The other junior college towns in southeast Kansas have the same number of years of school but are organized on a 6-3-3-2 or a 6-3-5 basis. In Pittsburg the public schools and the Teachers College together have what amounts to a 6-3-3-4 or a 6-6-4 organization. Let us leave the problem of arrangement and organization of the school units and return to our main question of the availability and suitability of college work for the youth in southeast Kansas.

OBJECTIVES DETERMINE THE CURRICULUM

Perhaps some students cannot find at these colleges the type of work which promises to fit their needs and interests. Perhaps most of our secondary education is still offered on the basis of training only the select few for positions of leadership. If our colleges are training only leaders, then even our present enrollments may be too large. But if our colleges are using their first two years to complete secondary education, then we can and should have practically all youth take some college work. Such colleges would need to concentrate upon the four objectives previously named in this article as well as upon training leaders. I wonder whether our curriculums and subjects in grades 13 and 14 are suitable for continuing secondary education for the majority of youth! If they *are* suitable, more youth should be in college. If they are *not* suitable, then we should either make them more suitable or plan other places for youth to continue their secondary education.

ALTERNATIVES FOR COLLEGE

If a young man merely sits through two years of college doing practically nothing, either because he cannot or will not do the work requested of him, he probably should not attend at all. Either he should be enrolled in courses in which he *can* become interested and do reasonably effective work, or he should not be in college. If he does not go to college, what alternatives are open to him?

Many high school graduates are too young to be permitted to take jobs in industry. There seems to be little opportunity to fit them into the work of the world. If they do not continue in college what will they do? What *are* out-of-school youth doing throughout America? Some have been taken into the CCC or into NYA work-camps and projects. Great numbers loaf, other great numbers in smaller towns, villages, and rural districts work at odd jobs or on part time. Apprentice work is discouraged by labor unions and by many industries. It would seem that the alternatives to caring for a larger proportion of youth in colleges are: (1) open more jobs to them (apprenticeships or in industry), (2) continue and expand the Civilian Conservation Corps, (3) expand National Youth Administration work-centers and projects, or (4) permit thousands of them to wait out the future by loafing or other make-

shifts provided by parents or communities.

If we do not like any of these four alternatives and therefore decide to care for more youth in grades 13 and 14 of our colleges, how can it best be done? Three main problems are involved: (1) what subjects will be best for these students, (2) what teaching methods will be most effective with them, and (3) how can we finance and administer this additional work?

STUDENT NEEDS SHOULD HELP DETERMINE SUBJECTS

Although some investigators have found that many capable high school students do not go to college, it is evident that the out-of-school group is composed mainly of students of lesser academic or bookish abilities. They seem to be unable or unwilling to learn from the common type of college assignment. Perhaps they need courses which will stress the objectives of the Educational Policies Commission but which will approach these goals with subject-matter which is more concrete and specific than our usual academic college courses. If such subject-matter is planned for these educationally neglected students,[2] it should deal more directly with problems of living and rely less upon book assignments and recitations. The content would be more of the project and experience type and less of the reading and study type. It would be more "doing" and less of merely "knowing" and memorizing. The projects would be organized so as to contribute as directly as possible to the sub-topics of the four objectives of the Commission.

STUDENT ABILITIES SHOULD HELP DETERMINE TEACHING METHODS

The projects would not only give *practice* in the problems of homemaking, efficent buying, conservation, occupations, and other activities comprising effective living as listed by the Commission, but the teaching methods would be such as to supplement learning from books. Books and reading material would certainly be used because they provide the most economical means for learning. But for these educationally neglected students there would be projects that call for activity, and manipulation of objects, with construction and production of physical objects. For these students an idea is not as clearly represented by words and phrases as by objects. Visual aids such as photographs, diagrams, drawings, models, slides, and motion pictures should supplement reading assignments and lectures. Demonstrations should accompany explanations. Written directions for a process could be illustrated and accompanied by closely supervised practice. As much use as possible should be made of trips, visits, excursions, and other types of personal, first-hand experiences. The radio,

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[2] This term is used by B. L. Dodds in *That All May Learn, Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 23, No. 85, November, 1939.

dramatics, puppets, forums, and informal discussions would also be helpful.

CAN WE FIND THE MONEY?

In a sense the money for establishing and maintaining courses for these American youths who are out-of-school and out-of-work is already available, although it is now being spent in other ways. The sums spent to combat crimes committed by some of these youth are large. The number who are inmates of industrial homes and similar institutions might be reduced. The CCC costs about $1,000 a year for each boy. The NYA work projects for both girls and boys are expensive. I suspect the constructive educational values of these groups are less than would be possible from using the same amount of funds to develop and maintain college work of the type advocated in this article.

I would agree that we are not ready in our schools and colleges immediately to function as substitutes for industrial schools, CCC, and NYA work camps. At present we have neither the teachers, the equipment, nor the funds. Surely it would be more economical in the long run to keep our publicly financed education centered within *one* organization rather than spread it around among three or more competing, yet publicly financed groups. If suitable college offerings are to be provided, then we school people must set about the job of adjusting courses and teaching methods to fit the youth as we find them.[3]

CONCLUSION

It would appear that college work which seems suitable for all young people in southeast Kansas is not now available. Or, if it is available, it must seem to many to be of little value to them. At any rate, many of our young people do not go beyond high school. A few of these get regular jobs, others join the CCC or participate in NYA projects or schools, but many simply wait until they are old enough to be permitted to hold regular jobs.

If we do not like these methods of caring for our youth, we could try to care for more of them in our regular secondary schools and colleges. This might necessitate some new courses which would deal more directly with problems of living. Book assignments would need to be supplemented by projects dealing with objects and materials; lectures would be filled with demonstrations and visual aids; first-hand experiences would be arranged through excursions and trips.

Once we are committed to the

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[3]After this article was written the Educational Policies Commission published four recommendations, the second one reading as follows: "2. That as soon as they have completed their present emergency assignment of training workers for the national defense production program, the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps should be discontinued as separate youth agencies; that their functions as agencies of vocational training, general education, and guidance should be continued but should be transferred to state-and-local educational agencies; and that their functions as public works agencies should be continued but should be located with the general agency or agencies of public works." Educational Policies Commission, *The Civilian Conservation Corps, The National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools,* N. E. A., October, 1941, pp. 5-6.

value of this type of school work, we can set about the job of preparing teachers capable of handling such revised subjects by a variety of teaching methods. Many of our academic and departmentalized college faculties have not fully appreciated the needs of these educationally neglected youth and the desirability of retaining them longer in our regular school systems. Neither have they understood that learning can take place through other than the traditional type of subjects, and by teaching methods which are not dependent primarily upon book assignments.

The problem of funds is not one of finding more money so much as it is one of *centering all education* of youth in one public school system rather than scattering it among several agencies, which tend to become competitive, although all of them are supported from public funds. With such an improved secondary school offering in grades 13 and 14, we could care for the needs of a greater number of our young people and do so with less expense than under our present scattered program. We school people need to give careful attention to this problem.

Faculty and Student Participation in School Government

Ernest Mitchell Anderson

There are those who take the position that faculty and student participation in school government is neither necessary nor desirable. But if we examine the manner in which education takes place and the functions of the school in helping individuals learn the ways of democratic living, we see that faculty and student participation is both desirable and necessary.

If precedent is desired for the introduction of a more democratic government into the schools, a study of the history of higher education will show that faculty and student participation in university government is as old as the university itself. Although developing during the time of great authority in state and church, the mediæval university took on many aspects of modern democracy. The institution was governed by the students, organized into nations, and masters, organized on the basis of faculties. Every year each nation chose a "councilor" to represent and guard the interests of the students. Each faculty elected a "dean" as its representative. The deans and the councilors jointly elected a "rector" as head of the university.

For centuries the universities were about the only places of free thought and investigation. They aided greatly in advancing the cause of democracy and in promoting civilization. This was due, no doubt, largely to the fact that policies of the universities were developed democratically from within rather than dictated from without.

As time went on, however, and as the financial support came more and more from without the institution, there developed a tendency to place the general administrative control in boards external to the faculty. These boards, made up largely by busy laymen, in turn gave over most of their control to a chief executive officer. It was here that the American university separated into two groups, the faculty and the administration. Ideally, the faculty and the administration should work in such close cooperation that they act as one.

At the point of separation of the functions of teaching and administration, it became easier to dominate the policies and teaching of the institution from without the faculty, a procedure not always in the interests of investigation and truth.

More recently, there has been a tendency to think of school organization as similar to organization in business and industry, the executive representing the employer, the faculty member standing in the place of the employee, the servant, the hired man, who merely follows di-

rection and who has no part in the management. In this connection, A. Lawrence Lowell, President Emeritus and Member of the Society of Fellows of Harvard University, makes this comment in his book, *What a University President Has Learned*: "But the professors in a university or college are not, and should never be considered, the subordinates of the president. They are colleagues, striving to ascertain and impart truth, and any attempt to treat them as agents employed to carry out directions degrades both them and the scholarship for which they stand. Therefore an analogy drawn from a business corporation, and especially one bearing upon the relation of the professor to the president and trustees, is liable to be grossly misleading and should be avoided."

There are many reasons for faculty participation in school government, but time will permit mention of only a few. In the first place, the administration of an educational institution today is a large and complex undertaking. Complete oversight taxes the capacity of any one individual, no matter how superior or well meaning. It requires the cooperative efforts of the whole faculty, or at least democratically chosen representatives from the entire faculty. In addition, the diversity of opinion and independent thought from widely different interests and points of view are a great asset in weighing values and arriving at conclusions concerning policies and procedures.

Participation is necessary for best teacher growth in service. The participating teacher becomes a colleague in an important work. He is stimulated to do his best in both scholarship and teaching. His general morale is raised. Responsibility stimulates interest and reduces criticism on the part of those concerned. Participation helps the faculty to understand the programs and policies of the institution and aids in the installation of new departures. Faculty participation is a real protection to the administration, as it spreads the responsibility and gives more stability.

Finally, faculty participation in school government is in harmony with the democratic ideal, a policy with which we are much concerned today. There is much talk of teaching democracy in our schools, but critical examination of the organization and administration will show that for the most part the schools are organized on the line and staff basis, which is far from democratic. The organization is in other words from the top down rather than from the bottom up. Students and faculty do not learn democracy best under such conditions. Democracy is learned by participating in democracy. Of all institutions it would seem that the school should lead in developing the fundamental concepts of democracy. It should be a laboratory in democratic living.

There is apparently a wide diversity in school governments today. First, there is the purely authoritative set up. Here it is frankly admitted that the executive is employed to run the institution and

that the faculty members are hired to do the teaching. Individual faculty members are treated as mere servants, or as laborers on construction works to be employed and discharged at will. It goes without saying that an educational profession can never develop under such conditions and that the major functions of the school are defeated. The same philosophy when applied to students maintains that students have no rights, merely privileges.

Next there is a type of government that might be characterized as a kind of benevolent paternalism. It is kindly and considerate of individuals, but takes the attitude that the faculty and students are not competent to have a part in administration or should not be bothered with such matters.

Another type might be characterized as a pseudo-democracy. Here there is much talk about the ideals of democracy. Many committees are appointed, but each committee is selected and manipulated in such a way that there is little real democracy. The faculty and students are frequently called together to vote on insignificant matters, but seldom on matters of real importance. The so-called student government is manipulated by a few faculty members and key students. There is a general lack of trust in the whole faculty and the entire student body.

Finally, there is the truly democratic government, based on confidence, good-will, respect, and cooperative participation on the part of all. Under the democratic conception of school government, student participation works not only toward the end of better government, but it becomes also a means by which students learn the democratic way of living. The latter function may be the more important of the two. It should be emphasized that faculty and student participation in school government does not do away with authority, nor does it take away the right for final decision on the part of the administration.

This discussion should not end without emphasizing the fact that the right of faculty and student participation in school government carries with it obligations, a willingness to give freely of time and energy, a desire to place the general welfare of the institution before selfish interests, and a whole-hearted cooperation with the administration. The administration in turn will respond with trust, fairness, and a sincere interest in the welfare of the various individuals associated with the school and working as colleagues in a common cause. The personal factor is all important, and no government can rise much higher than the individuals who are responsible for it.

Our Psychological Defenses

PAUL MURPHY

In these days when Mr. Hitler is running rough-shod over most of Europe and apparently has designs on the whole world, we are becoming more and more concerned about the defense of our United States. As a matter of fact, all other issues are being subordinated to the preeminent one of marshalling all our energies against the day when we shall be called to do battle for the ideals and beliefs of democracy.[1] Every day brings forth reports of additional efforts along this line: new appropriations, new airplane factories, new ammunition plants, new shipyards, and new quotas of draftees. And this is as it should be. There can be no doubt that we are confronted with the gravest threat to our way of life in many a decade.

This article is dedicated, on the other hand, to a consideration of the thought that our defense efforts in order to be successful cannot be confined to the accumulation of war materials only. While it is true that guns, and ammunition, and planes, and battleships are necessary for the waging of war, we must not forget that after all it is men who do battle, men who think and feel and act, and the success of their efforts depends to a very large extent upon how they think and feel and act. In other words, the defense of America depends every bit as much upon certain intangible but nevertheless important psychological factors as upon iron and steel and aluminum. Modern warfare is waged in terms of mental as well as material defenses.

Germany had this fact brought home to her in a vividly unforgettable manner in World War I. At least is seems to be pretty generally agreed by students of history that it was the breakdown in morale among the people as much as anything else that brought about the defeat of Germany. Of course, it is true that the conditions under which the German civilian population was living during the last months of the war were enough to demoralize even the stoutest hearts and that the end was already in sight, but the fact remains that the German people were defeated before the army succumbed. This was an unforgettable lesson for the war lords, and they have taken no chances on a repetition of any such contingency in this war, for while we have heard much of the cunning and detail with which every military maneuver is planned before a campaign is undertaken, just as much attention is given to the mental and moral preparation for war, both as it affects soldiers and as it affects civilians.

As an illustration of the lengths to which Hitler has gone in the

[1]This article was prepared before the outbreak of hostilities between Japan and the United States.

psychological preparation of his armed forces, let us consider for a moment just a few of the various phases of German military psychology. In the first place there was established early in the Hitler regime what is known as the "Psychological Laboratory of the War Department," which has been continuously expanded until it now employs a sizeable corps of psychologists. This agency devotes itself primarily to the administration of tests designed to select men who are skilled in such activities as automobile driving, aviation, marching, radio operation, shooting, sound detection, and tank driving. It is also the responsibility of this laboratory to select future officers, a problem the importance of which we are just beginning to realize in this country but which the German army has recognized for years.

Military ethics has also come in for consideration. We may not regard war as a particularly ethical sort of activity in this country, nor see just what significance the problem of ethics would have for the training of a soldier, but here again is evidence of the infinite pains that have been taken to see that no stone is left unturned, no possibility overlooked. The German fighter is told in his study of military ethics that "The socially meaningful, noble, genuine, religious, ethical sentiment justifies and sanctions the means." In other words, "The end justifies the means," a conclusion with which many of us would not agree. The German general, von Moltke, is cited as saying, "Eternal peace is but a dream—and not a beautiful one at that." He is quoted further as saying, "Without war, without the sentiment that includes the readiness for war, mankind would perish in the swamp of materialism." We begin to see now where military ethics fit into the general scheme of German strategy.

Morale among soldiers comes in for consideration, with the observation among scores of others that uniforms and equipment must not only be practical but also dignified in design and of a type that makes the wearer feel proud. Under the heading of the psychology of combat and conduct of war come such matters as panic and how to avoid it, the conquest of fear, the nature of the war experience, the sociological and personality factors which determine the individual's attitude in actual combat, and the mental state of the soldier before his capture. An attempt has even been made to give the soldier some understanding of the characterology of other nations, with the idea that, "We must know with what opponents our men will potentially have to deal, of what nature their soldiers and military leaders are, where their strengths and weaknesses lie. We must be able to size up the people as a whole, their tenacity, discipline, and readiness for sacrifice."

We do not mention these things in any laudatory spirit whatsoever. It is not our intention to attempt to impress the reader with the military accomplishments and achievements of Hitler, but rather to em-

phasize the dimensions of the task that comfronts us. We are a peace-loving people. We detest war and all that it stands for. We would much prefer to be exerting ourselves to the end of furthering civilization rather than having to protect it from a mad beast, but the perpetuation of that civilization depends upon our willingness to put aside our happier pursuits, temporarily we hope, and bend every joint and sinew to the establishment of a defense, both material and mental, that will be as much superior to Hitler's war machine as his is superior to that of Kaiser Wilhelm. And the first step in this process is to become familiar with the nature of the monster that we must do battle with. After all there is nothing super-human about the German mind. It is plodding, methodical, and possessed of an almost maniacal obsession for precision. But understanding the instruments and principles it has constructed and gleaning what we can of value from them, we will then be in a position to meet the enemy on his own terms and better.

With this thought in mind, then, what of our psychological defenses? What do German techniques suggest that we should be doing by way of preparing ourselves mentally and morally for the fray? What are the problems with which we shall have to deal?

In the first place, of course, we have to recognize that wars are won at home as well as in the trenches. The discussion thus far has been concerned only with various aspects of German military psychology, but the care that is taken by Mr. Goebbels and his staff of propagandists to prepare the German populace for each new hardship and each new phase of the war is well known the world over. So in any consideration of the problem of defense from this point of view, we should remember that it is a civilian as well as a military problem.

This is well illustrated in the matter of maintaining morale. This problem is coming in for a great deal of consideration from the military point of view. Every effort is being made to keep up the spirits of the boys who are in training and even more attention will be given to the maintenance of morale on the battlefield, if we are so unfortunate as to be drawn into actual combat. The newspapers have made much of the effort to bolster up soldier morale by getting the girl friends back home to pledge themselves not to write the soldiers about dates they have had with the home town boys or other disturbing information. Most people probably considered this a matter of little significance when they read of it in the paper, but it is of such stuff that heroes are made and wars are won.

On the other hand, however, we should be giving some thought to the matter of maintaining civilian as well as soldier morale. A certain amount of this is being done, of course, as in any war. Flag waving, patriotic speeches, and patriotic music are the order of the day, but these things constitute only the more superficial aspects of the prob-

lem. We must find more substantial ways of getting the average American to identify himself with his country and to realize that his own personal fortunes are bound up most intimately with those of the land in which he lives. British writers stress the importance of providing every individual with an opportunity to engage in some sort of activity that is as directly related as possible to the task of winning the war, and more particularly of bringing as nearly as possible every person into some organization that will provide him with a clear conception of war aims and objectives. That this is apt to be a matter of greater significance than in any previous war would seem to be indicated by the pains being taken by the German government to keep the German civilian populace in an agreeable frame of mind. The total nature of the present war promises to exact a higher level of sacrifice from civilians and soldiers alike than has ever been true of any previous war, with a consequent increase in the strain on the morale of both.

The problem of propaganda is intimately bound up with that of morale, since the aim of most propaganda in war time is to bolster up the morale of one's compatriots or weaken that of the enemy. Enough has been said and written of the use made of propaganda techniques in the first World War and of Hitler's fifth-column activities in this war to impress us with the significance of efforts of this sort. We are apt to take it for granted, however, on the basis of such statements, that we know about all there is to know concerning propaganda methods and that all we have to do is to start grinding it out at the proper time and things will take care of themselves from there on. However, it is extremely doubtful if this is a correct picture of the situation.

In the first place, as has already been indicated, it appears probable that higher levels of sacrifice are going to be demanded of us in this war than have ever confronted us before. Modern war is total war, involving many considerations that are unfamiliar and distasteful to Americans. This means that propaganda appeals will have to become more powerful and more effective than has been necessary heretofore. Methods that worked in Europe during the first World War or even during the present war cannot be guaranteed to work in this country because we have a different type of social and industrial organization and the personalities of Americans are different from those of Europeans. Still another consideration is the fact that most Americans have become propaganda-wise during the last decade or two and consequently are not so easily influenced as they once were. This is one of the reasons why British propaganda efforts were ineffective among the Germans at the beginning of the present war. Other factors were also operative, but the British attempted to pick up where they had left off in 1918 only to find that Hitler's propaganda organization had advanced far beyond them and

had established in the minds of German subjects an effective psychological defense against the British arguments. That people are still susceptible to propaganda appeals is amply indicated, however, by the important part played in the present conflict by so-called fifth-column activities; hence propaganda is not passé by any means. It will undoubtedly continue to play a major role in our psychological defenses among both civilians and soldiers, and we cannot afford to neglect it.

Still another contribution that psychology can make to the effective waging of war is that having to do with the selection of qualified personnel, both in the army and out of it. That Germany is giving considerable attention to this matter has already been pointed out. And we are not far behind if we are behind. Psychologists demonstrated in 1917 and 1918 that through the use of tests and interviews they could place men in the jobs for which they were best fitted accurately and rapidly; thus it was only natural that this should be one of the first jobs they were called upon to do this time.

The development of tests for the selection of aviation personnel is occupying the attention of many research workers at present. Many young men enroll for training in this branch of the army or navy and may progress through the first stages of such training only to find that they are lacking in certain qualifications that are necessary for flying. The establishment of certain physical standards for enrollment in the air corps did much to eliminate the unfit, but flying success depends upon mental as well as physical characteristics. Heretofore about the only available method for determining whether the beginner possessed the necessary mental traits was to put him in the air and let him sink or swim. Not only was this expensive (the cost of providing the initiate with the most elementary sort of training running into several hundreds of dollars), but it was also hard on the morale of those who were "washed out;" hence the advantage of being able to weed out potential failures early is fairly obvious. To date no test has been devised that will predict the success or failure of an enrollee with 100 per cent accuracy, but psychologists are making headway in the development of such tests.

A similar problem is presented in the selection of motor vehicle drivers. The present emphasis on motorization and the rapid expansion of personnel engaged in this type of work has made it necessary to select and train quickly and efficiently large numbers of drivers of many different sorts. A good deal of work has already been done in this field in the selection and training of civilian drivers; thus the army has a good deal more to begin with than in the selection of airplane pilots. As a matter of fact, the army furnishes a guide for the selection and training of its drivers in its *Motor Transport Manual*. However, the suggestions set forth there are quite general, and there is ample room for

the development of improved methods.

Still other activities and duties for which tests have already been devised or are in the process of being developed are airplane mechanic, army courier, radio operator, anti-aircraft artillerist, infantry units, surveyors, tank drivers, and anti-tank gunners. The selection of officers is another phase of this general problem, which, as has already been mentioned, is coming in for consideration. This problem presents several more complex angles, since leadership depends upon personality and character traits that are not so easily measured as mechanical aptitude or marksmanship. There is a feeling in military circles that it is much too important a matter to be left to chance, however, and the psychologist is making every effort to help in the development of information and techniques that will make it possible to select the best possible leaders.

Another phase of the problem of selection of personnel with distinct psychological implications is that having to do with the elimination of those who are mentally unfit for army service. *Collier's Magazine* ran an article some weeks ago entitled "Too Mad to Fight."[2] which emphasized the proportions of the problem presented by the mentally unfit in the first World War and pointed out the need for doing everything possible to keep such individuals out of the ranks of the army we are now developing. It is true, as the author of the article pointed out, that a large percentage of the individuals occupying beds in our Veterans' Hospitals are suffering from mental rather than physical ailments and that the stress and strain of modern warfare will seriously aggravate this problem unless steps are taken to eliminate the potential neurotics and pyschotics.

There is evidence to indicate that the problem of war neuroses has reached rather considerable proportions in Britain, both among the civil population and the troops. A large number of such casualties were reported among the soldiers following Dunkirk. One authority, speaking of the Canadian forces, reports that 16 per cent of the men invalided home from England since the outbreak of this war have suffered from mental and nervous conditions and an additional 27 per cent had duodenal ulcers, a condition frequently associated with emotional disturbance and tension. Reports would seem to indicate that the civil population maintains a surprisingly high resistance and adaptability under most disturbing conditions. Some authorities report little or no increase in neurosis; reports from those at first-aid posts in London hospitals connected with the Emergency Medical Service present a somewhat different picture, however. It would probably be safe to say that, while the incidence of the war neuroses among civilians and troops is not so great as was anticipated prior to the outbreak of the war, under a continu-

[2]W. Davenport, "Too Mad to Fight," *Collier's*, 107:19, May 10, 1941.

ing strain such breakdowns will occur in rather sizeable numbers.

That there are other defense problems which the psychologist can help solve is almost too obvious to mention. Only a few of the many activities that fall in his realm have been catalogued here. Enough has been said, however, to give point to the statement that the defense of America depends upon our ability to marshall the mental as well as the physical resources of the nation. Let us continue to be concerned about such materials as iron and rubber and aluminum, but let us never forget that wars are won in terms of courage and fortitude and morale. The pen is mightier than the sword, but the attitudes and ideas of him who wields the pen are still more significant.

What a Psychological Clinic Can Do

J. A. Glaze

The department of psychology recently conducted a clinic at one of the small schools in a village in southeastern Kansas. The results will be of general interest to educators, as we encountered problems there that are common to many schools throughout the country.

For a long time it has been felt that we needed another classification of pupils besides that based on intelligence testing. We administered the New Form (Form L) of the Binet test, and secured scores that ranged in I. Q. all the way from "dull" through "normal" and, at least, "very superior" in intellectual ability. Since some of these children are problem cases for the school system, it at once becomes evident that a classification based on achievement is needed. One might expect yet another classification—one based on moral behavior. Even one based on personality would be advantageous. In other words, there are other "I.Q.'s" besides the one based on intelligence, or perhaps we should say that there are other quotients.

It is a known fact that dull children are more apt to be advanced to a grade in school that is beyond their capacity and that much of the teacher's time is spent with them to the disadvantage of superior children. Brighter children, on the other hand, are more often held back to progress at the rate of a grade a year. Sometimes this is the fault of the teacher, but more often it is the fault of parents who become jealous of the progress of other children over their own. Still again the school system may be at fault, since the teacher does not have time to provide adequately for the education of the brighter ones, dealing with children more in the mass than individually.

This slow rate of progress for bright children sets up habits of indolence in them, especially if there is insufficient work to employ all their time. A child sees little need for overlearning a lesson to near-perfection. If he has little or no library facilities to entertain him, school will become boring and all these results will be reflected in the teacher's low class mark for such a child. It is known that most of us, as students, work at a low level in the first place. How can we expect a mere child to persist at a task that is already too easy for him? School work that does not challenge his intellect and reasoning powers loses his respect, and he is likely to hate school for that very reason. With extra time on his hands he stares around, molests other children, makes faces, throws paper wads, and plays the mischief generally. For all of this the teacher rewards him with a low "grade" in his subject.

For some reason, also, a few

children take up a "dumb-bell" attitude toward their school work. It may be that they have been insufficiently rewarded for their efforts or that a facetious answer, which might have indicated advanced thinking on his part, has been ridiculed. In an ancient history class, Nebuchadnezzar was mentioned by the high school teacher. One child, who was acquainted with Biblical history, spoke up and said, "Oh, that's the fellow that was condemmed to eat grass." The teacher looked dumbfounded and remarked, "We don't want any smart-Alec in this class." In another high school class in biology the student wrote in the term "basal metabolism" as one of the conditions of health. The class had not discussed that term; in fact it had appeared neither in the course nor in the text. When the student got a low grade on his paper and challenged it, the teacher told him that they had not been using that term in the course and that it was not to his credit to write it in as one of the conditions of health. Here the student was somewhat advanced beyond the rest of the class (I like to think beyond the teacher also) and was penalized for his initiative. Naturally, he fell back within the limited range of class terminology in order to get a good grade in the subject. Both these cases are actual incidents.

Still again a pupil often goes from one school, where he made good grades, to another one, where he makes poor ones. Of course the reverse is also true, but we are speaking now of the problem cases. The teacher might naturally feel that the child is "dumb" and was overestimated by his previous teacher. The parent is most apt to blame it all on the teacher. In between these two extremes we have another force with which to deal, one that I fear we underestimate. It is that of the influences of the new environment, requirements of the new school which become irritating to the child, and, in addition, the influences of new playmates. The previous teacher may have just taught the subject as presented in one book, giving little or no home assignments, while the new teacher in a different school may, following the techniques of good teaching, require at least some extra work from the child in the special assignments for home work or extra library work during study hours. Parents may be unaware of these extra assignments, and, never before having had to push the child because he had no home work to do, maintain the attitude, "Oh, he ought to do as well here as he did at X." As the child grows older and advances in school, more is expected of him. Therefore, the home adjustment to changing situations is of the poorest sort, and the teacher unjustly has to bear the blame for the child's failure. No teacher should feel humiliated because she unsuccessfully copes with all these forces arrayed against her, seemingly.

Besides, any one of the three general causes of low marks in school, the teacher, the home, and the gen-

eral environment, may be much stronger than the others. In fact one of them might be a ninety per cent cause itself. It is possible that neither the teacher nor the parents are to blame, at least very much. I say, "just possible." The parents might even be the offenders.

Several different types of reading tests were also administered depending on the age of the child tested. The results will be discussed briefly below.

Peter, Ralph, Charline, and Clara (the names are fictitious) are all below normal mentally, but none are below the "dull" classification psychologically. They range in age from six to thirteen.

These children, in general, are quite shy to somewhat shy, lacking in self-confidence and activity. We kept them motivated, at least the younger children, by placing before them a desirable piece of candy that they could have at the end of the testing period. Ralph had to be "pumped" constantly to get anything out of him, and this in itself shows that the teacher is confronted with a problem in recitation. Peter occasionally took up a "dumb" attitude, sometimes acting as if he had a mild stroke or spasm. Clara seemed to be wholly lacking in self-confidence and overtraced her drawing many times. It was reported that she is "babied" at home. She certainly lacks initiative.

Dan and Kermit are intellectually normal. Dan has the "what?" habit. He squints and asks "what?" before he has had sufficient time to comprehend the question. It's not a matter of poor hearing, but rather a screen behind which he can hide to secure a temporary advantage. It gives him a little time to figure out the answer.

Sarah is only six, but she is above average in many respects. She has an I. Q. of 121 and a percentile rank of 89 on her Reading Readiness test. She enters actively into the task at hand, is self-confident, acutely aware of what is going on around her, and unmolested by extraneous phenomena, such as slight disturbances in the room. She is an illustration of a first grade child whom the teacher believes possesses unusual capacities, but the teacher needs a further check on her suppositions. Sarah will undoubtedly sail through school with top grades.

Howard is over twelve, has an I. Q. in the "very exceptional" classification, has a great deal of confidence, comes right out with the answers, but unfortunately is not doing very well in school. His teacher reports his as "unable to participate in school work" and "poor in all his work." In a personality test he ranks slightly above average. His mother feels that the teacher must be at fault, since he did good work where he went to school last year.

Howard has fooled his teacher so far—at least that is my interpretation. He can't get a high I. Q. by mere guessing or by mere chance. The questions must be answered correctly and in a very limited time. His high score shows that he has much more than aver-

age intelligence and should have no trouble doing excellent school work. It seems to me that it is now the teacher's task to demand a superior type of school work and get it.

In a testing program put on at a large school several years ago, fourteen of the twenty-eight children tested with the old form of the Binet test had I. Q.'s within the limits of normal children or above. The teachers said, "Well, now what are we to do about it?" We suggested in a rather outright manner that they should "pour it on" and make them take it. The teacher of each child, together with the wise principal, visited the parents of each child and told them what "experts from the college said." In every case, so they report, the parents were willing to cooperate and see that the children did better work at school, or had an opportunity to do so, so far as the home life was concerned. In other words, the home expressed a willingness to cooperate with the school and teacher, and *make* the child do his school work satisfactorily and promptly. This is the kind of pressure that Howard needs.

The clinician stands in a unique position. His job is not dependent on irate parents. Teachers can not say to parents what the clinician can say and still maintain their position with dignity and esteem. We test, talk with the teacher about the case, talk with the child, then with the parents, and make our recommendations regardless of the circumstances. It is an impersonal position. Our results are presented by the teacher or administrator to all concerned as coming from expert sources. Thus we become buffers, shock absorbers, if you please, between the school and the home. It gets results without offending anybody. It's an excellent cathartic for all concerned.

Children and World Affairs

Gladys Rinehart

The average child ten years of age today has the opportunity of a broader knowledge of the geographical world than the college man or woman, or any other adult, had less than a score of years ago. The average ten year old with this geographical background of knowledge has the ability to study and understand world affairs far beyond the realization of most adults. Whether we like it or not, science today has brought to boys and girls knowledge of facts and problems which, a few years ago, were for adults only and those adults were, perhaps, the few who were termed the "educators" of our country.

The most outstanding mediums through which the child obtains his knowledge are the radio, motion picture, newspaper, and the automobile.

Most homes are equipped with a radio. Boys and girls *do* listen. They may not be especially interested in the news broadcasts, but they enjoy excitement. Sometimes their favorite serial is interrupted by a news flash: "The senate passes the lease-lend bill, which is now ready for the President's signature;" or "England receives the heaviest bombing of the war." Such flashes are sufficiently interesting to make an imprint on their memories.

The child attends his favorite wild west movie or a serial thriller or perhaps a movie more carefully selected by his mother. Whichever it may be, he will see a news-reel or a "short" concerning affairs of national or world-wide interest.

The newspapers today fill the child with curious interest because of their pictures. Modern children are not entertained by the colored funnies alone. The photographic illustrations also draw their attention. Since these illustrations by means of radio, wire, and wireless come from the most remote parts of the earth, the child has available a knowledge of world happenings and affairs through one of the most outstanding aids to education—the picture. A few years ago the best educated adult would have been denied this opportunity. Political cartoons with their catchy, attractive, and humorous appearance, but also with the partly hidden serious teaching, draw the ten year old's attention amazingly.

The average boy or girl has the opportunity of knowing the geography of his community, state, or country through actual contact. The automobile furnishes a means of travel in which the whole family can benefit from a trip almost as cheaply as one. So instead of leaving the eight or ten year old at home and taking only an older child, as used to be the case in train travel, parents take him along. When he returns home and to school, his mind is filled with an

amazing amount of rather jumbled and hazy information. The interesting things he has seen and done need to be investigated and verified through reading and conversation.

So far I have mentioned the contacts children of today make with the outside world. They are constantly rubbing up against the greatest problems which confront our country either through the mediums mentioned or through actual experience. The question now arises, "What is being done to help children better understand what they read, see, and hear daily?" Should they be constantly thrown into these national or world problems and then treated as children of yesterday as to their conversation and knowledge? Should not our children today be given the opportunity for bringing up and discussing questions of world affairs with adults who have had a few more years' experience?

Granting that they should be given this opportunity, can it be taken care of satisfactorily in the hurry and bustle of social and economic living, or must there be definite times given over to discussing present-day problems with our children? There are two places where this opportunity for conversation may rightfully be offered the boy or girl. These are the home and the school.

There can be no question of the powerful influence which the home has on the child's thinking. What mother and daddy say is without question retained in the mind of the small child. Whether right or wrong, the child accepts it. The child is fortunate to be in a home where the parents take time to try to answer his questions and to help him interpret the problems with which science has given him the opportunity of experience, but about which science has furnished simple explanation.

The school has an advantage over the home in being able to furnish the child more viewpoints of individuals. The child in the home gets the point of view of the mother, father, brother, or sister, perhaps. In many cases these viewpoints are similar regarding people, politics, or religion. In the schoolroom there are children from twenty to thirty families. They bring a variety of viewpoints. A boy or girl may be surprised to learn that there is more than one way of looking at a thing and that intelligent people sometimes look at things differently.

Another opportunity offered in the schoolroom is that a special time may be given over each day for discussion of affairs considered of interest to many people. In order that this discussion be of value, children should be helped to understand and appreciate the need of considering carefully before accepting as true radio reports, newspaper clippings, and conversations. The difficulties encountered by reporters in getting accurate information should be part of the children's understanding. Children should realize that reporters are sometimes rushed by their newspapers, that they are often in great danger, and that the news they

publish is often censored. Children, when guided properly, become thoughtful in conversation. They say, "I heard, I read, or I was told." They also endeavor to show the newspaper clippings, pictures, or cartoons to give their report more weight and to prove their point.

Let us list some of the values of a half hour set aside each day in the classroom for free discussion of affairs of wide interests. Some of these values may be: first, a give and take attitude; second, a rudimentary knowledge of facts concerning place, geography, history, people, industries, trade relations, and politics; third, a pride in thoughtful consideration of peoples' actions—not jumping at conclusions; fourth, a desire to investigate and seek further knowledge; fifth, the opportunity to tell of experiences and ask questions; and sixth, a definite relation and common interest between the home and the school.

For greater appreciation of children's interest in world affairs and their eagerness to share these interests with others, I wish to relate a few examples of children's contributions both in thinking and materials. The ages of these children range from nine to eleven years.

A cartoon is brought before the class by one of its members. The cartoon shows the Leaning Tower of Pisa on which is perched Mussolini. Adolph Hitler is rushing with a prop to keep the tower from falling. The child explains that the tower is Italy and that Italy is about to fall and Germany is coming to help. The children are interested in the events and attracted by the comic appearance of Mussolini's helplessness and Hitler's evident haste to reach him in time. The teacher asks, "Why is the Leaning Tower of Pisa used to represent Italy? Is there a real tower? What is Pisa?" No one knows. The map of Italy is consulted. The city of Pisa is located. Then the teacher suggests that there is a real Leaning Tower of Pisa. "Would some one like to find a picture of the real tower in the encyclopedia?" Eager hands are raised. One or two are permitted to go to the library and soon return with the encyclopedia containing a picture and article on the Leaning Tower of Pisa. Some study is made of the Tower; then the encyclopedia is returned to the library and the child places his cartoon on the bulletin board. It is readily seen that values of learning and understanding by one political cartoon were afforded. Most homes take a newspaper of some kind. Children frequently say, "Mother or Daddy helped me understand this," when they explain the meaning of a cartoon.

During the last presidential campaign, the children learned the proper give and take attitude by discussing their favorite candidates in the presence of a teacher. Children equal their parents in intensity of feelings regarding candidates. One boy came in and said, "Last night a senator was talking. His speech was being carried into the street by loud speakers. When I walked by, I just held my ears be-

cause I couldn't stand to listen to him." All he knew about the senator was that he was of the opposing party to the one he was boosting. However, he looked thoughtful and agreed to the suggestion that it might have been sensible and wise to have listened to what the man had to say in order to learn his point of view. I heard an adult say when a candidate was speaking over the radio, "Turn the dial, I can't stand to hear his voice." No doubt this boy had heard similar remarks.

Children are always at ease before their own group when they have something to contribute. A slow reader will struggle manfully to convey the meaning of a picture by reading what is written below. Children listen with appreciation to what one of their own number contributes. I have seen adults look amused or openly laugh when a child makes a thoughtful remark which sounds beyond his years. In a few years that same child will take over the affairs of the nation, and those same adults may wonder why such a bright young man does not express himself with more confidence.

The child's thinking is often a surprise. The children had discussed the meaning of "Fifth column." Later in a history class discussion, the teacher explained that a Tory was one who wanted to live in this country, but who was still loyal to England. One boy said, "We have people like that today, only we don't call them Tories."

Children who have taken a trip somewhere love to relate their experiences to an audience as much as adults do. The wise teacher will give every child this opportunity. She will not call on him extemporaneously, but set a time when he may have his talk prepared. Usually his parents give him assistance by allowing him to bring pictures or objects to show. He also goes to the library to study more about the places he visited and to make sure of his statements. He knows that if his audience questions his information, it will also feel free to ask for explanations. Properly trained children take pride in accepting suggestions and saying, "I may be mistaken and shall be glad to look it up."

When an opportunity is offered for free discussion, the children constantly contribute added information concerning school activities which they get at home. One child had told his mother about the Spaniard, Pizarro, and his men capturing the Inca Indians and their leader, Atahualpa. Later he reported to the group, "Mother and I were waiting in the dentist's office and were looking at some *National Geographics*. Mother found an article and pictures about the Inca Indians. The article told about Pizarro and Atahualpa." His face reflected the joy and pride he felt in his mother's interest.

The class had been studying about the uses of reptiles. They had also read about Sugar Loaf Peak at the entrance to the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. As a result, a boy brought a magazine which his father obtained for him. The maga-

zine was *Brazil Today,* published monthly by the Brazilian Information Bureau, New York. In the magazine were fine pictures of the capital city of Rio and Sugar Loaf and also a description and excellent photographs of the famous snake farm at Butantan, Brazil, where serums are prepared to counteract snake-bite.

The class was writing a historical play. We wanted as many actual quotations of the characters given by historians as possible. The children aroused the interest of their parents who began searching through the histories which they had used in school. They found a number of quotations, and the children proudly brought them to school. One child confided, "Mother said that you would get a kick out of what this says." I did, but most of all out of the feeling that we were all working together.

One father returned from St. Louis with a book for his daughter, which contained photographs of animals in the St. Louis zoo. The child did not bring it to show the group without preparation. The children had been studying South America, and she looked up all the animals from South America and wrote down the pages ready to show. Most adults probably think of the various animals in a zoo as coming from "some foreign country." Children know geography so much better that they are not satisfied unless the animals are definitely located.

The children understand that friendly trade relations between Argentina and the United States are difficult, as the two countries produce vast amounts of corn, cattle, and wheat. Recently one boy brought a clipping of a graph headed "Our Trade With Argentina and How it Has Increased." He pointed out to the group that our exports to Argentina were greater in 1940 than ever before. Our imports were higher than any year except 1937, but the exports were about $25,000,000 more than the imports.

Children study details in maps, graphs, pictures, and cartoons that the average adult would overlook. At free times during the day, small groups gather around the bulletin board and discuss the latest contributions. Recently, I noticed a small group of fifth grade girls going back and forth from the bulletin board to a large wall map of Europe. With some argument and repeated consulting of the bulletin board, they were making locations on the map. They explained that they were locating the Caucasian oil wells. The day before, a boy had brought a small map clipped from a newspaper, which showed the Nazi invasion of Russia and the location of the Caucasian oil fields. The oil fields were represented by pictures of derricks. Since the children had already discussed the importance of keeping the Caucasian oil from the Nazis, they were much interested in the map. The girls were continuing the study of the situation. How many of us were interested in the oil wells of the Caucasus at the age of ten? To the ten year old today, the oil fields of Europe may be as

familiar as the oil fields of Oklahoma, if he has the opportunity of discussing present day problems in history, geography, and economics, which are brought to him daily by modern communication and transportation.

Our future depends upon our children's thinking. Three objectives of modern teaching to keep in mind are: first, to assist the child in organizing his thinking; second, to stimulate him to think in such a manner that it may carry over into adult life; and third, to guide the child to do independent thinking.

To carry out these objectives requires careful thinking on the part of adults. Above all, it requires an absence of indoctrinating and a willingness to listen to and investigate children's ideas.

COMMENTS ON BOOKS

The Pulse of Democracy
By George Gallup and
Saul Forbes Rae,
Simon and Schuster, New York 1940

One of the more interesting devices that has been developed within recent years for implementing the democratic system is the public opinion poll. As early as 1888 James Bryce suggested some such technique as a means of remedying the most obvious weakness of government by opinion, which he took to be the difficulty of ascertaining that opinion. However, the fact remains that it has only been within relatively recent times, under the impetus of our growing knowledge of statistics and the mechanics of population studies, that a specific technique for measuring the ebb and flow of public opinion was devised.

For many years the Literary Digest poll dominated the field. In the years between 1933 and 1936 a number of other individuals and organizations became interested in the problem, one of the more outstanding of which was the American Institute of Public Opinion directed by George Gallup. When the Literary Digest poll encountered its nemesis in the election of 1936, a story too well known to be repeated here, the American Institute assumed the dominant position in the field, a role it has continued to maintain up to the present time. In the *Pulse of Democracy*, Dr. Gallup and his collaborator, Dr. Rae, tells the interesting story of polls in general and the American Institute poll in particular.

Beginning with a consideration of fundamental processes of democracy, they show how the public opinion poll gears into and implements the democratic process. The technicalities of such a poll are discussed in interesting and readable fashion, and the failure of the Literary Digest poll in 1936 is explained. The measures taken to insure the accuracy of the American Institute poll are described and methods of obtaining information are discussed. The accusation that the results must be faked since "I have never been interviewed by an American Institute interviewer and have never met anyone else who has" is met with the startling statement that a national election or public opinion on a national issue can be measured within limits of 5 per cent accuracy on the basis of 600 to 900 ballots that are properly selected. This may sound like heresy to the man on the street, but its truth can be demonstrated statistically.

Facts and figures on social issues that have been studied by the

American Institute are set forth in the second part of the book and an interesting look-see into the national mind is thereby provided. In the third section the critics of the polls are allowed their inning, but it would appear they have little "on the ball" since the authors answer their criticisms logically and effectively. Particularly interesting is their discussion of the question as to whether the polls constitute a threat to representative democracy as a consequence of their supposed influence on a "band-wagon" vote. The authors argue in fairly convincing fashion that there is little evidence of any such influence or of a "band-wagon" vote of any appreciable size.

In these days of so much loose talk of democracy, it is refreshing to find that someone is actually doing something about it. There can be little doubt that there are still plenty of improvements to be made in the democratic system, and one lays this book aside with the feeling that the "opinion pollers" have made a real contribution in this direction.—Paul Murphy.

What's Past Is Prologue
Mary Barnett Gilson
Harper and Brothers, New York, 1940

This book is an exceedingly readable account of the development of employer-employee relationships in this and other countries since the beginning of the century. Using her own broad experience in the industrial field to give continuity to the discussion, Miss Gilson surveys the field of scientific management in brilliant fashion.

Beginning life in the "none too gay nineties" in Pittsburgh, the author had ample opportunity to observe the miserable condition under which the laboring man worked. These early experiences undoubtedly had a good deal to do with the shaping of her career, although she says it was not until after she had graduated from the sheltered halls of Wellesley and found employment as a librarian in one of the drab and unlovely mill districts of Pittsburgh that she became aware of the social and economic problems that were developing at that time.

Impressed with the aimlessness of most of the young people who visited her library, the author became particularly interested in vocational training and guidance; so, when she was offered a job in training department store clerks, she jumped at the opportunity. From this she progressed to a position as "Vocational Counselor" in a trade school for girls and finally into industrial management as personnel manager of a large men's clothing factory in Cleveland. With this, her career was definitely initiated—and a brilliant career it proved to be.

The reader cannot help being amazed at the breadth of Miss Gilson's understanding of the issues involved in personnel work, as he watches her dip into one phase of the field after another. Pioneering though she was, she demonstrated an early grasp of the humanitarian principles and philosophy that finally show some promise of gaining

acceptance in the field of labor-management relations. Nor was the author content to devote all her time to the everyday routine of her work, taking time out frequently to do research and write treatises on such theoretical and yet significant subjects as unemployment insurance in England or labor conditions on the plantations of the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association. That one person's life could encompass such a cariety of different interests and experiences is almost unbelievable, and yet it is all there in black and white.

Of course, as Miss Gilson says, what's past is merely a prologue to the important advances that will be made in this field in the years to come, and yet one has the impression upon laying the book aside that the prologue will have much to do with shaping the future course of the drama and that Miss Gilson's name will not be an unimportant one in the final cast of characters.

—Paul Murphy

Contributors to This Number

Rees H. Hughes (M. A., Teachers College, Columbia University) came to Kansas State Teachers College as guest professor in the 1939 summer session and became president of the college July 1, 1941. Before coming to Pittsburg, Mr. Hughes served for nineteen years as superintendent of schools in Parsons, Parsons being the first school system in Kansas to organize under the 6-4-4 plan. He has been one of the leaders in the development of public junior colleges, serving as president of the State Junior College Association and as a member of the North Central Association Committee on Accrediting of Junior Colleges. Every phase of public education has been included in President Hughes' experience—rural teaching, high school teaching, high school principalship, and city superintendency—and he has been active for a number of years in the teachers' program of the state. He has served as vice president and president of the Kansas State Teachers Association, has been a member of the Board of Directors of the Association for several terms, and has just completed service as member and chairman of the Legislative Committee.

Ralph A. Fritz, (Ph. D., University of Iowa) is professor of education and conducts theory courses for prospective high school teachers. He has taught in high schools in Colorado and Des Moines, Iowa. He is a member of the visiting committee for the State Department of Education and the North Central Association in the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, a member of Phi Delta Kappa, of the American Educational Research Association, and of the National Society of College Teachers of Education.

Gladys F. Rinehart (M. A., Teachers College, Columbia University) is assistant professor of education and fifth grade supervisor in the Horace Mann Training School of the College. She made a tour of Europe in the summer of 1927 and a trip around the world in 1931. She is the author of a travel book *We See the World*, written for intermediate grade children, which was published in 1936. She spent the first semester of the year 1937-1938 doing post graduate work in Columbia University and the second semester traveling in South America.

Ernest M. Anderson (B. S., Columbia University; M. A., University of Colorado; Ph. D., University of Missouri) is professor of education. Dr. Anderson teaches classes

in history of education, curriculum construction, school supervision, elementary school administration, and scientific foundations of education. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa and the National Society of College Teachers of Education.

Charles Bertram Pyle (A. B., Ohio Wesleyan University; M. A., Harvard University; Ph. D., Boston University) has been head of the department of Psychology and Philosophy for fourteen years. He was acting Dean of the College and Graduate Division most of the year 1940-41. He holds membership in the American Philosophical Association, the British Institute of Philosophy, the American Phschological Association and the Psi Chi, a national psychological fraternity. His name is included in the *Leaders in Education* and *Leaders in Science.* He is the author of *Borden Parker Bowne's Philosophy* and a contributor to educational journals. He has studied in English and European universities.

Paul Murphy (Ph. D., University of Iowa), professor of psychology, came to the College in 1932. He is past president of the Kansas Mental Hygiene Society and of the Kansas Psychological Association, and holds memberships in the American Psychological Association, American Association for Applied Psychology, Sigma Xi, and the Kansas Association of Consulting Psychologists. Journals to which he has contributed are *Mental Hygiene, Kansas Teacher, Psychological Monographs,* and *Educational Forum.*

John A. Glaze (Ph. D., University of Michigan), professor of psychology and philosophy, came to the College in 1931. He is a member of Sigma Chi, national research fraternity, and of several other national and state organizations. He has written articles on research work for the *American Journal of Psychology, Journal of Genetic Psychology,* and *Journal of Comparative Psychology.*