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THE EDUCATIONAL LEADER

HOME ECONOMICS, EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY,
AND SOCIAL SCIENCE NUMBER

Published by the Faculty of the
KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
Pittsburg, Kansas

Vol. 12

MARCH, 1949

No. 2



Looking across The Oval to the Geology Building, which also houses a branch of the Kansas State Bureau of Mines, and the office of *The Kanza*, the student annual.

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The Educational Leader

WILLIAM T. BAWDEN, Editor

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CONTENTS

The Junior College Today and Tomorrow..	WILLIAM A. BLACK,	53
Current Concepts of the Growth and Development of the Young Child	E. LOUISE GIBSON,	63
An English Liberal's Conception of the Right to Govern, ALVIN H. PROCTOR,		67
The Pittsburg, Kansas, Preparatory Commission on Mental Health	PAUL G. MURPHY,	74
The Religious Implications of Jung's Psychology, EUGENE E. DAWSON,		80
The Place of the Future Homemakers of America in Secondary Education	ESTHER LEE BROWN,	83
Occupational Information and the Guidance Process, EMERY G. KENNEDY,		88
Exceptional Child? Which One?.....	R. ROSS LAMOREAUX,	94
The Roots of Juvenile Delinquency.....	JAMES C. STRALEY,	98
Pertinent Implications of the Veterans Administration Guidance Program	WILBUR S. DAVISON,	103
Education of the Exceptional Child.....	RUTH R. FLEISCHAKER,	106
Are Student-Veterans Nervous?	JOHN A. GLAZE,	111
Comment on Books		113
Contributors to This Number.....		118

The EDUCATIONAL LEADER

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The Junior College Today and Tomorrow

WILLIAM ALBERT BLACK

This paper is concerned principally with the public junior college. However, some of the ideas herein expressed have experienced their best development in private junior colleges. Many private junior colleges make an effort to serve an area as small as that served by the typical public junior college. Some private junior colleges, principally the YMCA junior colleges, offer part-time, evening-school, and adult-education courses.

The concept of the junior college as a *community college* envisages an institution which is prepared to meet the many and varied educational needs of youth and adults. It is customary for all post-high-school and adult education to be placed under the administration of the junior college. The relationship between this institution and the high schools on the one hand and the vocational schools and higher education on the other hand is observable in the titles assigned to the administrative heads. The title of principal

is borrowed from the high school; director is borrowed from the vocational school; and the titles of dean and president are borrowed from the colleges and universities.

There are over 600 junior colleges which have been started in the past twenty-five years. Very few of these have ever been closed. Most of them were able to keep going even during the war years in spite of the demands of the armed forces and the war industries. In fact, most of them contributed in large measure to the success of the armed forces and the war industries. Of the few which were forced to close because of reduced enrollments during the war period almost all have reopened.

The majority of the junior colleges of this country are showing increased enrollments as compared with pre-war years. Two-thirds of the colleges reporting to the American Association of Junior Colleges the first year after the war showed enrollment increases of approximately twenty percent.

Many of the colleges reported increased enrollments in men students.

A considerable amount of the enrollment increase has been due to the returning war veterans and the federal legislation which makes it possible for them to secure educational opportunities largely at government expense in junior colleges as well as in colleges and universities. Increases in enrollment in the past two years have come from on-coming youth. Enrollment is now at an all-time peak.

Nearly 100 new junior colleges have started since the war. The indications are that the next twenty years will see continued growth in this field. It is regarded as necessary, in many quarters, that the opportunity of a junior college experience be extended within reasonable commuting distance of a majority of youth of college age.

JUNIOR COLLEGE ESTABLISHED FOR TRANSFER STUDENT

Most junior colleges have been established to serve the transfer student. The first catalogues and the first curricula were devoted almost entirely to the pre-professional and liberal-arts students. Catalogues and courses of other colleges were copied and the first problems were those concerned with transfer of credit. In most institutions these problems have been pretty well solved for the transfer curricula. Much still needs to be done to gain recogni-

tion for certain phases of the terminal curricula.

Adult and evening school work was not attempted in many junior colleges until our preparation for the war effort began. They then offered engineering, science, management, and war training courses under the auspices of the state university or engineering college. Other institutions offered the war training programs in welding, shipbuilding, and vocational subjects. Some schools offered the government-subsidized "Out-of-School-Youth-and-Adult" program in tractor repair and maintenance or in food conservation.

It is not unusual today to find objectives listed in the catalogues of colleges and junior colleges which seem not to have been carried out in the curriculum. Often an examination of these objectives and comparison with the courses offered reveals an absence of curricula and other activities designed to give meaning to and make effective the objectives enunciated.

Improvement in this respect would undoubtedly result from an attempt by the board of education, the administration and the faculty to set down in writing just what they believe the functions of the institution to be. Having given thought to this task and having set it down in writing, they are then ready to try to outline experiences which will help in the realization of these objectives. This will result in the development of some courses. The aims and objectives

of these courses should also be in writing.

The purposes of the institution will determine, to a considerable extent, the types of experiences offered. As a part of the plan to develop courses, the results of studies of needs should be examined. Surveys are helpful in finding these needs. The surveys should deal with occupational and vocational needs and opportunities, the needs of individuals, and the needs of the democratic society of which the junior college is a part and to which it owes its existence.

The junior colleges and other institutions and agencies of government need to be studied from time to time by representatives in the fields outside their particular institutions; they need constantly to study their own programs. They need advice from consultants in industry and business, representatives of labor and management, representatives of education from the high schools and from the colleges.

All such advisers from other agencies should serve in an advisory capacity only. The junior college curriculum cannot be determined by any one group representing any single segment of the population. The development of terminal curricula should involve the following steps:¹

1. The development of the philosophy of junior college ter-

minal education by the entire faculty and administrative staff.

2. Occupational and employment surveys of the immediate area of the junior college, and a study of the needs of the country at large.

3. The organization of advisory committees of laymen whenever essential.

4. The selection and organization of the courses as based upon the recommendations of the college staff, the findings of the surveys, and the advice of the advisory committees. The effectiveness of these courses will be determined by the extent to which they develop salable skills. All these courses must possess a balance between specialized occupational training and general cultural education.

5. Provision for an adequate placement service.

6. The organization of a follow-up system or service for youth at work designed to stimulate continuous growth and effectiveness along needed lines.

7. Effective use of criteria for evaluating the terminal program and reorganizing the offerings in the light of these findings.

There are several ways in which junior college teachers and administrators can profit by the educational methods used in the armed forces. In fact, the best points of these programs, free from tradition, could be used effectively throughout our educational system. Some of the most valuable

¹. Criteria adopted by the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

suggestions include: specific objectives for each unit of each course; wide use of audio-visual materials; more realistic learning situations; more effective supervision of the learning process; and constant evaluation.

The whole problem must be studied, but it is difficult to make uniform progress all along the line. At times it is better to pick out a few areas for concentrated effort while studying the whole problem. Some of the following features of the program might yield to more vigorous efforts:

1. *The general education program.*

The first problem here is a common definition of general education. The second problem would be the provision of a general education program for all full-time students.

2. *The technical and vocational education program.*

Here the problems are concerned with the development of technical skills needed on the job. These may be skills for a cluster or a family of jobs in some instances. They should include work experiences. A further problem is concerned with the knowledge and appreciation of job relations—relationships with legal provisions, relationships with fellow workers, and labor-management relations. Another problem concerns the knowledge and appreciation of our way of life. In this area, citizenship training and responsibilities and experiences in civic enterprises are desirable.

3. *High-school and junior-college relationships need to be improved.*

At least all small junior colleges should give consideration to the 6-4-4 plan. Whether the 6-4-4 plan or some other plan is used, the junior college and the high school have a responsibility for working together. This procedure would be less difficult in most schools under the 6-4-4 plan. The problems here are: *First*, how to provide integration of programs and planning; *second*, how to provide a continuous counseling and guidance program from the junior high school and high school through the junior college.

4. *Adult education, part-time, and evening-school programs need to be studied.*

It is highly desirable to offer work which will increase the students' occupational efficiency, promote civic competency, and provide cultural opportunities; but, somewhere, sometime, the colleges must come to grips with the problem of developing a unifying effort in adult education. The principal problem in this area is to find and develop the unifying force. It may well be 'citizenship,' since the chief justification for tax-supported education is the development of enlightened citizenry.

THE NEED FOR FLEXIBILITY

There is rare opportunity in the junior-college field in the sense that the institution is not rigidly fixed by tradition. Since a good program may take many different

directions, and since the needs of individuals, the needs of the community, and the economy of the time present changing patterns, an institution that is flexible can meet changing conditions much more readily. The junior colleges demonstrated their ability to make these changes in the war period through many of their activities such as the sponsoring of war production programs; in the depression years through participation in the Out-of-School-Youth-and-Adults program, the National Youth Administration, and Civilian Pilot Training.

Many junior colleges have demonstrated their flexibility during the postwar period by expanding their curricula and physical plants, through willingness to rent, borrow, and adapt private and public housing facilities, and through their ability to expand their curricular offerings, to increase the number of sections in classes, and to make other adjustments deemed necessary. The junior college that is to be a community college, serving the needs of the individual, the needs of the community, the wider needs of the region, and the needs of the nation must be one in which flexibility exists in the expansion and contraction of plant and staff. The administration and the staff should be alert to the needs of individuals and to the needs of the community. Such a staff should be constantly engaged in studying these needs.

THE NEED FOR GOOD INSTITUTIONAL STUDIES

The junior college that is able to meet the changing needs and times must have constantly in progress a good many institutional studies. There should be constant studies of selection, orientation, training, and placement of graduates and drop-outs and of those students who take short-term or refresher courses. These studies should be concerned with individuals who transfer to other institutions of learning and those who transfer to jobs and home life. The job that has been accomplished best by the junior colleges so far has been that of training students to continue their education in institutions of higher learning. A great many studies of these transfers have been made and such studies show that junior colleges, in the main, have done a satisfactory job of the education of students for continued study in other institutions. There is now a growing field of technical, semiprofessional, and sometimes subprofessional occupations for which it is necessary to have both education and maturity beyond the high-school years.

In different parts of the country, at different times, various curricula in these fields have been developed. Most of the curricula, methods, and materials for this work are quite similar to those of the curricula of the lower division of engineering. Such curricula are more specific in purpose

than college work generally, although the tools and techniques are much the same as those used in professional training. They are intended to prepare individuals for specific positions or for a field or a group of occupations. This field is between that of the professions and the skilled trades. It is now, and is to be in the future, a very important field.

The education of students in very specific fields, such as the vocational courses and craftsmanship training previously conducted in the high schools, is also undertaken by some junior colleges and the types of training needed are very well known. The junior college has been able to do very well with this work which was borrowed from the high school. The semiprofessional field and the semitechnical field are those which are peculiarly open to the junior college.

SPECIFIC JOB TRAINING IS THE ANSWER FOR SOME STUDENTS

Only a small number of youth are in trade training and it is well that this is so for there are no jobs in this area for a majority of youth. Actually, something like ten to twelve percent of youth may later engage in occupations which require specific trade training. Youth do need work experience, occupational information, and guidance.

PREPARATION FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION IS THE ANSWER FOR SOME

Some of the students will want to go on to a four-year college or

university. In some institutions as many as fifty percent of the graduates go on to four-year courses. It is here that the junior colleges have done the best job. The pattern of liberal-arts education of the four-year colleges and universities has been copied and, in the main, students have transferred without much loss of credit. Transfer students have been able to do the work in the colleges about as well by all accounts and better by some accounts than those who first enrolled as freshmen in the four-year schools.

GENERAL EDUCATION AS OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

Specific training for a particular job is less important for most youth than it first appears to be. Something like seventy percent of the jobs at which people work can be learned by alert people with a desire to learn in a relatively short time on the job. In connection with employment, what the majority of such workers need is interest in the job, a desire to learn, proper attitudes toward work, good habits toward work, ability to get along with other workers, and a sense of responsibility. These workers need something to work for and something to live for; they need to take an interest in the community in which they live, in its schools, its government. They need to know how to use their leisure, how to budget their incomes, how to rear a family, how to be good citizens. Some of these abilities should be developed in the general education program.

JOBS REQUIRING A RELATIVELY LONG PERIOD OF TRAINING

There are some jobs that require a relatively long period of training—say at least two years of college. It is in this field that the junior colleges should find their best opportunity to fill specific job training needs. There has never been an oversupply of good secretaries and stenographers. The training of a good stenographer requires a long period. The training of a secretary takes even longer. The training of these workers begins in high school and continues through two or three, sometimes four, years of college. Junior engineers need at least two years of college training which is fairly specific. Laboratory assistants need from two to four years of college.

JOB CLUSTERS

There are a number of occupations in which the skills are quite similar. Training for these jobs often includes mathematics, blueprint reading, drawing, physics, general shopwork, and other subjects. People with this kind of training may work in estimating, selling, distributing, accounting, storekeeping, supervising, transporting, and building jobs.

SERVICES TO THE COMMUNITY

An area in which some junior colleges have engaged and which may serve in giving students an opportunity for work experience and for service is that of community service. In some junior colleges students have participated in

running youth recreation centers, playgrounds, and swimming pools. In other schools students have had the responsibility for developing playgrounds, parks, and recreation centers. In still other communities students serve on all sorts of committees with adults in planning and conducting civic enterprises. In many schools the youth carry on for the school the counterpart of the various drives that are conducted in the community. In still other instances the schools have purchased tracts of land for reforestation or improvement. In a few communities students have built school buildings. The ability to carry on enterprises such as those enumerated here differs in different communities. There are many possibilities worth exploring. All possibilities of meeting youth needs should be explored by the institution whose leadership is sincerely interested in meeting youth needs. Studies carried on during the depression years indicate the necessity of youth having work experience. No substitute for experience in which students are not paid for their work and in which they do not work under common working conditions is apt to be a first rate substitute.

DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION OPPORTUNITIES

The opportunity to engage in part-time selling or clerical work and part-time schooling has proved attractive to a good many youth in junior college. These courses give students an oppor-

tunity to work under the conditions operating in the business on a part-time basis. Because of the employment opportunities in these fields, it is reasonable to expect this type of combination schooling and employment to increase.

DIVERSIFIED OCCUPATIONS

Diversified occupation programs have proved attractive in certain parts of the country. Under this plan one instructor, generally trained in trade and industrial education, supervises the part-time employment of a number of students employed part-time in a variety of shops and plants. Under this plan, in some schools, is included the part-time employment in selling and clerical work.

PART-TIME AND EVENING SCHOOL

Evening school classes have proved very popular in some sections of the country. Students in evening school classes come to school with a variety of ambitions. A large portion of these students are young adults whose schooling has been neglected or interrupted in some manner although a good many are older adults. They come seeking occupational, vocational, related-vocational, related-apprenticeship, and other types of training. Others come wanting the courses offered to the regularly enrolled youth in day attendance. Some want college or high-school credit, some want training which will assist them in taking out their citizenship papers, some want

courses in art, literature, music, or some other field which fills a void in their lives; others want information on some subject such as how to care for children, how to buy a home, how to plan a club program, how to construct, alter, and repair clothing.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE TODAY

Fewer than ten to fifteen percent of the junior college students will be needed in the professions and not more than ten to fifteen percent will be needed in the skilled trades. This leaves sixty to eighty percent of the students who will later be occupied in home-making, distributive service, transportation, communications, extractive industries, processing plants, and agriculture. In these fields there are many technical and semitechnical jobs. It is in this area of occupational training that the junior colleges have the greatest opportunity and not solely in taking over the vocational work previously carried on in the high schools. There is a real challenge in developing this field and these people are as much entitled to education for their work as are those entering the trades or those entering the professions.

There is an equally challenging opportunity in developing a balanced program of general and occupational education. These students need experiences in science, music, art, speech, mental hygiene, personal and community health, homemaking, child care, marriage relations, literature, labor-man-

agement relations, and civic responsibility.

Some of these experiences may be provided in core programs, out-of-school activities, regular courses, school activities, and community activities. The difficulty is to provide what is needed in the time allowed. Some of it must be carried out later in evening classes and in short-term refresher courses. The most essential part of it is that part devoted to developing social and political insight and sensitivity.

The best that the college can do for many students is to improve this insight and sensitivity through assisting students in developing interests, finding information, organizing and using information, and in encouraging and assisting them to solve personal and group problems.

SOME TRENDS IN JUNIOR COLLEGE

There are some pretty definite trends in the junior college field which are reflected in more and more schools as the movement begins to mature, such as:

1. The Masters Degree as a requirement for teaching with the exception of trade teachers.

2. Two years beyond the baccalaureate degree regarded as desirable.

3. All courses—terminal, pre-professional, and liberal arts—to be credit courses.

4. State-aided public junior colleges.

5. Tuition-free institutions.

6. Some general education required of all students.

7. Terminal courses established following community surveys.

8. Use of advisory committees.

9. Developing work-experience programs.

10. Guidance and counseling programs receiving more attention.

11. Admission open to mature persons regardless of previous education.

12. More attention to community needs.

13. Part-time and evening refresher and short-term courses.

14. Emphasis upon placement and follow-up.

15. Closer coöperation with state departments of education.

16. More attention to high-school and junior-college relationships.

17. More willingness to experiment.

18. The changing of name from junior college to community college, city college, or other designation.

19. Establishment dependent more upon population and proximity of similar opportunities than upon taxable valuation.

20. Better preservice training for teachers.

21. More attention to in-service training.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE OF TOMORROW

The functions of the public junior colleges of the future can probably be classified under five headings:

1. Preparation for two years of further study in the learned professional and liberal arts (preparatory).

2. Preparation for employment in rather broad fields in engineering, technology, commerce, industry, agriculture, homemaking, business (terminal occupational function).

3. Specific trade-training preparation for entering a craft or vo-

cation (preparatory for vocation).

4. Provision of a better general education for on-coming youth and adults (popularizing education).

5. Provision of opportunities to resume their formal education for those whose education has been interrupted by the armed forces, by their own earlier indifference, or for any other cause (salvage function).

Current Concepts of the Growth and Development of the Young Child

EVVA LOUISE GIBSON

Few fields of teaching have made as many advances in the past twenty years as the field of child development. There have been advances in basic research, content of subject matter, teaching methods, and general viewpoint. The viewpoint has shifted considerably, as recently as the past five years. Many groups are coordinating their findings. Medicine, nutrition, sociology, education, psychology, and physiology have been making investigations of child growth and development. The combining of the findings in these areas has given us a number of concepts vastly different from the viewpoints previously held.

The child development movement is not old, but at the present time is old enough to permit a study of records of children which have been kept for twenty-five years. These records enable specialists in the field to test their theories. Ways in which concepts in this field have changed will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

NEEDLESS WORRY

Parental worries and concerns over the growth or lack of growth of their children often prove to be needless, and could be avoided frequently if parents realized that

children grow according to their own growth patterns, and that the pace of growth differs widely in children who are to be regarded as normal. The recent Harvard Growth Studies, as reported by Dearborn and Rothney in *Predicting the Child's Development*, have banished forever our old ideas of tables of averages so far as height and weight are concerned. They have conclusively demonstrated that growth is an individual matter. It is known that some children are fast growers, some slow growers, and some average growers, and that many fast growers and slow growers turn out to be normal, well-adjusted people. Recent growth studies emphasize the factor of individual differences and the fluctuations of growth at different times even in the same child.

No two children, even in the same family, grow alike, and no one child has a body which has reached the same age all over. A child may be muscularly well in advance of his chronological age, but have a nervous system that lags behind and makes it necessary for him to proceed slowly to prevent placing too much strain on him. Another child may have teeth which show signs of being older than he is, while an X ray

study of his wrist bones indicates that they still have some growing to do in order to catch up with the rest of him.

TOO EARLY INDEPENDENCE

Another change in our ideas has come in our conception of the rapidity with which young children should be forced to become independent of adults. It formerly was assumed that there was virtue in the early acquisition of growth steps, with the result that parents and teachers have attempted to train children into certain stages before they were ready for them. For example, children have been trained to become reliable for the toilet, to give up breast or bottle feeding, to recite nursery rhymes, and to become independent of their mothers before they were ready for this learning. In some cases, the result of enforced toilet training has been that later the child suffered toilet "relapses" which were probably due to emotional conflicts brought about by too early training for this responsibility. It is no longer considered advisable abruptly to separate a child from his mother while he still has need of her, as evidenced by the crying of children when parents first take them to the nursery school or kindergarten. Rather it is believed that the parent should remain with the child as long as he seems to evidence a need for her. Guarding of emo-

tional security is more important than forcing of early independence.¹

When intensive study of infant feeding began, a number of years ago, much effort was centered on establishing regular feeding hours, in order to counteract the haphazard feeding practices prevalent in many homes. However, the campaign for a regular schedule was overdone and resulted in many mothers following a schedule so zealously that the baby's individual needs were overlooked. Babies were permitted to scream if they woke an hour or even half an hour before feeding time. Now we are swinging around to a more sensible way of handling the feeding of the baby, and a number of pediatricians are suggesting that self-demand schedules be followed. The findings that have been obtained in studies of infants who have been on a "self-demand" feeding schedule from the time of birth, or soon thereafter, go counter to some practices that have until recently been followed quite generally. In spite of fluctuation in individual cases the children who have been observed tend to show a certain amount of consistency in the number of feedings; moreover, it was observed that as children grow older, they reduce of their own volition the number of feedings demanded in a day.

1. Rand, Winifred, Sweeny, Mary E., and Vincent, E. Lee: *Growth and Development of the Young Child*. Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Company 1947, p. 10.

FEEDING SCHEDULES

The findings in self-demand studies also indicate that the children who were fed at their own demand seemed to be well nourished. However, there are many practical difficulties. A baby who is fed irregularly sleeps irregularly. Unless a pattern begins to emerge, while the child is still quite young, the mother is hampered in everything she does. The importance of the findings lies in the fact that common sense or good judgment should be used and that the hungry child not be required to wait until the clock strikes the hour before he is fed. Theoretically what has been found to be true in the feeding of children may, upon investigation, prove to be true of certain other demands.

SIGNIFICANCE OF MATURITY

A current concept that recent studies have shown is that the effects of an opportunity to practice, use or exercise a performance are relative to the level of maturity the child has reached when the opportunity was provided. Maturity, as the term is used here, refers to the stage of development of the various organs and of the nervous system. "Most forms of learning cannot take place until children are 'ready,' both in general bodily development of muscles, nerves, and physical proportions, and in interest and willingness to learn."²

2. Breckenridge, Marian E., and Vincent, E. Lee. *Child Development*. Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders and Company, 1943, p. 56.

Studies of twins in which one was coached to perform an activity while the other went without training during this period showed that with brief training at a later maturational level the second twin soon caught up with the first one whose training took place before he was "ready" for the activity.

A child who has been forced to learn a task before he has reached the proper maturational level, will react in different ways. He will resist emotionally either openly or inwardly. He may seem to comply and then develop difficulty later, due to the fact, as was said above, that his nervous system as well as his organic system have not reached the readiness stage. The child may act bored, be irritable or withdrawn. When he is "ready" to learn, the opposite is true. He shows pleasure in his learning, is happy and eager to exercise what he has learned.

MATURITY INDICATOR

To assist persons working with children in knowing when children are ready for certain experiences, maturity indicators have been set up. For example, a list of maturity indicators for school entrance is given in a recent child development textbook.³ Maturity indicators in many areas of growth are now available. There are, however, many areas in which this information has not been developed.

Two methods of expressing the growth accomplished by a child

3. *Loc. cit.*, Rand, Sweeny, Vincent., p. 13.

may be briefly mentioned here. The first lies in the field of social growth. Specialists are discovering a social maturity scale, in which the steps or stages of the scale represent successive points in the social growth of the child. A child's social behavior will be observed, reviewed in relation to his past pattern, then it will determine at what stage of development he now is. He will not be compared with other children of the same age and be expected to conform to the social behavior of his age group. His social growth will be found to follow a pattern or channel which follows certain behavior steps.

The Wetzel Grid⁴ clearly demonstrates the channel idea in evaluating children's growth in height and weight, and affords the opportunity to compare the child with his own growth pattern. This idea will probably supplant the method

of judging physical growth by means of height-weight-age scales.

SUMMARY

In this article an attempt has been made to discuss briefly certain current concepts in the growth and development of young children, namely, that children grow according to their own patterns, that they should not be forced into too early independence from adults, that self-demand schedules for developing certain behavior patterns are proving to be advisable in certain areas, that learning takes place more satisfactorily when the child is ready to learn, readiness being determined in some instances by maturity indicators, and that in studying social and physical growth, the channel method in which the child is measured according to his own pattern rather than his age group is used. Space does not permit the discussion of other concepts which are evolving from the findings of specialists in child development and related fields.

4. Wetzel, Norman C., *The Grids for Evaluating Physical Fitness in Terms of Physique, Developmental Level, and Basal Metabolism*. N. E. O. Service, Inc., 1200 West Third St., Cleveland 3, Ohio.

An English Liberal's Concept of the Right to Govern

ALVIN HORACE PROCTOR

The average American finds much about modern England difficult to understand even though there are many similarities between the two nations. For example, the role of the monarchy, adherence to the class system, and the anomalous position of the House of Lords seem even more incongruous and puzzling in view of the rise of the Labor Party to power in 1945. The repudiation of Winston Churchill by the voters in that year seemed to be either sheer ingratitude or worse.

The most important deficiency in American efforts to understand the English people is not a lack of good will but failure to know their history and to realize its influence upon contemporary life in England. Not only are they a people with a history of many centuries of progress but they are also acutely conscious of the weight and value of historic forces and ideas in their daily life. Few other people are so devoted to precedent, so proud of their glorious past, and so well aware that moderation, compromise, and slow and orderly evolution are the keys to their past and future. So it was that even English Liberals in the nineteenth century, like Labor politicians in the twentieth, were conservative in certain important

respects. The people of this country can better understand the English if they realize that every Englishman is to some extent a conservative.

A CONSERVATIVE LIBERAL

The greatest leader of the English Liberal Party in the last century, William E. Gladstone, was in principle and practice a conservative liberal. As leader of the party from 1868 to 1894, he was directly responsible for the rise of popular government or "democracy." He made England a practical as well as a theoretic democracy and proved that the lower classes could govern as well as reign. "He made the English democracy conscious of their power and turned this power to practical account."¹

Gladstone advocated extension of the suffrage in 1867 and 1884 and thereby gave the vote to the lower classes. He enacted social and economic legislation to benefit the common people and he abolished various privileges of the upper classes. He promoted party organization and by his unprecedented election campaigns, agitation, and acceptance of the "mandate principle" made public opinion a vital force in govern-

1. A. V. Dicey, "Why Do People Hate Mr. Gladstone?" *The Nation*, XXV (1882), 218-9.

ment. Yet Gladstone was essentially conservative toward the British Constitution and the social state. He said truthfully that he was ". . . for old customs and traditions, against needless change . . .; for the individual against the state, and for the family against the state."²

THE NEW CONSERVATISM

A noted English historian stated succinctly that Gladstone combined in a curious way "a deep conservatism with an equally fundamental desire for improvement" and that he belonged to the "new conservatism."³ One cannot study Victorian England without becoming strongly conscious of Gladstone's important role as one of the eminent Victorians nor analyze contemporary Britain without noting how he helped to shape it in many ways. Therefore, considerable insight into the English character can be gained by a study of this great Liberal leader who was aptly described as "contemporary history."

The evidence is clear that although Gladstone advocated extension of the right to vote to the working classes in the great acts of 1867 and 1884 he believed those acts to be conservative in purpose and effect. They would attach the people more closely to the throne and to the Constitution. More-

over, he did not believe those acts to be constitutional measures or that universal manhood suffrage would alter the structure and functions of the government.

"A revision of the Constitution," he said, "is a measure that alters the relations and alters the powers and rights of the different orders or classes of the State and of the bodies by which the self-governing energy of the nation takes effect."⁴ The dominant position of the "governing class" would remain unimpaired; the "Social State" would safely absorb such extension of the vote to the lower classes. Only in his last years did he advocate limitations on the power of the upper classes.

THE STATUS QUO

Gladstone entered politics as a young Tory in 1832, representing the constituency of Newark, which was a pocket borough controlled by the Duke of Newcastle. He had attracted the Duke's attention while at Oxford University, where as a student debater Gladstone strongly opposed the great Reform Bill of 1832 and gave unqualified approval to the existing "frame of society." However, he believed in principles which finally caused him to break with the Tories and by 1868 he was the leading Liberal statesman in England. This change in party affiliation did not alter his belief that the "Social State" as it existed during most of the nineteenth century was the

2. John Morley, *The Life of William Ewart Gladstone* (new edition, 3 vols. in 2; New York, 1911), I, 264. Hereafter abbreviated *Morley*.

3. E. I. Woodward, *The Age of Reform, 1815-1870* (Oxford, 1938), 167-8.

4. *The Times*, September 1, 1884.

ideal arrangement of the social classes.

THE SOCIAL STATE

He believed in 1832 that the social orders of England had evolved into a social structure which was the foundation of her political and constitutional system. The "Social State" as he conceived it to be had largely helped to produce England's greatness, and because of that social arrangement, improvement and progress were to be safely effected through parliamentary reform and other measures. When he advocated extension of the right to vote, he did not anticipate either demands for social change or for alteration of the respective roles of the classes in government.

When Gladstone spoke in favor of the Representation of the People Bill in 1860, he contended that even if England were to adopt universal suffrage it would require generations to make her like America. Laws were not the only bases of such matters. "It is on the social condition of the country. It is on the manner in which society is organized in its orders and degrees." Great men were not elected to take part in politics in America, he asserted, not only because of the political system but also because of their "social state." The people in America did not have their "natural leaders" and did not feel the old traditional ties which he hoped would long continue to exist in England. The main support of the monarchy and

aristocracy was the heart, the inclination of the habits, the sense, the conviction of the mass of people, and their free and affectionate support.⁵

THE SOCIAL ORDER

Gladstone defined the chief aim of government as not merely the contentment of the people. It was the *social order* of the country. "That is the first, the greatest, the most sacred, and the most necessary aim of every Government that knows its duty."⁶ It was a fundamental concept which helps to explain the motives of much of his legislative program. He had no fears in grappling with a political revolution, "But a social revolution is a different matter."⁷ He objected to political measures which would interfere with the social and economic arrangement of the people.⁸

He believed also that "the frame of society" would counteract the disturbing impulses which were created by sudden and violent accesses of prosperity. Industry and enterprise advanced by leaps and bounds, but he declared that the factors which bound together the different classes of society would ameliorate and help solve the problems. Gladstone decried the attacks of Andrew Carnegie against the English nobility, against "rank" which according to the former accompanied, qualified, mellowed, consolidated and

5. *Hansard*, series 3, CLVIII, 643-44.

6. *Ibid.*, CCCIV, 1780.

7. *Morley*, III, 47.

8. *Hansard*, series 3, CLVI, 1519.

secured the principles of popular government in England.⁹

ONE COMMON PURPOSE

In July, 1865, the printers of Newton presented him with an address commending his efforts to improve the working class yet to act justly with reference to the higher orders. In reply, Gladstone expressed certainty that the working class knew that leveling down availed nothing. Society was like a well-built, well-ordered fabric, with many stones and timbers. Each had its separate task, some above, some below, some larger, some smaller. All served one common purpose. The interest of every class was to have justice done to every other class. "Let us each in our several stations labour for that noble end progress. . . ." ¹⁰

Society as Gladstone saw it was like a pyramid or cone. The numerical superiority of those nearest the ground was inherent in representative government, but this was not in his opinion fatal to the leadership of the upper classes. The knights and burgesses in medieval England "did not eat up" the earls and barons, the middle class did not consume the gentry and aristocracy, nor had the artisans eaten up all three, he said in 1884.¹¹

A primary factor which strengthened the social state was

that English social lines were not rigid, that one could move up or down among the orders of society. Because English classes were not absolutely exclusive, their perpetual blending was a familiar daily experience. The intermixture of the hereditary principle in English institutions and society had many merits as qualifying the action of other principles and of politics, he affirmed.¹²

THE CIVIL SERVICE

Gladstone was not a social democrat, even though he was leader of the Liberal party, and he regarded the system of the civil service for example as one which would open up opportunities for natural aristocrats. To Ruskin, who had accused him of believing one man to be as good as another, Gladstone replied: "I believe nothing of the sort. I am a firm believer in the aristocratic principle—the rule of the best. I am an out-and-out inequalitarian."¹³

The principle that all men are born equal and should remain so he characterized as "this bastard theorem," a viewpoint which contrasted sharply with that of America's liberals. No broad political idea had entered less into the formation of England's political system than the love of equality, Gladstone maintained. The love of justice was stronger; the love of equality was not behind the re-

9. W. E. Gladstone, "Mr. Carnegie's 'Gospel of Wealth': A Review and a Recommendation," *The Nineteenth Century*, XXVIII (1890), 678.

10. W. E. Gladstone, *Speeches of 1865* (London, 1865), 33-5.

11. W. E. Gladstone, *Gleanings of Past Years, 1843-78* (7 vols. New York, 1878), I, 146-6.

12. *The Times*, September 1, 1884.

13. Ramsey Muir, "Mr. W. E. Gladstone," in *The Political Principles of Some Notable Prime Ministers of the Nineteenth Century*, edited by F. J. C. Hearnshaw (London, 1926), 254.

form acts of 1832 and 1867. The love of freedom is hardly stronger in England than the love of aristocracy, he wrote.¹⁴

ATTITUDE TOWARD SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

The proof of England's adherence to inequality could be seen by watching English attitudes toward social institutions, he asserted. The English people had never been enamored of naked political equality, and, other factors being equal, would elect a lord over a commoner. This viewpoint was advanced by Gladstone as an argument for extension of the franchise in 1866 and 1867 when the safety of such extension was questioned.¹⁵ In 1884, he averred that if England had only one House the people would elect more of the lords to it than their ratio indicated as their proportionate number—upon their worth and personal merits.¹⁶

Gladstone advanced the premise that if the franchise were extended, each class could participate advantageously within its own sphere; he was not alarmed by that kind of "democracy." The extension of the right to vote should be upon the basis of fitness of the class, not upon the basis of an arbitrary age for individuals. "If all are not to be enfranchised, the proper division of the popula-

tion into electors and nonelectors is between class and class," he said in 1867.¹⁷

He did not believe that one man in a hundred would disturb the arrangement of society inherited from England's past if he could. The only thing which could make England democratic instead of aristocratic, he declared, would be for the aristocracy to forget to trust and confide in the people, to cease to be mild and forbearing in the use of privilege, and to fail to provide leaders.¹⁸

THE ELECTIONS

The two elections which followed the Reform Act of 1867 showed that the working class would not combine to return their own kind of Parliament or make class war, he pointed out a decade later. The working class was like the middle class, conservative in the best sense and lovers of inequality. It was this fact which made past changes safe, which would also make future ones safe, and which would add to the quality of England's strength.¹⁹ Confident in this belief, he advocated universal manhood suffrage in 1884. His ideal was that of equality within classes; the government must deal equally with men who are in equal circumstances. Equality within the limits of the old Constitution was the safe and wise principle.²⁰

14. *Hansard*, series 3, CLXXXVII, 299.

15. *The Times*, October 30, 1871.

16. *Hansard*, series 3, CCXCIV, 161. *CF.* Walter Bagehot, *The English Constitution and other Political Essays* (2nd ed. New York, 1877), 6-7.

17. *Hansard*, series 3, CLXXXVI, 487.

18. *The Times*, April 7, 1866.

19. *Gleanings of Past Years*, I, 154.

20. *Hansard*, series 3, CLXXXVI, 501.

LEADERSHIP OF THE UPPER CLASSES

Although Gladstone did much to advance England toward political democracy, abolished some privileges, and more than once criticized the House of Lords, he did not intentionally reduce the position of leadership of the upper classes. For several decades after his retirement in 1894, the governing class was able to retain its hold upon the government of England.²¹ Whatever his criticism, he did not propose to set aside those whom he considered England's natural leaders. When he reached his most advanced position in attacking the House of Lords for its obstruction of Liberal legislation in 1894, he proposed only to reduce the "veto" power of the Lords (just as the present Labor Government proposed to do), diminishing their irresponsible activity so as to prevent irreparable damage to their class.

He believed in the power and place of property as a determinant of political position and maintained this belief all his life. Property and education gave one an opportunity for fair-minded, impartial, impersonal service, whereas its lack laid the public servant open to economic pressures. A man's station in life affected his ability to act according to conviction, and he did not expect the average man to be either a martyr or a hero.

"Operative politics" were an impossibility in ordinary times for most of the people, Gladstone contended. He considered the upper classes to be natural leaders with concomitant responsibilities. The people who as voters were merely passive participants in government naturally elected the upper classes to govern. The aristocracy had been continually recruited from the very best people and their leadership "makes us rejoice in the name of Englishmen."²² There was no parallel in the world to the vast leisure class in England, he said in a speech opposing payment of members of Parliament in 1870. The public had no difficulty finding the most competent and best qualified to serve without pay.²³

POLITICAL DEMOCRACY WITHOUT
SOCIAL DEMOCRACY

In 1878 Gladstone explained why he believed political democracy was possible without social democracy; why he advocated extension of the franchise, civil service, the secret ballot, and other measures; and why he saw no danger in raising public opinion as a force in government. The people of England, he observed, would be the first to reject the proposal that government should be carried on by the people rather than by the leisure classes.²⁴

21. A. L. Lowell, *The Government of England* (2 vols., New York, 1920), II, 505-13 *passim*.

22. *Hansard*, series 3, CXXXVIII, 2099.

23. *Ibid.*, CC, 1363.

24. *Gleanings of Past Years*, I, 193.

It was his opinion that the leisure classes had vast advantages in education, tradition, wealth, hereditary aptitude, and every kind of opportunity. The larger number of the aristocracy "as was natural and their right" had the double title to office of inherited station and high personal distinction.²⁵ The people on the other hand were unfitted for administrative activity, unfurnished with knowledge of governmental tasks, unacquainted with the world as public servants must be. No people ever governed itself but merely chose its governors and sometimes exerted direct pressure on them.

He believed that an intrinsic right to govern, as Burke had said, belongs alone to virtue and knowledge. The upper orders had demonstrated the former and had advantages in securing the latter.

²⁵. *Ibid.*

The people of England recognized this fact, he said, and he did not anticipate any great changes in the system of government. For the most part there have not been.

The present Labor party in England has existed a mere half century, although England was the first great nation to become industrialized. Its tenure in office in the twentieth century has been brief and its conduct in office has been in line with the ideals and practices of an ancient Constitution. A political "revolution" may be evolving in typical British fashion, but that social revolution which Gladstone feared has not yet occurred. Americans can learn much from a close study of the career of this great conservative Liberal, for with the perspective of time he is seen to be "contemporary history," and his character is typically English.

The Pittsburg, Kansas, Preparatory Commission on Mental Health

PAUL GORMLEY MURPHY

I say to you with the utmost seriousness of which I am capable that this is no time to excuse yourself from paying the debt you and yours owe the social order with some facile verbalism like, "Nothing will come of it; it can't be done." Begin; and let it be said of you, if there is any more history, that you labored nobly in the measure of man in the Twentieth Century of the Scientific Western World.

This challenge, which concludes an article by Dr. Harry Stack Sullivan in the August, 1947, issue of *Psychiatry*, provided the motivation for a project which occupied the time and attention of several Pittsburg people last spring.

To understand the project, let us start with the International Congress on Mental Health which was held in London during the days of August 11 to 21, 1948. The purpose of this Congress was "to mobilize the efforts of many different professional groups for the study and application of the principles essential to the building of harmonious world relations."

It was also designed to propose the formulation of a World Federation for Mental Health. This was accomplished, and application has been made by this organization to UNESCO and the World Health Organization of the United Nations for recognition as the official international voluntary organ-

ization in the field of mental health.

The holding of such a Congress was not particularly unusual. As a matter of fact, it was the third such conference held since the turn of the century. The approach to the Congress was unique, though, in that it represented the culmination of the work and discussion of literally hundreds of small local groups scattered all over the world during the year or so previous to the Congress. Instead of consisting of papers by individuals, the program was built around the reports of these discussion groups, or "Preparatory Commissions," similar to the one held in Pittsburg.

VARIED REPRESENTATION

Some of the Commissions, which varied in size from as few as three persons to as many as 15 or 20, consisted of representatives of one profession only, such as psychiatrists or psychologists. Most

of them, however, were "multi-discipline," that is, they consisted of representatives of several professions or disciplines. This type of organization was encouraged with the thought that pooling the experiences of the several disciplines concerned with mental health would provide a broad and stimulating program as well as an excellent base for future planning.

FAMILY PROBLEMS

The general theme chosen for the Congress was "Mental Health and World Citizenship." This was broken down into several sub-topics, of which "Family Problems and Psychological Disturbance" was selected as the focus for the United States effort. This was more specifically stated as the problem, "What has war done to the children of the world, and what can we do about it?" or "What do we do to children that leads them as adults to make war, and what can we do about it?" For purposes of administering the program, the United States was divided into five regions with a regional chairman appointed for each. Dr. Lewis Robbins of the Menninger Clinic in Topeka was the chairman for the Central Southwest Region comprising Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Texas, Wyoming, Colorado, and New Mexico.

The invitation to form a discussion group in Pittsburgh came in January, 1948. After discussing the matter with several others, it was decided that the cause to be

served was of sufficient importance to warrant the time and effort that would be involved in forming a group and holding a series of discussion meetings. Invitations were thereupon sent to persons in this area who might be expected to be interested in such a venture. Naturally, there were some whose previous commitments made it impossible for them to accept the invitation. For the most part, however, the response was one of generous and whole-hearted interest, and it was possible to set about planning a series of meetings in which the following persons participated: James R. Foresman, Mrs. L. H. Gray, Dr. Jane M. Carroll, Miss Henriette Lemler, Mrs. Virginia Warfel, Dr. W. G. Rinehart, Dr. J. H. Bena, Mrs. John E. White, Dr. Ernest M. Anderson, Dr. J. Ralph Wells, Dr. William A. Black, Dr. Clarence W. Erickson, Professor Eugene E. Dawson. I was asked to serve as chairman of the Commission.

SUMMARY OF REPORT

The material that follows is the report of the Pittsburgh Commission as it was submitted for consideration at the London Conference. There is nothing startlingly new about any of the conclusions. The course of world history will probably not be altered materially by the appearance of this document. It is submitted here as an interesting example of the outcome of the thinking and discussion of a group of individuals of rather diverse and varied back-

grounds of thinking and training. This product was not arrived at without some conflict and argument. It would seem to represent, however, a set of statements on which a majority of the group was fairly well agreed, and so may be taken to indicate that, while there are undoubtedly issues on which there is debate and argument, there are also sizable areas of unity in our thinking on matters of mental health.

SELECTION OF THE PROBLEM

The Pittsburg Commission held four meetings. At the first meeting, which was given over largely to the selection of a problem, it was decided to concentrate attention on some phase of the general problem assigned to commissions in this country, namely, "Family Problems and Psychological Disturbances." On the basis of further discussion, we agreed on the more specific theme, "Critical evaluation of methods of handling children as they relate to the development of attitudes of world citizenship in the child."

The second meeting was devoted largely to a consideration of the psychological development of the child. The outcome of this discussion may be summarized as follows:

1. Family life must provide a foundation of security for the child from the very moment of birth, both on the basis of physical contacts and environmental influences. The basic importance of family life was demonstrated by

the fact that during the war years, separation from the family or a break in the continuity of family life seemed to constitute an even worse psychological danger for the child than dropping bombs. Parental conflict has been found to leave almost indelible scars on children's minds; however, separation or divorce of parents is often better than constant exposure to conflict in the home. Considerable emphasis was placed on the father's responsibility for contributing to the child's feeling of security. Separation of the father from the home during the war years constituted a real problem in adjustment for the child upon his return. The general outcome of this phase of the discussion was the conclusion that a feeling of security is the basis for future world citizenship on the part of the individual.

THE SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY

2. The modern home does not offer the opportunities for the development of a sense of responsibility on the part of the child that was formerly true. It fails to provide the many common tasks that are necessary for the development of such a sense of responsibility. Children in the modern home frequently fail to realize that it is through the father's work that the home is maintained, and that the father does not "just bring the money home from the office or store." Furthermore, children frequently have little or no opportunity to develop a sense of their

share in the family economic and social life. The Commission recommended that some attention be given to exploring new opportunities available for creative action in the home, in which children might share.

FEELING OF INSTABILITY

3. The migration and shifting of families, which is so common today, tends to create feelings of instability on the part of the child, makes it difficult for him to put down roots, and frequently leads to delinquency.

4. Children frequently provide a medium through which family difficulties can be resolved. It is difficult to make direct impressions upon adults, especially where their culture patterns are strong, and methods in changing social life can frequently be promoted by educating the family through the children.

5. The scope of marriage guidance opportunities needs to be enlarged and expanded, both in extent and content. A beginning has been made in this area, but a great deal more needs to be done.

The third meeting, at which there was a considerably reduced attendance, because of adverse weather conditions, was devoted to viewing a film on "Social Climates in Relation to Behavior of Youngsters." A second film depicting the reactions of high-school students to different methods of classroom control was also reviewed. Both films have a direct bearing on the topic selected for discussion,

and both brought out rather clearly the superiority of more democratic as compared to totalitarian methods of control.

With the materials of the two previous meetings as a background, the fourth and last meeting was devoted to a specific attack on the theme selected for study, and its outcomes may be summarized as follows:

1. The films used at the third meeting brought out clearly that authoritarian methods of handling children lead to the development of aggressive patterns of behavior on the one hand and submissive patterns on the other. Some of the more undesirable characteristics demonstrated by children subjected to authoritarian methods are aggressiveness, lack of initiative, scapegoating, and belligerence in the group when the leader's back is turned. *Laissez-faire* or purely passive methods of control tend to produce aggression, confusion, and aimlessness on the part of youngsters. Democratic procedures are judged to be more desirable from a mental hygiene point of view, because they seem to lead to the development of initiative, coöperation, high morale, and to reduce aggressiveness in children.

COMBINATION OF TECHNIQUES

It is recognized, of course, that many situations demand a combination of various techniques and that the use of democratic procedures does not preclude the use of expert guidance. Too, there is some

danger in our developing a "too psychiatric" or "too psychological" approach in our dealings with children. There was considerable debate on this conclusion and the group was not in general agreement on it. The discussion revolved, for the most part, around the question as to just what is meant by the terms "too psychiatric" and "too psychological."

2. There was general agreement on the fact that too much concern for the socialization of children in early life may give rise to feelings of frustration which may have undesirable consequences later on.

SIGNIFICANCE OF MATURITY

3. The process of natural maturity must be considered in guiding a child's development. Forcing the acquisition of any behavior patterns ahead of the child's readiness for such development will lead to difficulties.

4. Some members of the Committee were inclined to believe that the rural environment presents the best and most opportunities for normal development because it provides an intimate view of and contact with natural processes, such as birth, life, and death, and provides a coöperative working environment for the members of the family. Here again there was no general agreement among the members of the group on this point; however, it was believed that insofar as this is true, an urban equivalent needs to be found

for the socializing agencies found on the farm.

5. In the small family, too much attention is focused on a few children, and opportunities for the socialization of children are also reduced. This latter fact has placed an added burden for the socialization of children on other agencies, such as the school and young people's organizations.

6. A question was raised as to whether being humans and constituted as we are, we can accept the "world family relationship." The inclination was to answer the question in the affirmative. If nations are composed of individuals, then their behavior is controlled by the same motives and forces as the behavior of individuals. Some countries probably suffer from feelings of insecurity just as do some individuals.

PROMOTING UNDERSTANDING

7. It was proposed that vocational categories might provide common denominators for bringing together the people of the world. It was the consensus that while there might be something in this idea, political and geographical factors would have to be kept in mind, and allowances made for them. However, any basis on which it is possible for people to come together and communicate with each other tends to help them acquire an appreciation of other people, which is a prerequisite for participation in other people's *living*.

8. The life of the international family is subject to all the fears, frustrations, vacillations, insecurities, belligerences, which beset a family unit, and in turn the member nations tend to conduct themselves in much the same fashion as members of the family. The lack of a definite foreign policy in this country is somewhat akin to the lack of planned policies and constant discipline in home and family life, and leads to fears, confusion, and frustration on the part of people in this country.

GENERAL SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. The atomic age did not begin with Hiroshima. For many years adults, for various reasons, have suffered from a sense of insecurity, which has probably conveyed itself to their growing children. This is demonstrated by the fact that college students exhibit many psychological problems today which have undoubtedly grown out of too much parental domination, too much love transference, too much inconsistency in discipline, and too much confusion in the thinking of adults. All these problems have a bearing on the development of attitudes of world citizenship.

2. In order to insure the development of the proper attitudes and beliefs in later life, the child must have an opportunity to grow up in a secure atmosphere with inner security, love, and the esteem of parents. This must be undergirded with a reasonable degree of economic security, for economic insecurity is soon sensed by the child and compensation must be made for it. The child must feel that the family, as a unit, will "plug right along." Other agencies such as the school, young people's organizations, and the like, also have a contribution to make to such feelings of insecurity.

3. Any method of child-rearing expected to contribute positively to the development of attitudes of world citizenship must make possible for the individual more success than failure, have a high degree of absence of fears or elements which produce fears, and provide a basis out of which healthy attitudes can be expected to grow. The possibilities for implanting such attitudes in the minds of young people with the proper procedures are practically unlimited, because cultural patterns are *learned* rather than inherited.

The Religious Implications of Jung's Psychology

EUGENE ELLSWORTH DAWSON

Dr. Carl Jung, with Dr. Alfred Adler, was a distinguished pupil and devotee of Dr. Sigmund Freud. After playing a leading role in the psychoanalytical movement for several years, this eminent Swiss Psychiatrist withdrew from the Freudian group and founded his own school, known subsequently as the school of Analytical Psychology. The reasons back of this dramatic departure, while given no particular emphasis in this paper, will nevertheless be somewhat apparent. Our particular concern at this time is with the religious implications of Jung's psychology.

That religion occupies a paramount position in the psychology of Jung is evidenced from only a cursory reading of the literature. Indeed, as Dr. James D. Page of Temple University puts it:¹

The Analytical Psychology of Jung is a mixture of keen empirical observation, mysticism, and religion.

CONCEPT OF RELIGION

In this very brief consideration, it is of interest and value to focus attention on Jung's concept of religion and its significance in connection with such Jungian emphases as mythology, the collective

unconscious, the soul-concept, and psychotherapy. This may serve to point the way to a necessarily limited but critical evaluation of such thinking.

In his book, *Psychology and Religion*, Jung endeavors to make clear from the start what he means by religion.² To quote him:

Religion, as the Latin word denotes, is a careful and scrupulous observation of what Rudolf Otto aptly termed the "numinosum," that is, a dynamic existence or effect not caused by an arbitrary act of will. On the contrary, it seizes and controls the human subject, which is always rather its victim than its creator. The numinosum is an involuntary condition of the subject, whatever its cause may be.³

Religion, Jung would go on to say, is the term that designates the attitude peculiar to a consciousness which has been altered by the experience of the numinosum. It should be emphasized that Jung does not attempt to prove the existence of a supernatural agent. He confesses that he cannot take this step psychologically. At the same time, Jung is concerned with the fact that men do hold to such beliefs, and he is interested in why they believe and the consequences that ensue.

1. James D. Page: *Abnormal Psychology* (New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947).

2. Carl G. Jung: *Psychology and Religion* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1940).

3. *Loc. cit.*

According to Jung, spiritual concepts are indispensable constituents of the psychic life. The spiritual aspect of the psyche is at present known to us only in a fragmentary way. Jung would say that what is significant in psychic life is always below the horizon of consciousness and when we speak of the spiritual aspects of the psyche we are dealing with things that are barely visible.

INNATE SPIRITUAL TENDENCIES

Jung emphasizes the point that contemporary man has spiritual tendencies engrained within his very mental structure because he has inherited such tendencies from the collective unconscious. It will be recalled that the collective unconscious is one of Jung's cardinal emphases. Man is the heir of all the ages by virtue of the collective unconscious. As Joan Corrie, one of Jung's students, has put it, "It is the soil formed by age-long deposits of mental processes in which the roots of the psyche are deeply embedded."⁴

Primeval man, confronted by stupendous forces of nature against which his puny strength was useless and surrounded by objects full of awe and mystery, apprehended his world in terms of spirit, energy, gods, demons, ghosts, dragons, and the like. Such images imprinted in the brain substance evolved into sun and moon myths, vegetation

myths, myths of gods, and their deaths and resurrection, themes found everywhere among all people. These imprints Jung calls archetypes. Jung believes that these formations cannot be called subjective psychic material, but they are an objective psychic reality. These deepest images have a tempting force and are containers of dangerous energies.

These images are to be treated with the utmost care for they are a nucleus for religious orientation. A positive value would be attributed to all religions, their symbolism, moral teachings, and ritualism, being of strategic importance in relating the individual to inner psychic forces. In this respect, Jung would say that religious dogma represents the soul more completely than a scientific theory, the latter expressing and formulating the conscious mind alone and being primarily rational; while the dogma expresses an irrational fact such as the psyche.

In speaking of modern man's predicament in this connection, Jung emphasizes the loss of carefully erected ecclesiastical walls, and contends that, due to this loss, man projects his own uncertainties upon his neighbor and, hence, the confusion and strife of the present time.

PSYCHOTHERAPEUTIC VALUE

The psychotherapeutic value which Jung attributes to religion must be already evident. People have deep spiritual needs and aspirations. When those needs are

4. Joan Corrie, *ABC of Jung's Psychology* (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner, and Co., Ltd., 1927), p. 18.

not properly met, their lives appear empty and senseless. Jung would stress the importance of the directed life and urge that it is religion which contributes to the discovery of life's meaning. To quote one of his classic statements:⁵

During the past thirty years, people from all the civilized countries of the earth have consulted me. Among all my patients in the second half of life—that is to say, over thirty-five—there has not been one whose problem in the last resort was not that of finding a religious outlook on life. It is safe to say that every one of them felt ill because he had lost that which the living religions of every age have given to their followers, and none of them has been really healed who did not regain his religious outlook.

RELIGIOUS IMPLICATIONS

Time does not permit a careful evaluation of the religious implications of Jung's psychology. However, it stands to reason that Jung would find wider acceptance on the part of contemporary religionists than either of his former colleagues, Freud or Adler. According to reports, Jung is the recipient of particularly strong ap-

proval from British religious leaders. His deemphasizing of sex, his stress of the psyche, and his convictions concerning the role of religion in the life of the individual, would obviously win for him many devotees. Die-hard theologians and those who harbor rigid sectarian views might not always find solace in what he has to say.

On the other hand, the rather strong mystical flavor of Jung's psychology has frequently brought criticism from psychoanalysts and psychologists who have charged that Jung offers a challenging academic tutorship rather than an etiological therapy, "providing the neurotic individual," as Dr. Hendrick puts it, "with a new philosophy with which to cloak his suffering rather than a dynamic personality change and capacity for more mature development."⁶

Thus, contrasting appraisals continue to be made with perhaps no one speaking the final word. Meanwhile, Jung remains as one of the greatest names in the field of psychology.

5. Carl G. Jung, *Modern Man In Search Of A Soul* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1933).

6. Ives Hendrick, M. D., *Facts and Theories of Psychoanalysis* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1934).

The Place of the Future Homemakers of America in Secondary Education

ESTHER LEE BROWN

Regardless of which phase of it you think should be emphasized, all education is preparation for something. In its broader and more general aspects, secondary education is essentially preparation for living. We want to turn boys and girls into useful and co-operative citizens. In so doing it is difficult to circumscribe and delimit the exact duties of secondary education, for its effects should be felt throughout the life of the high-school student and graduate. We constantly hope and pray that these effects will be beneficial both to the individual and to society.

EIGHT OBJECTIVES OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The place, then, that any organization holds within the secondary school organization should depend on its ability to aid this beneficence. These organizations, wheels within wheels, are nearly always extracurricular. McKown¹ points out that there are eight main objectives of extracurricular activities:

1. To capitalize for educational profit, important fundamental drives.
2. To prepare the student for active life in a democracy.
3. To make him increasingly self-directive.

4. To teach social coöperation.
5. To increase the interest of the student in the school.
6. To develop school morale.
7. To foster sentiments of law and order.
8. To discover and develop special qualities and abilities.

These objectives are educational, but they are also sociological, psychological, and ethical, if they are carried to their ultimate goals, as educational concepts should be.

RELATION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

It is very natural, then, that the Future Homemakers of America should fit into the activity of secondary schools, for the purposes of FHA are in accord with the sound objectives listed above. It is no wonder, either, that since its inception in December, 1943, by the American Home Economics Association, and its final organization as Future Homemakers of America in June, 1945, that it has grown to embrace a membership of 237,000 in 45 states, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii. Of course, much of this growth and rapid development is due to excellent leadership, but such spectacular growth would not have been probable had there not been a foundation of definite purposes underlying the organization.

1. McKown, Harry C.: *Extra-Curricular Activities*, New York, The Macmillan Co., 1947.

These purposes are listed in the "Official Guide" for Future Homemakers of America, and are as follows:

1. To promote a growing appreciation of the joys and satisfactions of homemaking.
2. To emphasize the importance of worthy home membership.
3. To encourage democracy in home and community life.
4. To work for good home and family life for all.
5. To promote international good will.
6. To foster the development of creative leadership in home and community life.
7. To provide wholesome individual and group recreation.
8. To further interest in home economics.

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

There is not space to analyze each of these purposes separately and fully, but their application to the principles of secondary school objectives should be pointed out, and a few of the many, many ways that FHA is actually getting the job done should be noted.

"The cardinal principles of education state that in the school we are striving to inculcate in the child sound health habits, to give him command of fundamental processes, to prepare him for worthy home membership, to educate him to be a good citizen, to help him to choose and prepare himself for a vocation, to teach him to use his leisure time wisely, and to build in him ethical character. This is indeed a large order and one which the school cannot

and does not hope to fill alone. However, with the increasing changes in home life a larger share of the burden has been thrown on the schools, and it is a share which they must accept."² There is a very definite relationship between the cardinal principles, the purposes of FHA, and the objectives of Dr. McKown. The Garrisons report a study of the interests of the "High School Girls in Home Activities" carried on by Mary Beeman: "This study confirms the opinion that the adolescent girl longs for recognition, desires to take responsibility and to organize her world differently as well as efficiently, is anxious to improve social conditions, and look forward to a definite career."³

It is interesting to note that the program of work of the Kansas Association of the Future Homemakers of America, entitled "Building Today for Tomorrow," was prepared by the girls who attended the leadership training camp at Cawker City, July 6-9, 1947. It is more interesting to note how they planned to go about carrying out the program of work, and how they *have* gone about it all over the state.

"BUILDING OURSELVES"

The first heading on the 1947-'48 program of work was "Building Ourselves," and was subdivided into five topics or items of

2. Garrison, Karl C.: *The Psychology of Adolescence*, Third Edition, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1947, p. 282.

3. Garrison, S. C. and K. C.: *Fundamentals of Psychology in Secondary Education*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937.

endeavor. The first subtopic was "Grooming." This they promoted by posture contests and programs, talks and movies on cleanliness, talks and demonstrations of appropriate dress, and a style show for the public. They actually did these things, not just talked about them, and thereby did something that principals and superintendents and teachers want to do but usually cannot, because of limiting factors by the score; making the school more than "a supplemental agency."⁴

"GIRL-BOY RELATIONSHIPS"

The second subtopic was: "Girl-Boy Relationships." The FHA girls wanted to handle it this way: by discussions, by talks by parents and teachers, by debates, and panel discussion by boys about their "ideal girl." So they handled it that way and learned from it.

The third, fourth, and fifth subtopics were "Tolerance," "Traits of Character," and "Hobbies," respectively. They did all of this by study and discussions, shows and crafts classes, and even wrote each other notes reminding the other girl of her less desirable qualities.

Bossing says, "it (the school) will be derelict of duty if the character of the home, community, and such environmental factors are not permeated with the spirit, and to some extent the method of the school, so that there will be a unifying influence at work throughout the twenty-four living hours of the

child." If the only heading on the program of work for FHA were this "Building Ourselves," it would go a long way toward helping the Secondary School fulfill its function.

But it wasn't the only heading! The next one was "Building our Homes." The girls set up eighteen ways in which this was to be handled, running from an interesting report on the development of homes from the time of the Pilgrims to the present day, to putting up cartoons that depict good family life. Far from being only theoretical in their activities, they also visit homes before and after improvements are made, adopt aged families or families of another race, set up a placement bureau for girls who are qualified to be baby-sitters, check their own families and make suggestions for improvement. In other words, they are thinking about homes, and doing something about homes, and there is no substitute for thoughtful action. The result of this heading must be an improvement in the mental hygiene of the child, for the girl cannot help but understand, at least vicariously, the problems of the home, when looked at from the point of view of the FHA girl, and see, as objectively as possible, her relationship to it, and its relationship to her personality.

It does not make much difference, as we know, whether the girl understands about personality and attitudes as such; if she develops

⁴ A. Bossing, Nelson L.: *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942.

a desire to create a healthful home in the future, a physically, mentally and spiritually healthful home in the future, the FHA has helped Secondary Education immeasurably.

THE FHA PROGRAM

The Future Homemakers program does not stop with the building of the girls themselves, and building their homes, but it includes (the third heading in their '47-'48 program) "Building for School Betterment." There are eight subdivisions to this heading, five of which seem outstandingly significant to secondary education. The first is, "Encourage a spirit of good sportsmanship toward rival schools." Note that the girls consider them rival, so that none of the namby-pamby, Pollyanna, hypocritical attitude has been written in, but only good sportsmanship and a recognition that competition is still the life of trade. As educators we are trading in the future of America and democracy. If the girls can inculcate this sort of sportsmanship in themselves, it will most likely carry over into their adulthood, and have a tremendous influence on the longevity of our country.

Another subdivision is, "Coöperate with custodian and other organizations in keeping the school buildings and grounds neat and attractive." The other three that seem significant are: "Sponsor an all-school courtesy week"; "Be a good advertisement for the school both as an FHA chapter member

and as an individual student"; "Coöperate in promoting better citizenship."

Other headings on the program were "Building our Organization," "Building our Community, State, and Nation," and "Building for Fun." Limitations of space must be respected, however, and their importance cannot be discussed here. It seems almost necessary, nevertheless, to point to the last heading, "Building for Fun." Under this, the girls listed ten different types of entertainment that are interesting to them as adolescents, all of which are wholesome. Much has been written, and many discussions have been held regarding the problem of entertaining teen-agers; the part the schools should play in it, and the part the community should play, yet here in Kansas the FHA girls went ahead and made a program for themselves that fits in with the highest ideals that adults try to promote.

A NATIONAL ORGANIZATION

It is significant to remember that each state association of Future Homemakers of America is a part of a great national organization. Through the national office and especially through the national magazine, *Teen-Times*, the girls share their state programs of work, and share in the national projects. They learn to work together and to play together toward common goals.

The high-school girls are running this organization, national,

state, and local. They are running it for themselves, for their homes, for their schools, for their communities, and for their states, and finally for their country. Wherein, then, do adults figure in this wide and widening program? In an advisory capacity only. It is a girl organization, not an adult organization. Its success lies in this fact. Not only is there no autocracy in

it, but care is exercised to keep it out.

There is no panacea for all the ills incident to adolescence, and the FHA does not claim to be one. The Future Homemakers of America organization is striving to do jobs that have to be done, do them pleasantly and eagerly; jobs listed and discussed above. In so doing it has a definite and helpful place in secondary education.

Occupational Information and the Guidance Process

EMERY GILBERT KENNEDY

For several years the U. S. Office of Education has been surveying the summer session offerings of colleges and universities in the field of guidance and personnel work. Results of these surveys are published. According to the publication listing the offerings for the summer of 1948, fewer than 20 courses were offered in the nation dealing with the problem of occupational information. This tends to substantiate the contention made by many that we have been giving lip service to this problem.

EXTENT OF OFFERINGS

The evidence is rather startling when you consider that a total of 750 to 1,000 courses in the field of guidance is offered each summer, with fewer than three percent of these courses dealing with the problem of occupational information. In 1944, F. A. Fredenburgh summarized what appears to be the existing attitude toward this important phase of guidance services when he said:¹

Although it is quite true that individual analysis and diagnosis has not reached a point of proficiency approaching satisfaction even to the most skillful clinician, it has nevertheless won a place in the sun which it is not likely to lose. Yet the concomitant phase, the job anal-

ysis aspect of vocational guidance, has appeared to stagnate.

This condition is unfortunate. Such an attitude tends to retard the development of a systematic attack on the problems of selecting, securing, filing, and using occupational information by competent counselors. It also tends to limit the effectiveness of the counseling process. No matter how well done is the job of helping the counselee learn to know himself in connection with interests, aptitudes, achievement, and personality development, the ultimate objective of helping a counselee make worthwhile decisions in connection with the evaluation of his present plans and their projection into the future is almost impossible without reliable occupational information.

LACK OF INFORMATION

For example, consider the difficulties faced by a counselee in deciding to become a teacher of social science without knowing the requirements of certification, the possible opportunities for professional advancement, the personality requirements for success in this area, and the possible stabilizing or upsetting effects that such work might have on his personality over a period of years. Likewise, con-

1. F. A. Fredenburgh: The Gordian Knot of Vocational Guidance, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, University of Minnesota, February, 1944, p. 53.

sider the problems involved in helping a counselee make decisions relative to the selection of social science as the major aspect of his educational program without considering the changes such action may bring about in his future activities. Last but not least, consider the problems involved in helping any counselee evaluate existing personal problems or personality deficiencies and develop plans for their alleviation without considering his present vocational status and the possible needs for adjusting it in terms of his particular problem.

IMPORTANCE RECOGNIZED

The importance of occupational information in the guidance process has been recognized for years. In fact, Frank Parsons, generally considered as the father of vocational guidance, emphasized it in his first report on the work of the Vocational Bureau of Boston, in 1908.² Since that time, textbook writers in the guidance field have emphasized its importance but until recently little has been done in developing and systematizing techniques.

At the present time there are many encouraging evidences of progress. The Occupational Information and Guidance Services of the Vocational Education Division of the Office of Education constantly emphasize the need for more work in this area and have

held several state and national conferences dealing specifically with this problem. Today one of the best sources of help in any state is the State Supervisor of Occupational Information and Guidance.

TRAINING PROGRAMS

As a result of conferences on counselor training sponsored by the Occupational Information and Guidance Services, suggestions have been made for the inclusion of well organized occupational information training programs in the preparation of counselors. In 1944, the Bureau of Training of the War Manpower Commission published a bulletin entitled: *The Training of Vocational Counselors*.³ This bulletin included the reports of committees made up of some of the best trained men in the guidance and personnel fields in the nation. Its purpose was to provide a guide for institutions of higher learning in setting up curricula for the training of counselors. One entire division of the report was given over to occupational information.

One cannot consider indications of progress in this area without giving due credit to the Advice Division of the U. S. Veterans Administration. Since 1943 this agency has undoubtedly developed one of the largest guidance programs in existence. This program has been developed in connection with Veteran Training

2. John M. Brewer: *History of Vocational Guidance*. Appendix, Frank Parsons' First and Only Report. New York, Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1942, p. 303.

3. War Manpower Commission, *The Training of Vocational Counselors*. Washington, D. C. 1944.

programs. These programs originated in the approximately fifty regional offices of the Veterans Administration and have since branched out into many parts of each state. In some places they are operated on a coöperative basis with institutions of higher learning. In all these locations, the Veterans Administration personnel has emphasized the importance of occupational information.

INTEREST IN DEVELOPMENTS

As a result of these "straws in the wind," institutions of higher learning are beginning to take more interest in the development of training programs in occupational information. Although fewer than three percent of the college offerings in 1948 in the field of guidance and personnel work dealt with occupational information, this is undoubtedly an improvement over the situation that existed five years ago. At least there is a growing awareness of the need for developing more adequate training programs in occupational information in our institutions of higher learning. This will not be accomplished easily since no adequate training programs exist for the preparation of college instructors in this field. Occupational information is, at present, an educational stepchild.

To appreciate this situation it is necessary to understand what constitutes a course in occupational information. A simple definition of occupational information might be—facts about jobs, indus-

tries, training facilities, and pertinent public agencies that will be of particular value to the counselee in making decisions about his life plans. Back of this simple definition must be a great deal of work. The problem must be attacked systematically. The following excerpts from an editorial entitled, "Occupationology—A New Science," in the April, 1944, issue of *Occupations Magazine*, implies that this study may well become a science in its own right.

Whatever term be used, the fact is that the study of man's occupations is now proceeding along the lines followed in the study of rocks (petrology), plants (botany), animals (zoölogy). Each of these fields became marked off as a distinct scientific discipline when it became systematized as follows: First came collection of data. In botany, lists were made of all forms of plant life. Then came classifications. Plants with similar characteristics (for example, veined leaves) were grouped in one class; plants that flowered were placed in another group, and so on. A third stage common to all sciences is the accurate definition of each unit. Once these three steps have been taken, investigators in a scientific field can proceed to carry on advanced types of investigation.⁴

U. S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

In the classification and description of the world of work, much progress has been made by the U. S. Employment Service and other agencies. This progress is based upon the techniques of job analysis. Although the Employment Service has developed techniques

4. *Occupations, The Vocational Guidance Magazine*. Occupationology—A New Science. National Vocational Guidance Association, Inc., April, 1944, p. 447.

of its own, much work in this area has been done by vocational education leaders since the close of World War I. In other areas, its use goes back to the late 1800's.

NATURE OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

Occupational information is more than facts about jobs as gained through job analysis. It implies an understanding of the economic and sociological conditions affecting the stability of these job pictures. It implies an understanding of the requirements for success in the various jobs in the world of work including both personal and physical characteristics. It implies an understanding of the types of training facilities available in connection with the various areas of the world of work and the location and importance of each. Because no one can be expected to memorize all the facts about 25,000 constantly changing jobs, it implies a knowledge of techniques for securing, evaluating, filing, and using current information that will help answer these questions. Last, but not least, it implies a knowledge of the progress that has been made in the development of guidance services during the last four decades.

It is easy to see why counselor training in this area has been neglected. An ideal instructor in occupational information should probably have an advanced degree in guidance work or a related field; with academic training and experience in vocational education; with

training and work experience with the U. S. Employment Service; with training and work experience in economics and sociology; and possibly work experience in skilled trades and/or business areas. An instructor with such training and experience would be very hard to find and if found would be able to command more salary than a training institution could pay.

This situation seems to leave only one alternative. Instructors with academic training in guidance work or related areas will have to train themselves. They will have to become competent in the area of occupational information by self study, short special training courses with agencies such as the U. S. Employment Service, and last, but not least, as much work experience as possible in the areas listed above.

INADEQUACY OF LITERATURE

During the past ten years I have been closely associated with problems in occupational information, and since 1945 I have been teaching in the area. It has been impossible to find a syllabus or even an adequate textbook on the market. Single courses in occupational information are beginning to appear in a few college catalogues, and a few good books dealing with certain phases of the problem can now be obtained.

On the basis of my own experience, I am convinced that an organized program for the preparation of college instructors in occupational information is far in the fu-

ture. At present, this is an understandable condition, regardless of the importance of the area as part of the counselor training program. It is only a part of the counselor training program and does not lend itself to being a "helping" subject in many other areas.

GENERAL EDUCATION VALUES

On the basis of my experience, there is evidence that it might well have general education values. Some educators indicate a desire to see some training in occupational information required of all secondary school librarians. Regardless of these possibilities, professional training for instructors of occupational information on the college level seems far in the future. That leaves self training, through work experience, study, and research as the source of college instructors in occupational information for many years.

How competent will these self-trained instructors be? That remains to be seen, but undoubtedly they will range from bad to good. That need not be discouraging because the same situation exists in every teaching area. One encouraging element in this question of instructional competency on the college level in the area of occupational information is the fact that students taking such courses are expecting practical help in meeting their own needs as counselors. Students will not accept incompetency very long in any area, and

are probably less likely to accept it in the area of occupational information because in many cases workers out of the field will be taking such courses. The big problem will be to find college instructors trained academically in guidance work or related areas who will give the necessary time to become self trained.

If an individual has not been fortunate or unfortunate enough to have had considerable work experience and training in some of the areas listed earlier in this discussion prior to his advent as a college instructor, it would take him a minimum of four years to achieve reasonable competency in the area of occupational information. Undoubtedly the single courses that are now being offered in a few of our colleges and universities would shorten this period considerably—not because of the facts learned but because a good course in occupational information can outline rather clearly the problems involved in securing competency in the area. In fact, that is probably one of the most valuable outcomes that may be expected from the present-day offerings.

NEED OF COUNSELOR TRAINING

At first glance it would seem that there is little that workers in the field can do until professional counselor training catches up with the need. Actually there are many things that counselors in the field can do to become more competent

in the area of occupational information.

If a counselor is in the field, plans might be made to attend the nearest college or university offering a course in occupational information during a summer session, or try to arrange with one of these institutions to offer a workshop course. For individuals planning to enter counselor-training institutions, consideration might be given to the availability of occupational information courses before selecting the training institution. Although the courses now available in the field will not produce competency by themselves, they are very important. They will aid greatly in the production of competency and should outline clearly the problems involved in becoming competent.

If a counselor in the field does not have an opportunity to take advantage of course offerings in this area or if he wants supplementary aid following course work, he should get in touch with the State Supervisor of Occupational Information and Guidance. The State Supervisor has access to the best sources. In a few states, the State Supervisor of Occupational Information and Guidance, in conjunction with certain colleges and universities, has worked

out coöperatively in-service training programs on the secondary level. Such a program is now being conducted from Kansas State Teachers College.

CONSULT AVAILABLE SOURCES

This type of program functions simply. Any counselor or school administrator interested may apply to the State Supervisor of Occupational Information and Guidance or to the coöperating institution and secure assistance at no cost to him. Arrangements will be made for the counselor-trainer of the coöperating institution to communicate with the secondary school making the request. The counselor-trainer then assumes responsibility for helping the institution improve not only its occupational information but all its guidance services.

Obviously, such a program must develop slowly because of the limited personnel available. One of the brightest aspects of this recent trend is the fact that it will give secondary school guidance workers the advantage of the counselor-trainer's experience and training in the improvement of their programs, and incidentally will encourage college personnel to face more realistically the practical problems in the field.

Exceptional Child? Which One?

RAY ROSS LAMOREAUX

School teachers are interested in children. If they were not, they would not work for the pay they get, the hours they do. Every psychiatrist, psychologist or social worker will testify that teachers are helpful with, and concerned about, any individual child they bring to the attention of the teacher. Further, many of the problems these people see are brought to them by the teacher. The interest of teachers in individual children is the result of increasing knowledge of individual differences in ability, motivation, maturation, and personality. We have begun to learn that teaching methods must be varied to fit these variations in the students who are to do the learning. These things no one denies but, doing anything about individual problems is very difficult in the usual classroom.

HANDICAPS

However willing to help individual children, teachers are extremely handicapped. Today classrooms are crowded, equipment is lacking, funds for books are scant, libraries are impoverished, supervision tends to be poor or absent entirely, state curricula set standards which must be adhered to, and finally many teachers are lacking in training and experience. These things make it difficult for teachers to do

all they would like to do. Liking children, eager to do what they can for those who need it, teachers need the techniques which will help them recognize the problems of the child and identify the causes of the behavior which they see in the classroom.

The real sixty-four dollar question for the teacher is not whether she should help the child, but is: "Which child needs help?" This would be no problem if we were interested only in the poorest students and all we wanted from anyone was passing work. But we want rather that each student work to the limits of his ability and become an acceptable, useful, normal member of society able to live and work in peace with his fellows. When this is our goal the possibility of problems increases.

The exceptional child who should have the attention and help of the teacher is not necessarily the poorest student in the room, but maybe the girl on the front row who feels badly when she gets a grade as low as an "A—," or the boy in the back of the room who maddeningly refuses to pay attention and yet does good work of "C" grade. We know the poor student may be working up to the limits of his mental capacity and thus is a poor prospect for further help. Or he may have the capacity mentally, but be handicapped physi-

cally or emotionally. If it is either of these, help with school work is not the entire answer and will do little good unless the other problems are remedied.

WHAT WE NEED TO KNOW

That quiet little girl in the first row, who thinks she has failed with an "A—," may lack security with children her own age and be trying to compensate through school work; in any case, we must somehow discover why grades should be so unduly important. That annoying boy who doesn't pay attention and yet knows the answers—Is it that we don't give him enough to do? Do we have here a youngster of outstanding ability who hasn't yet been recognized because we've never challenged him? These are but a few of the things we need to know to do a good job, to answer the question, "Which child needs help?"

In view of the present conditions in our schools, it would seem that the most practical first step, and the one most saving of teacher time and effort, is an adequate testing program along the lines to be outlined.

First, an intelligence test. Group tests are available which give scores on both language and nonlanguage items. True, there are objections to "I. Q." tests, but these need not be serious and are usually objections to the people who use them, not the test. Machine-scored tests are available in the upper grades which will save time and reduce costs.

An intelligence test is fallible like all human machines, but in terms of mental age will give an estimate of the work an individual ought to be doing in school and may explain some of our failures in school. Differences between language and nonlanguage ability will help our understanding of some of our poor readers, help us with pupil guidance, and help our evaluation of students who have a foreign language background or, through some unfortunate circumstance, have not had normal language experiences.

Because one test score is never conclusive with any test, where scores seem extremely low or out of line with what might be expected, other tests should be given and individual tests should be used when possible.

ACHIEVEMENT TEST

Second, an achievement test should be given to all students. Where possible, local norms should be established. The purpose here is the evaluation, on an objective basis, of a pupil's performance against that of his fellows and against the expectation of performance in terms of his own mental age. Variations in performance from one subject to another or from one student to another may be due to differences in capacity (intelligence test performance may indicate variations within the individual as well as differences between individuals, and both are useful here), differences in motivation (what are

your students' expressed interests?), differences in family background and environment. (What do you know about your students' families and homes?)

It can be seen already that the achievement and intelligence tests can be used together because there is an interaction between them. Each will often help explain the other. For example, a child who cannot read according to an achievement test cannot do normal work on an intelligence test when it demands reading as a part of the test—just as a child of low intelligence cannot be expected to be able to read.

CAREFUL SELECTION OF TESTS

Third. The third step, then, is the selection, on an individual basis, of tests which may help with the understanding of those children who have been called to our attention by their performance on the tests we have already given. Diagnostic tests in reading will help us discover just what, if anything, is wrong with a pupil's reading and may tell us what to do about it.

Diagnostic tests in arithmetic will tell us whether or not a pupil has the ability to reason arithmetically and tell us which number combinations he is unable to handle.

Fourth, tests of hearing and vision should be readministered to those who need them or if none have been given at all they should be given to all children. Rough tests are simple and perfectly ade-

quate for most purposes. For hearing, the whisper test used by the army is satisfactory. For vision, the ordinary Snellen Chart will do if a pair of one diopter lenses is added to pick up those who are farsighted. There is no need to spend money for complicated gadgets.

Last, it should be remembered that teachers can always make use of the facilities of the state colleges and universities as well as the various agencies of the state.

Most colleges are quite willing or even eager to give advice on test selection and help with the interpretation of results. Facilities will be made available for further testing of individuals who present problems which do not seem to be answered by tests available to the teacher.

TESTS SAVE TIME

The use of tests of varied types has been suggested because they will help us find those who need our help. Tests, though, will never tell the whole story. Teacher observation, case histories, anecdotal records, will often tell as much, or more, and are equally valuable. These are two different methods of approach to the same problem and should be used together. Tests do, however, save time for the teacher and they do insure our paying some attention to every child.

Frequently, tests are used to pick out the children who will be studied with these other techniques where time is not available

for a thorough knowledge of all children.

Tests share the one great disadvantage of all diagnostic techniques. A testing program is not enough in itself. The results must be put to use. Test results belong in the classroom. In the central office, they may gather dust, but in the classroom they may, they can, be used to get better educational results. When we know who needs help and the kind of help needed, we must somehow provide such help. Without this there is no point to the whole thing—teachers might as well be mechanics on an assembly line.

THE TEACHER INDISPENSABLE

Teachers will use their ingenuity to provide the help needed. When they run out of ideas, though, they have people to fall back on as they did with the problem posed by the selection of tests. Any of the institutions that are willing to help with test selection and interpretation will consider

their job half done unless they help set up the steps that are to be taken to do something about the children's problems that are uncovered. In addition there are usually state agencies that can be called on for help. Here in Kansas we have agencies for vocational training for those over sixteen if there is some vocational handicap, crippled children under sixteen can obtain special help, those with speech defects or poor eyesight are also eligible for help. So we have here a wide range of facilities that can be used. They are flexible enough so that one can usually be found to fit almost any problem.

In view of these things, while we are justified in complaining of the handicaps under which we work, it is, in most cases, possible for us to do more than we are doing. The best way to get help is always to start something and show its worth; then it is easy to show how it can be improved and expanded if support is obtained.

The Roots of Juvenile Delinquency

JAMES CLAUDIUS STRALEY

It does indeed seem strange when one considers the fact that the United States, which has solved so well the problems of production and the feeding of its people, leads the world in the invention of machines to lighten man's work; has no superior in the field of scientific development; has brought such a high rate of health to all its people, should stand lowest among all the civilized nations in respect to social control and the extent of crime.

SOCIAL CONTROLS NEGLECTED

In solving our problems of production and health, we have made the fullest use of every known scientific device. But to our problem of social control we apply not science but any scheme that happens to appeal to some individual or group, which in the final analysis is often little more than tradition. If a disease breaks out in the community, if necessary we call in every medical expert in state and nation, and every known technique of cure and prevention is applied to the situation. This is as it should be. But we still trust the prevention of deviant behavior in our complex modern society to the thinking of the average mind, instead of calling in the specialists in the field of social welfare. Punishment of the criminal still rates ahead of prevention of the crime.

We have skilled workers in the field of human adjustment, but only a few communities have access to their services. It has been estimated that there are 30,000 or more trained psychiatrists, sociologists, social workers, socially minded judges, and enforcement officials in the United States, a mere fraction of the number of skilled workers in other fields.¹

Investigations made by the Federal Children's Bureau show that one percent of the children in the United States ten to sixteen years of age pass through our juvenile courts each year as delinquents, and that several times that number commit delinquencies, who for the time escape the courts.² In 1937, 486 juvenile courts serving 36 percent of the population of the United States, handled 78,688 juvenile cases.³ We undoubtedly have skilled social engineers who could greatly reduce the number of budding criminals if their efforts were applied on a large enough scale and over a long enough period of time.

REASONS FOR MALADJUSTMENT

Why bad boys? Carr says they become maladjusted for two reasons: (1) "Because of some inadequacy in themselves or in their

1. Garr: *Delinquency Control*, 1941, p. 4.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 37.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 37.

relation to their environment they become frustrated, thwarted, emotionally disturbed, and fall into deviant behavior as a way out.

(2) Because their immediate environment presents predominantly deviant behavior patterns, as in slums, or an area with delinquency traditions."⁴ It should be fully understood that delinquency is a mode of behavior, a way of adjusting, and therefore has as much meaning in the total life activities of the delinquent as the socially accepted behavior. Generally speaking the roots of delinquency are to be found in desires and urges that have not been satisfied. It is a symptom of some personal or social maladjustment which requires careful diagnosis.

It should be further noted that in only a part of their activities are the delinquents antisocial. They steal, are truants, and the like, but, whatever caused them to swerve from the path of socially approved conduct, it is certain to a large degree that such behavior stems from desires, urges and wishes fundamental in human nature.

HUMAN FACTORS

The usually considered fundamental human factors are such as desire for affection or response, desire for security, desire for new experiences, desire for recognition, along with such as outlets for physical and mental urges, and for ownership.

Interference with a reasonable attainment of these fundamental

wishes is felt by the young person as thwartings and deprivations, often causing great dissatisfaction. To many children some substitute satisfaction or activity is necessary to offset the dissatisfaction felt, it is then that delinquency offers itself as a substitute.⁵ For ages it has been the responsibility of the primary groups—the home, the play group and the community—to provide wholesome surroundings and activities so as to prevent as many thwarted wishes as possible.

SHAPING LIFE PATTERNS

In early life the parents form the constant environment of the child, hence a monopoly on the forces that shape its life patterns. The phrase "bringing up the child" implies above all else the shaping of behavior patterns by the parents. The child-parent relations should be the most important contacts the child will ever make. To a large degree the reason why of a good boy or bad boy is no mystery, they are homemade. Wherever parents and child meet—before the fire, around the table, in the playroom, yard, field, or workshop—there character is formed. There is no substitute for a good home, but the odds are heavy against the child unfortunate enough to live in a maladjusted home.

NOTE.—I do not discuss here heredity as a cause of delinquency. Except in such instances as where

5. Wood and Waite: *Crime and Its Treatment*, 1941, pp. 298, 299.

4. *Ibid.*, p. 69.

the basis for the delinquency is to be found in some physical or mental abnormality, there is little proof of any relation of heredity to antisocial conduct. And in the case of the mentally deficient, if given good training and a simple environment that does not especially incite to delinquency, on the average they are scarcely more susceptible to becoming delinquents than are others. For further discussion of this point of view, see Cantor: *Crime, Criminals, and Criminal Justice*, 1933, p. 77, also, Gillin: *Social Pathology*, Third Edition, 1946, p. 571.

LACK OF PARENTAL CONTROL

One of the frequent charges made against the American home today is the lack of parental control, discipline. The principle of self-direction, which allows the child to decide his actions according to his likes and dislikes—obey or disobey as he chooses—is bad for both the child and society. We can justly condemn the strict and at times brutal corporal punishment of our grandfathers' day, and likewise we can condemn the soft sentimental indulgence of parents to every idle whim of the child today. Here the child dominates, disobedience is the rule, and selfish instincts are developed at the expense of wholesome social traits. The energy of the child of course must be allowed to express itself, but not in an unbridled and ruthless fashion. From my limited observation I cannot agree with that brand of psychology which

would permit the personality of the child to be developed without parental guidance and restraint.

There are other types of homes that are factors in delinquency, but they can be little more than mentioned here. There are poverty-stricken homes which often cannot provide sufficient funds for a minimum standard of common decency. Many families are so poor they cannot even afford the simple necessities for childish enjoyments, but which can be purchased daily by their schoolmates. Frequently these indigent homes are in the slums where the children are inclined to form gangs to satisfy their wants in some anti-social way. Such homes in many instances are overcrowded, and adequate privacy for the different sexes is sadly lacking. There is no space for play in the home, so the child looks to the streets and the gang to provide the recreation so essential for proper physical and social development.

THE BROKEN HOME

Much has been written concerning the broken home as a factor in juvenile delinquency. Studies which have been made by Healy and Bronner, Shaw and McKay, the Gluecks, and others, all show that the broken home is undoubtedly a contributing factor in delinquency.⁶ Especially is this true if the broken home is associated with illegitimacy. Here the delinquency rate is twice that from le-

6. Sullenger: *Social Determinants in Juvenile Delinquency*, 1936, pp. 20-29.

gitimate homes. This is probably due to the fact that a large portion of the illegitimate children are born to mothers of low mentality with previous records of delinquency. This is also a handicap to the mother in her struggle to provide for herself and child.⁷

There are other homes where the children are from infancy constantly exposed to a degenerate environment with low ideals, and where vice and crime are approved standards of conduct. The wonder is, not that twelve percent of the children who live under such conditions become delinquent, but rather that any of them escape delinquency.⁸ Investigation has also shown that in seven percent of these degenerate homes at least one parent is mentally abnormal—in sane, feeble-minded, or epileptic.⁹

INFLUENCE OF THE COMMUNITY

Next in importance to the home in influencing the personality of the child is the community. The shifting of population from the rural and small-town communities to cities with the craze to squeeze as many houses as possible on thirty-foot lots, and with the advent of the apartment and its restricted area for the child, tends to center more and more the child's activities about the street and community. Here the child has ready access to the sensational press, all forms of commercialized

recreation, and gang life, over which the individual parent has no control. Under this situation the community must assume a larger share of responsibility than heretofore in training the child. We have seen that the home which cannot satisfy most of the child's reasonable needs is a factor in causing delinquency. The same is true for the community that fails to provide suitable activities to absorb the child's leisure time.¹⁰

It is in the community that the child first comes in contact with the play group. This group exerts a tremendous influence on the individual—determines what he plays, much of his language, and greatest of all his attitude toward others. "His playmates often surpass his parents in furnishing influential social controls."¹¹ Very frequently the boy's contact with the play group or gang marks the beginning of his career in delinquency.

Play is one of the most important spiritual forces in the world. "Suppress the play life of the boy and girl, or let it be perverted to evil ends, and we have hurt their characters beyond any power of preaching to undo the wrong."¹² This naturally calls for some form of supervised recreation to prevent unwise use of leisure time, and to provide wholesome character forming activities. A study made by the Cleveland Foundation

7. Gillin: *Criminology and Penology*, 1945, pp. 168-172.

8. Sullenger: *Social Determinants in Juvenile Delinquency*, 1936, pp. 18, 19.

9. *Ibid.*, p. 173.

10. *The Delinquent Child*. White House Conference Reports, Vol. 4, (C2), p. 467.

11. Sullenger: *Social Determinants in Juvenile Delinquency*, 1936, pp. 43, 44.

12. *Ibid.*, p. 44.

shows that three out of four cases of delinquency coming before the juvenile court in 1917 were closely connected with the use of spare time.¹³

One of the most frequent excuses given by the community for not providing a suitable leisure-time program is that the cost is too great. A prisoner states, "If we'd had more of this (playground) when we were kids, I bet a lot of us wouldn't be here now."¹⁴ This idea is being put to the test in a great many cities and they are finding it is true. "Play bills today cut down crime bills tomorrow." The boys' work director of Bluefield, West Virginia, states that in three years of active work the number of boys sent yearly to the reformatory dropped from fifty to two. And further, the cost of keeping a boy in the institution was approximately \$400 per year, but that amount of money would provide directed play for 800 boys.¹⁵ Surely no sizable community can afford not to make adequate provision for leisure time.

It is not the coal, oil, machines or wheat that constitute the community's most valuable product, although these are valuable. The

most valuable product of the community is its children, and it should be the first concern of the community to mature this product into upright useful citizens. No cost or effort should be spared to this end.

In closing, let me quote an answer to the question, Why juvenile delinquency?

"1. Because we adults are too selfish, ignorant, unskilled, vicious, or indifferent to take the necessary measures to prevent it.

"2. Because we adults permit antisocial behavior patterns to be thrust upon millions of children who cannot help themselves.

"3. Because we adults permit millions to grow up in wish-thwarting, personality-twisting environments.

"4. Because, finally and fundamentally, we adults have let scientists, inventors, and business enterprises change our mode of living faster than we have changed our mode of thinking and feeling; because we have let the complexities and inconsistencies of our culture outrun our institutional modes of adjustment; because we have let ourselves become walking anachronisms—ox-cart minds in a stream-lined world. So we have delinquency."¹⁶

13. Hayne: *Criminology*, 1935, p. 179.

14. *Ibid.*, p. 181.

15. Hayne: *Criminology*, 1935, p. 182.

16. Carr: *Delinquency Control*, 1941, pp. 95, 96.

Pertinent Implications of The Veterans Administration Guidance Program

WILBUR SUMNER DAVISON

Today, schools and other agencies are more concerned than ever before about helping youth find their way to genuine occupational success and happiness. Two factors entering into this concern are: (1) the complicated social and economic situation faced by American youth; (2) the experience and results of the huge Veterans Administration program of counseling and guidance, the influence of which is felt in every nook and corner of our country.

NEED FOR COUNSELING

It was my experience to participate in the Veterans Administration program of rehabilitation and education in the capacity of vocational adviser. I am returning to public school work, after two and one-half years, with the conviction that the youth of our land urgently need the guidance and counseling which this program provided to ex-service men and women. It should be the heritage and birth-right of youth in a democracy where the success of our "way of life" depends upon each individual's finding a suitable vocation and realizing his fullest development, adjustment, and happiness therein. It is my further conviction that the Veterans Administration program proved that such

guidance can be given. This program carried on by ex-school people provided proof and pattern that this need for guidance can be met.

PERTINENT DATA

The following are some of the situations which make counseling and guidance urgent:

1. The birth rate of farm youth is twice as great as in urban areas. More than one-half of the youth of today are farm born. It is no longer a problem of "how we gonna keep them down on the farm"—but how are we going to assist one-half of the rural youth, for whom there are no farm jobs to select and train for appropriate vocations elsewhere?

2. The period of schooling for youth is being lengthened. Witness the recommendation of the President's Commission on Education that two additional years be added to the conventional high school at public expense.

3. Youth's entrance into industry is deferred. The teen-ager is not now needed there.

4. The time needed for training in many vocations and professions has been increased. Note optometry courses and others.

5. There are fewer opportuni-

ties in industry for youth to try various jobs.

6. The expensiveness of education today precludes the trial-and-error method as a means of selecting one's course or vocation.

World War II, with its hasty demobilization of fifteen million service men and women, forced upon the government the greatest experiment in human reclamation in history. These millions of youth, most of whom were in their early twenties, had known little in their lifetime except depression and war. But few had occupational training or experience. More than thirty percent were married and needed employability and employment.

A GREAT EXPERIMENT

The government's answer was the Veterans Administration program of rehabilitation and education. This program called into its service thousands of teachers and administrators, many of whom have returned to school eager to help provide all school youth with appropriate counseling and guidance service. Not only was this program carried out by personnel trained as teachers and administrators, but techniques, methods, and tests developed in colleges and universities were the tools used in the guidance program.

A large portion of the several million GI's who availed themselves of the opportunity for guidance were counseled by the college guidance bureaus where Veterans Administration guidance centers

were located. These guidance centers were strengthened and improved by the Veterans Administration financial help and the experience obtained. These Bureaus are now prepared to train more guidance personnel and to render a much improved service to their students and to the surrounding communities.

THE ACID TEST

Thus this huge experiment in counseling and guidance has put to test the predications, postulates, techniques, and materials already developed by school personnel and has proved what can be done. Much valid data has been produced thereby.

A large number guided in this manner have completed training and have entered into employment, with satisfaction to themselves and their employers. This is sufficient to provide a measure of the success obtainable, when vocations are selected on the basis of interests, aptitudes, abilities, personality traits, and appropriate counseling.

Throughout the United States an impetus has been given to guidance programs. Universities, colleges, junior colleges, high schools (large and small), were touched by the program by reason of the part which it played in the lives of the veterans in their communities. Veterans from every nook and cranny in the country participated in the program and were assisted in the selection of substantial vocations. All schools were alerted

by lessons in guidance with their own youth.

A very marked change in college catalogues of the last two years is the increased number of courses for personnel and guidance workers. Forty-five state departments of education now provide occupational information and guidance. Placement bureaus are swamped by calls for teachers trained for counseling service. Civic clubs are eager to coöperate in providing guidance services.

Out of the experiences of personal counselors, who were called upon to assist the thousands of perplexed veterans in adjustment to civilian life (school—wives—parents—in-laws—employment, and so on) has come the conviction that storm-tossed adolescent school youth can also be given the rich helpful personal guidance whereby they may, with confidence, abandon, and release of feeling, be led from their perplexities and failures to new attitudes, insights, and purposes.

CONCLUSIONS

No longer can schools be content to permit racketeering astrologers, phrenologists, graphologists and physiognomists to advise our youth.

The difficult vocational choices and the complicated situations under which adolescents must make life adjustments places squarely upon the shoulders of teacher-training institutions the challenge to train and send forth teachers and administrators disposed to help and capable of providing the counseling and guidance services so urgently needed.

The government Veterans Administration counseling and guidance program, staffed by school men, using school-formulated techniques and test materials, gives proof and pattern, and has alerted schools of the land to the possibilities of an appropriate program for school youth.

Education of the Exceptional Child

RUTH REGINA FLEISCHAKER

The modern trend would seem to be definitely toward the recognition of certain basic needs in all children regardless of where they may live or how they differ physically, mentally, emotionally or socially. These needs are: A sense of security in the home, a sense of physical well-being, a sense of being a member of a social group with all the interchanges and interactions which make a happy group life for the individual.

NEED FOR SPECIAL TREATMENT

There are approximately three million or more children in the elementary schools of this country who need special treatment and training and are not receiving them. Adequate scientific attitudes toward the exceptional child, involving early discovery and early training to bring out his aptitudes and to bring his behavior to a habit level on a socially accepted plane, will prevent a great deal of institutionalization and much subsequent expense to society. Education designed to fulfill accurately the needs of our child population in the field of exceptional groups is still in its infancy.

Since the publishing of the White House Conference Report in 1931 there has been a growing interest in the exceptional child. Let us consider the exceptional

child as one who varies in his abilities to such an extent that he requires special facilities and special instruction because of physical, mental, emotional, or social deviation, or a combination of these deviations, from the so-called, "normal child." These areas are usually broken down into the following groups:

I. *Physical deviates* (physically handicapped).

A. The crippled child: (1) orthopedic; (2) cerebral palsied; spastic; (3) others, including: osteomyelitis, poliomyelitis, congenital deformities (arthritis); and a group which may include cardiacs, those with rheumatic fever affecting the heart, and others.

B. The undervitalized (low vitality).

1. Tendency toward tuberculosis and respiratory diseases.
2. Cardiacs.
3. Rheumatic fever. During the convalescent period some cities have provided institutional care with respect to health and education. Under such circumstances these cases constitute a group by themselves.
4. Nephritic sufferers.
5. Diabetics.

6. Malnutrites.
7. Others.
- C. Deaf and hard-of-hearing.
- D. Blind and partially seeing.
- E. Speech defectives.
- F. Epileptics.
- II. *Intellectual deviates.*
 - A. Intellectually retarded.
 1. Morons.
 2. Others who are educable.
 - B. Intellectually defective. Non-educable imbeciles, idiots—usually institutionalized.
 - C. Intellectually gifted.
- III. *Emotionally unstable* (instability).
- IV. *Socially maladjusted.* Behavior maladjustments, including: Delinquency; destitution; dependency; crime.

FACILITIES NEEDED

The seriousness and type of defect determine the facilities needed: public or private residential institution, day school, special class, special instruction (such as speech correction or bedside instruction), and whether there should be segregation or not.

It is recognized that successful educational efforts depend upon the ability of teachers. Schools of higher learning, in general, admit for study in the department of exceptional education only highly qualified persons with good cultural background, superior personality, professional interest, specific preparation, and a desire to continue professional study. The teacher should first of all be a good teacher. She

must know children, how they grow, and why they behave as they do. She must know the purposes of education, the history of education, the interrelationships of school programs with other community efforts. It is desirable for teachers of exceptional children to have experienced teaching so-called "normal children" before they undertake to teach children who deviate. The area of exceptional education is broad and varied and the preparation of its teachers will depend on whether they become generalists or specialists. Each will need overview courses in orientation, psychology, physical education, mental hygiene, and others. Certification requirements will vary according to standards set up by individual states; however, these requirements should be flexible in accordance with continual evaluation of the program and its revision.

THE CLASSROOM PROBLEM

When we consider the large number of children who can be cared for in no other way than in the regular classroom it is important that the teacher have some knowledge of the abilities, disabilities, and needs of children who deviate, and make the proper adaptation of the regular program for them in so far as it is possible. Possibly there should be pre-service preparation through overview courses required by teacher training centers, in both under-

graduate and graduate courses, as well as in-service education.

GENERAL OBJECTIVES

The general objectives of curriculum planning for the exceptional child are the same as for the normal child. The main objectives are: to guide toward the attainment of self-realization; the building of acceptable human relations; the gaining of economic efficiency; and the development of a sense of civic responsibility. The approaches to these goals are essentially the same.

The differences between curriculum building for the normal child and the exceptional child are concerned with the selection of proper content, with the modification and adjustment of existing content, and with the projection of adequate techniques for physical and intellectual levels. In other words, the problem is one of finding individual needs and providing for them.

In each case of the exceptional child the teacher should act as the moderator, and realistically weigh the individual's needs and his possibilities very early in his school career. The needs of the mentally retarded are great, since these children who are limited intellectually require a simple educational program sufficiently balanced to carry them successfully through their lives. The patterning of this group is so varied that a neurologist's diagnosis and recommendations are required even

though the teacher is so well trained that she will be able to recognize marked mental deviations and refer them to the proper agency for scientific review.

In the Department of Special Education at Newark, New Jersey, a certain unitary form is set up which is termed "The Areas of Learning." A core curriculum is set up to study common life problems. The units stress: (1) the importance of the home; (2) the value of utilizing community resources; and (3) the development of the city, state, and country. Exploratory work experiences are most helpful. This plan of relatedness should begin on the primary level and continue throughout the school experience. At the prevocational and high school levels their intellectual energy should be directed in reviewing, comparing, testing and applying what has been learned.

THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

In the curriculum for the physically handicapped, emphasis on richness of experience is important. Unless otherwise indicated the intelligence of this group is average or above. The greatest concern is to accustom these children to accept their defects, and to analyze the possibilities and limitations of social and vocational adjustment in relation to curriculum needs.

In planning the curriculum the following points are important:

1. Vehicle must be challenging, rich, flexible, which will:
 - (a) aim at the complete development of the child;
 - (b) be therapeutic in nature;
 - (c) stimulate the search for more information in relation to group activity; and
 - (d) reveal individual capacities and talents.
2. The approaches necessary are:

- (a) Curriculum adjustments: treatment, exercise, or rest.
- (b) Adjustments of teaching techniques: enlarged materials for the partially seeing; Braille for the blind; lip-reading and learning use of speech organs for the deaf and hard of hearing; mastery of body control for the crippled; others.

The curriculum for the physically handicapped functions only in such adjustments as are required by each specific group. These must be unified and must be the safeguard of the mental health and the final vocational choice of these children in order to equip them to accept intelligently any loneliness and deprivation which their handicap might bring.

THE SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED

The socially maladjusted group needs definition before setting up its curriculum. If educational obstacles occur then the curriculum

for the intellectually retarded can be used as an outline with extensions and embellishments as needed. If personality disorders are revealed then the psychiatrist must prescribe the approach to rehabilitation.

It is evident that "life adjustment" is the basic need of all education, especially with reference to the exceptional child. Elise H. Martens defines it thus: "Life adjustment is a nice balance between changing circumstances to meet one's apparent needs for happiness, and, when circumstances cannot be changed, adjusting or changing one's self and one's life program to meet unaltered conditions in such a way that there will be at least a measure of satisfaction and contentment."¹ Gene had an eye hemorrhage due to a tumor. When his mother had to tell him that he wouldn't see again he replied, "then I must go to the School for the Blind and learn to do something useful." Tommy had "polio" When he was told that he would never be able to run and play again his response was, "I must be sure to be happy so that other children will want to come and play where I am."

SATISFYING RELATIONSHIPS

Maintaining satisfying relationships to one's self, to other people, and to the spiritual force of the universe calls for: (1) A wholesome understanding of self; (2) an association which will make

1. Elsie H. Martens, Chief, Exceptional Children and Youth, U. S. Office of Education.

one an acceptable member of a social group; (3) a philosophy of life that meets one's emotional and spiritual needs.

ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS

If education is to offer the things that contribute to the life adjustment of the seriously handicapped child there must be a combination of several elements in a special program arranged for him: (1) Intensive individual attention as the child's condition demands it; (2) the program, however specialized it may be in part, must also somewhere along the line include associations with normal children. These children take part in every possible activity that will identify them with the total school and community life; (3) there should be an adequate opportunity to prepare for occupational success. The handicapped person does not want special allowances, for he realizes that he must carry on in spite of his defect and do his work as well as, if not better than, his nonhandicapped neighbor; (4) there must be an emotional and spiritual satisfaction that will make all life more meaningful and

the physical burden more bearable.

The realization of an adequate program for exceptional children is a matter for major consideration. A few of the major problems are: (1) Securing well prepared teachers. It is hoped that teacher training institutions will make it their business to recruit and to prepare personnel skilled in teaching ability, understanding in human sympathies, and interested in using their skills; (2) developing satisfactory physical facilities, well equipped with essentials for the groups to be serviced; (3) establishing interrelationships with all agencies concerned with the well-being of the exceptional child, including: public and private agencies; doctors and clinics; health, welfare, educational, and vocational rehabilitation agencies; home, school, church, industry, and labor.

"Illiteracy, the product of educational neglect, must stop at its source; and that can be done only by giving educational opportunity to the children—all the children of all the people of America."²

2. Elbert D. Thomas, in *Washington News Letter* on Social Legislation, September 16, 1942.

Are Student-Veterans Nervous?

JOHN ARTHUR GLAZE

During the regular school year of 1947-'48 we administered the Bernreuter Personality Inventory to all the men students enrolled in our general psychology classes at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg. This inventory measures one aspect of personality, namely, neuroticism, in which we were particularly interested for the following reasons: It is well-known that there are a very few badly disturbed men on almost every college campus. Also, a few of the veterans on our campus had mentioned their jumpiness shortly after the close of World War II, and we were particularly interested in discovering whether this test would indicate its frequency and persistence. Of course, many men found it somewhat difficult to "settle down" to the conditions, new and old, that they found after returning home for good.

Of the men tested, 217 were veterans and 69 nonveterans. All were of Caucasian strain. The veterans ranged in age from 19 to 38, with a median age of 22, while, with one exception, the nonveterans ranged in age from 17 to 20, with a median age of 19. Of the veterans, 83 were married and 134 were classified as nonmarried. We took the marriage factor into consideration, because a few expressed the belief that marriage helped them. Only two of the nonveterans were married.

In reporting our results below we use the term "percentile rank" frequently, as the author of the test uses this device for comparative purposes. As is well known, scores are related to a scale ranging from 0 to 100 on the percentile distribution. If we speak also of "quartile," this will be understood to mean one-fourth. The "upper quartile" ranges from 76 to 100, and the "lower quartile" extends from 25 down to 0.

Most people would prefer to be in the upper quartile in intelligence, but the upper quartile in neuroticism, the only factor we are considering in our test, is a most undesirable position. A person is quite nervous if his score is in the upper quartile, and rather seriously so if his score is in the upper 10 percent—from 91 to 100. In a normal distribution, 50 percent of the group will rank between the 25 percentile and the 75 percentile.

Instead of an average percentile rank of 50, the average for the 127 veterans was 38. The averages for the 69 nonveterans by comparison was at exactly 50. In other words, the average score of veterans was 12 percentile points better than the average for the nonveterans. This was one of our most striking discoveries.

Let us see next who rated worse or better at the extremes. In the upper quartile we *do* have a few

more veterans proportionately than nonveterans. These are 19 and 14 percent, respectively; not a marked difference. Remember, we should normally expect 25 percent of each group to rank above 75 percent. We may be well-content with both groups, so far as neuroticism is concerned. When we consider the upper 10 percent, the most nervous of all, there is no appreciable difference between the two. Both are well below the expected 10 percent by two and one-half points, approximately.

The most marked difference is found in the lowest quartile and the lowest decile (10 percent), where the veterans are proportionately much better adjusted than the nonveterans, as is indicated by this test. Thirty-one percent of the veterans are in the lowest quartile but only 10 percent of the nonveterans are found there. In the lowest decile exactly 10.1 percent of the veterans are found, while only 4.3 percent of the nonveterans are there.

It is interesting, further, to observe that while some veterans expressed the belief that marriage and home-living of their own choice tended to stabilize them (and we have no reason to doubt this), yet there was no appreciable difference in the percents of married men and single men in any comparisons that we could make. In other words, while correlation between stability and marriage cannot be denied, our results gave

us no definite evidence on this point. It may well be, however, that the most dissatisfied men—or many of them—were married and had become stabilized thereby. But we can just as well take the view that the unmarried men were self-sufficient, and did not need the stabilizing influences of a wife and a home of their very own.

Statisticians may find some interest in the fact that the range of ages of the married men extended from 26 to 38, while that of the single veterans extended from 19 to 30. This means that the married men were seven or eight years older than the single men. The age-factor itself could also well contribute towards a better adjustment, for few if any of these men are too old properly to rationalize their experiences to develop therefrom a more wholesome manner of looking at things.

Of course, there are still a few individual cases of maladjustment, but these might well have occurred without any war. The fact that these cases are not as numerous among veterans as among nonveterans, so far as our limited investigation shows, should leave us quite optimistic. If our sample is a good representation of the more than 900 veterans on the campus during the last school year, then we should be happy for them and all concerned that the scars of a great war have not left their imprint too deeply. At least, so we hope.

Comment on Books

Teaching Controversial Issues

Report of an Educational Conference

Published by The Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front Street, Columbus (15) Ohio. Paper, 32 pages, September, 1948.

This is a booklet prepared by the Junior Town Meeting League of Columbus, Ohio. Teachers who are interested should read the booklet, which is fairly well condensed. An issue is declared to be controversial "when some of its proposed solutions conflict with the cherished interests, beliefs, or group affiliations of a section of citizens." Also the contention is that if a democracy expects to remain a democracy it must expect and welcome orderly change, for we have a dynamic changing society.

Since the school is the most important social agency to instruct the people it is important that the discussion of live issues should be promoted there under competent direction. Open-minded discussion is one of the best ways of contributing to the "rule of intelligence." The problem is one of conscious selection adapting problems to appropriate grade levels.

The community should be con-

ditioned for such discussions in the schools, and the importance of a "suitable classroom climate" is stressed. The teacher should make it clear that he is not teaching a point of view but is trying "to establish an atmosphere of inquiry." In fostering critical evaluation the student must be encouraged to doubt and to question.

It is important that there be a clear distinction between opinions and sound judgment based on evidence.

The method of approach is suggested in a series of steps: (1) defining the issue; (2) exploring the issue; (3) suggesting a hypothesis; (4) collecting and recording data; (5) presenting data; (6) appraising data; (7) testing hypotheses; (8) determining possible conclusions.

One should be sure: (1) that the issue is significant or timely; (2) that it is within the range of knowledge or competence of the students and is within the limits of their interest and experiences; (3) that materials are available for gathering a reasonable amount of data; and (4) that it will help a student to recognize that every question has more than one side and many points of view.—ELIZABETH COCHRAN.

I Learn From Children

By CAROLINE PRATT

Published by Simon & Schuster, Inc.,
Rockefeller Center, New York, 1948.
Price, \$2.75.

In this book Caroline Pratt recounts her growing attitudes toward the education of young children from her first training at Teachers College, New York, in 1892, to the present. She is now Principal Emerita of City and Country School, which she founded in 1914.

It was during her training period in the Kindergarten at Teachers College that Miss Pratt first began to question and then to reject the methods that were being advocated. How she eventually worked out a philosophy for the education of the very young, along with the methods and techniques of applying this philosophy, is graphically set forth in her account of the development of the City and Country School.

After a few years of varied experiences in teaching normal school students and teen-age pupils, Miss Pratt concluded that the type of education being imposed on these ages was not so effective as it should be, because the education they had received in their early contacts with schools had not taken into account the natural impulses and inclinations of children. She therefore decided to start a school for young children, basing this decision upon her deep conviction that all children have a

natural and inevitable desire to learn, and that the traditional school thwarts, curbs, and often kills this desire.

The Play School, which was later to be known as the City and Country School, was begun with six children between the ages of four and five. These children, as were all children who were to come after them, were given the opportunity to follow their natural desire to learn, to do, and to see. They were given every chance to work out for themselves the answers to their questions concerning the world in which they lived and the relationships of the various parts of that world. They were also encouraged to solve their problems of living and playing with each other.

It is interesting to notice that always in her discussions and descriptions of the children and their activities as they progress from year to year through the school, Miss Pratt speaks of the groups by ages—the Sevens, the Nines, the Tens, instead of by grades. This is doubtless because there was at no time a prescribed curriculum by ages or grades, and no group was ever required to reach a certain level in formal learning.

For example, the Sevens (the second grade of the traditional school) were taught reading and writing. Miss Pratt says it was not her own logic, or the pressure from the parents, but the attitudes of the children themselves that brought about the decision to give

this age-group reading. But the core of the Sevens program was the building of a play city. This play city furnished much of the material for the reading.

Each age-group had its "Job"—the school store, a post office, a printing shop, a toy making shop, or carpentry. Each Job had its attendant learning of skills necessary for that Job. Each Job offered opportunities to seek information. This information was sought at first hand as much as possible. But by the time the children became the Tens or the Elevens, books had their place too in furnishing needed information. From each Job the individual could realize his worth—his responsibility to his group and to the other groups.

In attempting to tell others of a book such as *I Learn From Children*, much of the color, the vividness, and the gripping sincerity of the author is lost. It is in many of the explanatory comments, and in aside remarks, that the real philosophy, the aims, and the hopes of the founders of the City and Country School are expressed.

While the traditional school differs widely from this private school, still many teachers in the public schools have also "learned from children," and have evolved and are using a philosophy similar, in many respects, to that expressed and practiced by Miss Pratt. That so far no one knows all that there is to know about children, teachers are willing to concede. Will anyone ever know

it all? Wouldn't teaching lose much of its challenge and be less intriguing if this were so?—
DAPHNE VAUGHAN CROSS.

Your School District

By Dawson, Reeves, and Others

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington (6), D. C. 1948. \$2.

This is a real contribution to the literature on school district reorganization. It is timely and, for the most part, quite up to date. The cochairmen of the commission responsible for the study and report, Howard A. Dawson and Floyd W. Reeves, as well as the other contributors, are all nationally known for their work in school district reorganization.

The book deals with the need for school district reorganization, types of school districts, conditions and problems in the various states, and related subjects. The statistical tables provide additional and supporting data.

The book is well written and should be very valuable to students of education in colleges, school administrators, board members, teachers, and members of legislative commissions. The evidence in favor of school district reorganization should be fairly conclusive to the unbiased reader.

There are too many school districts. Many of them are too small and represent unnecessary units. Small and unnecessary school districts often place the pu-

pils at a serious disadvantage. The school services are too limited. Children's needs are neglected. There is little opportunity for enrichment, or for the development of capacities in art, music, and dramatics. There is little or no supervision for teachers and the rewards for teachers are too small.

Poorly organized and poorly supported high-school districts offer meager opportunities for farm and village youth. "In nearly one-third of the states more than forty percent of the children fourteen to seventeen years old are not enrolled in high school. In all states the proportion of children in this age group not in high school is much greater in rural than in urban areas." The lack of adequate high-school opportunities in rural areas is not a concern for rural people alone, because approximately one-half of the young people migrate from rural to urban centers to make homes and find employment.

Small districts cannot hold good teachers. While some of the best teachers are in small rural schools, once their abilities are realized larger schools offer them more attractive employment.

School district organization is never static. Changes in the social and economic conditions of the country continually create new types of educational needs. "The attendance areas of many school districts no longer conform to the boundaries of either neighborhood or community. An educational program that was satisfactory for

a pioneer community would be very unsatisfactory at the present time, and the educational opportunities offered by the schools a decade ago, or even in most school districts operating at the present time, have many serious limitations when viewed in the light of present-day problems."

Special services, such as guidance, psychological and psychiatric services, opportunities for handicapped children, health services, school and community library services, vocational education, and adult education are entirely lacking in the small high schools. Such services can be furnished only by an administrative unit larger than an individual school. Experience and research indicate the necessity of an administrative unit of 1,200 pupils in order to furnish the well-known and needed services efficiently. Gains in efficiency and economy can be expected as the size of the administrative unit increases up to approximately 10,000 pupils.

"No one type of school district has been proved superior to all others. There are undoubtedly a number of satisfactory administrative arrangements. But the one thing that is certain is that there needs to be an immediate reorganization of school districts throughout the United States. Reorganization is imperative now."

In many states reorganization should provide post-high-school education or anticipate this provision in the future. "Graduation from high school upon completing

grade 12 is no longer considered adequate preparation for citizenship. Such preparation should include at least two additional years of well organized work. The demand for such work is indicated in the capacity enrollments of schools that are offering it."

There will be considerable diversity in the organizational patterns of the institutions provided in the various states to meet post-high-school educational needs. The bulletin points out some elements common to all proposals:

1. These institutions are likely to be supported jointly by funds from local and state sources.

2. They will serve areas much larger than most rural high school attendance areas.

3. The policy-forming and control bodies will be boards of education representing local districts or areas.

4. The schools will be so located that most of the students can return to their homes each night.

5. There will be greater coöperation between the people in rural areas and in smaller urban centers in the support of these schools than now exists in the support of rural high schools.

6. There will be great diversity in educational offerings with much attention given to evening classes, extension work, and other types of part-time school and work programs.

Adult education should be considered. An educational program which meets community life needs must serve higher age groups.

Liberal aid for adult education is provided in New York and Michigan.

Wherever school district reorganization has been thorough and adequate it has been preceded by studies, plans, and recommendations of deliberative bodies of some kind. Several studies have preceded legislative action.

Types of studies and recommendations that have resulted in reorganization have been made by state departments of education, associations of district superintendents, councils on rural education, state planning councils, legislative councils of the state legislatures, out-of-state consultants, and survey committees.

It is customary to hold public hearings and discussions on reorganization. In Washington, county committees were required to hold public hearings on recommendations about to be proposed. These hearings were held at several points in the county. In Kansas a written statement was required presenting tentative plans. These plans were then discussed at public hearings. In Illinois, Iowa, Arkansas, and New York public hearings are required.

The cochairmen of the committee say, "This report is intended to be used by laymen, by officials having responsibility for planning the reorganization of school districts, and by professors of school administration and their students." It should be helpful to all of these and others.—WILLIAM A. BLACK.

Contributors to This Number

William Albert Black (Ph. D., University of Colorado) came to Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, September 1, 1947, as head of the department of education and psychology and director of teacher education. He is a native of Missouri; a graduate of Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, B. S., 1926, and M. S., 1934; and of the University of Colorado, Boulder, Ph. D., 1942. He has also completed graduate study at Colorado State College, Greeley, and George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn. His teaching experience includes fifteen years as teacher, director, and superintendent in Kansas high schools and junior college; one year in university; three years as president of a junior college in Colorado; and two years in the State Department of Education, Olympia, Wash. He was a member of an SATC unit during World War I, and during World War II he served three years as county director of vocational education for war production training. He is author of a number of books for teachers and has contributed extensively to professional journals. He has served on important committees of the American Association of Junior Colleges, and is a member of the National Educa-

tion Association, National Association of School Administrators, National Society for the Advancement of Education, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Education, Guidance Council, and the Kansas State Teachers Association.

Esther Lee Brown (M. S., Iowa State College) was appointed itinerant teacher trainer of vocational homemaking under the Kansas State Board for Vocational Education, stationed at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, September 1, 1945. At the close of the summer session, August 1, 1948, she resigned to accept appointment to the staff of the Department of Home Economics, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo. She is a graduate of The Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wisconsin, degree B. S., 1933, and of Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, M. S., 1941. She completed additional graduate credits at Iowa State College. Her teaching experience includes four years, 1934-1938, as instructor of vocational homemaking, senior high school, Frederick, Wisconsin; one year, 1938-1939, in the public schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan; and four years, 1940-1944, in the Department of Home Economics, Iowa

State College. She is a member of Phi Kappa Phi, national honorary society in Education, and of Phi Upsilon Omicron and Omicron Nu, national honorary societies in Home Economics. While employed at Kansas State Teachers College she served as State Adviser of the Kansas Association of Future Homemakers of America, a national organization for high-school girls. She was a member of the National Education Association, American Home Economics Association, American Vocational Association, Kansas State Teachers Association, Kansas Vocational Association, and Kansas Home Economics Association.

Wilbur S. Davison (M. A., Teachers College, Columbia University, New York) became a member of the staff of the Wichita office of the U. S. Veterans Administration in March, 1946. On June 1 of that year he came to Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, as chief of the Veterans Administration Guidance Clinic. On September 1, 1948, he resigned this position and was appointed assistant professor of Education. He is a graduate of Kansas State College, Manhattan, B. S.; of Baker University, Baldwin, Kansas, A. B.; and of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, M. A. He also completed one summer session of graduate study at Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado. He is a veteran of World War I, with two years' ex-

perience in the Field Artillery, 1917-1919, leaving the service with rank of Second Lieutenant. His teaching experience before coming to the College included eight years as teacher in Kansas high schools, three years as principal, six years as principal of high school and dean of junior college, and two years as superintendent of schools. He is a member of the National Education Association, Kansas State Teachers Association, Kansas Council of Education, Kansas Schoolmasters Club. He served four terms as a member of the executive council of the Kansas State High School Activities Association; as president, one term, Southeast Kansas section of the Kansas State Teachers Association; and is past president of the Kansas State Association of Junior Colleges.

Eugene E. Dawson (S. T. B. Harvard University) is a native of Kansas and came to Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, October 1, 1946, as assistant professor of psychology, director of religious activities, and counselor for men. He is a graduate of the College, degree A. B., 1940; and of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., degree S. T. B., 1944. In 1943, Harvard University awarded him the Billings Prize for preaching. He has completed the residence requirements for the Ph. D. degree, with major in psychology, at Boston University, where he held a graduate assistantship in

1945. From 1938 to 1940 he was student pastor of the South Broadway Baptist Church, Pittsburgh, and from 1942 to 1946 he was pastor of the First Baptist Church, Lynn, Mass. He is a member of Psi Chi, national honorary fraternity in Psychology; of Pi Kappa Delta, national honorary fraternity in Forensics; and of Alpha Phi Omega, national service fraternity. He is a member of the National Education Association, the Kansas State Teachers Association, the National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men, and the Kansas Psychological Association.

Ruth Regina Fleischaker (M. A., Teachers College, Columbia University) was appointed assistant professor of Education and supervising teacher of the sixth grade, Horace Mann Elementary Laboratory School, September 1, 1948. She is a native of Missouri, a graduate of Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, B. S., 1934; and of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, M. A., 1938. Her major field in the Graduate School was the study of exceptional children. She has taught in the public schools of Kansas and Missouri; the State School for the Deaf, Fulton, Missouri; and was director of the sight conservation program in Kansas City, Missouri. She has contributed a number of articles to professional educational journals. She is a member of the American

Association of University Women; Delta Kappa Gamma, national honorary fraternity for women in Education; the National Education Association, the Kansas State Teachers Association, and the International Council for Exceptional Children.

E. Louise Gibson (A. M., Columbia University) was appointed assistant professor of home economics, September 1, 1923; in 1928 she was promoted to the rank of associate professor, and in September, 1947, she was appointed professor and head of the department. She is a native of Kansas, and a graduate of Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, B. S., 1918; and of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, B. S., 1922, and A. M., 1925. She completed additional graduate study at the State University of Iowa, University of Minnesota, University of Kansas, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn., and Columbia University. Her teaching experience before appointment at Kansas State Teachers College included two years in Kansas high schools. She has contributed articles to the *Kansas Teacher*, the *News Letter* of the Kansas State Home Economics Association, the *Homemaking Bulletin* of the Kansas State Board for Vocational Education, *The Educational Leader*, and *The Alumnian*. She is a member of the American Association of University Professors, American As-

sociation of University Women, National Education Association, Kansas State Teachers Association, American Home Economics Association, American Vocational Association, Kansas Vocational Association, and Kansas State Home Economics Association (president, 1948-1949).

John Arthur Glaze (Ph. D., University of Michigan) came to Kansas State Teachers College in September, 1931, as associate professor of psychology and philosophy, and was promoted to the rank of professor in 1932. He is a graduate of Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kansas, B. S., 1923, and M. S., 1924; also of the University of Michigan, Ph. D., 1928. After five years of experience as instructor in Kansas high schools, he served as assistant professor of psychology, Colorado College, 1926-1927; as instructor of psychology, University of Michigan, 1927-1928; professor and head of the Department of Psychology, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, Tex., 1928-1931. He is a member of Sigma Xi, national research fraternity, and has been a contributor to the *American Journal of Psychology*, *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, and *Journal of Comparative Psychology*. He is a member of the National Education Association, American Psychological Association, Kansas State Teachers Association, Kansas Academy of Science, and the Kansas Psychological Association.

Emery Gilbert Kennedy (Ed. D., University of Missouri) came to Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, in August, 1948, as associate professor of Education and Psychology and Director of Guidance Services. He is a graduate of Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, B. S., 1930, and of the University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., A. M., 1932, and Ed. D., 1939. His educational experience includes rural and high-school teaching; school administration; prison psychology work; State Department of Education experience; public agency administrative work; and college university teaching. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa, national honorary graduate fraternity in Education; Kappa Delta Pi, international honorary society in Education. He is a member of the National Education Association, National Vocational Guidance Association, Kansas Society for Exceptional Children, and the Kansas State Teachers Association.

R. Ross Lamoreaux (Ed. M., University of Southern California) came to Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, September 1, 1947, as instructor of Psychology. He is a native of Nebraska, and a graduate of Santa Barbara State College of the University of California, A. B., 1937, and of the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Ed. M., 1940. He has completed two additional years of graduate study at Har-

vard University, 1941-1943, during which period he was for one year holder of the Bigelow Graduate Fellowship. His teaching experience before coming to Pittsburgh included one year as assistant in the Psycho-Educational Clinic at Harvard University; one year as instructor of Psychology, Wheelock College, Boston, Mass.; and one year as instructor of Psychology in the Norfolk Division of the College of William and Mary, Norfolk, Va. His World War II service included two years with the U. S. Air forces in Greenland and Iceland. He is coauthor of a monograph, "Avoidance Conditioning and Signal Duration"; and contributed to the *Journal of Comparative Psychology* an article on "Fear as an Intervening Variable in Avoidance Conditioning." He is a member of Psi Chi, national honorary fraternity in Psychology; Alpha Pi Omega, social fraternity; American Psychological Association, Kansas Psychological Association, National Education Association, and Kansas State Teachers Association.

Paul G. Murphy (Ph. D., State University of Iowa) came to Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburgh, in September, 1932, as assistant professor of Psychology and Philosophy, and was promoted to the rank of professor and head of the Department of Psychology and Philosophy in 1942.

On June 1, 1945, he was appointed Dean of Administration and Professor of Psychology. He is a native of Kansas, and a graduate of the College of Emporia, A. B., 1929, and of the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, M. A., 1930, and Ph. D., 1932. He was also enrolled for one semester of post-doctoral study at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. He held a graduate scholarship at the State University of Iowa, 1929-1930, and a graduate assistantship, same, 1930-1932. His World War II service included one summer, 1944, as research assistant on an OSRD research project for the Signal Corps, USA, stationed at Camp Crowder, Mo. He is a member of Psi Chi, national honorary fraternity in Psychology, and of Sigma Xi, national honorary scientific fraternity. He has contributed numerous articles to *Psychological Monograph*, *Science*, *The Kansas Teacher*, *Mental Hygiene*, *The Educational Leader*, *Educational Forum*, and *Safety Education*. He is a member of the National Education Association, Kansas State Teachers Association, Kansas Academy of Science, American Psychological Association, Kansas Association of Consulting Psychologists.

Alvin Horace Proctor (Ph. D., University of Wisconsin) came to Kansas State Teachers College at the opening of the summer ses-

sion, June, 1948, as associate professor of History. He is a graduate of Kansas State Teachers College, degree B. S., 1935, and M. S., 1936, with major in History. From 1943 to 1947 he was assistant professor of History, Fort Hays Kansas State College, with leave of absence from 1944 to 1946 during service with rank of lieutenant in the U. S. Navy in the Pacific theater of operations. He was appointed graduate assistant in the Graduate School, University of Wisconsin, where he received the Ph. D. degree, June, 1948. He is a member of Kappa Delta Pi, international honorary society in Education; Phi Alpha Theta, national honorary fraternity in History, also of the National Education Association and the Kansas State Teachers Association.

James Claudius Straley (M. A., University of Wisconsin) came to Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, as assistant professor of Social Science in September, 1927, and was promoted to his present position, associate professor, in July, 1936. He is a graduate of Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, degree A. B., 1911; and of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, M. A., 1912. He served six years as principal of the Crawford County Community High School, Cherokee, and twelve years as superintendent of schools in Kansas and Minnesota. He is a member of Phi Alpha Theta, national honorary fraternity in History, and of the American Sociological Society. He is a member of the National Education Association and the Kansas State Teachers Association.

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